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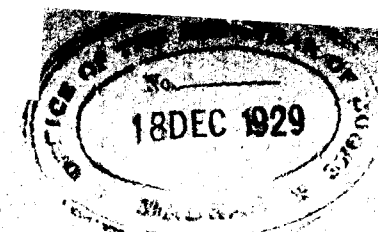
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713

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CONTENTS.

	PAGE		PAGE
UNIVERSITIES' CONFERENCE— H. E. LORD IRWIN'S ADDRESS ...	609	EDUCATION IN LONDON. By Mr. ANANT N. DIXIT, B.A.— <i>The Modern Review</i> , Calcutta, Nov. 1929 ...	641
CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY: SPECIAL CONVOCATION ADDRESS. By the VICE-CHANCELLOR ...	614	THE INDIAN HISTORICAL RECORDS COMMISSION—GWALIOR SESSION— Historical Exhibition, 1929 ...	650
MALABAR AND THE PORTUGUESE —A REVIEW by Mr. P. S. RAMA- KRISHNA AYYAR, M.A., L.T., Professor of History and Politics, Maharaja's College, Ernakulam (Cochin) ...	617	REVIEWS AND NOTICES ...	651
THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION AND EDUCATION- AL BODIES. By Dr. P. P. PILLAI, Director, International Labour Office, New Delhi ...	621	Sex Problems in India, by N. S. Phadke, M.A., with a Foreword by Margaret Sanger, Second Edition; The History of Henry Esmond, Esq., by W. M. Thackeray, abridged and edited by A. C. Mackenzie; Selections from Swift, chosen and edited by W. J. Halliday, M.A.; Outline of English Grammar (Revised Edition) in Five Parts, by J. C. Nesfield, M.A.; Teaching English— Class Exercises and Notes for Teachers, by G. Y. Elton, edited by J. Compton; Rapid Reading Series, by L. Tipping, Readers I, II, III & IV; Everyday Chemistry, by J. R. Partington; Physi- cal Chemistry, by J. B. Firth.	
SANATHANA DHARMA COLLEGE, CAWNPORE. By MADELINE R. HARDING, Cawnpore ...	627	MADRAS UNIVERSITY LIBRARY — LATEST ADDITIONS ...	653
COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS UNDER THE REVISED S. S. L. C. SCHEME. By Mr. A. V. SUBBA RAO, Commercial Instructor, Board High School, Nandalur.	629	EDITORIALS ...	655
LINGUISTICA. By Mr. L. V. RAMA- SWAMI AYYAR, M.A., B.L., Maharaja's College, Ernakulam (Cochin) ...	630	Conference of Indian Universities; The late Maharajah of Coosimbazaar; The Aligarh University.	
THE RURAL SCHOOL-MASTER AND HIS RESPONSIBILITIES. By Mr. B. VENKATESA SASTRI, B.A., B.T., Assistant Master, Govt. High School, Tumkur ...	638		

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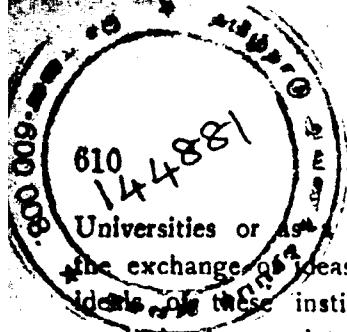
THE WORK OF THE INTER-UNIVERSITY BOARD.

It is a great pleasure to me to join you to-day at the inauguration of your proceedings and to be able to welcome to Delhi such a distinguished body representative of the whole of Indian University life. I know that all of you are busy men, ill able to spare the time demanded of you in attending a Conference like this and it is a cause therefore for all the greater satisfaction that such a large number of delegates should be present. Of the need for a body such as yours, I think there can be no doubt. The institution of the Inter-University Board was the direct outcome of resolutions passed at the first Universities' Conference held at Simla in 1924 and I think that those to whose initiative that Conference was due may rightly congratulate themselves on the

results which have sprung from their endeavours. Since 1916 when Government may be said to have first aimed at the localised residential and unitary type of University, India has made rapid strides. The number of her Universities has increased more than three-fold. Moreover, the course of University reform in other countries and the report of the Calcutta University Commission have had their effect both on the type of new institutions established in India and on the character of reorganisation which some of the older Universities have undergone. Such important developments as these naturally suggested the need for co-ordination and this, I am glad to say, has been met to a great extent by the Inter-University Board.

NEED FOR PERIODICAL REVIEW OF EDUCATIONAL POLICY.

Its record of work since its inception whether in compiling information regarding the courses of study and curricula of Indian



Universities or as a convenient forum for the exchange of ideas regarding the life and ideas of these institutions among those most closely associated with them has been wholly admirable. Indeed, when I consider the results you have achieved, I feel the hesitation natural to one who offers advice to a body of experts on their own subject but, for reasons which I will shortly make plain, I think there are few more important things in these days than Universities and I wish therefore in this perspective and as a layman to make such comments as I may upon University education in the hope that others more competent may be assisted to find a satisfactory solution of the problems which here face educational statesmanship. Let me in parenthesis say that I make no apology for affirming that such problems exist. A country that felt itself to be immune from the necessity for periodic overhaul of its educational policy would either have attained to perfection which is denied to human effort or have unwittingly fallen into that paralysis of an atmosphere of self-satisfaction which spells stagnation. Neither is true of India. India is rapidly growing. Her problem is nothing less than the adaptation without too violent jar or stress of an ancient and organic structure of society to the dynamic forces of evolution that are driving the modern world. New forces are moving, unloosing new energies, kindling the imaginations and hopes of millions of the future citizens of India at their most impressionable age. Can this ardour of youth, this coursing of blood through the young veins of India be utilised and directed to constructive ends, or will it become an explosive force charged with incalculable danger to the future of the land? This question should be written

in flaming characters over the desks of all who guide public opinion or policy and that is why I said just now that I thought there were a few more important things than Universities.

THE TRUE FUNCTION OF A UNIVERSITY.

Let us look back. The first Indian Universities which were founded some 70 years ago on the model of the London University aimed primarily at ascertaining by means of examination the proficiency acquired by candidates in different branches of knowledge. Teaching was left to colleges. In some of these students fell under the influence of teachers nurtured in the tradition of the old British Universities and thus imbibed ideas of conduct which helped to produce not only scholars but men endowed with the light of idealism and with force of character, but the first Indian Universities did not in the earlier stages of their existence concern themselves directly with training and developing the personality of those on whom they conferred the hallmark of scholastic proficiency. Though the legislation of 1904 went some way to recognise the wider functions of a University in the matter of discipline and residence, it was not until 15 years later that as a result of the Calcutta University Commission their scope of activity was definitely conceived as embracing not merely the training of intellect but the formation of character. In the light of this conception some Universities have been reorganised. Some have been created and the experience of the working of the institutions, though it is too short to permit of final judgment, has already given us much material for synthesis and review and this brings me to what is surely the kernel of the whole matter. What do we really expect from, and what is essentially the

function of, a University? If I had to answer in a sentence, I should say "the function of a University is to create and maintain standards." Let me amplify what I mean. I mean principally three things.

THE STANDARD OF LEARNING.

There is first the standard of learning. Learning and research which Universities as the homes of scholarship owe it to themselves to preserve and if learning and research are to have their real value, are to be more to a man than mere graceful accomplishments and decorative adjuncts of his life, they must be human enough to fit into and join up with the various categories of man's activity. I think this is true of all learning. The technical sciences are obviously related to the necessities of our ordinary existence at every turn. History too and philosophy and literature, whether ancient or modern, all have their points of contact with everyday human life and their lessons ring most true when we feel that we can read our own experience in them.

NECESSITY OF A RIGHT STANDARD OF JUDGMENT.

Second, I would assert the necessity of a right standard of judgment. A man's training at a University has definitely failed if he leaves it without such an appreciation of values, or may give him a just sense of proportion, a knowledge of how much for all his store of learning there is yet for him to learn and some instinctive sense of the universe and of the mystery of man's place in it, whatever the channel through which this comes into and takes shape in his mind. It seems to me indispensable to real education and here again in playing his part in the world and in his dealing with other men

whether as politician, administrator, employer in professional or business life, a man is trebly armed who knows intuitively the relative importance of all the numerous elements which every human problem must contain or at least he must have sufficient of the quality, call it imagination or what you will, to appreciate that such element exists and if by fault of training or for any other reason, he lacks this faculty, he is as a man who sees himself in a mirror which shows him his own face magnified and nothing more. His own problems, his own position, his own perspective absorb too much of the picture and hopelessly obscure and distort his view of persons and things beyond himself. Some of you, and it is not irrelevant to my present argument, will remember the reply given by a wise master of a famous Oxford College to a lady who asked him what he thought of God. "Madam," he said, "I have always thought it of more importance what God thinks of me." Nor need we fear that such breadth of mind or judgment as I should desire my University to inculcate would result in a type of man halting in decision or uncertain of opinion that is never likely to spring from foundations of thought and reflection surely laid. Rather perhaps will it breed a wise tolerance and teach a man the secret of winnowing the good from the evil in the strangely mixed amalgam that constitutes the world of men and things with which we have to deal.

STANDARD OF CONDUCT.

And third, the standard of conduct. At a University, a young man is learning to make use of liberty. He has left the discipline of home and school behind him and he is given in greater or less degree a new-found

[Nov. 1929.]

liberty in action and liberty in study. The time has come for him to put to the test the discipline he has learnt and on his response to this demand will largely depend the success or otherwise with which he fills the position to which his education should entitle him.

Three standards, learning, judgment and conduct, I have suggested to you as the things that a University must hold in view together, each playing its part. They will form human character and the vital importance of securing such standards is apparent when we think that on University men must largely fall the burden of leading others in all the various walks of public life. Are then, we must ask ourselves, our Universities fulfilling these requirements? It is vital that they should, for the youth of India to-day will, when they are men, have responsibilities graver than perhaps they realise. The political future of India with all its implications of civil and military obligation will depend largely on the character of the generations now passing through their University courses. On them will largely depend the future quality of the public service. On their capacity will largely turn the future expansion and development of India's agriculture and India's industry and in all these things they will succeed or fail according as they can be assisted by their University training to acquire that poise of body, mind and character which is the indispensable equipment for their task.

WARNING AGAINST LOWERING STANDARD FOR DEGREES.

I have spoken of University education as having for one of its main objects the training of those who are destined to be leaders of the

nation and it is well, I think, to remember that there is a real distinction between the function of a University and of educational institutions of a lower order. No one indeed would suggest that these latter have not their essential part to play. One might as well say that the foundations of a building are inferior to or less important than the top story or to vary the metaphor the simpler cells in a living organism are less necessary to its life than the more delicate and complex. Both types of institutions are essential for any country and complementary to each other, but they are also fundamentally different and a clear recognition of this difference is necessary to secure for each its maximum efficiency. If a University must of necessity be concerned to prepare those it trains for work different in quality from that which falls to the bulk of the population, it follows that a University is bound to exercise selection not indeed on any class grounds but on grounds of ability and capacity to profit by its teaching among those who may apply to be enrolled upon its books. The results of the recently instituted competitive examinations in India force the layman to wonder whether this fact is always borne in mind. The disproportion of success among the various Universities seems to lead inevitably to the inference that some demands are satisfied with unreasonably low standards of proficiency. It may be that the older of things required less exacting tests, that the occupations for which the Universities prepared their students in former days demanded merely a modicum of mechanical qualities, that the excess of the demand over the supply could have had no other result; but that is the past and we have to ask ourselves to-day whether the true ideals of a University

are sufficiently appreciated or whether Universities themselves and parents and students under the influence of the past are not in some danger of demanding and being satisfied with too low a standard for degree. It was after all a thoroughly fallacious syllogism by which a speaker once sought to champion a certain University whose standards were lower than they ought to be. "It is the business of a University," he argued, "to grant degrees. This University grants a great many degrees. Therefore, it is a very good University." But whatever the cause the gravity of the effects of low University standards can hardly be exaggerated. They lower a University's reputation. They debase it from what is its real and only purpose, the maintenance of those standards on which our civilisation depends and which ought to be to civil life exactly what high standard of workmanship is to the craft concerned. Your knowledge of these matters is deeper than mine and I leave it to you to judge whether I am justified in the misgivings which I have attempted to express, nor shall I presume to prescribe any ready-made panacea.

Remedies that profess to be easy are generally ineffective and in seeking your expert aid in diagnosing and curing the malady, I am conscious that my prescriptions are those not of a specialist but of a general practitioner.

HARTOG COMMITTEE'S SUGGESTION.

I have laid, I hope, not undue emphasis on the part that Universities must play in the building up of character. For this I have the high authority of the Calcutta University Commission, of the example of the ancient Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. If it is part of their work is to be done efficiently,

Universities in India must, I fancy, more and more evolve on residential and tutorial lines or if they must retain their affiliating character insist on the provision of adequate facilities for higher teaching in the constituent colleges and for the fostering in their colleges of a healthy and stimulating corporate life among the students. They must, on the one hand, see that their standards of instruction and examination are high enough to ensure that those who attain them are really capable of performing the tasks for which they will be nominally declared proficient and, on the other, insist on maintaining such standards of admission as to exclude those who have neither the capacity nor equipment to profit by University training. I see that in their review of the growth of education in British India, Sir Phillip Hartog and his colleagues have made the suggestion that if Government were no longer to insist on a University degree as passport to service except for higher appointments the pressure on Universities and colleges would probably be relieved. The suggestion along with others in the review is one on which a body such as yours is eminently qualified to give an opinion and you will perhaps give it your consideration.

NEED FOR AVOIDING OVERLAPPING OF ACTIVITIES.

One other objective I would put forward for your consideration, namely, prevention of uneconomical overlapping among a large number of Universities that now exist in India. It would clearly impose a great financial strain on those responsible for the upkeep of these institutions to equip each one of them for the efficient study of all branches of the arts and sciences. It would also be wasting the opportunities for specialisation that the history of the environment of

particular Universities provides. This question seems to need special study at your hands.

My excuse for detaining you so long is your own kindness in asking me to open your Conference this year and the feeling that in practical affairs it is the privilege of the large body of amateurs who constitute the public to appraise the work of the experts. If the experts wish their achievement to be assessed correctly, they must keep the amateur in mind and help him to judge them aright. It is in this spirit that I have addressed you but I have also wished to keep in mind the larger public outside. University reform even if it were begun would be short-lived if public opinion did not realise its value and lend to it its support. As parents and guardians, as employers, as leaders of opinion, it is the members of the public who have to be convinced of the need for reform. In particular, the parents whose natural affection for their children is often apt to lead them to form exaggerated hopes of their capacity have to be educated to a recognition of the importance of discrimination so as to save themselves the expense and themselves and their children the disappointment that comes of giving a University education to those who are naturally unfitted for it. It is at once your privilege and your duty to study the necessity for and the scope of University reform, suggest measures for the consideration of those with whom the duty of taking decisions may rest and to raise and educate public opinion. I wish you every success in the discharge of your heavy and important responsibility.

**CALCUTTA UNIVERSITY :
SPECIAL CONVOCATION
ADDRESS**

By
THE VICE-CHANCELLOR.

IN one way I regret, on your behalf, that this is not the Annual Convocation of the University. You may miss the inspiration of the larger gathering and the fuller ceremonial and the presence of certain distinguished individuals who to-day are absent. But none the less this is a great day in your lives and, just because you are so small a group, you have the attention of the University so concentrated upon you that you cannot fail to become more fully conscious of your importance as individuals. It is thus more than usually possible for you to feel to-day what every graduate of the University ought to feel on such an occasion, that he has reached a point when he can no longer be regarded as merely one of a class but has to begin to make his own career after a manner which differentiates him from all his fellows. His University studies have been a failure unless he is to some extent prepared for this career in which no one else can be his substitute.

You have reached the end of your University life, as far as that is to be spent in India; and in the name of the University I congratulate you on your success and offer you every good wish for the enterprise upon which you are so soon to launch yourselves. Your educational environment is now to be widened so as to include new and varied experiences of foreign lands. Opportunities are opening before you such as are given to few. It is indeed true that travel between the different countries has been much more frequent of recent years. For educational and cultural

purposes the whole world has been becoming linked up, much as Europe was in mediæval times, and India and Greater India in still more distant ages. The World Jamboree of the Boy Scouts—of which we have been hearing so much in the last few weeks, may be taken as a symbol of what this intercourse is in the future expected to be, when these energetic young people have grown to manhood. But will not the influences which are playing upon you in these Western countries be much more determinative, as you remain there, not for weeks, but for years, and at a period when the plastic material of your nature is stiffening towards a permanency of quality and character? And on your return you will exercise even greater influence.

During the terms of your study in Calcutta University, you have been getting ready for your future, and your years of study abroad are to give you still further opportunities of preparation through your receptivity of the influences which will play upon you, and your reaction to these influences. There is not time to attempt to describe these influences in any detail, even if it were desirable to do so. One thing I should like to ask you is that you should not exaggerate minor difficulties in the way of receiving full benefit from your residence abroad. To my mind it is exceedingly ~~bad~~ that Indian youths should frequently, keeping themselves to themselves, refuse to mix with the people with whom they are thrown most directly in contact. Some will allege that there is good reason for this, that they cannot forget estranging controversial matters, and that the reception they get is sometimes cold and restricted. Be the degree of truth in this what it may, I yet venture to suggest that in many cases—perhaps in the majority of cases—the welcome which is in-

tended but not fully expressed, does not have its full effect because of an intelligible, but nevertheless excessive, sensitiveness on the part of the stranger. The normal man does not like to be conspicuous and the new-comer is apt to conclude prematurely that the company in which he finds himself disapproves of him because he is conspicuous. It must be remembered that many of the students at an English University are the products of the English Public School system of education and the effects of this are not easily thrown off. To many of us who belong to countries where a more democratic system prevails, this peculiarly English system seems sometimes to have the defects of its qualities. It makes a young man into a most attractive member of his own group, teaches him how to "play the game" and to care for the interests of the group rather than the individual. But it also seems sometimes to develop within him a perverse shyness and curious incapacity for understanding the point of view of those who do not initially belong to his own group or set; and the ex-Public School boy occasionally seems to be a master in the art, unconscious perhaps, of making outsiders feel that they are outsiders. But I ask you to remember that very frequently it is only seeming, that he is blissfully unconscious of this particular effect of his upbringing, that his welcome is at heart much more cordial than it is in outward expression. Catch-words glibly uttered within a certain set do not mean half what they appear to mean to those who coming from outside are often hurt by them, and I would ask you to remember that students all over the world are proverbially critical, and that often they do not mean the half of what they say in obedience to the current jargon of the group. Still less do they mean the

half of what they do *not* say when they offend the stranger by a devastating silence.

Of course I do not say that all the difficulties in the way of freedom of intercourse between people of different countries are of this superficial character and merely matters of manner, but many of them are, and it is a pity that the door opening towards friendship should be shut at the outset by a fancied rebuff, of which a little humour at the outset and a refusal to take either oneself or other people too seriously, would show the insignificance. Bitterness of spirit is often the outcome of unnecessarily wounded feelings, and many tragedies of alienation have been due to excessive sensitiveness to a slight which a little calm analysis of the situation would have shown to be entirely imaginary.

To meet more serious difficulties, I would appeal to you to carry with you the spirit of courage, and to bank on friendliness amongst those you meet rather than upon unfriendliness. Thus you will find the doors opening to a mutual intercourse which will be of the greatest possible mutual benefit. Remember constantly that you are ambassadors on behalf of India, going forth to remove misconceptions and to win honour for your country. The impression you make upon those with whom you come into direct personal contact will be worth more than reams of book or paper controversy. Ignorance of the true significance of Indian culture you will frequently find to be distressing, and you can do much to remove that ignorance, as in your varied occupations you come into contact with the leaders in the different spheres of academic and public life. You are looking forward to many kinds of work—to preparation in literature, in law, in science and medicine.

One of you at least has the ambition of becoming a modern Portia, and to her and her companion I would venture to say that they have at this present time a special task in removing misconceptions about the womanhood of this land, their aims and aspirations.

All of you will be preparing for your return. You can do this best by trying to study all sides of the many problems you will have to face in the future. You will come in contact with many different forms of opinion, conservative and progressive, insular and cosmopolitan,—and in general with an attitude which is growingly favourable to Indian aspirations. Take as an example of a point on which many different views are possible the opinions held upon the question of compulsory military service. You will find that many are cordially approving of the idea of officers' training corps (often virtually compulsory in the schools at least) in the schools and colleges of Britain. But on the other hand you will find a growing numerous body of people who look upon any compulsory encouragement of militarism in Britain and elsewhere as an encroachment upon the liberty of the individual and as a mortgaging of the future of the world in favour of obsolescent ideas, *not* unmindful all the while of the necessity of showing their sincerity by advocating the diminution of military expenditure all over the world. So by synthesising your experiences you will be able to look at this and many other questions from the point of view *not* of India alone but from that of universal opinion as well. Another question which you will find frequently discussed is that of the League of Nations, and you will find that whatever may be the defects of present organisation, it is in the ideas behind this League that for the more

progressive minds the hope of the world seems to lie.

You will come back to be men and women of great influence in your own country. You can best of all prepare yourselves for this return by remembering, in the words of F. H. Bradley, that "the best communities are those which have the best men for their members, and the best men are the members of the best communities. The two problems of the best men and the best State are two sides, two distinguishable aspects of the one problem." To the solution of this problem you can contribute, as you gather your experience wisely and well, and return ready to apply that experience to the needs and aspirations of your own land. The good wishes of your University go with you, both for the time of your remaining abroad and for the time of your returning.

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XXXV—79

MALABAR AND THE PORTUGUESE.*

A REVIEW

By

Mr. P. S. RAMAKRISHNA AYYAR, M.A., L.T.,
Professor of History and Politics,
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THE above is an interesting and elaborate history of the relations of the Portuguese with Malabar (including Cochin and Travancore) from 1500 to 1663 A.D. Although there are many books extant, dealing with the history of the Portuguese in the East, this is the first attempt so far made, to present a connected history of their dealings in Kerala—the romantic land that has been the lure of Western nations from the days of Solomon. A native of Kerala, Mr. Pannikkar has rendered a patriotic service to the land of his birth, by this valuable contribution to Malabar history.

All available sources of information—published and unpublished—have been laid under contribution by the author. A detailed list of the works consulted by him is given in the Introduction. Judging from it, a very large mass of material has been utilised by the author in the preparation of the book. The valuable works in the India Office such as the *Corpo Chronologico*, *Gavetas Antigas*, *Noticia Da India* and *Cartas of Albuquerque*, the records in the archives of Portugal, Portuguese histories, specially those by Barroes and Corres, the works of such writers as Andrada, Barbosa, Da Orta Ficalho, Sousa Faria, Zeinud-din, modern publications like those of Whiteaway and Danvers, and what is noteworthy, the *Granthavaris* of Malabar

* By K. M. Pannikkar, B.A. (Oxon.), with a Foreword by Sir Richard Carnac Temple. (D. S. Tara-porevala, Sons & Co., Bombay). Price Rs. 6.

failure in India, the author at the very outset, does well to explode the myth of a Portuguese Empire in India. "It should, first, be kept in mind that the Portuguese had at no time any Empire in India.....Their supremacy was entirely on the sea and their fall was also, therefore, a matter of naval power." They only held a few fortresses and factories on the coast which, by no stretch of imagination, could be magnified into an empire.

The causes of Portuguese failure are cogently set forth by the author. So far as administration was concerned, they never developed an efficient system. They showed themselves corrupt, inefficient, unfit for the tasks of government. The administration was never properly solvent. The Governors were always in lack of funds. The coinage was debased. The officers were not regularly paid. They were, however, allowed to carry on private trade to any extent which, while enriching themselves, considerably affected the profits of the king. The officers had also the right of corresponding directly with the king and high officials in Portugal and of bringing accusations against their superior officers. In these circumstances, anything like discipline, subordination, loyalty and *esprit de corps* on the part of officials was out of the question. There was no sense of loyalty among the officials, even as against enemies. Nepotism was rampant. "There was no honesty in the public services, no discipline in the army, no loyalty to each other." In addition, their crafty diplomacy and unscrupulousness, their inhumanity and religious bigotry, their piratical depredations at sea and desecration and loot of temples on land—all this contributed, in no small measure, to provoke the bitter hatred and hostility of the princes and peoples of India.

For these and other reasons, it was impossible for them to develop a land-power in the hinter-land of India. As for their supremacy at sea, it vanished with the arrival of the Dutch and the English in Indian waters.

The concluding chapter is devoted to a consideration of the results of Portuguese establishment in India. Politically, it checked the growth of Malabar into a single confederacy under the Zamorin. It also checked the growth of the Rajas since it was the policy of the Portuguese to deal directly with, and encourage, minor chiefs and princes and even play them off against their overlords. Economically, Malabar benefited by the introduction by the Portuguese of new products such as the Kishu tree and tobacco cultivation. Improvements were made in the cultivation of the coconut tree and the coir industry was developed. A world market was created for Malabar products such as cardamom and pepper. As a result of increased trade, increased prosperity followed, as evidenced by the growth of towns, the construction of fashionable houses, the growth of luxury, etc. Their influence in the matter of education and culture was also not slight.

Although it might not come strictly within the province of the book, we believe that a chapter on the social life, culture and conditions in Malabar during the period would have been highly welcome and added considerably to the value and usefulness of the publication.

The book is written in an attractive style often glowing with animation and even occasionally rising to eloquence. Its printing and get-up are superb and reflect considerable credit on the publishers. We heartily commend the book to all students of Malabar, nay, of Indian History.

THE INTERNATIONAL LABOUR ORGANISATION AND EDUCATIONAL BODIES

By

DR. P. P. PILLAI.

NO one has yet attempted to tell the story of how the various countries of the world are attempting to tackle the problem of conveying to their youth in schools and colleges an idea of the great international work for peace and solidarity which is being carried on at Geneva. In an age of fierce publicity, when contending slogans vie with each other in focussing public opinion upon themselves, and when enormous sums of money are being freely expended in order to draw the attention of the masses to one particular thing or another, it may well be feared that the quiet constructive work of Geneva may not be assessed at its just value if efforts are not made to broadcast the principles which animate the League of Nations Organisations and the solid measure of achievement which they are already able to show. Passing from the turmoil and confusion of the middle ages into an era of nationalism, the various countries of the world had more or less come to assume as part of their political philosophy that their own welfare and prosperity were dependent on securing for themselves a position of vantage over others, first, by ensuring a sort of political and economic self-sufficingness, and secondly, by the spread of their economic and diplomatic influence over other countries less fortunately situated. The Great War of 1914—1919 was the result of this exaggerated policy of nationalism and economic imperialism. Having now realised to what follies and perils such a policy is calculated to lead humanity, civilized mankind is now

making a concentrated effort not only to eliminate economic and political rivalry, but also to create a feeling of amity and friendship between the various nations. One of the most important methods of the new programme of international co-operation is to train up the younger generation of our times so as to cultivate in them, in place of the narrow patriotism of the pre-war days, a larger loyalty, and an incentive for an increasing degree of international co-operation. The onward march of science has already shown us that the world is not quite so vast as one imagined it was some years ago. Whereas the merchant-man of Clive's days took more than three months to reach India, to-day the same journey is accomplished in the course of less than a week on account of the developments in aviation. Again, whereas Columbus' *Santa Maria* took 93 days to cross the Atlantic, to-day the great Trans-Atlantic boats are able to do the same distance in about 4½ days; and as if to further emphasise the rate at which the world is shrinking in size and distances are being annihilated, Lindburgh's *Spirit of St. Louis* flashed across the Atlantic in 33 hours. Not only transport, but communications also have served to put a constricting girdle round the globe, and a correspondent at Geneva writes to me that an officer posted in the out-of-the-way village of Risalpur in the North-West Frontier Province has been a regular listener-in to the messages broadcast from the League's Geneva Office.

The developments that have taken place in the material world have had their repercussions in the world of ideas as well; and it is no wonder that people situated at great distances from each other feel drawn nearer to each other by feelings of friendly neigh-

bourliness. This new community of ideas and similarity of sentiments have gradually led to a desire for co-operation between the various peoples of the world, and following upon a series of piece-meal attempts at international government, we have to-day the largest experiment ever conceived on those lines—the experiment, namely, of the League of Nations Organisations.

To draw up an elaborate programme for international co-operation is perhaps not a very difficult job. The real difficulty consists in assuring their efficiency and continued operation. Institutions such as the League of Nations and the International Labour Office cannot endure and bring forth the desired results unless we take care at the same time to create favourable environments and to adopt political methods suited to their particular character and purpose. In the second place, we must also realise that the continued success of this great experiment depends upon the character and temper of the men who will have to work them, once their founders have passed away. It is upon the younger generation, therefore, that the responsibility devolves for perfecting the instrument for international peace and solidarity which will be left to them as a heritage by their elders. They have, in order to be fully equipped for this high duty, to be educated in the League of Nations way. What is necessary is not so much that they should set question papers on the constitution or the achievements of the League of Nations Organisations as that they should be taught to approach the problems of the modern world with a new mentality.

There can be no doubt that the movement which aims at creating in the minds of growing boys and girls that spaciousness

of outlook and breadth of sympathy which make of history a unit and of the world a neighbourhood has been one of the most helpful and constructive of all post-war movements. True to its mission of generating an atmosphere of peace and goodwill, the League has itself taken the initiative in this movement. At many sessions of its assembly have resolutions been passed recommending to the various governments the necessity for introducing as a part of the curricula in the national systems of education an account of the working and objects of the League Organisations. It is very much to be feared that not much tangible results have accrued from these resolutions, which appear to have lost their way in the maze and tangle of administrative offices. A recent pamphlet of the League of Nations Union entitled "The League in the Schools of the World" has made an attempt to give us a bird's-eye view of the international situation as regards the measures taken for interesting young students in the work of Geneva. But when, after reading the full and praiseworthy accounts given of the efforts in this direction now being made in various European and extra-European countries, one turns to the situation in India, one is ashamed to note that India is dismissed with a couple of sentences which say that an Indian has written a text-book in English on the League, and that the All-India Federation of Teachers' Association has consented to disseminate League information amongst its members through its journal. This meagre statement may, however, be amplified in the light of the reply elicited by a member of the Madras Legislative Council from the Government of that province. The Honourable Dr. P. Subbarayan,

who answered the question on behalf of the Government, presented the following summary of the action taken in the Madras Presidency to familiarize students with the work and objects of the League institutions:—

"In 1923 the Director of Public Instruction brought to the notice of subordinate officers and managers of schools the resolution in question adopted in September 1923 by the Fourth Assembly of the League of Nations, and subsequently drew their attention to the existence of standard works on the League and of the publication entitled "The Survey of the League of Nations from January 1920 to June 1925." Copies of a pamphlet entitled "League of Nations" put together by Mr. Mackenzie (Director of Public Instruction, United Provinces) were distributed among District Educational Officers, Inspectresses of Schools and Government Secondary and Training Schools. A book entitled "League of Nations Manual" published by Messrs. Macmillan & Co. has been prescribed for the Training School-Leaving Certificate Examination. A special Cinema Exhibition was given at the Elphinstone Picture Palace in December 1925 for the benefit of High School students in the City, when Professor F. S. Marvin exhibited his "League of Nations" film and lectured on the subject. In 1927 six lectures on the League were delivered by Mr. G. D. Watkins of the Madras Christian College under the auspices of the University of Madras.

"Miss Nallamuthu Ammal, Lecturer, Lady Willingdon Training College, Madras, who had been granted a scholarship for post-graduate study in the United Kingdom, was granted facilities by Government to visit Geneva before her return to India during the

annual session of the Assembly of the League of Nations held in 1928, with a view to enabling her to obtain a knowledge of the organisation and activities of the League.

"In November 1927, the recommendations of the sub-committee of experts appointed by the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation was communicated to the Director of Public Instruction and the Madras and Andhra Universities for further action."

All this is a poor enough response, in all conscience, to the resolution passed by the League Assembly. That this should be so seems to be rather curious when it is remembered that international movements of a different type, such for example as the Youth Movement or the Boy-Scouts Movement, have had a remarkable history of progress in this country and have contributed their share to the shaping of Indian character.

The trouble, of course, is that India is very far away from Geneva and that the vista of Indian educational authorities does not often extend beyond the confines of this country. If by any chance the teaching profession of this country takes an interest in any other country at all, that country is Great Britain. The importance thus attached to India and Great Britain is strangely out of perspective with the importance of other countries, and both the teacher and the student in India have yet to learn that the world consists of many other countries as well. The school-master, particularly, by his very position and by the limitations of his environments, may sometimes be deprived of the opportunity of sharing in the larger intellectual life of the world and thus extending his mental horizon,

with consequences which are often reflected in the mentality of his students. Nevertheless, one of the most encouraging signs of the present day has been the fact that large numbers of school-masters are taking a continuous and intelligent interest in the forces which make for the new polity, and are even participating actively in the efforts to guide and control those forces.

It will be readily admitted that one of the most beneficial ways in which educationists may collaborate in furthering the objects of Geneva is by correlating their academic knowledge with the economic realities around them and by directing the minds of the new generation to take a serious interest in the problem of social reconstruction. The protean forms which this problem assumes and the difficulty in finding an adequate solution for them act as a direct challenge to the intellectual classes, and it is undeniable that they could be met satisfactorily only by the application of the best brains of the world to industrial problems. It would be idle to expect final and permanent formulae which will act as a solvent to the industrial troubles of modern society, since the nature of these problems varies with varying conditions and standards of life. But, for all that, it has been possible to formulate the fundamental principles which should govern all attempts at economic and social reconstruction. Under the Covenant of the League of Nations the signatories have pledged themselves to endeavour to secure and maintain fair and humane conditions of labour in their own countries, and in all countries to which their commercial and industrial relations extend. They took this pledge because they recognised that the establishment of universal peace would be possible only if it were

based on social justice. Part XIII of the Peace Treaty is, in effect, an elaborate commentary on this Article of the Covenant; in it are enshrined the new ideals of social justice which ought to animate humanity in its efforts to bring about social harmony and industrial peace. The International Labour Office has been appointed by the world the custodian of its social conscience; and educationalists will not be travelling out of their way in their endeavours to strengthen its authority and extend the range of its moral influence.

Judging by present tendencies, the Universities appear to be becoming increasingly conscious of the part they have to play in the economic and social instruction of the people. They are recognizing more and more that they have a duty to train the future leaders of industry, and to open their doors to workers in search of general culture. Hence the growing attention they are giving to the work of the International Labour Organisation an attention which manifests itself in numerous ways. The number of University libraries registered as subscribers to the International Labour Office's publications is increasing from year to year. A large number of University Professors and students come to study at the office's headquarters at Geneva. Its help has been requested by the Post-Graduate Institute of International Studies, by the Geneva School of International Studies, by the International Bureau of Education for its summer school for teachers and by the other summer schools of the University of Geneva, the International Federation of League of Nations Societies, and so on. The great International Students' Associations have also given expression to their interest in the office at

their annual congresses—the annual meeting of the Council of the International Confederation of Students (Paris, 11–24, August 1928), the annual Conference of the International University Federation for the League of Nations (Geneva, 25–29, August 1928), and the annual Conference of the International Student Service (Chartres, 5–12, August 1929).

The Students' Associations are interested in the office not only because they are in sympathy with its ideas, but also because of what it can do for them from the practical point of view. Life is very difficult for professional workers at the present time, and several Students' Associations have asked for help in finding a solution for the problem of unemployment among them. It is perhaps not yet widely known in India that India occupies an important place in the I. L. O.'s scheme of enquiry into the cause and remedies of unemployment amongst the intellectual classes.

In order to show even more vividly the parallelism of the main problems which face both the I. L. O. and the new generation of students, a reference may be made to the work transacted at two Conferences which have been organised by the International Student Service during the last few months—the first, "an International Training School for Student Self-Help", at Dresden from the 2nd to 10th July 1929, and the second, an annual Congress, from the 13th July to the 7th August 1929 at Krems, near Vienna.

Dresden was chosen for the former meeting partly because it is the seat of the "International Institute for Student Self-Help and Co-operative Organisations", which was started in 1927 as a department of the International

Student Service, and is concerned with the study and promotion of student self-help and co-operative work in all parts of the world as a basis for the betterment of the material condition of students, the development of the "working student" idea, and the enabling of working class people to obtain a University education.

The main questions for discussion were student co-operative organisations, student houses, financial aid, the "working student", unemployment among intellectual workers, the financing of student self-help enterprises, etc. Of all these subjects the problem of the "working student" and the unemployment of intellectuals and the means of overcoming it, such as vocational guidance, etc., were most carefully studied by the delegates. In the discussion on the latter subject, reference was made to the enquiry undertaken by the International Labour Office into the situation of unemployed intellectual workers. The Conference passed a resolution thanking the International Labour Office for this undertaking, and asking the delegates present to support, in every possible way, the efforts of the International Labour Office.

At the Annual Conference at Krems, the programme of the International Student Service for 1930 was worked out. Here again the discussions on 'student and worker' relationships took a prominent place in the work of the Conference. It was suggested that there should be held, in the near future, a Special Conference between students and workers, and that, in the meanwhile, an effort should be made to encourage discussion between groups of students who differ in their attitude to the social question, and to find opportunities for bringing such

different groups into contact with industrial conditions and with both workers and employers. The Conference also decided to give material aid to students, and to promote self-help in countries where, at present, there is very great material need in University circles, such as China, India, Bulgaria, South Wales and, to a certain extent, amongst native students in South Africa.

It has already been remarked in the course of this article that the League Organisations including both the League of Nations and the International Labour Office follow with close attention the efforts which are being made by the States Members and by educational authorities to provide instruction concerning them. The Assembly of the

League recommended that consideration should be given to the possibility of issuing periodically compendious notes on the work of the Office specially prepared for the teaching profession and of forwarding them regularly to the leading educational reviews and journals. Pedagogical reviews, of course, constitute a highly specialised form of publication; nevertheless, an attempt has been made, not without success, to carry out the Assembly's recommendation. It is hoped in this way to reach the educational authorities and the teaching profession in some fifty countries, and so ensure that the children in the schools, as they grow up, will acquire some idea of the work which is being accomplished at Geneva.

Approved as a Text-Book suitable for School use,

vide Fort St. George Gazette, Part I-B, p. 547, dated 1-11-1927.

COMMERCIAL ARITHMETIC

FOR SECONDARY AND COMMERCIAL SCHOOLS

Prepared in accordance with the S. S. L. C. Syllabus

By T. V. SUBRAMANIA AIYAR,

Commercial Instructor, Govt. Muhammedan College, Madras; Author of Commercial Correspondance, Book-keeping for Beginners, Graduated Exercises in Typewriting, etc.

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SRINIVASA VARADACHARI & CO., MOUNT ROAD, MADRAS.

SANATANA DHARMA COLLEGE. CAWNPORE.

By

Mrs. MADELINE R. HARDING, Cawnpore.

"I WANT every one in the Province, from the richest to the poorest, to feel that if he will give every rupee that he can spare for an educational institution, that rupee given to education is as much an endowment of charity as the formation of a charitable trust. Over every gate of every city, over the portal of every Council Chamber or place where men resort for public work should be inscribed the great imperative—'Educate'."

These words were spoken by Sir Harcourt Butler at the ceremony of laying the Foundation Stone of the Sanatana Dharma College in 1920. And those who have had the privilege of looking over this College, its hostel, its beautiful grounds, and of seeing the many activities throbbing with life and energy, connected with it, must feel more than convinced of the truth of these words; for first and foremost it is education of which India stands in need.

When visiting some schools and colleges in India one has been greatly struck with the atmosphere of harmony which prevails in institutions where religion, suited to the inner needs of the students, is the basis; where without the introduction of foreign elements they are free to express their own inner being along their own national lines—the only way in which a great nation with great national ideals, and an ancient civilisation can progress, and in the end prosper.

The aim of the Sanatana Dharma College is "to bring up the Hindu students of the College in the ancient and noble traditions of

their faith and to develop in them love and enthusiasm for their own religion and culture." The reality of this ideal is the first thing which strikes one on visiting the beautiful college of which Mr. P. Seshadri is Principal.

When more than three hundred young men stood for prayer, and songs of praise were chanted in Sanskrit with its own peculiar beauty and pathos, a spiritual atmosphere was created which carried one away; it was difficult to come back to material surroundings. One also fully realised the truth of Rabindranath Tagore's words, when comparing Indian music with Western, he said, "I am convinced that our music and theirs abide in altogether different apartments and do not gain entry to the heart by the self-same door..... that our melodies transcend barriers of everyday life." This was a fit setting for a lecture which followed on Vivekananda, again a subject which appealed to the students and they seemed easily to identify themselves with the ideals for which that great soul so nobly stood.

The College building in Hindu style is very beautiful, and its situation is unique, standing on a cliff overlooking the sacred Ganges. Could any position appeal more to the Hindu youth whose mind and heart are centred in his own country undenationalised by Western methods?

The beautifully ordered hostel also commands a view of the river. Going over this with its numerous cubicals, so orderly, and many artistically arranged according to the mentality of the occupier, one could not help being struck with the spirit of comradeship existing between Principal, masters and students yet a comradeship free from the

least suspicion of over-familiarity, giving one the idea of one big family, bound together by ties of affection. Also the enthusiasm of the Principal and masters in their cause, seemed to radiate and inspire the students, as earnestness of purpose never fails to do.

The College is affiliated up to the Bachelor of Commerce degree and for B.A. and M.A. in Arts. The results at the various examinations have been usually gratifying and many holding diplomas in Commerce have obtained appointments in business-houses, Banks, Government departments, and in the teaching profession. But in this direction much more could be done by employers, as an Employment Bureau is part of the organisation of the college, and a register of ex-students wanting positions is kept. This is an important period in the life of a student, and to be able to pass direct from his educational life to start in some career without a long break of disappointment and struggle, means a great deal to all young men.

The activities connected with the college are too numerous to mention at any length.

There is the College Union organised on Parliamentary lines. Sports take a prominent place in the college. There is a Library containing several thousand books.

The Boating and Swimming Club is a special feature of the college and in this, as in all the other branches of sports, the students of this college have secured the greatest number, as well as almost all the first prizes, when competitive opportunities have occurred.

This college should make a very special appeal to those truly interested in education, not only that it may obtain all the support it needs, but as a very special object lesson in what can be achieved in education in India where the highest national ideals are set before the students, the attainment of which is based on their own culture and religion.

TATTVA-TRAYA

OR

APHORISMS ON THE THREE VERITIES, SOUL, MATTER and GOD,

By SRI PILLAI LOKACHARYA

TRANSLATED BY

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COMMERCIAL SUBJECTS UNDER THE REVISED S.S.L.C. SCHEME.

By

Mr. A. V. SUBBA RAO,

Commercial Instructor.

Board High School, Nandalur.

THE S.S.L.C. revised scheme has under Group C, the following commercial subjects including other subjects:—(1) Shorthand, (2) Type-writing, (3) Book-keeping and (4) Commercial Correspondence. In almost all the Board and Municipal High Schools, these subjects are taught as optionals under "Group C." In these days of specialization, these subjects are attracting many students and the authorities have given prominence to these subjects in the revised S.S.L.C. Scheme. The students that take up these subjects are in no way less than the pupils that get passports to prosecute their studies through the eligibility list.

The Andhra University has introduced some commercial subjects into the University course but not the Madras University. On many occasions in public platforms such as in the Educational Conferences, in the Teachers' Guilds and in the Press, the above point was raised and sufficiently discussed that the commercial subjects may also be introduced in the University course and also the commercial students may be given eligibility, but the "Almighty" has not yet blessed these poor students. How long must this farce of injustice be continued? Why can't the Madras University also copy the example of the Andhra University by introducing the above commercial subjects in the university course.

In the revised scheme, a boy getting 50 per cent. in all the subjects under "Group A" and cent per cent. marks in any commercial

subject such as Typewriting, Shorthand or Book-keeping is not considered fit to enter in the public service or in the College course. Will the authorities point out the sin of the boy? I think the particular student has not studied the "War of Independence," or the "Battle of Plassey" or the "Specific Gravity" or A^2-B^2 . How are these facts helpful to a boy who takes up office routine or secretarial work? I think that God alone must solve this question.

In these days of Banking and Trade, a commercial student has a fair knowledge of Typewriting, Shorthand and Double Entry Book-keeping, etc., relating to clerical work. Most of the officers are now-a-days wanting clerks with a knowledge of Typewriting and Shorthand and they have admitted that the commercial students are better up in office routine and other work entrusted to them than the students who secure passports through the eligibility list. I know, as a matter of fact, the Inspecting Officers and the Heads of Managements while inspecting the commercial classes have appreciated the usefulness of these subjects and sometimes expressed surprise why the authorities have closed the doors of the University for these poor commercial students.

With regard to the University course, an S.S.L.C. pupil with History and Telugu may take up Botany and Chemistry or an S.S.L.C. student with Mathematics and Physics may take up Botany and Chemistry in the University class. Thus the students will choose these special subjects according to their special aptitude. When such is the fact, why not the poor commercial students also be allowed the privilege of the University course?

[Nov. 1929.]

LINGUISTICA.*

By

Mr. L. V. RAMASWAMI AIYAR, M.A., B.L.,
Maharaja's College, Ernakulam (Cochin).

What will be the end if the commercial students are not taken up in Government service or in the University class after their S.S.L.C. course is over? It is universally acknowledged that technical and commercial education is very essential for nation-building. If this farce is continued for some more years, I think, the commercial group opened in many of the High Schools have to be abolished entirely. It is a fact to admit that our Madras Presidency is already backward in the progress of commercial and technical education. The goodness that has earned already in the previous years will be wiped off, if these commercial students are unjustly denied eligibility to College course and Government service. Then the schools that work with these subjects successfully all these years continuously must be obliged to change the grouping of the optional subjects in order to have possible combination so as to fit the student to enter the University course or Government service. Such groupings may sometimes spoil the interest and aim of commercial and technical education.

The commercial students have waited all these years patiently, thinking that the Revised S.S.L.C. Scheme will be favourable to them but God has not yet blessed these poor students! It is already high time for the authorities to give prompt attention and due recognition to these commercial subjects in public service and College course. *Can anybody point out whether a student can secure eligibility in the revised scheme if he takes up Typewriting or Shorthand or Book-keeping under Group C?*

I leave it in the end that both the members in the Syndicate and Academic Council may agitate and move the above facts in future meetings and see that these commercial subjects are introduced in the University course and eligible for public service and also issue early orders to all the Headmasters in the Presidency before the next school year so that the present students of IV Form may take up any single commercial subject when they enter V Form class by rightly thinking that they will secure passports through the eligibility list to the University course or in the alternative they may be eligible for public service.

1. Prof. Otto Jespersen is the acknowledged chief of a school of linguists in the West, who do not fight shy of general problems of language even while they busy themselves with special fields of research. Prof. Jespersen's works on Comparative Phonetics and the History of English Grammar have established his reputation as a *Fachgelehrter*; the present work, along with his *Philosophy of Grammar*, is an attempt to synthesise his views on the general problems of language. What is the origin of language? Does the development of language, through the course of centuries, show progress or deterioration? What are the social, geographical and racial factors that determine its development? Is it possible to devise an international language which will facilitate human intercourse. In the view of Jespersen, the discussion of these and other problems, so often scrupulously avoided by

* (1) *Die Sprache, ihre Natur, Entwicklung und Entstehung*—von Dr. Otto Jespersen (German translation revised by the author)—Carl Winters Universitäts—buchhandlung, Heidelberg (1925).

(2) *Die Entwicklung des k—russisch in den indogermanischen Sprachen*—von F. Ewold—Carl Winter, Heidelberg.

(3) *Les Maîtres de la Philologie Védique*—par Louis Renou—Paul Gauthier, Paris (1928).

(4) *La Numeration Végétale dans l'Inde*—par J. Przyluski (Extrait).

(5) *Französische Synonymik* (for students and teachers)—Band I—von Walter Gottschalk—Carl Winter, Heidelberg.

Nov. 1929.]

LINGUISTICA.

631

some modern linguists, is absolutely indispensable for that "ultimate unification of knowledge of which Herbert Spencer speaks." Jespersen thinks that the avoidance of these questions has produced a certain futility (unfruchtbarkeit) in modern linguistics, however much one may acknowledge the value of individual researches in the various special fields. One should not miss the wood for the trees; and it is the duty of researchers, as they go on exploring the depths with microscopic precision, not to neglect to apply the knowledge thus gained to a kind of synthetic envisaging of the general problems also.

The aversion to the discussion of these generalities was engendered among latter-day students, by the desperate and often misguided efforts of older scholars to solve these questions summarily through *à priori* argumentation; but we have to remember that while these groped in the dark, we possess to-day a wealth of linguistic material which would enable us to tackle these general problems with greater prospects of advancement. Prof. Jespersen, therefore, in the work under review, sets himself the task of arguing out his views on some of these general problems. He has marshalled much invaluable material, discussed it with masterly precision, and reasoned out his conclusions many of which would compel conviction. Prof. Jespersen's treatment everywhere combines the thoroughness of the German *gelehrter* with the lucidity of the Gallic *savant*. A few of his theories, however, might not be unreservedly accepted by all. His opinion, for instance, that the origin of language is traceable to "*halb musikalischen Ausdrücken für Einzelwesen und*

Einzelereignisse,"* may be regarded as a little too drastic to be justified by what little we know of the beginnings of language. Similarly, his view about formative suffixes and flexional endings as having been originally meaningless in themselves but later having acquired particular shades of significance from the words with which they were constantly associated, may be open to question, in the generalised manner in which it is expressed. Controversial as a few conclusions like these may be, the stages of argumentation along which the theories are built up by this master of Linguistics compel admiration and respect, and furnish indispensable guidance to all those who might occupy themselves with similar problems, especially with reference to other language-systems than Indo-European with which alone Prof. Jespersen appears to be primarily concerned.

All through the four parts into which the book is divided (*History of Linguistics, Child-Language, Native Changes and Foreign Influence* and *The Origin and Progress of Language*), old theories are described and criticised or modified, and new view-points are adumbrated and argued out. Prof. Jespersen is an experienced controversialist, who has crossed swords with compeers worthy of his steel; and in this work he does not mince words in criticising what he regards as

* The substance of Prof. Jespersen's conclusions on this point is that emotions rather than reason should have given rise to human speech. One might, however, hold the view that, as emotions are instinctive and shared by man with the lesser order of creation and as the possession of reason distinguishes man from beast, the element of reason should have played a more important part than emotions in the growth of the beginnings of human speech.

the weaknesses of certain theories and methods of inquiry. The work has thus a two-fold value: it gives a clear and analytical survey of past researches on the many problems discussed, and at the same time argues out the value of new and original perspectives.

Part I deals with the condition of linguistic speculation before 1800, and the progress made since then by the new scientific spirit which introduced the conception of the evolutionary character of language. The merits and defects of earlier scholars like Rask, Grimm, Bopp, Schleicher, Curtius and Whitney are critically assessed; and the effect of the discoveries of the Law of Verner, the Theory of Palatalisation and of Ablaut on the outlook of the *Jung grammatikers* of the latter half of the last century is indicated.

Part II gives a succinct account of the main features of the language of the child, and also attempts to adjudge the two conflicting views about the influence of the child on the development of language.

The two directions (i. effect of *substrat* and ii. borrowing of words) along which foreign influence may make itself felt on the development of language, are referred to in the first section of Part III. The part played by the *substrat* is discussed with some elaboration for enforcing the point that too much has been attributed to the influence of this factor in the development of linguistic features. Among the many instances discussed is that of the cerebral (or, as Jespersen calls them, *cacuminal*) sounds *t̥, d̥, l̥, n̥* of Indo-Aryan which, in the learned Danish scholar's opinion, need not be ascribed (as has been done by Grierson and others) to the influence of a Dravidian *substrat*, because, under the

influence of *r*, similar sounds have developed in Swedish, East Norwegian, etc.

Some space is devoted in the same section to the discussion of *Mixed Languages*, *Women's Dialect* and the question of the loans of grammatical features.

The second section of Part III of the book treats about the reasons for native changes in languages, which are classified as physiological and geographical. In this connection, we may point out that the author's very interesting account of the causes making for varying *tempos* of speech-development in different periods would be full of interest to the student of Dravidian who might apply the principles enunciated here to the consideration of what may be described as the comparative "conservatism" of Dravidian. The last Part (IV) of the work is full of instruction and suggestion to students of other language-systems than Indo-European, dealing as it does with such varied general topics as etymological research, linguistic progress, origin of grammatical elements, the theory of flexional endings, the relation between sound and meaning, and the origin of language.

So far as etymological studies are concerned, Prof. Jespersen points out that some words like English *fit, put, pull, fun*, etc., and common European *baron, barock, roboko, ink*, etc., have hitherto resisted all attempts at satisfactory analysis, and that there are numerous other instances which are of doubtful etymological identity; incidentally, he emphasises the need for extreme caution in all etymological discussions where, as he rightly points out, the temptation to yield to fancy and to personal idiosyncrasies is strongest among scholars.

The vexed topic of *progress or deterioration* in language is discussed with reference to purely linguistic criteria, and after an exhaustive application of the relevant tests, the conclusion is reached that we could speak of "Progress in IE speech-history" for seven well defined reasons. (page 347).

The question of the theory of roots is next taken up along with the discussion of the origin of grammatical elements. The older view that languages should have been originally *isolating* constituted of roots only, and that afterwards some of the speeches like IE passed through the stage of *agglutination* and thence to a higher inflectional stage, is subjected to a close examination; the so-called testimony of Chinese to the theory of a primitive one-syllabled root-stage for languages is rejected; but the author accepts the value of the conventional practice of distinguishing certain bases as roots or radicals in order to denote what is common to a number of cognate forms. The relationship of sound and meaning claims 17 pages, and is fascinatingly described. Much new material is incorporated in this section:—the connection between high tones and clearness and conversely between deep tones and dimness; the association of the short vowel *i* with something *small, weak, or unimportant* (cf. the Aryan feminine suffix *-i*), and the influence of emotion or emphasis on particular sounds or syllables (e.g., the existence in Danish of *pp, tt, kk*, by the side of *b, d* and *g*; cf. also the preservation of the surd plosive for the causatives of certain verb-forms with final plosives.)

As for the origin of language, the older theories (*bow-vow, puh-puh, ding-dong, yo-he-ho*) are found unsatisfactory by Jespersen; he tries on the basis of a consideration of (i) the

child's language, (ii) the speeches of primitive races and (iii) general speech-history,—to outline a theory of his own: that the source-origin of speech lies not in the prosaic aspects of everyday life, but in the poetic and emotional manifestation of certain feelings, particularly love.

An enormous wealth of observations, discussions and theories lies contained in this work. The great Danish linguist's masterly powers of analysis and synthesis are conspicuous everywhere in the treatment of the topics. Controversial as some of the theories propounded may be, they are all built up on a scientific basis, and as such entitled to respectful consideration. No student of linguistics will fail to acknowledge with gratitude that Prof. Jespersen's work is at once a store-house of information, a model of linguistic argumentation and a stimulating treatise on the general problems of Language.

II. Ewald's short paper on the development of the *k*-suffix in IGC is a very instructive little thesis,—written under the inspiration and encouragement of Prof. Hirt,—on the part played by the suffix-particle *-k* in IGC word-formation. The attempt is to distinguish and trace the growth of the use of *-k* from the earliest stages of IGC known to us.

Through a few preliminary observations the author, while approving of Brugmann's view of the term "root" as a convenient description of common features of a number of etymologically connected forms, defends his use of the word "suffix" in this essay as against Brugmann's preference of the term "formative". He then proceeds to describe and trace the function of *-k* along what he considers to be the stages through which it

[Nov. 1929.]

came to be employed in a variety of contexts :—

(1) Deictic use, e.g., Greek (ε) *keinos*, Lat. *cedō* (< *ke* + *dō*) *illic*, *sic*, etc.

(2) The use of the particle in adverbs, e.g., OIA *anti-k-am*, Gk. *eskatos*, etc.

(3) The use of *-k* as a suffix void of meaning, in nouns and adjectives (स्वाये क of Sanskrit), of which numerous instances (in consonantal and vocalic stems) are given.

(4) Derivative suffixes with *-k* :—(a) Latin *-clom*, *-culum*, and, *-crum* and (b) Lat. Noun-affixes *-āgo*, *-igo*, *-ūgo*.

Ewald's view is that, so far as we know, the earliest use of *-k* was as an independent particle with a deictic or directive meaning, that afterwards this meaning was lost in its employment as *swarthē ka* with nouns and adjectives, that in the next stage through abstraction new suffixes with *-k* were formed with a definite meaning, and finally its use was extended to the formation of secondary compound affixes containing *-k*.

Students of Dravidian would, in this connection, be irresistibly reminded of the Dravidian particle *-k** which is used for a variety of purposes in this family. One should, however, not be side-tracked by the apparent similarities (in certain respects) between the Aryan and Dravidian particles, into fancifully dogmatising about any relationship between the two. I have tried, in my paper in IHQ, to trace the meanings of Dravidian *k* in the various contexts in which they occur, to the Dravidian base *kai* (to do). About the possibility of Dravidian *kai* being related to Aryan *k* or to the suffix *k* we can

* See my paper on the affix *k* of Dravidian in IHQ (September 1928).

say nothing at present. I have found that it is also possible to isolate a prefixing particle *k* in the formation of a number of Dravidian words. Compare the following sets of related forms (closely allied in meanings) in which one group possesses initial *k*-, while the other lacks it :

<i>karugai</i>	—	<i>arugai</i>
<i>kiḷu</i>		<i>iḷ—</i>
<i>kaṣakku</i>		<i>aṣakku</i>
<i>kulai-dai</i>		<i>ulai-dal.</i>

We have to note that the forms without the initial *k*- are presumably the originals, inasmuch as they (and not the others) have given rise to numerous independent forms in all dialects of Dravidian. The initial *k* has, therefore, to be detached as a particle; its exact signification is not sufficiently clear, though it may be said that the forms with initial *k*- always imply stronger action than those without this initial consonant.

Curiously enough, the "Austrie" family employs an affix (used as prefix, infix, and suffix) containing *k*, which as prefix builds up substantives, and verbs in some dialects, and, as infix or suffix, induces grammatical meanings in others.

It is very interesting to observe that this particle has played such a prominent part in the word-formation of all these three language-families. It is futile to think of connecting, in any manner, the origin of *k* in these three different families.

III. Prof. Louis Renou (whose translation of Kalidasa's *Raghuvamśa* was recently reviewed in these columns) describes, in the brochure under review, the methods and objectives of European scholars of Vedic language and literature from the time of Colebrooke down till to-day, in the inter-

Nov. 1929.]

LINGUISTICA.

685

pretation of Vedic texts and the reconstruction of a plausible history of Vedic times and manners. After briefly describing the work of the earlier students, Colebrooke and Rosen, and of the translators, Langlois and Wilson, Prof. Renou enters into a critical assessment of the interpretative outlook of Roth, Grassmann, Ludwig, Max Müller, Bergaigne, Pischel, Geldner and Oldenberg. The progress of Vedic studies, Prof. Renou emphasises, can be properly grasped only when we keep in view the personal outlook of the different scholars.

In Prof. Renou's view, the chief originality of Roth lay in dispensing almost entirely with the authority of Sāyaṇācārya who, Prof. Renou tells us, is a most dangerous guide for students of Vedic to follow. Roth's view of the Vedas is summed up in an observation contained in the preface to his Dictionary: "The Vedic hymns are not the creations of theologic speculation nor have they arisen from liturgic practices; they are for the most part products of the most ancient religious lyricism."

Ludwig set up a reaction against Roth and Grassmann, and tried to read history into the Vedic texts. This attempt of Ludwig's, in Prof. Renou's opinion, met with little success.

The discussion of Bergaigne's contribution to Vedic studies covers a large portion of this brochure, as indeed it must, in view of the revolutionary changes initiated by this French scholar of Vedic. Starting from the view that the mythology and the religious cult were inter-dependent, Bergaigne constructed an elaborate structure which, in Prof. Renou's opinion, is one of the most daring ever conceived in the region of Vedic scholarship.

Next in importance came Pischel and Geldner who tried to establish that the Vedas were purely an Indian work and that its Indo-European affinities had been over-emphasised. There was a return to Sāyaṇa, with some reservations, however. The reconstruction of history attempted by these German scholars made out a picture essentially Indian in character. The Vedic people, in the opinion of these German scholars, were not nomadic; but they had cities and palaces, they knew of the sea and of the elephant, of the *swayamvara* and of the *purōhita*.

Finally, there is an elaborate discussion of Oldenberg's interpretation of the various aspects of Vedic study with special reference to the views of his predecessors.

It is possible that opinions such as those of the author about the value of Sāyaṇa's commentaries may be disputed. How far Sāyaṇa imports into his interpretation of the Vedas, ideas of a later age, is a matter on which the last word has yet to be said, and Prof. Renou's condemnation of Sāyaṇa will certainly be questioned by many another scholar. Nevertheless, this short brochure, with its deep erudition, scientific criticism and comprehensive survey of the three stand-points (religious, mythological and philological) from which Vedic interpretation may be viewed, should be of great interest and instruction to Indian scholars of Vedic lore.

IV. The fascinating researches of Prof. Przyluski of Paris into the influence of "Austrie" (or, as Prof. Przyluski prefers to call it, Austro-asiatic) languages and culture on Indo-Aryan, are opening up new vistas in the study of the history, sociology, religion and languages of India. During the last few years he has been bringing out a series of

papers illuminative of the different aspects of the influence of Austric on Indo-Aryan. One of the most recent of his papers deals with the occurrence of the Vigesimal numeral system in Indo-Aryan, and its Austric origin.

The system of computation of numerals on the basis of *twenties*, though foreign to Indo-European, prevails in some dialects of Modern Indo-Aryan (Bengali, Assamese). Besides, a particular term for the number *twenty*, employed in Bengali (*kuṛi*), Eastern Hindi (*kāṛi*), Gujarati (*kāṛi*), presents a remarkable resemblance to the Austric forms for the same numeral.

Prof. Przyluski adduces very cogent arguments to prove that this usage was native in Austric and that it should have been borrowed by Indo-Aryan from Austric :—

(a) The Indian Austric dialects as well as the Indonesian dialects possess a number of cognate terms to describe *twenty*.

(b) That the origin of the forms *kuṛi*, *kōḍi*, *kāṛi*, used by the Indian Austric dialects should be sought in the apparent connection between the twenty fingers of a human individual and the conception of the human individual as a unit, is proved by the resemblance of the forms for *twenty* and the forms for *man* or *woman* in the Indian Austric dialects (*har*, *hor*, etc., for *man*, where *h* < original *k*; and *kuṛi*, *kōṛi* for *woman*).

(c) *pon* or *pan* signifying *eighty* in the Indian Austric dialects is a common higher numeral whole which was derived from *twenty* through the application of the relationship of the *five* fingers of one of the limbs to the total number of *twenty* possessed by the human individual.

The multiplicand *four* thus assumed almost an equal importance with *twenty* and the

following gradation became current in Indian Austric :—

gaṇḍa = 4; *kuri* = 5 × 4; *pon* = 20 × 4.

(d) The Sanskrit term *gaṇḍaka*, which means *division, a certain form of computation in fours, a coin worth four cowries*, and the modern Indo-Aryan forms *gaṇḍa* (four), allied as they are closely to the Indian Austric terms, are probably borrowings from Austric for *two* reasons: (i) the terms have no cognates in Indo-European, (ii) the practice of counting by cowries (four cowries = one *gaṇḍa*) is peculiar to the maritime civilisation which was formerly active in the regions inhabited by the Austric races.

Austric influence should have initiated the use in Indo-Aryan of the *cowrie* system of calculation of money; the analogy in form and meaning between modern Indo-Aryan *pan* (= 80 cowries) and Indian Austric *pan* or *pon* (= 80) is remarkable.

Sanskrit *pana** (with the specific meaning of 80 cowries, as given by the Sanskrit vocabulary *Trikāṇḍasā*) should also, according to Przyluski be related to Austric *pan*.

Prof. Przyluski's conclusion, therefore, is, that not only has reckoning by *twenties* been borrowed from Austric, but that the Sanskrit words *gaṇḍaka* and *pana*, besides MIA *kuṛi*, *kōṛi*, etc., should also be traced to Austric.

Prof. Przyluski leaves our appetite whetted with his final observations: "The study of the numeral system is not only useful to the linguist and to the student of the history

* Dravidian *panam* (money) may, in the light of Prof. Przyluski's observations, be a borrowing from Austric directly, or indirectly through Sanskrit; but the question becomes complicated when we consider the possible relationship of this word to *paṇ* of Dravidian.

of technics, but it deserves to engage the attention of the student of philosophy also. We know how much the thought of India seeks in its applications to "number" the ideas. The numeral is in India a valuable instrument of discrimination and classification: it is a cadre where the phenomena group themselves. By the side of the decimal numeral system familiar to the ancient Aryans, the existence of a vigesimal numeral system in which the factor *four* eventually became dominant, necessarily contributed to impress on certain speculations a particular rhythm which we have to keep in view especially when we study Buddhistic ontology, or the Sāṅkhya system."

This paper, like every other paper of Prof. Przyluski's, opens a window of the past, and lays bare to us new and fascinating vistas.

V. Walter Gottschalk's *French Synonyms* is a good book in which the significations of French synonyms are demarcated (as far as semantically possible), through theoretical explanations and practical instances. Of course, the boundaries of word-significations could not be de-limited absolutely, because according to strict semantic principles, the meaning of a word is always a *complexus* of constituents whose frontiers vary with the individuals using the words; nevertheless, it is useful and necessary for practical purposes to distinguish the main meaning-notes of words that are closely allied in signification.

In French particularly, the *nuances* of meaning are so subtle and yet so fastidiously observed in common parlance that a book like the one under review will be welcomed by all students of French.

The foreign student of French cannot do without careful instruction and guidance on

such delicate shades of meanings as those implied in pairs like *an* and *année*, *soir* and *soirée*, *salut* and *salutation*, *espoir* and *esperance*, *oisif* and *oiseaux*, etc. Valuable help in this direction is given by Gottschalk's work. Primarily intended as this book is for students and teachers, the student of semantics also will find the book useful inasmuch as the clear explanations given in the work will supply him with a starting-point from which he can trace back the histories of the meanings of words.

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THE RURAL SCHOOL-MASTER AND HIS RESPONSIBILITIES

By

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Tumkur.

QUESTIONS of rural reconstruction loom large round the village school-master, as he is looked upon as a man of culture capable of guiding the local people in many an important matter. It is a matter too well-known that in any national advancement of the rural population, it is the educated people of the locality that have to take active steps in the matter; and the educational leader is invariably the village school-master. He is the 'walking encyclopædia' of all branches of learning and the village folk consult him on all matters, not excepting astrology or the acute points of law. Before the advent of the Village Panchayats, he was the munsiff and the magistrate all in one. He is not rarely the medical man and the engineer both. Thus he is the guiding star of the villagers in addition to his being the preceptor of their younger generation. Therefore none but the school-master can shape the destinies of the villager in the national regeneration of the country.

Then the question arises as to why nothing has yet been done by him in that direction. It is not far wrong to say that at least a large number of them do not think in that direction, perhaps because they have not the necessary mental equipment or the inner urge to do so; a greater number are discontented even to do their work as teachers for lack of encouragement and a still larger number do not believe in such a work. How then can we bring about conditions favourable

for the rural teacher to do the work expected of him?

The solution is not far to seek. We venture to suggest a novel plan for achieving this urgent reform. A training institution for rural teachers should be started, not in the district head-quarters and such other urban centres but in typically rural areas. Perhaps one for two or three taluqs will not be too much. Practical lessons in the propaganda work for rural upliftment should form an important item in the curriculum for the course, in addition to the courses of study in civics, village sanitation, law and the constitution of the local bodies. It is not here meant that the curriculum must be made heavy, but a judicious selection of the necessary courses of study, in addition to a more intensive study of the knowledge-giving subjects should be introduced, scattered over a period of two years. The staff of the school must consist of specialists in rural reconstruction schemes and rural education, headed by a person who has shown an aptitude for the work both by research and practical experience. This might be far too difficult to secure, at least in the beginning, but if immediate steps are taken to introduce post-graduate studies and research in the teachers' colleges (in rural education), where facilities for research in the form of guidance, library and practical work must be ample, the necessary and proper staff could be procured. Men experienced as teachers in the village schools and rural workers, such as Economic Superintendents and Medical Practitioners should be sent for training and they shall form the staff of the rural training institutions later on. Persons selected for training in these institutions must be teachers of at least five years' standing in rural parts,

and should be eager and energetic to work and learn. There must be extensive fields attached to the training institutions, where practical demonstrations in the modern methods of agriculture and horticulture must be carried out, so that the rural teacher on going back to the centre of his activity, must not be ignorant of these progressive methods of the village industries.

There must be a library well-equipped and maintained and a free reading-room, near to the school under the control of the rural teacher. There must also be a "rural teachers' association" in each district for considering the various questions of rural welfare and modes and methods of propaganda work. The association must issue a bulletin embodying the results of its labours and the statistics of the rural information. This must be broadcast and the villager reminded of his relative position in the State and the Empire.

For the promotion of the economic and national advancement of the rural folk, the rural teacher must keep himself in touch with the results of experiments undertaken in other countries on these subjects. He must be enabled by means of Government grants to subscribe and maintain a good set of periodicals dealing with those matters. He must be encouraged to write on the important topics treated therein, in homely, everyday vernacular interpreting and altering the subject matter to suit the local conditions and broadcast the information by means of lectures and posters. He must be provided with the cinematograph to do the propaganda work effectively. He must also familiarise the ryots with the modern methods of agriculture and horticulture, home industries and hand-loomis by example and precept.

He must constitute a parents' association and show to them how the knowledge imparted to their children is useful and also induce them to take to the modern methods of banking, co-operation, education and politics. He must socialise the school by sparing no pains to draw all the parents to the school environment, thus making them interested participants in the knowledge given by the teacher. This is no doubt a very difficult task but the rural teacher must do this with all earnestness if he ever has the national ideal of education in view.

For all this the teacher must have a status recognised by the people and the Government. He is in reality the leader of the village folk, and must be honoured and recognised as such. It is true that this status is not something extraneous which must be given by somebody else. It is as much dependent on the personality of the teacher as on the Government and the public. As for the former one can command respect by one's scholarship, erudition and work towards the realisation of the national ideal. As for the latter his pay and prospects must needs be considerably improved and the people must ungrudgingly give him his long overdue place. Then he will not feel he is neglected and will at once realise his position. The education given to the people will be effective and will bear fruit soon. May we hope that in the near future the long sought status of the rural teacher be raised and esteemed and thus encourage the school-master to do his work with interest and enthusiasm!

The demand for the control of the village elementary schools by the local bodies is no doubt a very good move; but only the local

bodies must function properly if the desired results should be achieved. The local bodies must go into the details of the school curriculum, text-books, school hours, uniformity of standards, games and such other important questions. They must finance the rural teacher liberally if the teacher should achieve what is expected of him.

In conclusion, our plea is for a thorough change in the outlook of the rural teacher and the public on the function of the rural teacher in the locality. The village-master has to feel that he has a very heavy responsibility before him to discharge and that he has not done even half his duty in educating the younger generation: a greater half remains and that lies in educating the elders both to function as citizens and to live a real life as human beings. The village folk must feel or be made to feel that the rural teacher is not merely a person to whose care the unruly and mischievous children are entrusted only to keep them in proper check and order so that the elders at home might be allowed to attend to their work undisturbed but a fountain-head from which an incessant flow of learning and lead emanate—as a friend, philosopher and guide, all in one.

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EDUCATION IN LONDON.*

By

Mr. ANANT N. DIXIT, B.A.

I

EDUCATION in England is both a national and a municipal service. The Government Department responsible for this service on behalf of the nation is the Board of Education, the President of which is a Cabinet Minister. The control of the Board is exercised by means of codes and regulations, which have behind them the statutory authority of all the Education Acts passed by Parliament, now embodied in the Education (Consolidation) Act, 1921. These codes and regulations are in force for all schools which receive help from the State; they prescribe in general terms how such schools shall be conducted. But the actual provision and maintenance of the schools is entrusted to local education authorities. Roughly speaking, the cost of education is divided between the central and local authorities. For the country as a whole, the State pays rather more than half out of taxes, the localities rather less than half out of rates. In London the apportionment is practically equal, the London County Council and the Board of Education giving "pound for pound" to meet the public expenditure on education.

The London County Council is the local education authority for the administrative County of London; it is responsible for the promotion and development of London education. The Board of Education thinks in terms of national education, the London County Council in terms of that smaller but highly important unit, namely, the education of four and a half million citizens of London, the largest aggregation of population in the British Empire. The Londoner, in contributing by his taxes to the upkeep of the nation and exercising his franchise as a Parliamentary elector, can influence the national educational policy; as a rate-payer, voting in the London County Council elections, he can help to determine how the children of London's citizens shall be educated. This is the democratic basis of the London education service, which derives its power and its inspiration from the people. The people of London, acting through their elected representatives, are thus responsible for the form and extent of the education which their children receive, and they are always anxious to share this responsibility wisely. In doing this they keep in mind the three big questions that appear to them very important, viz. (1) are the children and adults being wisely educated, (2) are the teachers and officials usefully employed, and (3) is the money being well expended. The education of the Londoner is a Londoner's business and of no one else. The London County Council's education service educates ten lakhs of people, employs 30,000 teachers and officials and spends £12,000,000 a year. It is also worthy of note that in the year 1923, the youngest child at school was scarcely two years old—a baby in a nursery school; and the oldest student at school was seventy-eight—a grandmother and a keen student at a women's institute.

Public elementary schools in London are either London County Council schools or non-provided schools; the latter are so called because they are "provided" not by the London County Council, but by religious bodies, who are responsible for the upkeep of

* Based on the Reports of the London County Council.

XXXV—82

the buildings, except the "fair wear and tear" due to the use of the buildings as public elementary schools.

II

The first London elementary school, which was opened in a cow-shed over a century ago in the Borough Road, was criticized because it taught nothing useful. Things have changed now. An elementary school is not intended to teach a trade to children, but to give them their first lessons in citizenship, to develop both their minds and *their bodies*. It is thought and rightly too, that three tools are necessary for every hour of work and for every hour of leisure; they are reading, writing and arithmetic. Then, as every boy and girl will become a citizen with responsibilities for the government of the State, every child is instructed in the language and literature of his country and is taught history and geography. Through nature study and elementary lessons in science, every child learns something of the world in which he lives. Again, every child is taught to draw, to sing and to work with his hands; his physique is cared for by graded physical exercise and by organized games. It is reported that each year 30,000 boys and girls in the London schools are taught to swim. Children receive awards from the Royal Humane Society for gallantry in saving life. Such and many other acts of bravery are recorded on the school "Brave Deeds" boards provided by the London County Council.

London elementary schools have a large amount of freedom. The London County Council believes in giving head-masters and head-mistresses a wide discretion in arranging the teaching of their schools.

Children stay at the elementary school until the end of the school term in which

they attain the age of fourteen; but they can stay, if they wish, till fifteen, so that they may not be out of work and out of school at the same time.

Beginning in the babies' class, handwork is taught throughout the school. From the age of eleven every boy is taught wood work or metal work at manual training centres, and every girl household management at domestic economy centres. This practical instruction is given by a special staff. The purpose is not to make the boys carpenters or plumbers, or the girls cooks, but to awaken manual dexterity. The practical training given in this way totals three months in the pupil's life.

Sometimes children are taken by their teachers on educational visits to see with their own eyes the historic buildings of London, and there are few days in the summer months when classes may not be seen at Westminster Abbey, St. Paul's, the Tower of London, or at the docks, parks or picture galleries, visiting the spots about which they have been reading in their history books. Occasionally their teachers organize school journeys, when a fortnight is spent in the country or at the seaside.

The spirit which animates these schools may be understood from the following interesting extract from the report:

"This is a school of high ideals and broad outlook.....specially successful in sport, and in fostering a good social spirit.....It commands the interest and esteem of the children and the parents. Another result is seen in the bearing and conduct of the girls, who are well behaved and courteous..... The children are "alive" and keen on the school and its pursuits. The attainments of

the children, considering the homes from which many of them come, are very praiseworthy. There are weaknesses in the purely academic work, but these weaknesses are small in comparison with the fine spirit which pervades the school."

"*Esprit de corps* is strong among the girls. The senior girls take definite responsibility for the school discipline through a court for dealing with minor offences and have formed a club for the provision of flowers and plants for the whole school. The tone is excellent. The girls are alert and responsive, friendly but respectful in their behaviour towards adults, and the quality of the discipline is shown by the steadiness with which they carry on their work when the teacher is engaged or they are left alone. By giving the children a large measure of freedom, and at the same time imposing upon them more responsibility, the problem of enlisting their interest and good-will on the side of self-education has been solved in notable fashion."

"The result of infant school teaching may be judged from three points of view; first, the extent to which those restrictions have been removed which impair the health and hinder the natural development of the children; secondly, the extent to which habits of courtesy, obedience, "self-control" are acquired together with skill in the use of limb, tongue and hand; and thirdly, the extent to which a grounding is provided in the Three R's. From each of these three points of view the experiments have been a signal success; in each respect the school achieves its object more fully than under the old system."

All social problems, it has been said, come to the elementary schools. The schools have

become not only places for acquiring the rudiments of education but national laboratories for the new needs of London and old needs of the children. These achievements cost for each child at school £15 annually.

III

The central school is a type of school intermediate between the ordinary elementary school and the secondary school. The London County Council was the first education authority to establish schools of this type. Every year London elementary schools send some of their picked pupils to a local central school, where they go through a course of four or five years' instruction in preparation for employment at the age of fifteen or sixteen. The instruction is general rather than vocational, but the curriculum has an industrial or commercial "bias" according to the needs of the neighbourhood and the wishes of the parents. The subjects taught at central schools are more advanced than those taught in elementary schools. Manual training is also carried further and a modern language, generally French, and commercial subjects are introduced. The teachers are specially selected.

Children are selected for transfer to central schools at the age of eleven; the selection is made partly by means of the junior county scholarship examination and partly on the record of progress and conduct at the ordinary school. Many grants are awarded to promising pupils who need financial assistance to enable them to remain at school beyond the age of fourteen.

In an official report upon the London central schools, it is said:

"The organization of the central school system is one of the most valuable and

promising developments of recent years in the field of London education. The local authority have recognized the fact after selecting pupils for their secondary schools there still remain in the elementary schools a large number of children who can with advantage, continue their education to the age of 15½, though at present economic considerations require that they shall begin to earn their own living soon after that age. If left in the ordinary elementary schools, they are sufficiently above the average in general ability to run some danger of wasting their time, and of not having their powers developed to the full. It is the problem of giving to these children a sound general education and of fitting them to some extent for immediate wage-earning that the central schools have been established to solve."

IV

Even in London the amount of thought and attention devoted to the social well-being of school children nowadays is still only imperfectly realized. This effort is described officially by the general term "Children's care." Every London elementary school has a school care committee of voluntary workers, who are interested in child welfare. Over 5,000 men and women generously give up part of their leisure to co-operate voluntarily with the London County Council in all matters affecting the physical and social well-being of London school-boys and school-girls. This care work is dealt with by the agency of twelve local offices which have a small permanent staff for administrative and clerical duties; the voluntary worker does "field" service by visiting parents and agencies and institutions such as hospitals, which can help children in distress.

Every child in a London elementary school is medically examined at least three times during his school life. The first examination takes place as soon as possible after admission; the second at the age of eight or thereabouts; the third about the age of twelve. In addition, special medical examinations are arranged when needed. No part of the London education service has done more for the children of London than the expert and devoted work of the school doctors, dentists and several school nurses. As a result of this work London school-boys who are eight years old to-day, are half an inch taller and 3½ lb. heavier than boys of the corresponding age 20 years ago. The increase in weight is more significant than the increase in height. Owing to the increasing friendliness of parents to the school doctors and nurses, the standard of personal cleanliness is also rapidly improving.

Over 200,000 school children are inspected every year by the school dentists, and more than 10,000 of these receive treatment. The results achieved may be referred to as a typical illustration as the benefits derived from the school medical service, viz., "Between 1913 and 1919 the improvement amounted roughly to 5 per cent: more children leaving school with sound teeth, from 1919—1921 another 5 per cent. was added and in 1922 still another 5 per cent., making 15 per cent. in all—in nine years."

The school medical service employs apart from general medical practitioners and dental surgeons many specialists. The resources of doctors, skilled in the treatment of the eyes, nose, ear and throat, of tuberculosis, of mental and physical infirmity and so on are nowadays available for London children in need of special attention. The school medical

service is also intimately co-ordinated with all other questions affecting public health. In this way children's diseases and their consequences in after-life are subject to a searching analysis which would have been impossible a few years ago. About £100,000 is spent annually on this important service. It is said that for the first time in the history of London the age-long ideal of a healthy mind in a healthy body is approaching fulfilment.

For the benefit of the debilitated children in the London schools, a number of open-air schools and classes have been established. In Bushey Park (in one of the Royal lodges lent by H. M. the King) on the cliffs at Margate and in the milder air of St. Leonard's on sea may be seen London children who are "run down" attending London County Council residential open-air schools which are restoring them to health and vitality. The parks and play-grounds of London are also utilized for open-air schooling. About 7,000 children each year are selected by the school doctors for instruction under open-air conditions.

V

London has probably the most complete system of special schools in the world.

Children remain as a rule, in attendance at these schools until the age of sixteen; at thirteen, blind and deaf children are generally transferred to residential schools. Handwork is the predominant feature of the instruction; many of the children are taught a trade, so that they may not become a charge upon the community. Transport and adult guides are employed to take children suffering from physical infirmity to and from school. The average cost of conveyance for

each of the 4,000 crippled children in London is about £10 yearly. This cost and the small classes and special medical and dietary attention necessary make the education of defective children a much more expensive charge in London than elsewhere, but few Londoners will begrudge the efforts made to train those unfortunate children who are handicapped by bodily or mental infirmity into self-respecting and self-supporting members of the community.

Industrial schools are provided for the education, training and maintenance of children who, owing to unfortunate home circumstances or in consequence of some offence (usually of a technical character), have to be removed from their homes by order of a Juvenile Court and sent to a residential industrial school, where they are given opportunities for becoming useful citizens in after-life. The London County Council has only four of these schools, but has made arrangements with the managers of many similar schools in different parts of the country to which London children can be sent. The old idea that these schools were dreary institutions for the confinement of "wrong-doers" has been dispelled, and a brief visit to such a school would at once remove any doubts. The school would be found to be "populated" by a healthy, happy band of children enjoying many advantages which cannot be provided for children at the ordinary day schools. Many of the boys are trained for Army bands, others for farming, tailoring, etc. Girls are trained for different kinds of domestic work. The children leave schools generally between the age of 15 and 16 years, but they remain under supervision until 18 years of age. The schools obtain excellent results and many children who

begin life under well-nigh hopeless conditions have been enabled to make good owing to the splendid work of the industrial schools.

Very young children, instead of being sent to industrial schools are boarded out with foster parents in various parts of the country, where they enjoy all the advantages of family life in a good home which would otherwise be denied them. These children attend the local elementary schools in the districts in which they are boarded.

It is also the duty of the County Council to provide for children (14—15 years old) who are convicted for offences which would be punishable in the case of adults by penal servitude or imprisonment. These "young persons" are sent to Reformatory schools, where they are retained generally until 18-19 years of age. They receive training similar to that given in the Industrial schools.

There were night schools in London long before public elementary schools, but their main function then was to teach the illiterates. Forty years ago the number of night school students was under 10,000; the modern evening institutes are attended by nearly 120,000 students. As elementary education spread, the night school gradually became a school giving technical and cultural instruction to those who had already received the ground-work of education. To-day the term, "evening institutes," is employed because it better describes the co-ordination which has been established by the County Council between all forms of evening education. The polytechnic and technical institutes concentrate, for the most part, upon technology and science, for the teaching of which elaborate equipment and machinery are necessary.

Commercial and literary subjects or other aspects of education requiring class-rooms,

as distinct from laboratories or workshops, are now taught right from the elementary to the most advanced stages in evening institutes, thereby releasing at the polytechnics and technical institutes room for development along technological and scientific lines. For instance, the commercial evening institutes in London provide vocational training for all commercial pursuits, from the first stages in book-keeping and shorthand to the final examination qualifying for admission to highly-skilled clerical occupations.

VI

In addition to the commercial institutes, there are other types to meet the varied requirements of the Londoner. The chief of these are:

Women's institutes, providing education in domestic and health subjects for girls and women only.

Institutes with more than one department (e.g., junior commercial and junior technical).

Men's institutes, providing educational and social opportunities for the study and discussion of men's interests, pursuits and callings.

Literary institutes for students over 18 years of age desirous of learning cultural subjects such as the arts, aesthetics, history, literature, modern languages, philosophy and other humanistic subjects.

Junior commercial and junior technical institutes for students under eighteen, who as a rule take a "course" of instruction covering three evenings a week.

Students in evening institutes are taught by expert instructors; probably 80 per cent. of these follow the trade or profession they teach. Thus, law is taught by lawyers;

hygiene and medical subjects by doctors and nurses; accountancy by Chartered Accountants; journalism by journalists; music, languages, banking, shipping, insurance, home dress-making, millinery and so on by specialists who know the subject and what is equally important know how to teach it.

Children who have just left the elementary school are admitted free to the junior evening institutes if they enrol immediately on leaving. Thereafter, they can secure free admission during subsequent years by regular and satisfactory attendance. From the junior commercial or technical institute, they can pass on to the senior commercial institute, polytechnic, or technical institute, where more advanced work can be done and where here are opportunities for research.

The eleven Day Continuation Schools of London are free and voluntary; they may be attended by those employed or by those who are looking for employment. For both types of students, the subjects of instruction have been carefully worked out, so that boys and girls may receive vocational guidance as well as vocational instruction. The schools try to avoid the tragedy of fitting square pegs into round holes, of little pegs into big holes, or big pegs into little holes. The fitness of a boy or girl for a particular kind of job is watched, and once that fitness is determined, instruction appropriate to future employment is given.

The prominent feature of these schools is that they are meeting increasingly with the support of employers. At the Westminster School, boys and girls are trained, after selection by the Incorporated Association of Retail Distributors, for positions in the big West-end stores; at the South Hackney

School, local business-men guarantee employment for students who have taken the courses in retail drapery and dyeing; at Brixton the grocery trades are co-operating with the Council in training boys to be grocers' assistants. Similarly, at Battersea, butcher boys are being trained, at Hammersmith, waitresses. This training is intended to get the young employee on "top of his job," to interest him in its possibilities and prospects.

Side by side with vocational training, the students' knowledge of cultural subjects is carried further and attention is given to physical fitness. The whole curriculum, therefore, is a carefully thought-out plan to improve the mental, physical and business aptitudes of the students. The Day Continuation Schools, in short, provide free of charge to London parents, specialized instruction for ambitious boys and girls who wish to obtain a permanent position and not a blind-alley job. They provide a unique opportunity for the parent who cannot afford to pay fees to fit his children for better chances in workshops, offices or any other of the great variety of industrial occupations that the young Londoner follows. The courses vary from six to fifteen hours a week. Classes are held every day between 9 A.M. and 7 P.M. Attendance can generally be arranged to suit the convenience of students or of their employers and every effort is made to find work for unemployed students, if they prove themselves fit for it. The schools are available for young people between the ages of fourteen to eighteen, the critical years when they are growing into manhood and womanhood.

VII

The concentration of population in London and the many occupations followed by

Londoners have made possible the establishment of numerous trade schools, both for boys and girls. A trade school is partly a school and partly a workshop. These schools are recruited, in part, from students awarded "trade scholarships" and, in part, from fee-payers. They are, as a rule, for boys between the ages of 13 and 16 and girls between the ages of 14 and 16 who are apprentices or learners. Apprentices usually have their apprenticeship shortened by a period corresponding to their training at the trade school. Most of the larger polytechnics and technical institutes provide trade schools during the day-time. In addition, a number of schools, devoted entirely to trade school purposes, have been built or are supported by the County Council.

Boys at these schools are taught furniture, cabinet-making, and wood work trades; wood carving, carriage and motor body building; building, carpentry, masonry, bricklaying, plumbing, painting and decorating and architectural drawing; engineering and metal work trades; silver-smithing, jewellery and engraving; professional cookery and professional waiting; photo-engraving and photo process work; book production (printing and book-binding) and tailoring.

Among the subjects taught to girls may be mentioned photography, wholesale dress-making, dress-making and embroidery for retail houses, trade embroidery, ladies' tailoring, millinery, lingerie making, ladies' hair-dressing, upholstery, waistcoat-making, laundry work and domestic service.

The work done at the school attains a high degree of excellence, and, in normal times, the girls have little difficulty in obtaining remunerative employment. The training is

thorough; girls are taught to plan, design, make; to appreciate the "flair" of their trade, its possibilities and resources; to speak about it and write about it pleasantly and gracefully.

London has no staple industry. It has always been the stronghold of the small trader and small manufacturer. The London County Council has made technical instruction available for practically every occupation the Londoner follows. Great monotechnics have been equipped for teaching everything about one particular trade; great polytechnics for teaching many trades.

Among the former may be mentioned the School of Building at Brixton, where technical instruction is open to boys about to become bricklayers, plumbers, or masons; to men who are already architects, surveyors or master builders.

At the School of Printing in Stamford Street, 2,000 students learn between them, everything about printing; at the school of Photo-Engraving and Lithography in Bolt Court, Fleet Street, the various phases of another important London industry are taught right from its elementary stages for juniors to research work for skilled craftsmen.

The London polytechnics and other technical institutes partly supported or "aided" receive from the London County Council about £350,000 annually. The Council recovers half this expenditure from the Board of Education. The Polytechnics have also, in the past, been liberally aided by capital grants for building extensions.

Mention is made in the section dealing with secondary schools of the "pious founders" of some of the old-established secondary schools of London. An appreciative reference is

deserving here about the ancient City Guilds, which for centuries liberally supported apprenticeship, and more recently technical education.

The tuition provided in all these institutions covers practically every technological process required in the industrial life of London. Each has some distinctive feature, and all have been carefully built up and overlapping minimized. Developments and changes are continually going on with variations in industry and population. Among recent developments which will show what is being done may be mentioned instruction in petroleum technology at Sir John Cass Technical Institute; classes for plumbers in oxy-acetylene

welding at the School of Building, Brixton; classes for the scale and weighing industry at Northampton Polytechnic; classes for textile distributors; musical instrument making and an advanced school of rubber technology at the Northern Polytechnic; science teaching in connection with commodities and the marketing of commodities at the City of London College; development of the building trades and music trade schools at the Northern Polytechnic; technical optics, aeronautics, telephony, and telegraphy, at the Northampton Polytechnic, Clerkenwell; and the establishment of a higher school of commerce at Regent Street Polytechnic.—*The Modern Review*, Calcutta, Nov. 1929.

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5.	Fluid Pressure	20	45	35
6.	The Barometer and Boyle's Law	20	70	58
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BULLETIN NO. 3.

Historical Exhibition, Gwalior, 1929.

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1. All articles of Historical, Archaeological or Antiquarian interest relating to India are eligible as exhibits for sale or exhibition from public institutions, Government bodies or individuals, such as Research Societies, Universities, Museums, Libraries or persons interested in antiquities.

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5. The last date for receiving exhibits will be the 30th of November 1929.

6. The Committee will deduct 10% of the price realised from the sale of each exhibit effected during the Exhibition or until the time of its return by the Superintendent of Archaeology, and hand over the balance to the exhibitor.

7. All exhibits should be addressed to the Superintendent of Archaeology, Gwalior State, Gwalior (C. I.)

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11. In all matters relating to the selection or rejection of the exhibits, the decision of the Committee will be final.

12. All exhibits will be returned at the cost of the Committee.

S. R. BHAGWAT,
*Inspector-General of Records,
Gwalior Government.*

G. B. MAKODAY,
Secretary.

Reviews and Notices.

SEX PROBLEMS IN INDIA, BY N. S. PHADKE, M. A.,
WITH A FOREWORD BY MARGARET SANGER, SECOND
EDITION. (D. B. TARAPOREVALA, SONS AND CO. 1929).
Pp. 322, Price, Rs. 6

We congratulate Prof. Phadke on bringing out a second edition of his book on Sex Problems in India. Though he has not mentioned it, we believe that this is a revised edition also. The book has been considerably improved since the first issue—the printing being also better than on the last occasion. It is an excellent introduction to the study of eugenics in India. It is a good augury in India that the Sarda Marriage Bill has become law. The author has adapted the treatment of sex problems to the proper Indian conditions and Indian literature on the subject. A great moderation is found in the presentation of the author's views, so that the book is likely to repel few readers. The question of birth control is considered adequately in the book. Absolute continence is not human, the old beliefs in "safe periods" for sexual intercourse have been proved to be unreliable, and artificial contraceptives are quite necessary. It is well known that a high standard of comforts acts inversely on the birth-rate. The author has rightly pleaded for freedom of social manners between the two sexes. Men should be accustomed to meet the other sex without the obsession of the sexual instinct. We must admire the beauty of the rose without the desire to pluck it. Mr. Phadke does not seem to have treated adequately the problem of sexual vice and its attendant evils leading to the deterioration of the race. We have not had sufficient propaganda in this country to teach men and women the means of protecting themselves from catching venereal infection. This is a matter of great national importance.

We must remark that the price of Rs. 6 for the book is too high and will prevent the book from becoming popular. If Indian schools and colleges should decide about introducing the subject

of sex for instruction to pupils, the present book, slightly adapted and abridged, will make a suitable text. The Index at present provided in the book is meagre and unsatisfactory.

THE HISTORY OF HENRY ESMOND, ESQ., BY W. M. THACKERAY. ABRIDGED AND EDITED BY A. C. MACKENZIE—ENGLISH LITERATURE SERIES, No. 111—(MACMILLAN AND CO., LTD.) Pp. xvi + 343. Price 2s. 9d.

This addition to the popular educational series is not perhaps wholly justifiable. The abridgement runs to 336 pages—a length which does not bear to the original of the novel a sufficiently small proportion. The introduction discusses the characters in the novel and its moral bearings. Though there is provided a useful list of the historical events referred to in the novel, there is no effort in the introduction to explain the historical basis of the novel. Even though the book may be intended only for schools, some examination of the material on which Thackeray based the novel should be relevant. For instance, mention may be made of the story of the Duchess of Kingston on which Beatrix is based. There are useful notes at the end of the book. The bibliography supplied under "Helps to further Study" is also inadequate. While Trollope's book in the English Men of Letters Series is criticised as disappointing, it would have been useful to mention the excellent book in the Great Writers Series by Merivale and Marzials. The Life by Lewis Melville is also omitted in the list, nor is Whibley's book on Thackeray remembered.

SELECTIONS FROM SWIFT, CHOSEN AND EDITED BY W. J. HALLIDAY, M. A.—(ENGLISH LITERATURE SERIES, No. 123)—(MACMILLAN AND CO., LTD.) Pp. xxix + 218.

This is a welcome compilation serving as a complement to the selection from "Gulliver's Travels" published already. All the works of Swift are represented in the selection; "A Tale

of a Tub," The Battle of the Books," "The Bickerstaff Pamphlets," "Letters," "The Conduct of the Allier," "The Drapier's Letters," "Meditations on a Broomstick" and others. Even Swift's Poems are represented at the end.

The book is provided with a valuable introduction to Swift's life, character and literary style. Useful notes are at the end. The volume before us, presenting as it does the 'Complete Swift' in a way, will be found extremely useful to students of English literature.

OUTLINE OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR (REVISED EDITION) IN FIVE PARTS, BY J. C. NESFIELD, M. A. (MACMILLAN AND CO., LTD. 1927). Pp. 239. Price Rs. 1 6 as.

This is a revised edition of a book by Mr. Nesfield, the indefatigable writer on grammar. Apparently formal grammar of this kind holds sway in many parts of the country. We do not however believe in loading the mind of the young student of English with these grammatical details, which are of little real help towards their learning to use the language. The book may be useful for reference.

TEACHING ENGLISH—CLASS EXERCISES AND NOTES FOR TEACHERS, BY G. Y. ELTON, EDITED BY J. COMPTON. (MACMILLAN AND CO., LTD.) Pp. xiii+110 Price 3s.

This is an unusual book of its kind, written by a son of Professor Oliver Elton, who died prematurely at the age of thirty-three, in 1927. The author had great gifts, to judge from the book, to teach English. The book is full of original suggestions to teach English, to train children in feeling and thinking and imagining, with a view to make them acquire the power of composition. The original manner of the author's presentation of the subject may be illustrated by the following remark: "To teach people to dare to make heaps of mistakes, and throw mistakes in heaps in all directions (*i.e.*, teaching them to live) is perhaps the main object of an "English" course. So it's rather important to see that they do their

writing work in a form that won't make them frightfully conscious of the boggy of incorrectness." Writing about grammar-teaching, the author asks: "Is there anything a person can be told about words that will make him say, "By Jove, I'm glad you told me that; it never struck me before—Jolly interesting idea—how extraordinary—I begin to understand a bit now how things work—I always felt a bit confused before"?"

We heartily recommend this book to be added to school libraries and to teachers engaged in teaching English at schools.

RAPID READING SERIES, BY L. TIPPING, READERS I, II, III & IV. (MACMILLAN AND CO., LTD.) Pp. 109, 157, 210 AND 258 RESPECTIVELY. Price 8 as., 10 as., 12 as. AND Rs. 1 RESPECTIVELY.

This is a series of attractive readers well got-up and printed in very good type suitable for children. The principle of the Direct Method with emphasis on 'do' and 'say' is of course embodied in these books which facilitate 'rapid reading' in the sense that with the introduction of only a limited number of words a variety of sentences is composed. Each Reader beginning with the first, contains suitable poetry of nursery rhymes and other verses. Notes for the guidance of teachers and pupils are provided at the end of each lesson, there being an attempt to indicate the pronunciation also of some of the words, without the aid of a scientific phonetic script. The author would have done well to collect together at the end of each book all these words and their pronunciation. The indication of short vowels by doubling the following consonant may prove misleading to Indian teachers who may not all know that the double consonantal sound does not exist in English. There is a misprint on page 37 (as on pages 28 and 89) of the first Reader: "Practice the pupils in the use of..." 'Practice' as verb is Americanese, but Mr. Tipping has spelt 'practise' for the verb elsewhere.

Great credit is due for the way in which famous stories of literature have been adapted to the

limited vocabulary of the Readers which introduce all together 2,350 words. In the last Reader there are lessons about the League of Nations. As the author claims, the Readers are copiously planned to supply plentiful matter for exercise to give the pupil a thorough grounding in English. We commend the Readers for use in schools, especially as they will be very valuable for teachers.

EVERYDAY CHEMISTRY, BY J. R. PARTINGTON. (MACMILLAN & CO., 1929). 668 PAGES. Price 7s. 6d.

In the world of Chemistry, the name of Partington has become more or less a household word. His 'Text-book of Inorganic Chemistry' commands great respect among the under-graduates of the various Universities. The present volume written by such an eminent and experienced author cannot but be a valuable addition to the scientific lore.

This elementary book is divided into three parts: (1) History and Theory, (2) Non-Metals, (3) Organic Chemistry and Metals. Of course the author has not been guided by any particular motive in so dividing except that he considers this arrangement most convenient. He leaves the order of treatment to each reader as the book is intended to supplement what has been dealt with in the class-room and laboratory.

The author has made an attempt in its course to refer to some of the most recent advances such as Planck's Quantum Theory, Moseley's Atomic Numbers, Electronic Theory of Valency, etc., and their bearing on the progress of Chemistry. The treatment is very simple and the book is illustrated profusely with diagrams and portraits.

PHYSICAL CHEMISTRY, BY J. B. FIRTH. (UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS, 1929). Price 5s. 6d.

There has been recently written a fairly large number of books on Elementary Physical Chemistry for the reason that this subject which did not hitherto draw sufficient attention is being given more prominence in the school and college syllabuses. The present book is certainly a welcome addition to this long list. The author has taken pains to incorporate in it some of the results of modern research on atomic structure, and as regards the old material, it is presented in as clear and interesting a manner as possible.

At the end of the book is also a useful addition of more than 100 problems and test questions.

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The Educational Review.

The Second Conference of Indian Universities held at Delhi at the end of this month has according to all accounts been a great success.

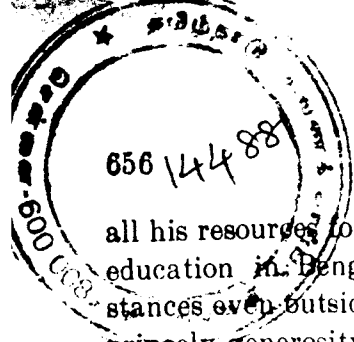
His Excellency Lord Irwin struck a high note of idealism at the very beginning in the course of his excellent opening address and the same spirit may be said to have prevailed the whole Conference. All the University representatives, Indian and European, seemed to have been actuated by the one desire of serving the cause of higher education in India to the best of their capacities, and the interests of the Universities were placed before every other consideration. A special feature of the Conference was the presence and the active participation in its proceedings of many distinguished representatives of the Government of India. The Hon. Sir John Thomson, Mr. Littlehales and Sir T. Vijiaraghavachari were present on behalf of the Government, besides the specialists of the Army and Medical Departments who were invited to help the Conference when subjects concerning them were discussed. It may be of some significance that after all there was not much difference between the University and Government points of view except in some details, and the proceedings were marked by great harmony. Among the subjects which received special attention was the present position of medical degrees in India. The Conference favoured very strongly the idea of a General Medical Council for

India with an adequate representation of Universities on it. The Conference also protested against the appointment of a Commissioner of Medical Examinations and Standards and hoped for some temporary arrangements by which the interests of the present medical students in Universities will not be prejudiced—pending the constitution of the General Medical Council. Much water has flowed down the bridge since the constitution of Intermediate Boards on the recommendation of the Calcutta University Commission and the time was therefore perhaps ripe for a reconsideration of the subject in the light of recent experience. The Conference considered the matter and came to the almost unanimous conclusion that the Intermediate Boards had not been a success and that they must either be reconstituted on proper lines or Intermediate education must be placed once more in charge of Universities in those areas. It was also significant of the growing confidence in the Inter-University Board that many matters were referred to it for consideration and report.

H. E. Lord Irwin gave a very fine exposition of University ideals in the course of his opening address at the Universities Conference and we make no apology for reproducing the whole address elsewhere in this issue.

A great patron of learning has passed away in the death of Maharajah Manindranandi of Cossimbazaar. Simple and unostentatious in his own personal life, he utilised

The late
Maharajah of
Cossimbazaar.



all his resources for the advancement of education in Bengal, and in some instances even outside. He endowed with princely generosity a chair for the study of Ancient Indian History and Hindu Culture at the Benares Hindu University, besides maintaining a very well-equipped First-grade College at his own headquarters, and helping numerous educational institutions in Calcutta including the University. A special form of generosity associated with the Maharajah was the very liberal encouragement he gave to scholars who were in need of money either for books or for publications, or for the prosecution of their higher studies abroad. Maharajah Manindranandi was a noble example of the real spirit of charity and his death will be regretted by numerous people in the educational world.

We are glad to find that affairs at the Muslim University, Aligarh, are settling down into peaceful progress.

After the Enquiry Committee's recom-

mendations, Justice Sulaiman of the Allahabad High Court was placed in charge of affairs pending the coming of the permanent Vice-Chancellor and Pro-Vice-Chancellor. Justice Sulaiman has given a very good account of his interim administration. Many irregularities have been rectified. Enquiry Committees have been started into other matters. The strength of the University has been cut down and a rule has been passed that students who failed in other Universities will not be admitted. The summer vacation has been brought into line with the periods obtaining in other Universities. Principal Horne of the University of Patna has come and assumed charge as Pro-Vice-Chancellor and Nawab Ross Masood has also entered upon his duties as Vice-Chancellor. The Aligarh University has already lost considerably by internal dissension, but we hope her troubles are now over and she will be enabled to realise the aims entertained by those responsible for inaugurating the institution.

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The value of Child Study is first twofold, from the point of view of theoretical psychology, and second of education. Education along with psychology has much to learn from the science of biology which suggests to both of these sciences the unit for study, viz., a reaction which is a response to a stimulus. The mental life ought to be viewed as is the physical from this point of view. Further, biological science is showing the usefulness both as to method and content of the observation of development. The study of child-nature is in accord with the general method which characterises all the biological sciences. Educationally we have more to do with children than with adults in our schools and so from the practical point of view also the more that we can learn about the natures of educands the better for our work. Miss Gordon's book is thus a real contribution to our literature, for it considers these questions with special reference to conditions in South India.

One of the most important of modern developments in this science is that which has to do with the study of individual differences. Although education is a social process and children are social in nature, yet we cannot deal with them too much in groups without doing great injustice to matters in which they are unlike. Studies made in Europe and America have their value for Indian teachers, but observations made in India, as Miss Gordon's have been, are of great value in enabling us to ascertain the similarities and differences with children of other countries, and the differences among groups and individuals here. Miss Gordon has not only given the result of her own observations but—what is even more important—she has shown teachers and others how they may observe for themselves.

The book surveys the more important problems connected with the study of child-nature. It deals with the stage of child development, with the processes of sense-perception, with play, hand-work, and fatigue, with exceptional children, both sub-normal and supra-normal, with measurements of intelligence, and with the application of the Kindergarten system to the Indian system. It is one of the books which the Academic Council on the recommendation of the Board of Studies in Teaching has declared as suitable for candidates for the L. T. degree. We hope that it may have a wide circulation as its influence is sure to be for good.

Education (Allahabad), March 1925.

The distinguished author of the book under review is one of the few enthusiasts in India who have taken to a systematic study of child-nature. The book embodies the results of close study by the author, not merely of the existing literature on the subject, but of the actual mental and physical growths of children, as witnessed by her in several schools in Britain and India where she has had the opportunity to work. Within a brief space of 200 pages, the author has contrived, in her plain, matter of fact, and at the same time, engaging style, to elucidate the various topics connected with child life such as the sense perception, play, the service of Hand in Mental Development, fatigue, exceptional children, measurement of intelligence and the Kindergarten system; touching the various theories on these topics and supplementing them by her own views based on personal study and investigation. We would especially commend to our readers the beautiful and inspiring chapter on the Kindergarten system in which without going into technical detail, the author has surveyed the basic principles of the system and pleaded in accordance with these principles for the Indianisation of Indian education. We are sure that this

little book will prove an excellent handbook for teachers as well as parents and others interested in the subject and kindle in them a deeper interest therein. It has been already recommended by the Academic Council of the Madras University as a suitable text-book for the students appearing for the L. T. Examination and we hope that other Universities will soon follow suit. We congratulate both the author and the publishers on this valuable publication and recommend every teacher to secure a copy thereof.

The Madras Christian College Magazine, January 1926.

The study of child-nature is exceedingly important for both of the sciences of Psychology and Education. Its importance for Psychology is from the genetic point of view. In the child one is able to observe in simpler forms many of the processes at work which in adult experience become so complex as to make them difficult of analysis. Its importance for Education is too obvious to need extended notice, and yet there are some who are so short-sighted as to neglect it. Here in South India there are a great number of schools in charge of teachers who do not know the elementary facts about child-nature. But with the progress of education the time will surely come when it will be considered as dangerous to employ a teacher who is ignorant of child-nature as it is to employ a man for a physician who knows nothing of anatomy and physiology. Such a book as that which Miss Gordon has written will serve a useful purpose in hastening that day by putting teachers in possession of a primer which contains the fundamentals of the subject in a readable style. It is the type of book which we would like to see translated into our South Indian vernaculars, because it not only includes the principles of the science, but states them with special reference to the needs of Indian teachers.

A personality is the outcome of forces which are both hereditary and environmental so that child study must take account of both sets of factors. Much more is to be gained by teachers through the study of children for themselves than the mere perusal of books on the subject, however authoritative they may be. The trouble with so many students of other things as well as of child-nature is the evident desire to be spoon-fed. They desire to get their information at second-hand rather than take the trouble to study for themselves. In many instances teachers have not the technique necessary to observe intelligently. Very valuable, then, is Miss Gordon's chapter on 'How to Study a Child,' particularly for those who are beginners in child study, and it is a matter of vital concern as much for the parent as for the teacher.

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Exercises. Applications. Exercises. Evaluation from Formulae. Problems. Geometric Applications. Appendix A.
Special Developments:—(a) Functional Notation; (b) The Method of Detached Co-efficients; (c) Homogeneity
and Symmetry in Functions; (d) The Remainder Theorem and its Corollaries; (e) Applications of the Principle of
Undetermined Co-efficients; (f) Factors; (g) Identities; (h) Square Root; (i) Equation—Solution. Appendix B.
Extra Examples. Answers. Madras S. S. L. C. Examination Question Papers.

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(அகா அதிகாரிகளால் தொகுக்கப்பட்ட விலைமுக்திணக்கத் தயாரிக்கப்பட்டது.)
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(முதல் பாகம்.)

For contents, see page vi.

3 பாகம் 5-வது வகுப்புக்கும் 1-வது பார்த்திற்கும், கிரௌன் 300 பக்கங்கள், விலை அணு 12.

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For contents, see page vii.

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For contents, see page vii.

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