

# THE EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

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NOWHERE in the field of Linguistics has such intensive research been carried on within the last fifty years as in the region of Indo European. The earlier 'philologists' had prepared the ground for linguistic investigations by their analysis of the literary aspects of ancient texts. The minutiae in the matter of literary interpretation had been so carefully worked out that pure linguists found themselves already posted at definite starting-points. Nor have the epigraphists been less serviceable. Inscriptional texts in various ancient languages, known and unknown, have served to fill in lacunæ, to illuminate doubtful regions and open novel perspectives. From a very early

time the collection, arrangement and classification of materials has continued to be regarded as the basis of linguistic investigations. If to-day we have a valuable stock of theories and inferences pertaining to the history of the Indo European family of languages, we owe them primarily to the assiduous efforts of all those who modestly contented themselves with collecting and classifying materials without being sidetracked into the more ambitious sphere of theorising.

From the welter and conflict of theories and counter-theories that students of modern linguistics began to adumbrate from about 1870 onwards, there has arisen a strictly scientific methodology in the study of Indo-European. No modern investigator dare approach linguistic problems relating to this family in defiance of this methodology. Failures and successes have alike contributed

to the up-building of this discipline; for, the pursuit of truth here as elsewhere has been helped forward by the conflict of opinions.

The study of sound-changes almost exclusively occupied the attention of the earlier scholars. Sound-rules were formulated, exceptions were discussed, the laws of sound-modifications were analysed,—and the remarkable fact emerged that sound-changes generally proceed in uniform directions in certain given circumstances, and that even the so-called exceptions when analysed with reference to the relevant modifying factors could be classified and ascribed to certain other uniform categories of change. With comparison of forms as the basis of work throughout, sporadic exceptions were reduced to an insignificant minimum. The sound-rules associated with the names of Grimm, Verner and Fortunatov, the sonant-theory of Brugmann, the “palatal law” of Collitz and Schmidt, were positive achievements in this direction in Indo-European. The study of roots and determinatives, affixes, etc. was taken up at about the same time by Fick who found in the results of phonological inquiries valuable help for his task of reconstructing proto-forms. The influence of accent on the character of vowels in related forms was next studied by Hirt and Streitburg and this led to the formulation of the rules of Ablaut.

More recently, Wundt and Paul took up the social aspects of language-change and stressed the importance of the relationship of languages to social factors. Syntactical comparisons which had been more or less neglected by earlier scholars have also claimed the attention of certain latter-day scholars. Last but not least, the analysis of the semasiological contents of words and investigations into meaning-changes have

been taken up within the last two or three decades, and the results achieved here have been of incalculable value in the study of etymologies generally.

Side by side with the formulation of rules based upon the study of the classical languages, the inquiry into the development of individual modern languages also engaged the attention of the scholars. The Germanic group was tackled to begin with; this was followed by the analysis of the Romance languages on the one hand and the Balto-Slavonic group on the other. Much in regard to this last-mentioned group yet remains to be studied, but the progress already made has been phenomenal.

Nor have the Indo-Aryan group and Eranian been neglected. Naturally, the earlier scholars were more concerned with Sanskrit than with its modern ramifications. Of late, however, the Indian vernaculars and their histories have begun to interest European and Indian scholars alike. Here is a field, yet vastly unexplored, though the pioneer labours of Beames, Hoernle, Tessitori and Bhandarkar, have been extended and amplified by the works of Bloch, Turner and Chatterjee. The completion of the monumental *Linguistic Survey* of India, the new-born interest in the subject of Linguistics in Indian Universities, the formation of an Indian Linguistic Society at Lahore, the enthusiastic work undertaken by a band of young scholars to collect and classify materials from the various Indo-Aryan dialects,—all these lead us to hope that the analysis of the more modern branches of Indo-Aryan will, in a few decades, have been accomplished with the same thoroughness that has marked Indo-Europeanist investigations.

The modern linguistic researcher in the West is almost always fully trained in the methods of Indo-European research. This training is of incalculable assistance to him in his approach to unsolved problems within the sphere of Indo-European itself. The fastidious care with which he proceeds from step to step always consolidating his ground, contributes to the solidity of his results; those who fail to conform to this discipline only stultify themselves.

Indispensable as this meticulous attention to detail and method certainly is in the particular region of Indo-European (or Indo-Aryan), and useful as it certainly would be in the study of all language-systems, it is not absolutely free from an element of danger which in some cases vitiates the Indo-Europeanist's approach to non-Indo-European families.

It generates in some Western scholars a bias that other language families than Indo-European should have undergone all those evolutions which this family is known to have undergone within the period of our purview. What we mean is that there exists on the part of certain Indo-Europeanists a sub-conscious tendency to forget that the factors making for linguistic evolution are different in different language-systems, depending on temperamental, geographical, social and political considerations. Especially true is this difference of some of the language-families of Asia as distinguished from Indo-European. For instance, the rapidity of the pace at which some of the Indo-European dialects have undergone evolution within the last thousand years (*e.g.* Germanic, Romance languages, etc.) is conspicuous by its absence in the development of Dravidian. And this conservatism is

probably shared by other Asiatic language-systems also. Yet when scholars steeped in the study of Indo-European, tackle problems concerning these families, they try to postulate the same phenomena and the same changes that they have so confidently studied in Indo-European. I do not by any means want to minimise the value of a training in Indo-European Linguistics for scholars occupying themselves with other language-families; indeed such a training may be said to be a *sine qua non* for all linguistic work to-day, in as much as that alone can equip one with a strictly scientific outlook in linguistic research. Nor do I wish to suggest that all Indo-Europeanists suffer from this bias; for, I know of many who recognise that, while strictly scientific methods alone would be fruitful in investigations into language-families like Dravidian, the researcher would do well to keep an open mind in dealing with particular problems and to avoid importing into them his Indo-Europeanist pre-possessions. Nevertheless, one cannot help remarking that there are Western scholars here and there who forget the comparative conservatism of language-families like Dravidian and exhibit impatience over the works of those proceeding on lines of investigation different from what they are accustomed to in Indo-European research. What Paul Masson-Oursel has recently said about the Westerner's approach to the political histories of the East:

“Because we (Westerners) feel convinced that everything is in a state of evolution, we close our eyes to the relative fixity of Oriental Societies—”

is also true of the attitude of some Indo-Europeanists to the study of Asiatic

language-families like Dravidian. In so far as the attitude of these critics is a continual warning to us against departing from the discipline of linguistic investigation perfected in the field of Indo-European,—it is healthy and valuable. But when the Indo-Europeanist asks us to be on the look-out for Indo-European phenomena almost *everywhere* in our study of Eastern language-families, he may mislead. I shall give here a few instances of this kind of Indo-Europeanist bias operating on Dravidian.

Can the consonant-groups occurring initially in a few Dravidian dialects of Central and Northern India be regarded as being representative of an ancient stage? On the analogy that consonant-groups were broken up in Middle and Modern Indo-Aryan, it has been suggested that Dravidian also may have had consonant-groups at an earlier stage. Here the argument is based on two assumptions:—(a) that the character and rate of evolution in Dravidian may have been more or less the same as in Indo-Aryan and (b) that the few consonant-groups found in Kui, Brāhūi, etc. are representative of an older stage. Both these assumptions, however, could be disproved, on closer investigation. Of the evolution of the Southern Dravidian dialects since 1000 A.D., we know something positive; and our knowledge here tells us that the rate of linguistic change has been considerably less rapid than in the case of Indo-Aryan within the same period. How then could we assume that *before* 1000 A.D. the same quick evolution that characterised Indo-Aryan might have marked Dravidian also, or that the same changes might have occurred? As for the consonant-groups found in Kui and Brāhūi, they could be proved to have arisen from a kind of accent-shift in

these particular dialects, involving the elision of the radical vowels and in some cases the lengthening of the vowels of secondary syllables. The reconstruction of common Dravidian bases from our *modern* materials negatives everywhere the possibility of such initial consonant groups having existed in *Common Dravidian*. Of *Ur-Dravidian* or *Primitive Dravidian* we do not (and cannot) know at present anything; it may or may not have been the same as common Dravidian, and no purpose is served by speculating about it.

Another instance where the Indo-Europeanist imports his bias in discussing Dravidian is in the direction of discounting the value of Tamil in illuminating the condition of *Common Dravidian*. The argument is that Tamil and the Southern dialects are highly developed *Kunst-Sprachen* or *Hoch-Sprachen* which had been the vehicles of great literatures, and that presumably, therefore, their linguistic forms are also the results of deep evolutionary changes in the past. These evolutionary changes, it is said, having been ignored by Caldwell and others who took Tamil as the *norm* for their discussions, we have till now been led astray in our ideas about Dravidian. Poor Caldwell! He who did so much for the initiation of Dravidian studies is being subjected at once to frontal and flank attacks. The Indo-Europeanist distrusts him for his reliance on Tamil, while another school of thought denounces him for having failed to identify Aryan with Dravidian! The Indo-Europeanist would contend that the conservative features of Dravidian are rather to be sought in the lesser dialects of the North and that the bases and grammatical forms of Tamil are only secondary in character. Now, while

fully admitting that Tamil does show many unique variations of its own, we actually find from the comparative analysis of the features of Tamil with those of the central and northern dialects that at many a step Tamil has conserved ancient features more numerous than any other Dravidian dialect. The comparative richness of grammatical forms and devices in Tamil does *not* conflict with this view. The unique peculiarity of Tamil is, that it has perfected a primitive instrument into a wonderfully adequate vehicle of highly developed thought. If we analyse the semantic contents of Tamil bases, we are struck with the remarkable perfection with which abstract meanings have been evolved from original literal significations, both these aspects being retained with great fidelity in the vocabulary of the language. Structurally, most of the bases of the minor dialects of the north and the south are secondary, compared to the corresponding Tamil bases which are more conservative. Indeed Tamil may not stand for the earliest stage of common Dravidian, but to the comparative student its forms do appear as preserving a larger number of conservative features than any other Dr. dialect.

Apart from this bias affecting the attitude of certain Indo-Europeanists towards other language-families, there exists also a tendency on the part of some scholars to look askance at certain spheres of investigation whether in Indo-European or elsewhere. They would like to exclude altogether certain subjects from the field of linguistic research on the ground that these are not susceptible of any adequate solutions. Questions regarding the origin and history of suffixes, prefixes, derivatives and determinatives, for example, are sceptically relegated as insoluble glottogony.

Jespersen rightly points out (p. 77 of his *Language, Its Nature and Development*) that, though the futile speculations of the earlier linguists justified to a certain extent this distrust, it would be the height of unreason for us to exclude these general questions as being insoluble for all time. Fortunately, the distrust for glottogony is gradually wearing away except among a few over-fastidious Indo-Europeanists who, accustomed as they are to the meticulous analysis of detail, still continue to exhibit impatience over such discussions. Even the Linguistic Society of Paris which till a decade ago set its face against glottogony by banning the publication of articles on general problems of language, has to-day practically waived its objection, judged by the increasing number of articles on such topics\* now appearing in the Bulletins and Memoirs of this Society.

How absurd over-much fastidiousness may sometimes prove to be in linguistic discussions is illustrated by Prof. Jespersen in his recent work. Sound-changes have been shown by phoneticians to follow uniform directions generally; whatever does not fall within general rules will have to be explained not as sporadic—for, there could be no instances of sound-change which do not admit of explanation—but as belonging to the category

\* It has however to be observed here that these articles on general problems of language appearing in the Paris Bulletins are still often coloured by a certain distrustful outlook as shown by the negative theories and sceptical warnings that abound in many of them. The Vienna School of Linguisticians (founded by Pater W. Schmidt) has on the other hand, welcomed discussion of general problems of language from the start. "Do not miss the wood for the trees" has always been their guiding principle. And naturally, they have been exposed to much ridicule from the over-meticulous *Fachgelehrte* of the West.

of certain minor sound-rules which come into operation in different circumstances. These views so ably proved and illustrated by earlier scholars do command universal acceptance. But can this fact justify the summary rejection† of the connection between the Germanic group of forms: Eng. *nut*, German *nuss*, etc., and Latin *nux*, on the ground that the phonetic connection could not be traced to any known sound-laws? Jespersen says (p. 295 of his work): "Here we have in two different cognate language-groups two forms which agree not only in sound but also in structure and gender and possess exactly the same meaning ('nut'); and yet we are asked to regard them as not allied! Fortunately I am not the first to have raised objections to this blunder, as Pederson and others have already suggested certain explanations for connecting the forms; which among these etymologies is correct (both may be wrong) is of much less importance to us than the triumph of healthy common sense over phonetic hair-splitting!"

All these observations of ours about the bias of certain Indo-Europeanists, far from detracting from the value of their work in the sphere of Indo-European, only prove more than anything else how much of precision, scientific accuracy and systematised methodology, has come to be inseparably associated with Western linguistic research. Faddist opinions, *à priori* argumentation and fanciful theories are no longer tolerated in Western linguistic discussions to day.

† Paul in his Dictionary observes that German *nuss* (with which Eng. *nut* is allied) is *not* related to Latin *nux*. Kluge is of the same opinion while the New English Dictionary makes no mention of the Latin word at all, presumably because the editors considered it impossible to relate *nut* to *nux*.

There is a discipline which no student of linguistics dare violate in his investigations except at the risk of inviting ridicule upon himself. It is to the Indo-Europeanist, that we owe the valuable lesson that the collection and classification of materials, and the systematic process of arguing out conclusions in strict adherence to these materials, should form the main task of every linguist. Students of other language-systems than Indo-European cannot afford to cast aside this experience of Western scholars. The training in methodology afforded by the study of Indo-European is therefore exceedingly valuable to-day for students of Linguistics all the world over. The study of the results of the work of Western scholars in the various departments will, subject to the caution indicated above, prove to be of immense help to every student seriously concerning himself with the problems of language-research.

As in many other fields of research, German scholars have been among the foremost in the Indo-European sphere also. The passion with which pioneer philologists in Germany pursued the study of Sanskrit and Germanic has been handed down as a noble tradition to the present-day generation of scholars. The study alike of Sanskrit literature and Sanskrit grammar initiated this interest in Indo-European generally. And so Göttingen, Heidelberg, Jena and Leipzig from a very early time became the centres of Indo-Europeanist research. The tradition established by Bopp, Curtius, Grimm, Schrader and others has been worthily maintained by successive generations of scholars.

These results are nowhere better embodied than in a series of works published by Carl

Winter of Heidelberg in the *Indo-Germansche Bibliothek* series. Indian students knowing German would find in these volumes authoritative information about the different branches of Indo-Europeanist research.

*The introduction to the study of Indo-Germanic Linguistics* by Dr. J. Schrijnen presents an excellent conspectus of the work so far achieved in the general spheres of research and in phonology. The work is a handy one containing in a compressed form not only an account of the work already accomplished but also here and there certain original perspectives such as we do not associate with a certain class of Western scholars. Compare, for instance, the author's observations on page 40 of the book where he stresses the necessity for the Indo-Europeanist to cast his vision wider than the immediate region with which he is directly concerned:

"The Indo-Europeanist must extend his comparisons to other language-families if richer and more reliable results have to be obtained and if the study of general linguistic is to progress; for, the final goal of all language-study is to determine how the human spirit reveals itself in its transformations and manifold changes during the course of ages.....linguistic research is thus a subdivision of psychology and cultural history of peoples; and language-families not related to Indo-European may help us in this connection, as all of them possess common features which find their explanation in congruous relationships of speech-life."

Chapters 11 and 12 are entirely original in character, treating as they do respectively about the recent developments in Dialectology, Social Aspects of Research and Psychological Investigation.

The chapters on Phonology treat about the most significant of recent views, as for instance the theory of vocalic sonants and liquids propounded by Brugmann and others.

The last chapter in the book on Root-variation, D-terminatives and Preformatives contains a summary of Prof. Schrijnen's own original research. The author points out among other things that Indo-European roots like *K<sup>u</sup>ER* and *K<sup>u</sup>E<sup>u</sup>RT* which are so patently related should not be separated and that the root-extensions in such cases are suffixes which require to be gone into intensively. The author deprecates the distrust felt by some towards the intensive study of root-extensions and affixes and approves of the statement of Persson (who has done excellent work in continuation of Fick's pioneer labours), that it is impossible for Indo-European comparatists to keep away from the study of glottogony. Again the author shows on the strength of his own independent research, how *s*—of sigmatic bases could only have been a prefix. Similarly, he regards it as probable that the earliest stages of Indo-European possessed also two other prefixes: *d* and *u*. Schrijnen emphasises everywhere the need for scientific precision and accurate methodology; but he does not despair of finding solutions for the general problems of language by virtue of this very precision and methodology, as the science goes on progressing. This is indeed a right kind of outlook which avoids the two extremes of over-fastidiousness and glib generalisation, and sees the wood and the trees simultaneously.

The House of Carl Winter has also brought out in the same series excellent manuals on the histories of the Greek and the Latin languages

traced from Indo-European period downwards. So far as Greek is concerned, while Dr. Albert Debrunner's small hand-book on *Griechische Wortbildungslehre* treats about the formative elements of Greek word-construction, like determinatives of roots, suffixes and formatives in general of nouns and verbs and the elements of compound words—and includes references to the part played by analogy, accent, etc., in the modification of the forms, Prof. Hirt, an acknowledged authority on Greek, covers the entire ground of Phonology and Grammar minutely and comprehensively in his historical *Handbuch der Griechischen Laut und Formenlehre*. As a scholar of great distinction who has done important original work in this field, Prof. Hirt is in a position to lay down in this work new view-points in the tackling of difficult problems. The work thus contains not only the results of work achieved so far but also useful new perspectives in the approach to unsolved difficulties of which indeed there exist not a few even in Greek. Among these new suggestions, we may single out the following as being of general interest to students of Linguistics:

(a) Root-determinatives or Root-extensions: "Persson offers in his work a rich collection of material but contributes little to the clarification of determinatives." Persson separates these elements, says Hirt, "only in a mechanical way, forgetting that in several instances the absence of what he considers to be determinatives but what Prof. Hirt would consider to be components of roots, may have been due to the disappearance of these at an earlier stage. The relationship of Greek *auxano*, for instance, to Lat. *augere* need not be considered in such a way that -s is an intrusive; for this s may in certain forms have disappeared, and s-less forms generalised."

(b) The origin of suffixes in Indo-European and Greek (p. 291, et. seq.).

(c) History of case-terminations of Indo-European (pp. 308 & 309).

"About the origin of case-suffixes, we know yet nothing certain.... Though we have in this connection to deal only with possibilities, the question cannot be brushed aside, because a great deal depends upon our correct knowledge of this subject and the whole syntax of cases will become clear to us only when we shall have clarified the origin of cases. In I.F. 17, 36, I have tried, on the basis of a rigid consideration of sound-laws, to explain the flexional endings of nouns and verbs.... The most significant of my conclusions are given below:

1. The fact that out of the large number of sounds possessed by Indo-European, only *m, s, t (d)* and *ai* appear plentifully in these endings makes a connection between case-endings and verb endings probable.

2. The cases with the suffix *-bh*, Greek *fi* might have been a comparatively recent formation. We have to see in it a post-posed word, and I have in I.F., 17, 51 identified Gk. *fi* with German *bei*.

3. Similarly the Dative element *-ai* with which the Loc. suffix *i* stands in Ablaut relation, might have been an independent element, identical with *ai - i* appearing as verb-endings.

4. The *-d* of the Ablative may be recognised in the Neuter Nominative of the Pronoun (cf. Lat. *illud*).

5. The Plural is in all cases except that of the Genitive marked by *-s* whose origin is not clear but whose connection with the Nom. *s* of the Sing. might not lie outside the region of probability.

6. The Locative is without any ending in many instances, *i.e.*, identical with the *casus indefinitus*. The termination *-i* is added thereto.

7. We come thus to the following result: As the oldest components, *-s* and *-m* appear which form the Nom. and the Acc. cases, *-s* also forms the Genitive, for, Gen. *pedos* and Nom. *peds* have been once identical. Cf. Uhlenbeck's view that basically an Active group (Nom. Gen.) and a Passive group (Acc. Instrumental) may have existed. "Through the addition of *-ai, -i*, the Dative and the Loc. arose; and the Ablative ending *-ōd* and the Instr. *bhi* are post-positions."

(c) Origin of Personal endings of verbal terminations (pages 496, 497). Bopp's theory of pronominal stems is rejected on account of the difficulty of connecting the second personal verb-endings with the second person pronominal stems. Hirt's own view that the Indo-European endings may have been of nominal origin is briefly illustrated by instances (from Greek) showing remarkable identity of form between Nominal and Verbal forms.

These few comments and citations would be enough to illustrate what abundance of original suggestions lies contained in this work.

In the same series (published by Carl Winter) is included a German translation of Prof. Meillet's work on the *History of Greek*, where the subject is pursued on a different plan from that adopted by Prof. Hirt in his work mentioned above. The object of this work is to discuss the characteristics of the Greek language and its different dialects with special reference to the purely "philological" aspects revealed by inscriptions, texts and historical facts. The

pre-historic condition of Greek, the peculiarities of the *koine*, the origin of Greek poetic art and the characteristics of the Homeric dialect, Attic drama, Ionic prose, etc., are discussed in so far as they are of interest to the linguist. One point discussed by Prof. Meillet deserves special mention here. In Ch. III, Part I, Meillet points out that the vocabulary of Greek should (and does) contain a great many words borrowed from the *Ægean* peoples with whom the Greeks came in contact. The fact that Greek words possess allied forms in a few other Indo-European groups does not always, in Meillet's opinion, necessarily argue against the words being borrowings. The question of each such word has to be investigated individually, and Meillet says that such an investigation has revealed that Greek words like *laburinthos, eleva, uoinos, sukon, rodon, leirion, basileus, anax*, etc., are borrowings. "It would be wrong to attempt to explain many cultural words in Greek vocabulary with the assistance of Indo-European, since a not considerable portion should be *Ægean*." This is a most interesting suggestion that has been taken up and pursued by some recent scholars like Autran. Though the affinities of *Ægean* are shrouded in obscurity, it has been surmised that this group may have had relations with some of the language-families of Asia. Be this as it may, the subject of the contact of Greek with Asiatic and Mediterranean non-Indo-European languages opens up a valuable field of inquiry which might shed light on the relations of Indo-European to other racial stocks.

The short study of *The Basic Meaning of the Conjunctive in Greek* illustrates how younger scholars are striving to shed new light on old problems by requisitioning the

help of syntactical studies. The aim of this particular paper is to show, on the basis of a study of Greek syntactical relationships, that the basic signification of the Conjunctive in Greek is not "voluntative" (as maintained by Delbrück and others) but "futuristic," and that Indo-European should have possessed two "futures" (a) the Conjunctive itself, perfective in meaning and (b) the ordinary Future with a durative sense.

The author's thesis cannot be said to have been conclusively established, inasmuch as he has not brought within his purview a detailed discussion of I.A.; but the short paper illustrates how old problems could be scientifically tackled along new perspectives.

While Max Niedermann's *Historische Lautlehre des Lateinischen* in the same series gives only a very useful conspectus of the history of Latin phonology, Prof. Sommer's work (the companion volume to Prof. Hirt's work on Greek) is a veritable compendium covering the entire field of Phonology and Grammar. The extra-Latin relationships are everywhere referred to and besides,—what appears unique in this work,—rich materials from Latin inscriptional sources, illustrative of the various changes are given at every stage. As Prof. Sommer's work is intended not only for the scholar but also for the student seeking first information on the historical development of Latin, he has wisely adopted the Indo-European sound-scheme as the starting-point for tracing the history of Latin sounds, and the reverse process of tracing the Latin grammatical forms backwards to Indo-European sources. This facilitates the understanding of the subject inasmuch as while the Indo-European sounds are more or less largely represented in Latin, the grammatical forms have undergone such radical changes

that the attempt to make Indo-European grammatical forms as the *point de départ* would introduce unnecessary complications for those for whom this work is intended. Despite the profusion of material and views contained in the work, the systematised treatment and the lucid explanations render the perusal of the work a pleasure even to the uninitiated beginner.

Very interesting are the discussions on the Italo-Celtic relationships (p. 13), the pre-historic Accent in Latin (pages 84—87), Spontaneous Consonant-gemination (pages 202—4), the development of Latin tenses in relation to Indo-European (p. 479 *et seq.*), the significance of the resemblance of the Latin passive-deponential *-r-* to Celtic and to the recently discovered Tokharian *-r-* used for similar purposes, the peculiarities of certain unique types of Latin Perfect (p. 558), etc.

In the same series ('Indo-germanische Bibliothek') was published in 1924 the first volume of Berneker's *Etymological Dictionary of Slavonic* which is unique of its kind in that no similar attempt appears to have been assayed by any other European scholar. The work is a mine of information, wherein the cognate forms of *all* Slavonic languages are discussed with reference to their mutual relationships from the phonological and semantic points of view, and further are also related (structurally and semantically) to the cognates of other Indo-European groups. In controversial instances, the views of different scholars are briefly indicated and Berneker's own view-point suggested; for instance, see *tseloveki* (*man*, etc.), *gospoid* (*master*, etc.), *bogi* (*God*), etc. Unfortunately the volume takes us only to the letter *L*; and

the subsequent volume or volumes have not yet appeared.

The study of Slavonic does not appear to have made as much progress as that of other Indo-European groups but Berneker's volume and Mikkola's short work on *Ur-Slavonic Phonology* (appearing in the same series) would show that rapid strides are being made by German scholars in this branch also.

Apart from these larger works, the House of Carl Winter has published a large number of off-prints of lectures, discussions and theses on special topics. B. Liebig's thesis on Indian grammarians summarises critically the essentials of grammatical speculation from the time of the Pratiśākhya down to Pāṇini. Lorck discusses in a short paper the psychological basis of the distinction between the use of the Imperfect, Definite Past and Indefinite Past in French, and demonstrates how the use of the Imperfect and the Indefinite Past was originally based on what he describes as *Phantasie—denkakt*, though latterly mechanisation has set in. H. Amman's paper *Vom doppelten Sinn der sprachlichen Formen* is another suggestive psychologico-linguistic study adumbrating a view-point that, in our opinion, requires to be supported by the discussion of examples from other language-families, Bartholomae, the great authority on Avestan, treats with great erudition about certain etymological topics in *Zur Etymologie und Wortbildung in I. G. Sprachen*.

By far the most interesting among these shorter papers are those from the pen of Prof. H. Güntert. A short discussion of his on the etymology of the Greek word *anthropos* is a model of its kind, illustrative of the comprehensive grasp and scientific precision with

which trained Western scholars approach etymological difficulties. After showing how the explanations offered for this word by previous scholars (Prellwitz, Leo Meyer, Brugmann, Fick and Nazari) are unsupportable, Güntert proceeds to offer an explanation of his own, *viz.*, that the word is composed of *anthro* (ablaut-grade of IGC  $\sqrt{n}th\bar{e}r$  meaning *beard, spike, point, edge, etc.*, + *ōpos*. He bases his view on a series of very convincing arguments:

(a) The term is used mostly for the male whose distinctive possession of the beard should originally have been denoted by the first constituent of *anthropos*.

(b) Parallel instances are cited from other languages and traditions to illustrate how the beard has been so closely associated with the male as to become the chief mark of manhood and therefore how the idea could be used for describing "man."

(c) The existence of the base with the meaning, 'beard' 'edge,' 'spike,' etc., in a number of other Greek words themselves.

Prof. Güntert's admirable marshalling of facts and his insistence on scrupulous adherence to scientific precision, together with a vein of humour (p. 17) not often found among scholars of his type, leave the reader of his paper convinced and delighted.

In another paper on the origin and formation of the Italic Imperfect (*agēbam, legēbam*, etc.), Prof. Güntert traces the base-portion to the IGC heavy-based Root-Aorist form.

*Ueber die ahurischen und daēvischen Ausdrücke im Avesta* is another interesting paper from the pen of the same scholar in which he explains the semasiological basis of the difference between the two different sets of words used in Avesta. According to

Prof. Güntert the difference in the usage was not conventional or artificial (as some scholars have maintained) but based on the *affective* or *emotional* values of more or less synonymous expressions.

The above survey will have made it clear what remarkable strides are being made by German scholars in the study particularly of Indo-European or Indo-Germanic (as they would prefer to call this family). The tradition set up by the earlier German scholars is being worthily continued by modern workers in that land.

Nor are the present-day French linguists of the Paris University any whit behind. With the illustrious Meillet at their head, a band of scholars is toiling there in various departments of Linguistics. Indo-European of course claims a great share of their attention; but a number of scholars are also casting their vision wider and brilliantly adventuring into fresh fields and pastures new. Autran (in connection with Sumerian and contiguous languages of Asia), Cohen (in Semitic), Jules Bloch (in Indo-Aryan), Przyluski (in Austric, Indo-Chinese, etc.) and Rivet (in American) have done work of an enduring character.

The discussions of these scholars are rigorously controlled by linguistic methodology; great emphasis is laid by them all on the collection of materials and for the avoidance of the tendency to "jump to conclusions." It is to be hoped that this scientific rigour combined with their wide and comprehensive outlook will contribute to the substantial progress of the study of other language-families than Indo-European.

In the matter, however, of the study of non-European languages with close reference

to cultural and ethnic features, the Vienna School of Linguists organised by the Catholic Father W. Schmidt, stands supreme. In the columns of the Vienna journal of Antiquities, *Anthropos*, there have been appearing from time to time contributions (long and short) which have enriched our knowledge of many non-European languages. Though it may be true that some of these contributions are made by non-specialists, it would be hypercritical to belittle the value of the materials and comments offered by them. Most of these Viennese linguists regard the study of Linguistics not as an end in and for itself, but as a kind of instrument which along with Ethnology, Sociology and Anthropology, might illuminate the beginnings of human culture and explain several knotty problems of cultural variation. Linguistic phenomena, therefore, are investigated by them only in close connection with the allied subjects of Ethnology and Anthropology. This comprehensive orientation may sometimes lead to a lack of attention to details such as alone will furnish us with a basis for scientific work. Hasty generalisation on slender materials may prove to be a dangerous temptation here. 'Ideas' rather than scientifically proved 'facts' may become popular; and the result may be disservice to Truth. These dangers, however, are carefully avoided by the greater researchers of the Vienna school. The works of these major scholars (Schmidt, Drexel, Christian, etc.) evidence a scrupulous regard for scientific discipline. Much indeed yet remains to be done in the fields they are tackling, but there can hardly be any doubt that their pioneer work deserves high appreciation and gratitude.

### MEDICAL INSPECTION IN SCHOOLS.

By Mr. CH. V. JOGARAO, B.A.  
*Maharajah's College, Vizianagram.*

Of the other European centres where linguistic studies are systematically pursued, mention might be made of Copenhagen, Upsala, Lund and Oslo, and of the Finno-Ugrian Society of Helsingfors which is carrying on investigations into the Uralic family the affinities of which to Indo-European on the one hand (Wiklund, Sköld) and to Dravidian on the other (Schrader) have been suggested recently.

One cannot in this connection afford to forget that self-made Italian scholar Trombetti whose stupendous erudition in Linguistics has been at once the source of bewilderment and of admiration to many a worker in this field. His knowledge of the languages of the world was phenomenal; but unfortunately he attempted to convert this to the herculean task of proving the monogenesis of all languages,—an undertaking which no single scholar, however learned he may be, could shoulder at present. Vehemently did Prof. Trombetti fight on behalf of his thesis, and numerous were the works which he wrote to support his position; yet the consensus of opinion among scholars to-day regards his theory of the unity of languages as yet unproved.

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[F, for the good old saying 'All cry and no wool', we find in the world's activities many an instance to prove its truthfulness and wisdom, the Educational System is not lacking in instances of the kind. Of the many that we have, let us ponder to-day on the subject indicated as the caption of this article. The idea of medical inspection in schools had its origin in England, the fountain-head of all wisdom; and from thence has come to be adopted in our country under mandates from Simla or Delhi. And now in every school we find the work going on with no small enthusiasm. There are G. O.'s on the matter, Departmental Regulations and strict control of the officers lest any school or management should be negligent in the matter; and indeed any amount of care is bestowed on this subject. All that is being done in the direction is sure to leave the impression that there must be accruing immense good to the student population in the matter of their health. Again, it is the secret conviction of many persons conversant with these activities that it is something short of a farce and wastage. Let us now look into the workings of this principle and ascertain which way the balance swings.

As matters stand, a fee of Rs. 4 per term is collected from students of secondary schools. Some forms are printed under several heads, indicating the details of the inspection; and a doctor once a year fills up these details after closely examining the students. At the close of the inspection the sheets are bundled up and confided to some shelf or bureau; and there they stand and

must stand for ever. These bundles are opened as occasions arise to furnish a copy to be enclosed in the Transfer Certificates to be issued to out-going students. The amount of money collected under this head perhaps goes into the pocket of the doctor, partly or in full; and to the stationer for the paper and to the printer for his share of work. As for parents there is a provision that the results of this inspection are to be communicated to the guardians of students so as to enable them to take note of their wards' ailments, if any, and see that they are paid due attention. How far this part of the regulation is scrupulously carried out remains questionable. And, even if it should be, we cannot generally expect the guardians, whom we know what they are, to take any action based upon such communications. The practical effect of the medical inspection thus conducted amounts to bring into being large bundles of sheets to be piled up in the office records. What earthly purpose these records can possibly serve remains a mystery. Obviously they cannot cure one student of his stomach-ache, sore-eye or any of the simple ailments to which youngsters are generally subject. If we sanely think of this state of things we cannot fail to conclude that all this is no more than empty sympathy for the health of students; and in the heart of every honest thinker should arise the pious wish that some substantially benevolent scheme should take the place of the present one. Having closely watched the workings of this principle in schools and bestowed some thought on this problem I venture to offer the following suggestions to be taken for what they are worth. Let the money collected under this head be spent for providing a stock of medicines to be used for the benefit of the

students. It may be doubted how this pittance may suffice for the purpose. I see an easy way to slowly swell the amount in which case it will be quite adequate for the purpose. Students of the secondary stage are now paying Rs. 8 per head per annum; let the managements contribute an equal amount; and if the Government are pleased, according to their custom, to contribute an amount equal to what is thus collected in the school, the amount will come to Rs. 2 per head. And I am sure that guardians will not hesitate to double their share since it comes to be but a small pittance compared with the standard fees they are now paying. This arrangement will even raise the fund to Rs. 4 per head. Our High Schools on an average contain a strength of about 200, which means a fund of Rs. 800 per annum. Larger High Schools can have a fairly larger amount at their disposal. In this way it will be a very easy matter to organise a Medical Fund for each High School adequate enough not only to furnish a stock of medicines but also to pay some reasonable remuneration to the Doctor for attending to the suffering students of the School for about an hour or two every day. In this matter I should like to suggest the desirability of having an L. M. P. on the staff of every High School to attend to some teaching work in addition to his medical functions. We just hear that in Bengal proposals to this effect are under serious consideration. He will be a sort of combined teacher, to be a full-timed worker in the school and available during all school hours. Since he can have his own private practice out of school hours, there will be no difficulty to secure the services of qualified men. This arrangement will have one important advantage, namely, that these doctor teachers can handle some subjects

bearing on Hygienic, Sanitary and Physiological sections of the Elementary Science Syllabus far better than others; and what is more valuable is the acquaintance which students can gain in medical matters from their early days; and this will be a remarkable asset to them in their after lives. I am led to believe that arrangements of this kind will render more substantial service to the youngsters of our schools. I know, of course, that all this touches the purse of the managements as well as the State. As for the managements they are already made to contribute something to pay the doctors. Moreover when they are spending so much money on laboratory, furniture, library, etc., they will not hesitate to allot a small sum of money for this important purpose, and they should not. And though they may fail to be prompt in the matter it left to themselves, the issue of Regulations in the matter will compel them to do it. Now it may appear to be a serious question for the State to meet this charge. But we know that already the Government of Madras in their G. O. No. 208, Home (Education), dated 12-2-1920, have accorded their sanction to the payment of grants towards the cost of Medical Inspection. This item of expenditure may have to be slightly enhanced and it will be no excessive demand on the purse of the State. And even if it should come to be a bit high, the Government may be pleased to note that this problem is no less important than any of the other items for which they are providing grants; and if they are seriously bent on doing some substantial good to students on this score, they should not hesitate to loosen the strings of their purse or else cut down some other items in order to confer a boon on the student popula-

tion. When these changes are introduced, the term 'Medical Inspection in Schools', must be replaced by 'Medical Aid in Schools' which will be a more significant and substantial improvement over the present state of things.

Since Education has come to be a transferred subject left in the hands of the popular Minister, it is incumbent on him to study such questions and place adequate proposals before Government for their adoption. So, I respectfully invite the attention of the Minister of Education to this matter and request him to take note of the present system as described above and of the suggestions made to improve it; and recommend a comprehensive scheme on the subject to the Government and see his way to have adequate Regulations incorporated in the Grant-in-Aid Code, and likewise in the Re-organisation of Secondary Education which is just now going on, so that the empty activities of the present day may cease to exist, making room for schemes more substantially beneficial to the rising generation of the country.

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## ENGLISH COMPOSITION :-- HOW TO TEACH IT.

By

Mr. C. V. HANUMANTHA RAO, M.A., B.ED.  
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QUITE fallacious are some of the notions entertained by teachers entrusted with the responsible task of teaching English Composition in our schools and one such is that they expect too much from the boys even from the very commencement. It is generally believed that as soon as a boy has learnt to compose sentences of a sort in the English language, he can automatically be led into attempting compositions of a written character. This is a dangerous idea to start with and might, if persisted in, be responsible for the failure of the boys to acquire the necessary sentence-sense, which is the basis of all good writing and the criterion by which ultimately the value of all written work is to be judged.

The problem, therefore is, when to begin written composition and where to begin it. It is pretty clear that oral work should precede written work by a fairly long period, and oral work is intended to lay the foundation on which to build the superstructure of written work. It is, in short, intended to enable the boys to construct sentences correctly, to observe and preserve the necessary grammatical and thought sequence and to imbibe some ideas as regards the function and structure of paragraphs. It is only after sufficient practice has been given to the boys in the oral method of teaching composition that written work should be undertaken or can be undertaken with profit. If, on the other hand, it is begun abruptly, as is so often done, it leaves them in an uncharted sea like a

rudderless craft. Free and easy construction of correct sentences of the various types, a sufficient vocabulary and an elementary knowledge of the diction and rhyme of the language are essential preliminaries to any programme of work in written composition, intended to yield useful results.

It has been said in the beginning that too much is expected of the boys and that remark is true not only as regards the time at which written composition is begun but also as regards the subjects on which they are required to express themselves. The teacher of English Composition falls into the practice of very doubtful utility, of requiring the boys to write on abstruse or abstract subjects or subjects which are remote from or unconnected with the text-book. He estimates at too high a value the imaginative capabilities of the young writers and thereby proceeds on a faulty psychological principle; he ought to understand and appreciate at its true value the dictum that the young mind is more proclivated to the concrete rather than to the abstract, to the known rather than to the unknown. It is therefore of immense importance to note that composition in the early stages should, as far as possible, be based upon the text-book, with the subject-matter of which the boys are fairly familiar. The subjects in the text-book should be the pegs on which should be hung exercises in written composition: and, not only that, it should be the aim of the instructor not to force the boys to accomplish the difficult task of expressing himself in his own language but to allow him to fall back for help on the language of the text-book itself, as far as possible.

Now, it is quite clear that progress in composition should be not only from oral to

## TEACHING OF 'B' GROUP SUBJECTS.

By

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written work but from 'chained' to 'free' composition, that is to say, from reproduction of the words of the text to expressing oneself in one's own language. And when this stage is reached, which is done when the boy has studied somewhat widely and has acquired adequate power of recognizing the peculiarities of idiom and structure of the language, the necessity as well as the desirability arises of the teacher setting exercises in imaginative composition, involving the exercise of the boy's capacities for original thinking and original expression. He can then be made to think out situations for himself, to discover solutions for such situations and to clothe his ideas in language befitting those situations.

Very great care is necessary in this matter of teaching composition, especially so in the case of English Composition, for English is a foreign language and as, so far it is so, we are in a disadvantageous position. Progress in this matter should necessarily keep pace with the boys' acquaintance with the language, with their capacities to comprehend and use the English idiom, with their command over the vocabulary. And as such progress would be slow and only as time proceeds would the results be perceptible in a clear manner, the teacher's aim should be perfection at every stage; otherwise slipshod writing of English would result, which would prove a detriment to the interests of the learners in their later life. Whether they have been taken through the various stages with adequate care, whether the foundations for the next higher stage have been laid by preparing them for it in a methodical manner, can be judged only by this standard, i.e., that at any time when they leave school they should be able to feel that their stay there had been of some good to them. It, in other words, can be judged by the 'surrender value' which the instruction has had for each individual pupil, by the permanent value and utility which he has derived from his study of English. This 'surrender value' should always be as high as possible; and the framing of the courses in English Composition should be determined by a consideration of this principle only and not by the pedagogical predilections of the framers of the course.

THE question of tackling the problem of 'B' Group subjects has been engaging the attention of the Teaching Profession ever since the School Final Scheme came into force, as it is clear that these 'B' Group subjects are nobody's subjects, neither the teachers', nor the students' nor the parents', though the knowledge that is sought to be imparted through them is by no means unimportant, inasmuch as they embrace the general knowledge group of studies of the pre-School Final days.

History of India, Civics, Hygiene, Geography and Elementary Science of the Lower Secondary Forms and B Group History and Elementary Science of the Upper Secondary Forms constitute the much-maligned 'B' Group subjects of the curriculum which are at the bottom of much of the indiscipline of the present-day High Schools.

History of the growth of the British Empire is taught under B Group History in V and VI Forms and details are worked out and graded in an elaborate syllabus to be systematically taught in these forms. It is further stated, in a foot-note, that portions not covered by the syllabus should be done in IV Form. Again Elementary Science expects an elementary knowledge of Physics, Chemistry, Physiology, Botany, Zoology, etc., and there are graded and comprehensive syllabuses in these subjects also. In fine, 'B' Group includes, within its all-embracing grip, every blessed subject under the sun,

## THE PLACE OF 'B' GROUP SUBJECTS.

This 'B' Group is but a successor of 'D' Group under the old Matriculation course. No doubt both B and D Groups are compulsory subjects in both the schemes. But then there is this difference—and it is a substantial difference—that, while in the Matriculation, failure in 'D' was counted as a total failure, in the S.S.L.C. Examination these subjects are not tested at all and they are classed as non-examinable subjects. We can very well understand the charitable intentions of the framers of the S. S. L. C. Scheme, in not overstraining the tender lads of the Secondary Schools in demanding a necessary standard of knowledge of the subjects from them. Unlike the ancient system of education, where specialization in certain subjects alone was based on intensive and close study, the present system demands from the pupils 'something of everything,' thus placing an undue strain on the delicate brains of our pupils. To put it more frankly we are sinning against God in deliberately crushing and torturing the tender faculties of the youngsters by forcing them through an elaborate brain-killing process of instruction in subjects at once too many and too varied for their accurate comprehension. The place of Group 'B' in the curricula of the S.S.L.C. course seems to be rather curious. If examinations are discarded, as they are in some modern Universities, and if education is imparted to children through a systematic course of mental training, we can understand the position of 'B' Group as 'Non-Examination' group of subjects. But S. S. L. C. is notoriously fond of examinations; oral tests, written tests, daily tests, terminal tests and annual tests are applied and it appears more that the scheme itself stands for examinations

than that the examinations are but a help to carry out the scheme. Evidently, a subject like B Group in which these tests are not applied so much as they are to A and C Group subjects, is looked upon as a subject of no importance whatsoever, and thus occupies the unenviable position that it does to-day. The institution of B Group as non-examinable subjects is therefore not only inexplicable but wholly unsound.

## DIFFICULTIES IN THE TEACHING OF 'B' GROUP SUBJECTS IN SCHOOLS.

If the practicability of teaching this subject is examined, the queer place it holds in the scheme will be plain. Though the subjects in themselves are very interesting and at the same time useful, the pupil never takes kindly to them with the result that much indiscipline and inattention is noticed in B Group classes and undue strain is put upon the teacher in his honest efforts to impart instruction in these *unwanted* subjects to *unwilling* students. Unfortunately the spirit of the times which is one of supreme indifference in matters educational—is completely against the poor teacher.

Parents encourage their children—of course with an affectionate passion to relieve them of hard work—not to pay much attention to the so-called unnecessary and burdensome work of studying 'B' Group subjects, as the principle now respected, is not knowledge for knowledge's sake, but knowledge for bread's sake. We can easily and sympathetically understand their attitude if we only realise the commercial value they attach to the present-day education. Rules do not require an S. S. L. C. pupil to get a certain minimum in 'B' Group subjects but a pupil is only asked to pass through the course; and supplementary students need not even think

of these subjects though they might have fared very badly in them during their first year course. Very few Headmasters have the courage to detain pupils in pre-school final classes merely on the score of the boys having done badly in these 'unwanted' subjects. No departmental head treats a low mark in 'B' Group subjects as a disqualification for any appointment. Even the Public Service Notification framed by Government has no reference whatsoever to marks in these subjects but it only insists on the candidate's name appearing in the 'Eligibility' List. Under these circumstances is not the poor teacher really trying to swim against a strong current, who tries to bring his pupils to a reasonable standard in 'B' Group subjects?

Boys, shrewd as they are, know even a few annas spent on a text-book in B Group subjects is an unsound investment and so manage without a text-book not for one year or two, but throughout their High School course. Boys of V and VI Forms are the worst sinners in this respect. As if these handicaps are not enough, there is a special column provided in the inspection report for remarks on the teaching of B Group subjects, and schools are expected to satisfy the District Educational Officer in this direction, by making ample provision for instruction in these subjects in their time-tables. The poor teacher handling these subjects is therefore obliged to be alive to all the possibilities involved in a rigorous exercise of his duties and should employ sound common sense in carrying his pupils through this hard but necessary ordeal. But what about the syllabuses? They are all comprehensive. Pandits in education could not have seen that they are ambitious and unworkable. The District Educational Officers and therefore the Head-

masters insist on the poor teacher covering the whole portion prescribed for the year. Can he, facing all these difficulties, undertake to satisfy the authorities? He cannot whitewash his work and sacrifice his conscience by showing up an empty glossed vessel for it. Probably he is expected to learn from Richard III in Shakespeare that "Conscience is a word that cowards use" and successfully deceive them all. Wise teachers perhaps know how to steer clear of these difficulties and leave these subjects to take care of themselves. What else can they do when they can hardly induce their pupils to invest a rupee or two on the purchase of the required text-book?

## TEACHING OF B GROUP IN SCHOOLS.

Under the circumstances detailed above it is but natural that these subjects are being given the attention that they deserve. True, ample provision is given to them in the time-tables drawn up. In many schools working 30 periods of 50' each per week, 4 periods are allotted to these two subjects (B Group History and Elementary Science in V and VI Forms) and in other schools too which work 35 periods of 40' or 45' each, these subjects are given the same paper-value. But the way in which they are taught, the sincerity with which they are treated is anything but satisfactory. We hear that in some schools some of the periods are entirely devoted to the teaching of the all-absorbing English subject, especially after the school inspection. It is also more or less the established practice that, at any rate in VI Form, in the second term, these subjects are given the go-by and their place is given to coaching pupils in A and C groups, for examination.

Again, if there are two divisions in classes, one is prepared in one subject and the other

division in the second subject for the school inspection. With due deference to such schools as are not giving proper attention to these subjects, it may be said that the false belief (or rather the correct belief) of the students that the study of these subjects is good-for-nothing wasteful labour, is in a way encouraged by the treatment given to them; and the direct consequence of all these is indiscipline and indifference in schools. Teachers' habits—good or bad—are contagious and when the teacher himself enters upon this work with little or no zest and does it merely as a duty, the fruit that work of this kind bears, is not disappointing. The place that is given to History of India when compared with History of Great Britain in syllabus in B Group is really humiliating, and the place given to theoretical knowledge as opposed to the practical and useful side of the science subjects is equally distressing. In these days when 'youth movements' and 'student movements' are shaking the placid stillness of the Educational Department, when the welling exuberance of youths' energies are seeking fresh fields of patriotic activity, is it not mockery that instruction in these subjects should cruelly exhibit an infinite dearth of stimulation to satisfy and steady the burning heart of the young? But India never preaches hate. Time has come when patriotism consistent with loyalty should be taught to the younger generation and the wisecracks of the department should revise and reform these syllabuses to a more harmonious key. Before finishing this portion of the subject, it is not out of place to point out a few of the bulls and blunders that have taken possession of the minds of the future hope of the country as a result of the desultory study of these subjects. These will impress upon laymen,

more than pages of dissertation on the subject, what a great blunder has been committed by the department in creating such a group as B. Group and in including in them such important subjects as popular science, modern history and other general knowledge subjects. According to some students,—a few of whom have graduated also—who are the products of the S. S. L. C. scheme:—

#### HISTORY.

1. Madrid is a great mountain peak.
2. Wales is a town in Ireland.
3. Magna Charta is the King of England in the Middle Ages.
4. Sivaji is the son of Aurangzeb.
5. Baltic Sea is in the south of Russia.
6. Karachi is a port in the Gangetic plain.
7. Australasia is a town in Asia.
8. English Channel is a canal in England.
9. Waterloo is a lake in Italy.

#### SCIENCE.

1. Iron is much heavier than gold.
2. Davy's Safety Lamp is used for catching fish in the sea.
3. Sugar cannot dissolve in water.
4. In alkalis there are acids.
5. When magnesium is heated in air, it loses its hydrogen.
6. The temperature of the laboratory is 82° F.

and any no. of examples of this kind may be picked up from the answer papers of boys.

#### REMEDIES FOR THESE EVILS.

It is not an easy thing to suggest remedies for all these evils. This B Group is but a minor wheel in the big S. S. L. C. machine. It jars but there are bigger parts of the machine which creak louder and even threaten to clog it. There is therefore no mending

but it is a question of ending it. The articles manufactured, of course with some rare exceptions, are unenviable and the machine seems to be undesirable. It should be thoroughly overhauled as early as possible to prevent further havoc. Efforts should be so directed as to turn the machine out of the field and yield a place for a fresh one to be devised by better Fords. No doubt the whole S. S. L. C. scheme is in the melting pot and province after province is busy reorganizing secondary education. Blunders might have been committed but prestige should not at all count. Time is precious. All the countries are forging ahead and India alone lags leagues behind. Education is one of the primary concerns of the State and early measures should be so devised as to place the youngsters of the country in a line with their brethren abroad, keeping the best interests of the country at heart.

I associate myself entirely with the headmaster who urges that 'premature specialisation of the S. S. L. C. should go as it is stupid (these are his words) to ask boys of fourteen to specialise.' It saddles schools with heavy expenditure and requires duplication of staff. Specialization should begin only in the Intermediate classes as the true object of secondary education should be *General Culture*.

(2) The division of subjects in A., B. and C groups causes over-lapping and neglect of some subjects. All the pupils should study all the subjects as in the old Matriculation: English, a vernacular or a classical language, Mathematics and Elementary Science consisting of Physics, Chemistry and Physiology and Hygiene and History of England and India and Geography of the world, should form the subjects of study for the examination. Pupils

should be declared eligible if they secure a minimum of 20% in one of the general knowledge subjects, provided they get 35% in all the rest and on the whole.

(3) My learned brother is for burning the S. S. L. C. book but I am for continuing it in the School Final class only.

(4) Syllabuses should be thoroughly recast and should be rendered workable.

(5) The divorce between elementary and secondary education now in force should be done away with. The five years' course in the primary classes may be reduced to three, for it is a sheer waste of teachers in charge of classes 1 and 2, being really dry nurses to troublesome infants too young to be taught but too old to keep quiet at home. Schools should be divided into 3 grades, Primary, Middle and High, each consisting of a three-years' course and the old Primary and the Middle school examination should be restored so that at least once in three years a general stock-taking may happen. Successful pupils may be presented a certificate, headmasters being allowed to promote even unsuccessful pupils to the higher classes at their discretion (not indiscretion) except in the case of the Matriculation, where a definite line should be drawn, and unsuccessful RAMANUJAMS told bluntly that a boy who cannot score 35 per cent. in a subject is an incapable idiot, and that the country can well get on without him!

## WHAT THE COMPANY OF STUDENTS MEANS TO A TEACHER.

By Mr. K. S. SUBRAMANIAM, B.A., L.T.,

*Palace Tutor, Ramnad.*

THE world considers the teaching profession as the lowest rung of the ladder of ambition. A young man is advised to resort to it last, if at all. Poor souls! Did they but realise that true happiness lies in the fusion and harmony of souls, in ever dwelling in an atmosphere of youth and idealism, they would hasten to recognise teaching as the most blessed of all professions. Indeed a good part of every teacher's experience is a source of such happiness to him, if only he has the heart to enjoy it. In fact, it is this experience that acts as a talisman, healing many a wound left on the teacher's heart by the indifferent public.

This talisman is the company of students. The teacher is proverbially known for his poverty. But none, not even a king, can equal him in the richness of human love, he being loved by his pupils and himself loving them, with an ardour, innocent and intense.

The price for this happiness is but small. The teacher has only to be sincere and sympathetic, both in his work and in his treatment of the pupils. At once the boys feel that they have a real helper among them and love him with all their heart. The crust, over their souls, of worldly dirt that goes by the dignified names of policy, expediency and tact, not having yet become too thick, their real natures are stirred to their very depths and leap out to meet the sincere and sympathetic treatment of their benefactor. From such a union of hearts springs an indescribable joy in the minds of both the teacher and

the pupil. Mutual confidence is assured and therefore mutual progress also. Under this joint pressure of sincerity and sympathy on the part of the master and of confidence and affection on the part of the pupil, the student unlocks the gates of his heart and speaks his feelings, difficulties and errors to the master. Who can deny that such a heart-to-heart intercourse enriches the teacher's experience on the one hand, while elevating the thoughts and feelings of the pupil on the other? When a pupil parts from his master after such meeting, he invariably goes in a chastened mood, leaving his master in a pleasanter frame of mind.

Thus much about the company of boys outside school. What about the teacher's experience in this regard in the class-room? A teacher at his work in the class-room is a very enviable person. The layman little knows because he could never have experienced the happiness, what an entirely new person the teacher becomes the moment he steps into his class-room. His very appearance on the scene acts like magic, bringing silence and order where there was noise and confusion only a second back. This flattering greeting by the pupils sends a thrill of pleasure through the entire frame of the teacher, his plane of thinking and feeling being immediately elevated. The pupils' attentive looks and smiling countenance, then, are at once a tribute to the intellectual superiority of their master and an appeal to the teacher to light their minds with a little of his glow of knowledge. The desire to deserve this attention and regard spurs the teacher to rise to his full stature. It is said that in the midst of a crowd a man's nature descends to fuse with the common feelings of the crowd. Perhaps this is true only in the

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case of a crowd of uneducated adults. But here in the class-room, in the midst of youths with noble ideals and ideas in their unsophisticated minds, the teacher ascends to meet them.

A class is a laboratory of tender human minds, and the scope for experiment, observation and inference is limitless. Every question is an experiment and every study of every facial or other expression an observation and every casual guess about the merit and character of the pupils an inference of inestimable value both to the educator and the educated. Perhaps the comparison herein suggested is grotesque, the human mind being too subtle to be scientifically studied; but a teacher who goes to his class and engages the pupils, all the time with a consciousness of this idea must invariably find the teaching-learning process in the class a smooth and delightful progress. He must feel it a thing of beauty and a joy for ever. If those who think low of the teacher's profession would only watch unobserved for a few minutes a class conducted under such an inspiration, they cannot but be struck by the interesting and vigorous commerce of minds there; and they cannot help yearning, at least for the time being, for a post so enviable as the teacher's.

Several influences there are that dethrone a teacher from this unique enjoyment. Of these only two will be referred to here. The first of these is corporal punishment of boys. The harsh twang of the cane jars on the ear and grates on the heart. A crying child is a sorry spectacle. It sends a wave of gloom throughout the school. Harsh punishment, nay, even harsh words, blight the tender minds as frost a tender plant. If a child errs,

a deliberate look of overflowing love will often set him right. To err is as natural as to be right. Perhaps the former is more natural; and in most cases, the error is due to other's influences and not to the boy's nature. The question of punishment does not arise in a class where the teacher radiates love for his boys and his work. A boy who does not respond to this love is not going to respond to any other treatment, least of all to punishment. Work done or character gained under fear of punishment has no permanent value. The only permanent result is an ugly scar left in the pupil's mind by the fear and shame of punishment. Should the teacher realise this truth and conduct himself accordingly, his teaching in the class will be a continuous pleasure both to him and to his pupils.

The second disturbance is interference from superiors. They want to supervise. Let them; only let them not overdo it. A shrewd passing glance at the class, at the teacher and at the black-board, coupled with a periodical scrutiny of the teacher's notes of lessons ought to be sufficient supervision and efficient too. Should the superior officers say or do more, the teacher falls in the estimation of the pupils, at least for the time being, in some cases, for ever; and he is deprived of his only source of pleasure, namely, the regard and appreciation of his pupils for him.

Blessed indeed are the schools where such disturbances do not occur and blessed they that serve as teachers there.

To return to our subject proper. The company of boys often acts as a tonic on the teacher. Are you ill? A visit from the boys tones you up. Are you dejected? A few enquiries from them warm your heart. Are

you fretting under worries? Go to the class with a leaping heart, and the worries disappear as snow before the sun; and you become as cheerful as the boys themselves. In fact neither disease nor age can make a teacher old. Always living, as he does, in the midst of exuberant life, his heart is ever young.

To enter the school into the midst of boys is as pleasant an experience and as great a satisfaction as entering a sweet-smelling and sweet-looking garden from the heated and vitiated atmosphere of the crowd. It is like seeing an oasis in the vast arid expanse of a barren desert. It is the daily sip at this fountain that sustains the teacher against the heat of economic poverty and public indifference. Life would indeed be intolerable for a teacher under the trying conditions of his service but for this tributary of happiness from his pupils. "Thanks, thanks to you, my worthy friends for the joy you have given me"—this is the secret cry a teacher is moved to make to the tender images of God that sit at his feet.

It is a common wail among some teachers that their pupils once they rise in life, kick the ladder by which they rose. They forget their teachers and do not move their little finger towards their amelioration. True. But have they not made a greater return even in their student days by sweetening their master's life with their love? Any reward that they can give in later life should stand ashamed by the side of this their earlier contribution. The greatest reward for teaching is love, as teaching itself is a labour of love. Therein lies the glory of the profession; and in the realisation of this truth, the true happiness of the teacher.

### FALSTAFF.

By Mr. R. KRISHNAMURTI,  
Negapatam.

TO begin under the favourable auspices of a quotation we might as well turn back to the eighteenth century and search among the immortal works of the 'Great cham of literature,'—Dr. Johnson. Falstaff unimitated, unimitable Falstaff, how shall I describe thee? So does he say. Indeed, that egregious 'tun of man' is beyond description. A great amount of pen and paper is wasted (wasted is the appropriate word, for all their 'bees' business turned to spiders'), in describing and estimating the character of Falstaff. And if we trace back the history of Falstaffian literature, we find Mr. Morgann's name mentioned and in his defence of the very questionable side of Falstaff's character, viz., his bravery, he says that "Cowardice is not the impression, which the whole character of Falstaff is calculated to make on the minds of an unprejudiced audience." This statement of Mr. Morgann is challenged by many modern critics.

Be that as it may, it will be more to the purpose of the essay if I expose, as far as I may, his character and add something by way of commentary and criticism than to embark upon the dubious problem of deciding who is right and who is not.

Falstaff is chiefly a humourist and he is supreme among the comic characters ever created by man. His person is familiar to us. A 'hill of flesh,' a 'tun of man,' a 'corpulent,' a 'stuffed cloak bag of guts,' are some of the many epithets attributed to him by Shakespeare through the various characters in the play. And instances abound which prove that he is a goodly portly man whose very

appearance on the stage is apt to send the audience into a roar of laughter. The oddity of the figure is enhanced when we say that this huge man contained a huge brain. His intellect is vast, out of all proportion to the general mankind and no one except the Prince is his equal in his wit-combats. And even the Prince, after a protracted indulgence, is defeated. The humour that flows perpetually from him, the nice way by which he eludes all attempts at being turned to account, and the metamorphosis of two buckram men into eleven, are all masterly in construction and hence worthy of imitation. But to borrow another quotation from that same man, "no man was ever great by imitation." His intellect is ever entertaining and it is this quality which attracted the Prince from the cursed court life to him. And when there are no more tavern scenes in the play we fain would discontinue and turn over again and his wit does in no way become dull and displeasing when it is read, re-read and read over again. On the other hand, such repeated indulgence in his wit only enhances our admiration for the individual and we feel a personal loss when he falls before Douglas.

Our first introduction to him is when he proposes to the Prince to indulge in a highway robbery. Pious, to whom "God gave the spirit of persuasion," succeeded in tempting the Prince to partake in the robbery. It was very well planned. Falstaff sets on the avellers with cries of 'lay by'; and presently is clean cornered by the Prince and oins without the least compunction. And when they next meet there is such a brilliant spartee as is enjoyed by very few. It affords a limitless pleasure and our sides ache with laughter. At this stage the Sheriff and Officers of justice enter upon the scene and Falstaff hides himself behind the arras.

Here rises an important issue. Does it bespeak his bravery? Mr. Morgann offers the explanation that a coward cannot go to sleep and snore in the midst of such circumstances. But psychologists tell us that when the mind is obsessed with troubles, the individual thus subjected easily goes to sleep. And further if at all he slept and snored, it was because he knew that the Prince would save him and even if he were to give him up, prison life would in no way be miserable to him. And it is no proof of his bravery.

But how comes it then that this man is entrusted with a commission in the army? The constitution of his army with pitiful rascals and whoreson-mongers and his leading them all to death are evidently calculated to aim at the ludicrous and they appear rather farcical. No sane man, nay, not even the least earnest of fighters, will ever fill his army with such knaves and scoundrels. And Falstaff's ideal is embodied in the words, "The latter end of a fray and the beginning of a feast fits a dull fighter and a keen guest." So much so we are led to conclude that he is not 'not a coward' and that his behaviour points to a worse nature than the common every-day example.

With Falstaff and his strangely constituted army we enter the battlefield of Shrewsbury where, after a short pause, we hear the learned, but ridiculously disgraceful, descant upon honour. Nowhere have we come across such a thesis upon such a subject and as such we are struck with wonder at this cant of a soldier marching to the battle of Shrewsbury in the company of Prince Hal, the future King Henry V. His conduct can easily be explained away. Falstaff falls short of a soldier and fails to win the sympathy of the audience. And again we follow this strange army right

into the centre of the battlefield where all of them are powdered and crushed. And what about Falstaff? He is confronted with Douglas. He falls and feigns as if dead.

Morgann eloquently pleads, "Falstaff falls, Douglas is cheated and the world laughs. But does he fall like a coward? No, like a buffoon only." In such eulogising terms does he praise the action of Falstaff. The world laughs, laughs with a sense of unfairness. He may have fallen like a buffoon but not as a soldier. For no soldier worth the name had ever done so since the creation of Adam.

Again his mean attitude towards the corpse of Hotspur does not reconcile to our sense of warfare. These actions of his may certainly be amusing, and pleasant. But if we waive away that frivolousness and dig deep, we find that Falstaff behaves even worse than an ordinary layman in the street and if saying that he is a coward is an injustice, we may say that his conduct is highly disgraceful and unbecoming.

A keen sense of pleasure in himself and an inordinate desire to please others are the ruling passions in him. He argues like a subtle logician and easily wins his case. But at what expense are these developed? The moral side of him has declined any improvement, and we cannot find a man more lewd and frivolous than Falstaff. Truth speaking is something foreign to him, and there can be no more positive proof of the consciousness of his guilt than his beseeching the Prince to abolish all punishment when he became king. For he was sure that he would get the halter if punishment were to continue to be inflicted on the wicked and the culpable.

Our admiration for him is divided and if we admire him for his nimble intellectual

feats, we loath the liar, the coward and the braggart in him. But the signs are unmistakable that Shakespeare intends him to come down little by little in our estimation till he is altogether shifted off the stage. And one who follows Shakespeare will not be tempted to sympathise with him and still less to shed tears over his 'rejection.' Many critics fancy tears rolling down the cheeks of the audience over his fall. A. C. Bradley has written a learned essay on the Rejection of Falstaff. And he says that to reject him from our esteem and even from our sight is wholly unwarranted and an obvious injury to that 'huge bombard of sack' who has devoted his whole life to the cause of delighting others. Indeed, we owe a deep debt of gratitude for his benevolent enjoyment. But if they are his virtues, his vices are equally great, if not greater. If expressing one's own honest opinion were not a sin I am inclined to believe that his rejection is not after all worth while to sympathise with and more to be defended.

In considering this well-threshed subject of 'rejection,' we may do well to bear in mind the points suggested by Mr. G. F. Bradby: (1) Falstaff was not only inordinately vain, but also extravagantly stupid in not perceiving that the Prince would take kingship very seriously; (2) that the Prince on one occasion broke Falstaff's head, in very workmanlike fashion, for speaking disrespectfully of his father and was within an ace of breaking it again; (3) that his attitude to Falstaff was normally one of amused contempt and, over his supposed corpse, of equally contemptuous pity.

O, I should have a heavy miss of thee,  
If I were much in love with vanity!  
Death hath not struck so fat a deer to-day,  
Though many dearer, in this bloody fray.

From the very beginning of the play we perceive evident signs of the insincerity of the Prince's attachment towards Falstaff and we are not altogether wrong in supposing that he would take the earliest opportunity of dismissing the claims of Falstaff. Falstaff is given to understand that the future for him was not bright. In the scene in which Falstaff plays the part of the king wherefrom he was afterwards displaced by the Prince, Falstaff cries out 'Depose me' and later humbly pleads that he may not be banished. If these are taken for what they are worth, they all point to the conclusion that Shakespeare is slowly paving the way for his rejection only by natural means and that he did not mean Falstaff to be sympathised with any more than Shylock.

The rejection scene brings us face to face with the trial and judgment. The Prince dismisses him then and there most officiously and we are not at first quite satisfied. But if we recollect the provocation that caused this, everything is set right. It is neither the feeling of loyalty nor love that brought him post-haste from Westminster. "Let us take any man's horses; the laws of England are at my command. Blessed are they that have been my friends; and woe to my Lord Chief Justice!"

One cannot easily forget or excuse the presumptuous familiarity with which these words are uttered. And a man of Henry V's substance, the gold that shines after all the dross has been washed off, cannot be expected to treat the matter lightly and howsoever we may judge we are not wrong in concluding that the scene is not evidently meant to stir up our feelings of sympathy.

However, despite his shortcomings which he himself attributes to his huge person,

Falstaff is the inimitable creation of the almighty hand of Shakespeare and never for a moment can we bear the cruel pangs of separation from him. The intellectual sallies and turns of wit with which he arrests attention and evokes admiration, his exordium beginning with "A plague of all cowards," and ending in "Is there no virtue extant," and again his acting the king's part and then the Prince's, are all eminently enthralling and capital in themselves.

Shakespeare intended him only as a clown but, as he proceeded with the play he engrossed the attention of the author so much that he (the author) ran away with him. He is now one of the great characters in the sphere of comedy as Hamlet is in the sphere of tragedy. He was charmingly successful on the stage that the Queen expressed her desire to see him in love and in compliance with her request Shakespeare wrote a play called 'Merry Wives of Windsor' in which Falstaff figures as a lover. George Brandes verily observes "that Falstaff, the soul of tavern wit, is the gayest, most concrete and most entertaining of European comedy." Talking of tavern life puts me in mind of a conversation between Dr. Johnson and Boswell when the Doctor being asked his opinion about Mr. Morgann's 'Essay on Falstaff,' said, "Why, Sir, a man who has proved Falstaff to be not a coward may as well prove that Iago is a very good man." Of course, it is exaggeration. But "it is the exaggeration of a vital fact."

### "DRAWING AND ITS PLACE IN THE MODERN CURRICULUM OF SECONDARY EDUCATION"

By

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THE scheme of Secondary Education occupies an important place in the field of education in a country. This should be an entity by itself while at the same time containing necessary groundwork for the University courses of study. Thus it has to fulfil two simultaneous conditions which are almost impossible to co-exist. It is, therefore, that this question of secondary education has always been and will be a problem of perennial interest never admitting a final solution. The curriculum had to be changed now and then to suit the growing needs of the service and of the University. But the one important feature about this is that it is not improving in the right direction and that it is only growing from bad to worse every time it is changed.

Prior to 1911 the Matriculation system was in vogue and all the subjects were of equal importance to determine the success of the pupil. Pupils whether they had any taste or aptitude for a particular subject or not, were obliged to bring it up for the examination and consequently, failures were too many and there was a cry against the slaughter of the innocents. To overcome the defects of the above system, a novel scheme, I mean, the S.S.L.C. Scheme was ushered into existence in the year 1911. It was hailed with joy as it afforded facilities for the display of the special aptitude for certain subjects. It also brought in its train a curious distinction of essential and non-essential or more appro-

priately, examination and non-examination subjects. It is about one of these non-examination subjects that I would like to deal to-day.

The subjects under the S.S.L.C. scheme are divided into three groups, A, B, and C. Group B consists of subjects which are calculated to impart general knowledge to the pupil and evidently they do not require intensive study. Originally drawing was also one of the B Group subjects and it was also taught in the three higher forms. But mysteriously it does not now find a place in the last two higher forms. I am at a loss to understand why this omission was at all thought necessary or desirable. Perhaps, I think, the men at the helm of affairs have not bestowed sufficient thought upon this question to understand the importance of the subject in all its bearings.

#### NATURE AND UTILITY OF DRAWING.

Drawing is one of the fine arts and is pre-eminently designed to improve the imaginative capacity and to create and develop ideas of harmony and symmetry, that is to say, knowledge of æsthetics, in a pupil. When one reads a description of a scene, a picture of the same is formed in the mind and in the translation of the mental picture into a real one on paper or canvas lies the true function of this fine art. When one begins to sketch out a scene one should imagine and create several details, of course all pertinent, which are not made mention of in the description to make the drawing a success. Thus one's imagination has to be strained and exercised. Beauty in nature is mostly dependent on symmetry. Man, the supreme thing in the creation of the Almighty, is nothing but symmetrical in his structure. It is mainly this feature that adds grace to the most wonderful pieces of architecture in the world.

We cannot for a while put up with non-symmetrical human bodies. Therefore, a lover of this fine art should necessarily be a lover of symmetry,—symmetry in habit, character, conduct—in short, in everything. Otherwise life seems to sit heavy upon him.

Another important feature about this art is its neatness. One cannot expect to make a successful diagram with unclean hands or habits. One should be scrupulously clean and tidy even to a fault. Hence it inculcates and promotes ideas of neatness, tidiness—absolute necessities in any walk of life—and they go a long way to make one's own life a success.

I will now briefly tell you, how a study of this fine art is not only useful but also essential to every pupil pursuing a course of secondary education. In the early years of the S.S.L.C. Scheme, in Elementary Mathematics,—the much-dreaded and hence the much-hated subject—there used to be a question which involved a knowledge of geometrical drawing. Either the elevation, plan, or cross-section was given and pupils were asked to calculate the volume, etc. Later on, instead of a diagram a mere description of a thing was given, leaving the pupil to imagine and draw the figure for himself. It does not need much argumentation to impress that a correct diagram would solve the problem more than half and a bad one would seriously interfere and spoil the whole question. The pupil requires a knowledge of at least the fundamentals of geometrical drawing to correctly interpret the problem. This being denied to him, he is seriously handicapped. In History, the question on map drawing is obligatory, and in Physics the diagram while describing the apparatus is a necessary adjunct and is supplementary to the answer.

The ideas of neatness, accuracy and correctness which are engendered and fostered by this very beautiful subject are essential for satisfactorily answering any question paper on any subject. The application of Drawing is more in evidence in the higher courses of Mathematics. Especially, solid geometry, astronomy and statics demand a three-dimensional conception and representation on paper. One, without a knowledge of Drawing has to grope in darkness while handling or studying those subjects. Where words fail, diagrams would certainly succeed to produce the required impression.

#### PRESENT CONDITION OF THE DRAWING SUBJECT.

Having now understood the nature and utility of this important subject, we shall proceed to see into the working of it at present. It has already been pointed out that there is no place for this subject in the Fifth and Sixth Forms. Therefore in any secondary school, Drawing is taught in the two classes and the first four forms. The subject is being carefully under-fed on scientific lines so that there would be only a spark of life left and no body at all. Its presence in the curriculum can only be proved on the ground that it is still shown a place in the time-table. That the subject has been surviving in spite of this step-motherly treatment meted out to it, is proof positive to show its intrinsic worth and usefulness.

The S.S.L.C. scheme has divided the subjects only into three groups, A, B, C. But unfortunately, it has ignored another category of subjects, I mean, thereby, the D Group subjects comprising Drill and Drawing. Luckily there has been some movement among the educationists and the Government with regard to the betterment of the physical

culture of the curriculum and the Physical Educational Conference held last year in Madras was the direct result of their labours. The horrors accruing from a neglect of the physical side of education were only recently realised by the authorities and I fear, though the condition of the second D Group subject is worse, the magnitude of its grave consequences is still not being seriously felt and taken stock of as they are not so palpably visible to the naked eye as in the other case.

The meagre respect which this subject commands now-a-days in secondary schools, is mainly due to the attitude and treatment of the heads of institutions with regard to it. In any drawing examination, the school supplies thin paper to the pupils. Can you draw a graph on a plain paper? I ask. A special subject should be answered on a special kind of paper, but all the decorum and other formalities of a pucca examination, i.e., examiners, watchers, etc., are gone through without the supply of the fundamental material to work on. The pupils take advantage of the farcical nature of the examination and the scant importance thus shown to the subject and do away with the sketch without undoing a single line drawn by them. And the natural result is a poor mark for him in the examination. But, at the time of annual promotions, a pass or a failure in this important but neglected subject is viewed with an air of complacency by the deities concerned and the boy goes to the higher form or class, as the case may be, even though he betrays an awful deficiency in the Drawing subject. Till very recently, that is, before the Andhra University was instituted, vernacular used to sail in the same boat with Drawing, but luckily for that, things have changed in the right direction, and I think,

the same University Act will also come to the rescue of the subject of Drawing. A distinct status is given to Drawing by showing a place to it among optional subjects for the Intermediate Examination. As secondary education is only a prelude to the University courses of study, it should also, in course of time, include Drawing among its optional subjects under C Group. Such a state of affairs is not altogether unheard of. In the curricula of the Secondary Education of Agra, Oadh and Allahabad, Drawing finds a place as an optional subject under C Group. This is all about the bright future before the subject. But I digress. Coming to the point again, I ask the authorities concerned what sort of interest the teacher of the subject can be expected to have in the work if their attitude is cold and wooden. The pupil studies the English subject well and pays greater attention to it not because he has an intrinsic taste for that but because he considers it to be very important from the stand-point of examination. The idea of examination looms very large in his eyes and subjects in which his failure is not much taken notice of, are allowed to look after themselves. And he comes to the sage-like conclusion that Drawing is such a very important and powerful subject as would not at all suffer by utter neglect on his part.

But in addition to this indifferent attitude of the higher authorities, there is another disadvantage just cropping up at present though not in all schools, at least in some. Hitherto only two periods out of 35 in a week are being assigned to Drawing and now a new subject, weaving, is thrust into the curriculum and to provide for the same the line of least resistance is resorted to. One of the two drawing periods is sacrificed for this

novel subject. Thus Drawing is a dead subject though living in name in the curriculum of modern secondary education.

While levelling charges against higher authorities for the present pitiable plight of Drawing, I am not unaware of the quota that falls to the lot of the teacher. But he is not an independent entity in his school to have things done in a manner that suits him. That is why I hesitate to drag him into the scene to receive his own share of contribution. Given the necessary apparatus, the necessary conditions, I believe the present teacher can do much more than at present; and the personnel of the Drawing Staff will improve as improved conditions demand.

#### SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVEMENT.

Now, before I close my remarks, I would like to give a few suggestions, by way of hints to improve the situation. At present, no Secondary School has a separate Drawing Hall exclusively to be used only for drawing periods and I think, that forms the solid bed-rock and foundation for all good drawing work. The Drawing Hall must be a beauty-spot in the whole school where a pupil can feast his eyes upon things nothing but beautiful. The reservation of such a hall saves a lot of time on the part of the teacher and enables him to utilise the time thus saved for better purposes. If the drawing teacher has to go from room to room, he takes nearly half a period to make a satisfactory sketch on the black-board in each class, and the pupil, a novice in the art, is expected to copy or enlarge the diagram in the other half of the period, that is, in an equal time. Is it possible? And what wonder is there if his performance is no better than nonsense? The same is the case with regard to any other branch of drawing—painting, design, sketch-

ing from nature, etc. But on the other hand if a hall is allotted to the teacher, he will have the diagram drawn on a black-board in his leisure hours even before the class assembles, and there will be opportunity and time for him to explain to the pupils the method of procedure during which course they will see the figure gradually growing under their eyes. This is really a very impressive and effective way of teaching. Thus the time and energy of the teacher can be conserved from being wasted in going from room to room and in making ugly sketches in post-haste.

Further, the walls of the drawing-hall, if decorated with the cuttings made from the best pupils' records, not only do they add grace and beauty to the hall but also form a potent incentive to the other pupils to distinguish themselves in a similar manner. Thus there will be engendered a healthy type of rivalry among the student population. A hall thus equipped with the paintings of the teacher and the taught will have its own historic interest. As Tennyson's Brook, the hall will say: "Students may come, and students may go, but I go on for ever." Nothing is more pleasing to any one of us here assembled than the recollection of one's own school-days; and on visiting the institution one will be mightily glad to view the remnants of one's own former work on the walls of one's *Alma Mater*. Thus a natural desire to be back to our school building at least once a year will spring up in us. A drawing-hall as suggested above, will therefore, afford ample opportunities for such happy recollections and will form a link between the old and the new students of an institution. A room of this type with an air of antiquity and an atmosphere of artistic culture about it will, I am sure, bring about the necessary psychological change in any urchin that enters into it and will instil a taste, nay, a craving for this superb Fine Art.

### THE MOST IMPORTANT PURCHASE? THE LIBRARIAN.

"If you were expecting to start a small library would you include in your plans the employment of a trained librarian at the very beginning, or would you depend upon committees, volunteer and inexperienced help?" asked a friend of mine one-day. He was planning to start such a library.

In reply I said, "It was my good fortune a short time ago to visit, in company with other members of our Board of Trustees, nine different libraries within a radius of some sixty miles from our home town. Our purpose was to examine the kind of building that housed each library and acquaint ourselves with the general plan, cost of construction, and arrangement of equipment so that we would be in a position to determine the kind of building we should recommend for our own home town, Cliffside Park, New Jersey. I mention this because, when you asked your question this whole trip flashed before my mind, and the interesting thing about it is, that in every instance the thoroughly trained librarian, and not the building and its equipment, stands prominently in the fore-ground of my mental picture.

"For many years the work of our library was supervised by untrained help, and although there was considerable progress, it is an outstanding fact that since we have had trained employees the growth has been unusual. For instance, from 1913 to 1925—a period of twelve years—the library grew from a circulation of 6,006 in 1913 to 26,110 in 1925; that is, nearly 300% which is an average gain of approximately 23% a year. Whereas, during the three years that followed, our circulation increased from 26,110

in 1925 to 70,036 in 1928: that is a gain in these three years of 43,926, approximately 170%, or more than 52% per year. This latter period of three years represents the time in our library history when we have had most efficient trained assistance. Now, of course, we should not draw this conclusion on the circulation alone, but we have found our Cliffside Park librarians have been able to do many things better as a result of their additional training."

"Some books actually have to have anywhere from a dozen to twenty-five or thirty cards in the catalogue in order to completely analyze their contents.

"This trained service has vastly improved our reference collections and built up the reference work both in and outside of the library. We have found also that the general public has recognized the ability, and placed more and more confidence in our librarians as they have gained in training.

"Probably one of the most outstanding results of training is the development of an appreciation of the importance of choosing books wisely and with discrimination.

"We find that more people are depending upon the library for help in connection with their reading courses, correspondence courses, business, and professional problems as well as for advice concerning their general reading.

"Let me give you a few illustrations. One young married woman asked if our librarian would send her husband, who was a tile setter, something to help him read blue-prints. A simple primer on blue-print reading was sent to him. Then our librarian secured and followed it up with something more advanced. The tile setter is now able

to work on large contracts and is doing very much better financially.

"Here is another instance. One young man said he has been a constant patron of our library for over two years and that he has never read a poor book from our library, or one that has not helped him. He likes always to read books that are a little difficult. He says they give his mind something to bite on."

"One old gentleman, who is repeatedly doing some kindness for our librarian, upon being thanked, said "Why shouldn't I? I feel I can never repay all that you have done for me. The books you have given me to read have been my greatest pleasure and have made my life endurable."

"Another elderly man has for two years given our library about eighteen new books per year. His comment is that he hopes the books he provides will give others as much pleasure as he has derived from the books that have been lent to him."

My friend was very thoughtful.

"Evidently the first and most important part of the expenditure that our library committee can make is the purchase of a thoroughly trained librarian," was his comment.—*Bulletin of the American Library Association*, Volume 24, No. 6.

We are asked to publish the following:—

### A BIG LIBRARY GIFT.

Mr. H. C. Folger, late Chairman of the Standard Oil Company of New York, has made a remarkable addition to the Libraries of Washington by the terms of his will. Mr. Folger had been accumulating during his life-time a unique collection of Shakespeariana. In fact, his library is said to contain 25,000 Shakespeare titles. This remarkable library has been presented to the public of Washington along with about two and a half crores of rupees for its housing and up-keep. The library has been rightly named "FOLGER SHAKESPEARE MEMORIAL LIBRARY."

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## MY BOOK FRIENDS.

By

Miss C. GORDON, B.ED.,  
*Teachers' College, Saidapet.*

THE FOUR MEN BY MILAIRE BELLOC.  
Published by Nelson. 2s.

THIS is a book which defies classification. It is not a novel, nor yet a philosophical treatise, nor a collection of poems. Yet it presents "characters," as does a novel, it is brimful of general philosophy, and it is liberally besprinkled with poems, both grave and gay. The author himself calls it a "farrago," and perhaps we can do no better than leave it at that.

One dominant motive of the book is county patriotism. In Mr. Belloc's own case the county is Sussex—though almost any reader can enter fully into his feelings by applying the sentiments to his own place. Haunted by a fear that the beloved country may be "approaching its doom" he passionately paints a word-picture of his own horizons and his own fields, as he himself has seen them, "before they are forgotten and have become a different thing."

The idea of the book is that four Sussex men, of whom the author is one, meet by accident and walk throughout the county from end to end. One of the four is old and wealthy, a second is a poor poet, while a third is a bluff and hearty sailor. They walk and they talk, and their talk deals with most things on earth or in heaven. But always they come back to the love of county and of the good things of life.

One of the earliest discussions is as to what is "the worst thing in the world." Death, asserts one with great confidence. Another declares that it is some trifling

matter, such as a smoking chimney. And then the old man interposes solemnly, "The worst thing in the world is the passing of human affection. No man who has lost a friend need fear death." Later they discuss "the best thing in the world."

On another occasion they talk of the folly of a man allowing himself to be pursued throughout life by "the Money-Devil." To this subject they come back again afterwards. "You are a rich man," says the sailor to the old man, "and you have travelled as rich men do, for pleasure—which rich men never find." "Nor poor men either," comes the answer. "Well," replies the other, "poor men do not seek it, so they are not saddened, but rich men, anyhow, travel to find it, and never find it."

Though an under-current of serious purpose runs through all the discussions, yet humour plays over the surface of them most of the time. Very amusing, for instance, though by no means merely flippant, is the surprisingly unorthodox story of the encounter between St. Dunstan and the Devil. So are the stories told when all four relate how they first fell in love, while humour of a different kind is introduced, when the sailor takes drastic measures to terminate an argument of which he disapproved.

In different vein is the story of the man who was crossing a wild country one stormy night when he saw a welcome light in the distance. On reaching it he found and entered a chapel, where some twenty or thirty were singing. He "noticed how warm and brilliant was the place.....the altar was all alight.....the twenty or thirty sang, and he sang with them....he thought he was in fairy-land.....he fell asleep, suffused with warmth; but when he woke he found that the place was a ruin, the windows empty, and the wind roaring through."

## WASTAGE IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS.\*

By

Mr. K. N. KINI, M.A.,

District Educational Officer, Mysore.

### A. What is Wastage?

THE curricula of studies are so adjusted in our educational organization that it should be possible for an average child under normal conditions to finish in one year the course of studies intended for any class in which he or she is enrolled. So, if a child attends school fairly regularly he should go from class to class without staying in any class for more than one year; that is, he should not be *retarded*. If he stays in any class more years than one, the effort spent upon him during the excess period is to be considered a waste; for, if he had completed the course in one year and gone to the next higher class, the effort spent in educating him in the lower class for more than the usual one year could have been saved. From the country's point of view, *retardation* is a cause of waste.

2. Some pupils drop off before they acquire adequate learning which would stand by them in life. If a pupil leaves school for good in the first, second, or even third primary class, it is a matter of experience that he forgets what little he learnt while at school and that he becomes illiterate in the course of 4 or 5 years. The effort spent upon him is a waste, in the sense that he is not rendered literate and does not add to the number of literate adults. This premature *elimination* is the most powerful factor in wastage.

3. If we compare the strengths of the four primary classes, we find that the numbers diminish rather too quickly from the first to the fourth class. In Table 1 are recorded the per-

\* A paper read at the Fifth Mysore Educational Conference, March 1930.

centages of pupils on rolls in boys' schools in Mysore on 31-3-1927 based on the strength of the first class. The strength in the 2nd class is about half that in the first, and the strength in the fourth class is only a fifth of that in the first. This means that only a fifth of the pupils that enter the boys' primary schools are rendered permanently literate.

TABLE 1.

Enrolment Percentages based on the strength of the First Primary Class as stood on 31st March 1927.

| Class | I   | ... | Strength. | Percentage. |
|-------|-----|-----|-----------|-------------|
|       | I   | ... | 1,02,603  | 100         |
| "     | II  | ... | 53,755    | 53          |
| "     | III | ... | 45,486    | 45          |
| "     | IV  | ... | 20,145    | 20          |

4. The above proportions have not altered very much during the past few years. Nor has there been any rapid expansion which could be expected to enlarge the first class. New admissions are not permitted now-a-days at the end of the school year and if they are made on the sly, they do not amount to much. "There is of course a diminution in numbers from class to class due to natural causes, such as death and illness, but the mortality figures show that such diminution must be small compared to the total diminution.\*" The diminution is mainly due to the two causes, retardation and elimination. So we may take it that 80 per cent. of the children do not complete the primary course, and that the effort and money spent on their education do not contribute to permanent literacy and are therefore a waste. As an estimate, we may say that at least 80% of the expenditure on boys' schools is wasted at present.

5. The figures given in Table 1 do not contain the numbers of girls enrolled in the various classes of girls' schools. If we include them also, the enrolment percentages of all pupils may

\* Harlog Committee Report, p. 47, para 21.

be seen to be diminishing still more rapidly. The figures are not available for purpose of calculation.

TABLE 2.

Enrolment Percentages.

|             | Kadur District. |        | Bangalore District. |        | Bangalore City. |        |
|-------------|-----------------|--------|---------------------|--------|-----------------|--------|
|             | Boys.           | Girls. | Boys.               | Girls. | Boys.           | Girls. |
| Class I ... | 100             | 100    | 100                 | 100    | 100             | 100    |
| " II ...    | 28              | 18     | 36                  | 20     | 47              | 35     |
| " III ...   | 23              | 11     | 26                  | 12     | 32              | 20     |
| " IV ...    | 14              | 6      | 18                  | 6      | 28              | 13     |

6. In my detailed investigations\* into the problem of wastage in the Kadur (Malnad) and Bangalore (Maidan) districts, I find that less than a fifth of the boys and a sixteenth of the girls (*vide* Table 2) that are enrolled in the first class complete the primary course in the districts and that therefore a very huge majority of the children do not seek that standard of education which would enable them to be literate throughout life. It is not easy to estimate from the strength of the classes the proportions in which the pupils are (a) retarded and (b) eliminated. Such estimates can be made only by studying the history of each pupil, and the work involved would be too huge. By recourse to random samples in the two districts, I have been able to obtain certain interesting information about elimination by studying individual histories of the pupils. But the main point to be noted is that whether pupils are eliminated or retarded, it is only a comparatively small percentage of them that complete the primary course. The rest do not even come up to the fourth class. As a fair estimate we may say that about 80 per cent. of the boys and over 90 per cent. of the girls do not seek that education which imparts to them permanent literacy. Between 80 and 90 per cent. of the expenditure on primary education may be con-

\* Report on the Educational Survey in Mysore, 1927-28, Chap. IV.

sidered to be running to waste, in that it does not help in breaking down the illiteracy of the masses, let alone achieving any higher purposes.

7. In the Bangalore City (*vide* Table 2) the wastage is somewhat less than in the districts, though there is no cause to be proud of this slight better state, because the premier city has so many advantages for furthering education and possesses the pick of the enlightened population the State. One could say that it is rather disappointing that this Municipality which is supposed to have introduced compulsion in boys as well as girls' primary education should allow 76 per cent. of the boys and 86 per cent. of the girls to drop off before reaching class IV. I doubt if the wastage would be so considerable if fifty per cent. of the municipal members consisted of city mothers.

### B. Comparison with other Provinces.

8. The conditions in British India as a whole are not more favourable than in Mysore. But the British districts of Bombay and the Indian States of Travancore and Baroda are distinctly better placed (*vide* Table 3).

TABLE 3.

Enrolment Percentages.

|             | British Districts of Bombay (1926) |        | Travancore, 1925. |        | Baroda, 1925. |
|-------------|------------------------------------|--------|-------------------|--------|---------------|
|             | Boys.                              | Girls. | Boys.             | Girls. | Pupils.†      |
| Class I ... | 100                                | 100    | 100               | 100    | 100           |
| " II ...    | 59                                 | 53     | 77                | 68     | 41            |
| " III ...   | 48                                 | 39     | 64                | 52     | 37            |
| " IV ...    | 40                                 | 29     | 47                | 32     | 24            |

The advance in Bombay is attributed to the fact, *partly at any rate*, that the teachers there have been getting better pay. While the minimum pay † of an unqualified teacher is Rs. 20, that of

† Statistics for Boys and Girls could not be obtained.

‡ Bombay Quinquennial Report, 1922-27, pages 76 to 80.

a qualified teacher is Rs. 25 and that of a trained teacher ranges from Rs. 30 to 40. The qualified and trained teachers are placed in certain grades the maxima of which range from Rs. 30 to Rs. 60. An addition of Rs. 5 is made for teachers in Sind. Over and above this scale, Headmasters are given special allowances ranging from Rs. 5 to 25 according to the size of the schools. So merit and good work are rewarded. These "scales of pay are for those teachers only who were handed over by Government to the Boards under the Primary Education Act of 1923. All teachers employed subsequent to the bringing into operation of this Act are paid at rates to be fixed by the Boards, such rates being subject to certain maxima and minima fixed by Government."

9. There is no doubt that in addition to the incentive given by the efforts of the contented teachers the people themselves have also realised the value of education to a considerable degree in Bombay (British districts.) The high percentage (29.1) of girls who complete the primary course demonstrates this fact of realization.

10. Travancore has made even greater progress than British Bombay. In no part of India do 47% of the boys and 32% of the girls that enter the first class do complete the primary course. This immense progress is due to the fact that women in Travancore enjoy much greater social liberty than their sisters elsewhere and that liberty has enabled them to compete successfully with men in the educational field. The influence of the educated mother in sending children to school and keeping them there long enough to secure that standard of education which would impart to them permanent literacy is demonstrated in Travancore.

11. That waste in education is therefore considerably reduced in places where mothers are literate as is seen in Travancore and British Bombay. Cochin and Ceylon are said to be

equally advanced. Women have dominating influence in our households; and if only the proportion of literate women could be augmented, there is little doubt that the efficiency in all stages of education could be increased and the appalling waste now going on could be greatly arrested and minimised.

12. Though Baroda introduced compulsion in Primary education about a quarter of a century ago, the wastage in education has not been as small as one would expect. The wastage is actually greater than either in Bombay or Travancore, although it is smaller than in Mysore. Perhaps one might say that but for compulsion the wastage would have been greater still. Possibly it is so.

#### C. Wastage in Urban and Rural Schools.

13. Bangalore City is a purely urban area. We find that the wastage there from class to class is much less than in the two districts (Table 1). In Table 4 are recorded the enrolment percentages in urban and rural schools of Kadur and Bangalore districts. By urban schools are meant those Primary schools which are situated in the Municipal areas and by rural schools are meant those that are outside the Municipal limits.

TABLE 4.  
Enrolment Percentages.

|         | Kadur District* |       |        |       | Bangalore District † |       |        |       |
|---------|-----------------|-------|--------|-------|----------------------|-------|--------|-------|
|         | Urban.          |       | Rural. |       | Urban.               |       | Rural. |       |
|         | Boys            | Girls | Boys   | Girls | Boys                 | Girls | Boys   | Girls |
| Class I | 100             | 100   | 100    | 100   | 100                  | 100   | 100    | 100   |
| " II    | 31              | 23    | 28     | 14    | 39                   | 25    | 35     | 18    |
| " III   | 26              | 16    | 22     | 7     | 28                   | 16    | 26     | 11    |
| " IV    | 19              | 12    | 13     | 2     | 23                   | 11    | 17     | 4     |

Some very interesting inferences may be drawn from these percentages.

\* Report on Educational Survey in Mysore, 1927-28, p. 93.

† *Ibid.* p. 93.

(a) The dropping off from class to class is quicker in rural than in urban schools and is quicker in girls' than in boys' schools in the same area. The wastage is therefore greater in rural than in urban schools and is much more in girls' education than in boys'.

(b) The dropping off of rural girls is simply terrible. The consequent wastage is a formidable factor that militates against the spread of literacy among rural women.

Even the two per cent. and four per cent. of the girls that complete the primary course in Kadur and Bangalore districts respectively might lapse into illiteracy on account of paucity of facilities for keeping themselves in touch with books and newspapers in villages unless of course they migrate to towns on account of marital relation with urban people.

#### D. Wastage by Communities.

14. The relative progress achieved by the different communities may be to a certain extent comprehended from the way in which pupils of those communities drop off from class to class. This subject has been discussed by me at length elsewhere.\* For understanding the problem of wastage among different communities it is sufficient if we know the percentage of pupils that complete the primary course based on the enrolment in the first class (*vide* Table 5) in a few typical communities or groups of communities.

(a) Wastage in the education of pupils belonging to the same group of communities is less in Bangalore district than in the Kadur. The depressing Malnad's conditions have had their effect on the education of these communities.

\* Report on Educational Survey in Mysore, 1927-1928, Chap. IX.

TABLE 5.

Percentages of pupils that reach Class IV.

| Community Groups.                                         | Kadur Dist. | Bangalore Dist. | Bangalore City. |
|-----------------------------------------------------------|-------------|-----------------|-----------------|
|                                                           | Boys        | Girls           | Boys. Girls.    |
| 1 Brahmen                                                 | 27          | 9               | 53 10 41 20     |
| 2 Lingayet                                                | 19          | 4               | 27 8 40 15      |
| 3 Idiga,<br>Jogi, Meda,<br>Tigala. Up-<br>para,<br>Vodda. | 6           | ...             | 12 3 11 15      |
| 4 Vok-<br>kaliga.                                         | 12          | 4               | 19 3 30 8       |
| 5. Depres-<br>sed Class.                                  | 5           | 1               | 5 31 15 8       |
| 6. Musal-<br>mane                                         | 11          | 6               | 9 8 19 12       |
| 7. Christians                                             | 6           | 16              | 21 12 22 21     |
| All com-<br>munities                                      | 14          | 6               | 18 6 25 13      |

(b) On the whole wastage is least in the Brahman community and is highest among the depressed classes and the Idiga group.

(c) Comparatively speaking, wastage is high in the education of the Musalman and Christian boys.

(d) Wastage is relatively lowest among the Christian girls.

(e) Wastage in the education of the Lingayet girls in the districts is greater than that among the girls of the "All communities."

(f) Wastage in the Vokkaliga group is comparatively high.

#### E. Wastage by Parental Occupations.

15. Occupations followed by the parents of pupils have a great influence in determining the degree of education that is accorded to the children. I shall consider here only a few typical occupations† which afford us some interesting contrasts and state in each case the percentages of boys that complete the primary course.

† Report on the Educational Survey in Mysore, 1927-28, Chap. XI.

TABLE 6.

Percentages of boys that complete the  
Primary Course.

| Parental Occupation.               | Kadur District. | Bangalore District. | Bangalore City. |
|------------------------------------|-----------------|---------------------|-----------------|
| 1. Landholder.                     | 20              | 24                  | 28              |
| 2. Agricultural Labour.            | 11              | 13                  | 32              |
| 3. Labour other than Agricultural. | 8               | 8                   | 17              |
| 4. Trade.                          | 19              | 21                  | 27              |
| 5. Artisan.                        | 13              | 17                  | 14              |
| 6. Govt Service                    | 22              | 39                  | 34              |

(a) The waste is least among the boys of the Government servants. Generally the parents of these children are best educated and most cultured of all and hence this state of affairs is only what one would expect.

(b) Landholders stand next only to Government servants in the education of their boys.

(c) Traders are uniformly more progressive than the artisans.

(d) Agricultural labourers are far more progressive than labourers other than agricultural.

16 In girls' \* education too we find that Government servants are most advanced in minimising waste and landlords come next generally. The others are comparatively indifferent to the education of their daughters and the figures yield no very useful inferences.

#### F. Effect of Wastage.

17. Though we are spending considerable sums of money on primary education—the cost having increased seven times since 1901 in Mysore—the increase in effective literacy, i.e., the literacy of people of 20 years and above, has not at all been satisfactory because a large majority of pupils drop off before they reach an educational standard which would enable them to retain literacy when they attain adult stage. The

\* Report on the Educational Survey in Mysore, 1927-28, Chap. XV.

Agricultural Commission of 1926-28 have bestowed some attention on this problem and make very pertinent remarks on the subject. They say: "When calculations are made on the basis of information supplied by the Census reports, it appears that the total number of pupils in recognised schools who pass through class IV is a little more than the normal loss due to death among literate males of 20 years of age and over.†"

That is why effective literacy has not been advancing in India. Conditions in Mysore are no better.

18. The Educational Commissioner with the Government of India estimates that only 30 lakhs of permanent literates were added to British India in the quinquennium 1922-27, which yields an average of 6 lakhs per year. In Mysore about twenty thousand are added annually. These are the numbers of children that complete the fourth year primary course. But nearly as many literate adults of the age of 20 years and above are carried away annually by death. So effective literacy hardly advances.

#### G. How to Minimise Waste?

19. Circumstanced as we are to-day, no one remedy would be adequate to mitigate the evil of wastage in primary education. A number of forces must operate simultaneously. The public as well as the State have to co-operate with each other and strive their utmost to lessen, if not eradicate, this huge waste of public funds.

20. Gradual introduction of compulsion propaganda by the leaders of the people as well as by the Government officers, far greater impetus to women's education, conversion of all one-teacher schools to two-teacher type, organisation of central schools with feeders distant within

† Report of Agricultural Commission in India, 1928, p. 521.

‡ Education in India, 1922-27, p. 125.

## SOME THOUGHTS ON "NATIONAL EDUCATION."

By Mr. R. KRITIVASAN, B.A.

History Assistant, Rajah's High School,  
Ettayapuram.

about a mile from the former, larger encouragement to the most backward communities by way of scholarships to pupils or compensation to parents, gradual replacement of unqualified teachers by trained and qualified hands, better salary to teachers with special allowance to those serving in the Malnad, larger facilities for communication in rural area, a liberal programme of adult education, increased opportunities to rural pupils for securing education higher than the primary, adaptation of curricula to suit the needs of the local people, better sanitary arrangements and medical aid in rural parts and affording opportunities to pupils to participate in parental occupation for half the day, by requiring them to attend school during only the other half, are the many remedial measures that could be recommended to be adopted simultaneously.

### MADRAS UNIVERSITY.

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XXXVI—54

THE phrase "National Education," whatever it may mean, has somehow come to stay and time and again we hear people talking of National Education and the need of organising the same. There are many who belaud the system of education in vogue in the past and condemn the present-day education alleging that it is divorced from religion, morality and Indian traditions and culture.

At one time national institutions cropped up like mushrooms after a rain and many of them were run independent of Government aid, the idea that there was a natural antagonism between these schools and Government somehow coming generally to be accepted. But the organisers had no clear notions as to what constitutes a national system of education. Some of these schools made provision for religious and moral instruction; others for physical and vocational training; and still others for vernacularisation of studies. In course of time, for want of a definite policy and also of public support, most of these schools naturally languished.

Now, many of the ingredients that were once said to compose a national system of education like physical and vocational training have been incorporated into the present official system. But there is another school of thought that advocates that Indian culture and religion are too good for the youth of the land to be ignored and that as much of these as could be profitably taken should be added on to the existing school course. Men of this school are really afraid to see the

younger generation "drifting away from the old moorings under the force of circumstances by the glamour of so-called reason and civilisation." But they are not prepared to go beyond these vague generalisations.

Now, the question of religious education alone, not to speak of others, bristles with difficulties at every step of it. India is a land of religions, sects, creeds and communities. Even in Western countries like Ireland the system of "denominational education" (*i.e.*, separate schools for separate sects) is in vogue. The cultured laymen of either sect (*i.e.*, of Protestantism and Roman Catholicism) detest this system as it entails a multiplicity of small schools ruinous to economy and efficiency and as it also narrows the outlook of the children of both sects and fosters prejudices, mutual suspicions and dislike. But the clergy is strongly entrenched in its stronghold and it will take some time before it is dislodged from its position. When matters are so bad in a land where there are only two sects, how can one hope to arrive at a satisfactory settlement in a country almost ridden to death by castes and sects? It is easily said that the essentials of all religions are the same and that therefore the matter is an easy one but sectarian spirit cannot be satisfied in this way.

Above all where is the necessity for religious education as it is ordinarily understood? It was Dean Inge who observed that some 80% of the educated in the West do not attend church at all. Another great thinker has defined religion as "the frozen thought of man." Some great men come to earth, preach their ideas of life and at their passing away their admirers organise their thoughts and found a religion. In course of time the

essential ideas of the prophet are forgotten, many sects and religious organisations to support and foster the selfishness of the priestcraft and its votaries crop up and fear—fear of heaven, hell, displeasing this or that deity, public opinion expressed through the so-called orthodox—comes to be accepted as the law of life. Thus religions are after all so many ruts against falling into which every cultured individual should guard himself or herself if any ordered progress is to be made. It is a blessing in disguise that so far a policy of non-interference is followed by the Government in the matter of religious education.

"Indian traditions and culture"—another ingredient of national education is again a hackneyed phrase. When one wants more details the reply quickly comes that they are all described and demonstrated in our scriptures. In these days when the new psychology has advanced much and has proved that individuals, though forming part of a common life, are different from one another in their temperament, capacity, and mental and moral nature and that educational methods and systems have to be adapted to suit the tastes of each individual. The very phrase "National Education" seems to be a contradiction in terms. When it is accepted that every human being has a past and a future uniquely his or her own and that his or her purpose in life is to develop this uniqueness, then it goes without saying that the duty of the parents and teachers alike is to discover this uniqueness in each child and adapt the education to be imparted to suit this end. Thus it seems to be more proper in the fitness of things to speak of individual education than of national education. If the individual is cultured and at peace with himself or herself, he or she is

## A NEW OUTLOOK ON EDUCATION.\*

By

Mr. BHUPENDRA NATH SARKAR, B.A., B.T.

**F**ORTUNATELY for mankind, a new day—a day in which the individual child is coming into his own, is dawning in the educational world. The new educators have faced childhood with a clean slate. The old school concerns itself more with the subject-matter than with the child; while the new school focusses its attention on the child. In the formal schools "children are treated as though they are all alike. They are crammed with dry facts. The inability to see their interests and desires, the inability to see their differences in mind and temperament, results in an effort to push them in herds and droves from one grade of the school to another. Sometimes they actually leave school less confident, less joyous, less able to think independently and meet successfully the problems of life, than if they had not gone at all." Such is the case in our country to-day; and why? Because most people are ignorant of education as a science, and they are concerned more with examination passes than with real education. They have a blind regard for the past and particularly for the way in which they themselves were educated. They forget the fact that the last word on education has not been said. Even veteran educationists speak in disparaging terms of those who have seen the new light. These wiseacres say "they are cranks"; "that is an American fad"; and so on. The advocates of the old school should remember that the various

\* The writer acknowledges his indebtedness to the "New Era," "New Schools in the Old World," and Anthroposophical publications, all of which he has freely used.

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systems and methods that exist to-day all the world over, are legacies left by men who were similarly looked upon as cranks in their own day. In this ever-changing world nothing can be stationary. Our educational system needs change at times; so also our outlook. We must not rest content with our old-world ideas of education; we should look around and follow a policy of eclecticism, combining all that is best in the old and the new.

If we turn our eyes to the New Schools of Europe and America, we see that freedom is the dominant feature of them all. Freedom has become a slogan of the New Education. But people are apt to confuse freedom or liberty with license. They think of it as freedom to do wrong or to do nothing. By liberty we mean the liberty to do right.

In the New World, Miss Helen Parkhurst is a pioneer in the field of education, who has sought to liberate the child from the shackles of time-table and old class-room methods. She has started a school, which has well-organised laboratories with expert teachers in each subject. The term "teachers" may be considered a misnomer, because there is the maximum of learning with the minimum of teaching. Contracts are made, as it were, between the child and the instructor for a certain piece of work. The child is allowed to work at his own pace and in his own way. His progress is recorded in graphs. This method develops in the child the power of taking initiative and a sense of responsibility. It fosters also his desire to learn and know more. The teacher, instead of attacking the children, is himself being continually attacked by most of them, barring a few slackers. Dalton Plan, as Miss Parkhurst's method has come to be called, is now too

well-known to need any elaborate treatment. It is a triumph for her system that the principles underlying it have influenced many educators in the West and the East as well.

The schools at Winnetka, a suburb of Chicago on the shores of Lake Michigan, aim at modifying the curriculum in order to make a greater adaptation to the individual than is usual and to provide more time for socialised and self-expressive activities. Children learn the common essentials and have group and creative activities. They use self-instructive and self-corrective materials. Each individual child progresses from one unit of work to another, never leaving a unit until it is mastered. They need not be held back by the slower pupils of the class. The teacher moves about among the children—a helper eagerly sought after rather than a task-master to be evaded. A noticeable feature of the Winnetka Schools is that self-government is very well organised in them. The curriculum is subjected to continual examination, and changes are made, when necessary. The schools owe much to Superintendent Washburne who is a fair-minded and zealous educationist.

Perhaps most people do not know that the Columbia University has the biggest Teachers' Training College in the world. The school attached to it—called the Lincoln School—is also a big one, having sixty-seven members on the staff. The members are all actuated by a common purpose, that is, to find out something about education that will be sound and useful. The school has set itself to the task of re-making the curriculum; and it has already achieved something. There is throughout the institution no printed course of study, no hard-and-fast syllabus for the work of year

or month or day, no final and unalterable order of events. "The Lincoln School is neither the fulfilment nor the fulfiller of any one doctrine, theory or method of education. \* \* It does recognise the worth of activity in the class-room; it does set great store on the particular values of individual development in social situations; it does believe that thinking is a greater end than mastery of form, and creativeness than imitation; and it does try to get children to learn without distress."

The Old World is also astir. Great Britain has caught a glimpse of the new light, and she has started some pioneer schools. Frensham Heights near Farnham, Surrey, England, is a school of the new type. Preparing youth for life as it really is—this is the ideal that has inspired its founders. The organisers believe that the school must develop spontaneously from within. The Dalton Plan, modified to some extent, has been adopted for the present. Wide choice of work is given in each subject, and importance is attached to original work. The school is self-governing;—it is governed by a council of the students and the staff. The life children lead here is as simple as possible. Under the plan of individual time-tables and work and no arbitrary punishment, it was possible for any student of the school to slack almost as much as he or she liked; but the children themselves say that no one ever did it for a long time. They found that it did not really pay and that the slackers were looked down upon by the rest. "The whole atmosphere of Frensham is one of friendliness and work; teachers and children are friends." This sounds like educational heresy in our country.

The Marlborough Infants' School in Chelsea, a congested part of London, next attracts

sidered to be running to waste, in that it does not help in breaking down the illiteracy of the masses, let alone achieving any higher purposes.

7. In the Bangalore City (*vide* Table 2) the wastage is somewhat less than in the districts, though there is no cause to be proud of this slight better state, because the premier city has so many advantages for furthering education and possesses the pick of the enlightened population the State. One could say that it is rather disappointing that this Municipality which is supposed to have introduced compulsion in boys as well as girls' primary education should allow 76 per cent. of the boys and 86 per cent. of the girls to drop off before reaching class IV. I doubt if the wastage would be so considerable if fifty per cent. of the municipal members consisted of city mothers.

#### B. Comparison with other Provinces.

8. The conditions in British India as a whole are not more favourable than in Mysore. But the British districts of Bombay and the Indian States of Travancore and Baroda are distinctly better placed (*vide* Table 3).

TABLE 3.  
Enrolment Percentages.

|         |     | British Districts of Bombay (1926) |        | Travancore. 1925. |        | Baroda. 1925. |
|---------|-----|------------------------------------|--------|-------------------|--------|---------------|
|         |     | Boys.                              | Girls. | Boys.             | Girls. | Pupils.†      |
| Class I | ... | 100                                | 100    | 100               | 100    | 100           |
| " II    | ... | 59                                 | 53     | 77                | 68     | 41            |
| " III   | ... | 48                                 | 39     | 64                | 52     | 37            |
| " IV    | ... | 40                                 | 29     | 47                | 32     | 24            |

The advance in Bombay is attributed to the fact, *partly at any rate*, that the teachers there have been getting better pay. While the minimum pay † of an unqualified teacher is Rs. 20, that of

† Statistics for Boys and Girls could not be obtained.

‡ Bombay Quinquennial Report, 1922-27, pages 76 to 80.

tions, no rules, no punishments—with their whole work centred on the development of each child's soul from within—these are the public experimental schools of Hamburg." The Hamburg educators use their schools not as places for training and instruction but as places where the life energies of the children may be liberated and where they may grow to their fulness in freedom. The freedom allowed to their children is also allowed to their teachers. They do not wish to formalise and deaden their ideas by making a method or general theory. To use their own words, "Our schools are not a completed system. They are a growing and living and changing idea." These schools are quite in keeping with the state of flux that post-war German society is in. The children are probably less advanced in their knowledge of different subjects than those of schools of the old type, but they are more natural and more self-reliant. To some the Hamburg experiment may appear as an extreme swing of the pendulum—one of many swings in the perpetual see-saw of progress. It is, no doubt, first complete educational revolution in history.

Dr. Rudolf Steiner's Waldorf School at Stuttgart has a peculiarity all its own in that it holds out a message of hope to mankind by bringing spiritual development within the reach of each individual child. There is no application of a particular system, no textbooks are used, the knowledge is transmitted as a living thing from the teacher to the class, the very essence being the fellowship and spirituality between the teacher and the taught. The subjects taught in this school are many, but the most prominent thing is the variety of channels along which the

artistic faculties of the child may flow. One of these channels is Eurhythm, which may be defined as "making visible the impulses perceived to underlie language, poetry, song, melody,—making them visible in rhythmic movements, to the accompaniment of music or recitation." In the Waldorf School one finds an application of the principles of Anthroposophy, which pursues its spiritual search—not by adherence to ancient traditions nor by experimenting on external 'psychic' phenomena—but by training the faculties of pure and direct spiritual perception that are latent in the human soul.

The Humanitarian School situated near Amsterdam in a village called Laren, is a practical expression of the hankering of the human soul for peace after the bloodshed and carnage of the last European War. It is a school which believes whole-heartedly in universal brotherhood and peace. An evidence of this is furnished by the fact that a member of the staff suffered a term of imprisonment during the war, because he objected to it. "The school tries to inculcate its ideas in the children, not by direct moral instruction but by the attitude of the teachers and through the type of emphasis placed in the teaching of history, geography and literature. The teachers try to make their own lives, both in and out of school, an example of the ideals they wish their pupils to hold." Though this school is looked down upon as a school of cranks and faddists, the starting of such an institution is a move in the right direction.

All honour to those who, away from the din and bustle of modern life, have set about solving in their own way the eternal problem—the problem of the child. It is, however, too early to predict what these educational

experiments will lead to. But it is a folly to dismiss all these as mad men's projects. We should follow, with interest and insight, the onward march of education and then pause to think. The difficulties in the matter of educational advance in India are many. "New Education can go no further until the teeth are extracted from the twin dragons of examinations and curriculum;" and to these may be added other dragons, namely, the conservatism of the people, ignorance and indifference of parents, the medium of a foreign language, the sad plight of teachers, paucity of funds and perhaps a narrow outlook on life. Let us hope for brighter days when some experimental schools will be started in our country with State-aid and public benefactions.—*The Calcutta Review*, July 1930.

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#### MADRAS LIBRARY ASSOCIATION : DIPLOMAS IN LIBRARY SCIENCE.

At its meeting held on Thursday last, the 24th July 1930, the Council of the Madras Library Association considered the report of Mr. S. R. Ranganathan, M.A., F. L. A., Hon. Director of the Summer School of Library Science, and resolved as follows:—

1. That the thanks of the Council be communicated to the authorities of the University of Madras for the facilities given by them to conduct the Summer School in close co-operation with the Madras University Library, and,

2. That Diplomas be awarded to the following:—

1. Mr. K. Selliah, Librarian, Jaffna College, Ceylon.
2. " K. Nilakantan, Librarian, Intermediate College, Bangalore.
3. " Gulam Ahmed, Librarian, Nizam's College, Hyderabad.
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7. " V. Jagannathan, B.A., Clerk, University Library, Madras.
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9. " M. S. Subramania Sastri, M.A., L.T., Assistant, Board High School, Arni.
10. " V. Srinivasan, B.A., L.T., Assistant, S. S. V. High School, Kodumudi.
11. " V. Santanam, Assistant, Board High School, Musiri.
12. " P. V. Rama Ayyangar, B.A., L.T., Headmaster, Board Middle School, Pakala.
13. " S. Venkataraman, Assistant, C. C. O. High School, Perambur.

## Reviews and Notices.

ELEMENTARY MATHEMATICS, PART II, BY V. VENKATASUBBAYYA, TRANSLATED INTO TAMIL BY M. S. SUNDARESWARAN, M.A., L.T., AND S. SUNDARESA AYYAR, B.A. (HONS.), L.T. (MACMILLAN & CO. LTD.) Pp. xi & 495. (FIRST EDITION, 1929). *Price: Rs. 1-8.*

This book prepared by a veteran Mathematics teacher for the elementary mathematical needs of the Madras S. S. L. C. students and translated into vernacular by two experienced teachers, needs little introduction in this Presidency from the pen of the reviewer. Accustomed as we have been all these years to English books in Mathematics, the vernacular clothing in which mathematical notions and methods are now presented to us appear to be rather strange and artificial. The English idiom peeps out perhaps uncomfortably in literal vernacular renderings and some English letters and technical expressions seem to be wholly indispensable even when vernacular is the medium of expression. In course of time, however, the strangeness and artificiality of our vernacular renderings are bound to disappear partly through our familiarity with Anglicisms in vernacular scientific text-books and partly through the efforts of translators who are doubly gifted, linguistically and mathematically.

The speciality of this book is its numerous examples very useful to the teacher who has often to handle large classes consisting of highly heterogeneous elements. All the topics—Arithmetic, Algebra, Practical Geometry and Mensuration—which go to form Elementary Mathematics, have received due attention from the author. We are also glad to note that the author has not neglected the inevitable correlation between Science and Mathematics.

On the whole, this text-book will be found very useful and instructive, being well adapted for the purpose which it is intended to serve. The nice get-up and the cheap cost are additional points in its favour.

PHILIP'S SECTIONAL ARITHMETICS: BOOKS 1—5, BY GERALD B. BROWN, M.A. (GEORGE PHILIP AND SON, LTD. 1930). *Price: Paper covers: 9d. each. Limp cloth: 1s.*

This new series of Arithmetics gives a thoroughly practical treatment of Arithmetic in five little neat and attractive books covering the usual topics taught in our primary and middle schools. Each book contains about 100 pages being a string of exercises interestingly graded, and there is no attempt at elaborate explanations of rules. A special feature of the books is the series of self-directed exercises where directions are given to work out for oneself important table such as the multiplication table and also to make up practical problems from one's own observation and experience. Such exercises have a great educative value in training the pupils to take intelligent interest in things around them and developing their powers of initiative which are totally lacking in the majority of our school-boys. Especially in Mathematics, the tendency among our boys is to follow blindly the so-called model and any slight deviation from it is regarded as a bug-bear. The 'Self-directed Exercises' are the proper antidote for the slavish mentality especially in Arithmetic.

We gladly recommend the books for use in the primary and middle schools in India.

ARITHMETICAL PROBLEM PAPERS, BY REV. E. M. RADFORD, M. A. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS, 1929). Pp. 103. *Price: 2s.*

This is a useful collection of arithmetical problems by an author who has given us similar collections in other fields of mathematics. The problems number 700 in all and are carefully graduated over 100 papers. The author assures us that although the questions may fairly be called 'Problems,' they are not of the puzzle type. But we are sure that the majority of our High School boys who are ridden by model sums in the arithmetical

text-books will find great deviations from the rut in many of these interesting and clever problems. The following apparently harmless problem from the early page: 'What is the least number which is the product, but not the sum, of two prime numbers? (vide p. 2) will give sufficient indication of the type to be expected. It will be a stimulating discipline for a High School student good in mathematics to work through the problems set forth in this little book.

We strongly recommend the book for supplementary use in the upper forms in Indian High Schools.

யதமுதந்தம் — இரண்டாம் பகுதி, BY V. RAGHUNATHA AYYAR, B. A., L. T. (MACMILLAN & CO., LTD., 1930). Pp. 96. *Price 4 rs.*

This is a little book specially designed to serve the requirements of the pupils of the second standard in the primary schools of the Tamil districts in the Madras Presidency. The questions are graduated carefully and worded suitably to the linguistic level of the pupils especially in the rural areas. The plan and arrangement of topics leave little to be desired.

We are sure teachers in elementary schools will abundantly use this book as a text-book.

CAMBRIDGE INTERMEDIATE MATHEMATICS—ARITHMETIC PART II, BY H. J. LARCOMBE. (CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS, 1929). Pp. viii + 207. *Price 2s. 6d.*

The book under review belongs to a series specially designed to fit the pupils to take their places in the industrial and commercial walks of life. It has therefore a practical bias, theoretical explanations being reduced to a minimum.

The topics dealt with are Approximations, Logarithms, Ratio and Proportion, Exchanges and Equivalents, Percentages, Simple Interest, True and Banker's Discount, Compound Interest, Stocks

and Shares, Mensuration of Solids and Graphs of Statistics. The book concludes with numerous papers on commercial and mental arithmetic set by various examining bodies in England. A table of four-figure logarithms given at the end of the book is bound to increase its usefulness to students of Commercial Arithmetic.

The book may be recommended as a supplementary text-book in Elementary Mathematics to be used in the upper forms of our Secondary Schools.

THE ANNALS OF THE BHANDARKAR ORIENTAL RESEARCH INSTITUTE, POONA, VOL. X, PARTS III & IV AND VOL. XI, PARTS I & II.

The double part of Vol. X issued for July 1929, sometime back begins with a translation by Mr. P. V. Ramannjaiswami of Dr. Laddu's Introduction to Trivikrama's Prakrit Grammar, which includes an introduction, an account of the materials of the work, data for establishing Trivikrama's authorship from internal evidence, his time and personality, a contrast between him and Hemachandra and a summary of his grammar. Mr. Sukumar Sen continues his essay on the use of the cases in Vedic prose; while Mr. Umesha Misra gives the text of a Mimamsa work attributed to one Murari Misra who probably lived in the 13th century and wrote a complete treatise on all the *adhyakaras* of Purva Mimamsa. Professor D. R. Bhandarkar in a learned article reconsiders the famous edict of Asoka whose rescissions have been discovered at Sivasram, Rupnath, Brahmagiri and Maski, in the light of the recent interpretations made by Dr. Barua, Dr. Hulzsch and Dr. Mookerji. The Brahmagiri rescension says that the proclamation was made by Asoka after the lapse of 256 years; and the writer suggests that 256 years have to be calculated from the date of the Buddha's *nirvana* and not *parinirvana*; and the former is placed 21 years prior to the latter. Mr. Tadpatrikar examines the Krishna problem and tries to conclude that the cross references to Krishna found both in

the Mahabharata and the Puranas can be said to have been inserted at some later stage of the textual development and that originally the two accounts were mutually exclusive; and the question is whether they refer to the same Krishna or two different persons. We can possibly say that the one is supplementary to the other; but this view has got great drawbacks.

Vol. XI contains Professor Barua's interpretation of the Sohgaura Copper Plate Inscription which is distinct from those offered by Drs. Buhler and Fleet and a fragmentary inscription containing a description of Vishnu and composed by Bilhana, minister of Vindhya-varmadeva of Dhara. Among other materials is an interesting study by Dr. Pathak on the age of Panini who is assigned to the last quarter of the 7th century B.C., just before the appearance of Mahavira and Gautama Buddha; he says that classical Sanskrit was not invented by Panini, but existed in the times of his predecessors. Dr. Nalinaksha Dutt tries to establish in a laboured paper that the *Aryasatyas* and the *Pratityasamutpāda* are unreal and mere matters of convention according to the Mahayanists, but real according to the Hinayanists. Dr. D. R. Bhandarkar concludes from a previous issue his article on the slow growth of the Islamic power in India and proves that the Rajputs proved a most effective barrier to Muhammadan aggrandisement for upwards of four centuries and a half—a fact unprecedented in the early history of Islam. Dr. Pathak tries to fix the date of Samantabhadra while Dr. V. S. Sukthankar discusses the difficulties of textual reconstruction of our epics and tries to answer some of the queries and criticisms of Dr. Winternitz regarding his own selections of readings in the critical edition of the Mahabharata now in progress at Poona. Regarding the age of Panini, Dr. Pathak tries in another paper to refute the conclusions of Dr. Goldstucker that Panini lived before the composition of the two Vedic works, viz., *Vajasaneyi Samhita* and the *Satapatha Brahmana*; while the *Unādi Sūtras* were

composed by Panini himself. The output of these numbers of the Journal has thus been exceptionally rich and varied.

MATRICULATION HISTORY OF ENGLAND—PART III (1688—1815), BY H. C. SHEARMAN AND H. PLASKITT. (UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL PRESS, LONDON, 1930.)—Pp. xvi & 347. Price: 4s. 6d.

This is the third of a series of four volumes which will cover British History from the time of the Norman conquest down to the present day; and it begins with an introduction about the antecedents of the Great Revolution and an account of the population, society, national economy and administration as they stood in the reign of James II. It explains Government's policy with regard to trade in all its successive phases, describes the working of the enclosures, of the chartered companies and of the domestic system of industry, before it takes up the narrative of the agricultural improvement, the industrial development and other attendant features that came into operation in the latter part of the 18th century. The wars of Marlborough, and the Empire wars of the 18th century are rounded off by special sections devoted to India, Scotland and Ireland and to imperial development elsewhere. A good glossary is given at the end of some historical terms like Jacobinism, Non-Resistance, and Sinking Fund; and another biographical appendix gives accounts of selected personages which are fairly full. Chronological frame-works have been properly balanced by the stress laid on the continuity of the different phases of growth. Everywhere stress has been attempted to be laid on the proper balance between details and general essentials, between social developments and the personal element and between domestic and external politics. To an Indian student of even the Intermediate classes the book may seem to be perhaps a little over-weighted with detail; but it should serve as a handy and useful manual for the teachers in our High Schools.

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## The Educational Review.

It is time all sensible people concentrated attention on protesting against the foolish policy of picketing colleges obtaining in some parts of the country. The more Swaraj India is to get the more education does she require and it is unreasoning stupidity on the part of anybody to appeal to students to give up their education for the sake of national service. There can be no nobler way of serving one's motherland than equipping oneself for the great work of citizenship. But when some of these misguided patriots go beyond peaceful persuasion and indulge in coercing people into leaving colleges, it becomes an outrage on some of the fundamental rights of humanity, and this kind of tyranny should be put an end to at an early date. A college student is old enough to understand whether he should study or not and if he has made up his mind to continue his education, it is not for others to step in and tell him that he must give up his education and become a Congress volunteer! This constitutes a grave attempt on freedom of action and should not be tolerated by anybody concerned with the future happiness and prosperity of India. Things are happily not very bad in South India, but in many of the North Indian cities, crowds have burst into college buildings preventing work and getting the institutions closed for the days. These apostles of non-violence have also been responsible for actual

physical injuries on students who have tried to defend their institutions against hooliganism of this type. It is good for these over-zealous nationalists to remember that the fight is really with the Government and not with the young men in our colleges.

The University of Calcutta, with the co-operation of the College Teachers' Association in Bengal, teaching organisations in the province and the help of the Government, has already succeeded in doing something for teachers in Secondary Schools, particularly in the direction of constituting Arbitration Boards and improving their security of tenure. Thanks to the efforts of the All-Bengal College Teachers' Association, the University of Calcutta is now preparing a College Code to which all institutions will have to conform if they are to remain affiliated to the Calcutta University. The Code recommends a minimum scale of pay for the guidance of governing bodies and also makes provision for conditions of Service, Leave Rules, Provident Fund Rules, etc. It is laid down that the letter of appointment in each case should specify the nature of the appointment and the terms. There should be a definite scale of increments and it is required that the Committee should record the reasons when any increment is withheld. The following provisions of the new College Code may be quoted to show the spirit in which it has been drafted:—

(a) "The services of a permanent employee shall not be terminated except on reasonable

grounds. The services of a permanent employee shall never be terminated in the middle of an academic session except on grounds of moral turpitude.

(b) A teacher whose services are dispensed with on grounds other than moral turpitude shall ordinarily be entitled to a compensation equal to as many months' pay as the number of completed years of service.

(c) No teacher shall be penalised in any way by the governing body without framing specific charges and without a formal enquiry when the teacher shall be permitted to adduce evidence in his defence, to examine witnesses, if any, and explain his conduct. All these proceedings must be recorded together with a clear and definite finding on each of the charges framed against him.

(d) Final appeal lies to the University against such orders of the governing body."

The Leave Rules are quite generous and make provision for Privilege Leave, Study Leave and so on. College teachers in other parts of the country must make efforts to see that their conditions of service are improved on similar lines and their rights safeguarded by the Universities concerned.

The Inter-University Board is in communication with all the Universities in India regarding a proposal put forward by the National University Students in England and Wales for a party of Indian students to travel all over Europe for a period of four months in the summer of 1931. The tour will be a conducted one and embrace almost all places of interest in Europe. It is expected that the cost will be about

£200 for each student inclusive of everything. We hope that the proposal will be taken advantage of by a large number of students in this country. There can be no better opportunity for young men for studying European life and civilisation than a tour of this kind and at least well-to-do Indian parents should not grudge the expenditure of money involved in this scheme. There is such an amount of lethargy about Indian Universities which are usually content with the mere carrying on of routine duties that we sometimes despair of any such idea being taken advantage of by them. We shall wait and see what amount of response the invitation is likely to bring.

Reference has been made on former occasions to the University Grants Committee in England which has dealt handsomely with the financial needs of these institutions and which has recently made a recommendation to the Chancellor of the Exchequer for an increase of the annual Parliamentary grant to them by £150,000. The recent report issued by that body for 1928-1929 is a particularly interesting document, especially as it reviews the work of the first quinquennium. The Committee notes with satisfaction that there has been some improvement in the financial conditions of teachers and also lays down in very effective language the reasons why members of the teaching staff of Universities should be paid a decent wage. To those prosperous persons of

#### Grants to British Universities.

other professions who are fond of lecturing to teachers on the nobility of their calling and on the need for sacrifice, we commend the following words from the Report of the Parliamentary Grants Committee:—

"Our general conclusion is therefore that in the matter of remuneration the career of a University teacher should first of all offer to a man the prospect of marrying and maintaining himself and his family in such material comforts as are enjoyed by moderately successful members of other learned professions, and of providing satisfactorily for the education of his children. It would be socially wasteful as well as unfair to the individuals concerned, if access to the education which the University teacher provides for the children of others, were denied to his own, or were only obtainable for them by means of sacrifices on his part which should not be demanded of him, and are indeed likely to diminish his efficiency. In the second place, it should be recognised that if a University teacher is to retain the width and freshness of mind which are essential to original investigation and teaching on the University plane, he needs something more than food, clothing and shelter, and the use of the University library and laboratories. A scholar—to employ the term in its widest sense—needs a modest library of his own, he needs to belong to learned societies and mix with fellow workers in his own or kindred fields, and he usually needs, and always would be the better for, some foreign travel. These things may be thought luxuries, in the sense that all too many people unfortunately have to do without them, but they are not, and should not be considered luxuries for University teachers, whose intellectual resources will be definitely straitened by their absence. We do not of course mean to suggest that under present conditions even the worst paid University

teachers do not buy books, or belong to learned societies, or visit foreign countries; the majority no doubt somehow contrive to do all these things. Our contention, based on good evidence, is that the stipend paid by the Universities usually takes little or no account of them, and that, in so far as they are achieved, it is mainly by recourse to shifts, clearly injurious both to the teachers and to the Universities they serve. It is idle to expect the teachers to be free to give their powers of mind full play, if they find it necessary to accept an undesirably low standard of living or to supplement insufficient incomes by disabling burden of extraneous work.

We are aware that in attempting to meet the constantly increasing demands which the community makes upon them, the Universities have a difficult task to perform and have many other things to trouble them besides the salaries of their professors and lecturers, but we believe that precedence over all others must be assigned to the need of securing a staff of first-rate quality, and of providing conditions of service which will preserve that quality unimpaired. It should never be forgotten that it is in the character rather than the bulk of its work that the value of a University lies, and that the nation will be better served by Universities restricting themselves to a range of departments which they can staff under conditions favourable to the highest standards, than by Universities which extend their activities over a wider field, but in order to achieve this are compelled to do less than justice to their teachers."

We must extend our general support to the Primary Education Bill which is now before the Legislative Council in Bengal, in spite of the resignation of one of the Ministers as a protest against the manner

#### The Bengal Primary Education Bill.

in which, according to him, it was being rushed through the Council. The scheme for Compulsory Primary Education for the whole Province has been before the public now for a certain number of years. The Bill proposes to obtain the money required for the purpose by extra taxation which is expected to bring one crore of rupees every year. We find that some sections of the public are opposed to this extra taxation, but we are afraid the problem of compulsory primary education is not going to be solved in this country until we are going to submit ourselves to this inconvenience. We have no wish to suggest that economies in administration are not possible and money cannot be saved in other directions for being spent on primary education, but it is useless to wait till such reforms can be accomplished. The passing of this Bill in Bengal will be an epoch in the history of primary education in India and we hope the example will be followed, sooner or later, in all the other provinces in the country. There is no chance of the political salvation of India unless this question is satisfactorily solved in this country.

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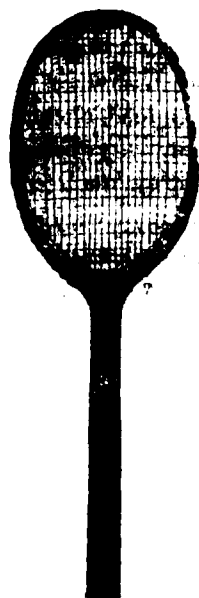
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