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A PLEA FOR PSYCHOLOGICAL RESEARCH ON ABILITY WITH SYMBOLS AND ITS RELATION TO MATHEMATICAL TRAINING.

By

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(1)

WE are living in a symbolic world. All our actions and thoughts are effected, interpreted and communicated only through the medium of symbols. We may broadly classify symbols into (i) language symbols or words, and (ii) symbols proper, like mathematical symbols, which are more fruitful and concise. In the sequel, we shall restrict the term 'symbols' only to the latter class.

In all branches of knowledge, words and symbols play their part in different proportions. For instance, in literature words alone have their role, while in pure mathe-

matics, symbols are predominant. Between these two extremes, there are several shades of combination of 'word' and 'symbol.'

It may be remarked generally that where the emotional aspect is predominant, words are necessary, while cold intellectual products are best expressed in symbols. The Grammar of Panini and the *Principia Mathematica* of Whitehead and Russell are instances of two wonderful achievements in the field of symbols.

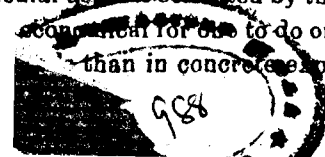
It is a matter of common popular experience that the linguistic and the symbolic type of mind rarely go together, though it is a combination most devoutly to be wished and systematically cultivated. The only symbolic experience we give to our children in schools is in mathematics. If one is a student of Sanskrit Grammar and learns it on Persian lines, there is scope for one to get kind of symbolic experience.

perience is generally missed through the use of the anglicised and diluted Grammar books of Bhandarkar and others. Thus, our education is mainly verbal in character, and we should therefore naturally expect a linguistic bias among our students. Still we find a good percentage of the superior class of students distinguishing themselves in symbolic work, at least in such as finds scope in our curriculum. Again, while no person shows a positive distaste for linguistic studies, there are not a few who display marked aversion towards symbolism. Is symbolic work, *per se*, more difficult than the literary one? Are there really two different types of mind, the linguistic and the symbolic? Since the mathematical mode is essentially one of symbols, is there any such thing as a general ability with symbols, which obtains its fruition in the mathematical atmosphere?

There is a clear need, therefore, to make an attempt to envisage some of the issues raised above through experiments devised with a view to investigate general ability with symbols, if any such really exists, and its relation to mathematical training.

(2)

Our life is a bundle of sensory experiences, which leave their traces in the mind in some subtle form. These traces are the springs of our mental activity and through that activity take on a tangible form as representative experiences. Representative experiences crystallise into symbols. The use of symbols helps us in extricating ourselves from all the irrelevant associations in our sensory experiences and concentrating our attention on particular aspects connoted by the symbols. It is economical for one to do one's thinking in concrete experiences.



Possibilities of abstraction vary with the nature of the symbols used. Spoken words make a certain amount of abstraction possible. In written words, we have a higher stage of abstraction necessary in complex thought processes. The next higher stage is marked by the use of more rarified symbols such as mathematical symbols. Symbols are thus the tools of abstract thinking. The less cumbersome their form, the better tools of thought they will be, and conversely, the more abstract the thought process, the more significant and concise should symbols for their expression be.

The forms of symbols are generally arbitrary and often bear no relation to their content. They are simply cues for recall and reference. The power of symbols lies in their laws of combination and manipulation. Ordinary ability with symbols consists in the capacity to associate symbols correctly with their content and *vice-versa* with due regard to the laws of combination of symbols, and to carry on reasoning in those symbols. The capacity to devise new symbols suitable to the subject-matter of one's line of thought, to work out their appropriate law of operation, and to use them to develop one's train of thought further is a higher ability with symbols.

Two factors are involved in the mastery of symbols. One is the content or face-value which may be of any degree of complexity. For example, while the symbol + is a simple one to denote addition, the equation

$$d^{\lambda\sigma} d_{\mu\sigma} = \delta_{\mu}^{\lambda}$$

in Tensor-calculus is a condensed statement of any number of equations, say 400 or 40,000. The mastery of content implies a certain readiness to pass from symbols to their mean-

ing and *vice-versa*. The greater the quantity of meaning imbedded in a symbol, the greater the span of concentration necessary for its grasp. A certain amount of abstraction is also incidental since all irrelevant associations suggested by the form of the symbol have to be cleared away. The configuration of the symbol is also an important element to be mastered.

The other factor is the Laws of Combination of Symbols. To the beginner, the laws are driven home through various concrete experiences. This constant association, in the earlier stages, of the abstract laws and their concrete foundations, makes it difficult for some minds even in the later stages to drop the concrete and think purely in terms of symbols. When the symbols are piled, one on another, to greater and greater extent as in a mathematical formula, it becomes absolutely necessary to forget the concrete meanings, which are a veritable strain and a heavy drag for further operations, and to look only to the abstract laws of manipulation for guidance. To the extent to which one can think of the abstract laws without any reference to their concrete bearings, one's ability with symbols is marked. Since a mathematical training involves this kind of mental activity in a high degree, proceeding from the simple to the complex, it is bound to improve this factor in symbolic work.

But, if abstract speculations in symbols should lead to practical results, we have ultimately to bring down the products of abstract thought to the plane of perceptual experiences and therefore we should be in a position to translate the symbols in terms of real situations. Thus, betaking to the vehicle of abstract symbolic work in our thought speculations is a temporary affair for the sake of

gaining power in reasoning, and we have soon to return to the sensory world once again to interpret the conclusions reached by symbolic reasoning.

(3)

To gather data for investigation, one should devise a test of ability with symbols involving the interpretation and manipulation of symbols, some with and others without mathematical content. Those with mathematical content should entail only the barest elements of arithmetical work, the object being not to mix up difficulties of different kinds. Mechanical computation should be reduced to a minimum in the mathematical portion of the test, so that attention may be mainly directed to pure symbolic work.

Symbolic work may be classified under three heads:

- (i) Interpretation of symbols,
 - (ii) Symbolic expression,
 - and (iii) Reasoning with symbols,
- in increasing order of difficulty.

Of these, the first and its converse, the second, involve the same principle as finding analogies. But the second is more difficult than the first as it implies transition from the familiar to the unfamiliar. We may compare this feature with the well-known experience that translation from one's mother-tongue to a foreign language appears to be more difficult than that from a foreign language to one's mother-tongue. The difficulty is not so much due to the want of the foreign vocabulary as to the want of mastery over the rules of grammar and syntax, in other words, to the laws of combination of words. Even so, in symbols, the laws of combination are often a source of greater difficulty than the comprehension of the face-values of the symbols themselves.

I submit below a test of ability with symbols devised to illustrate my point of view.

TEST OF ABILITY WITH SYMBOLS.

1. If we interpret $a^{\frac{1}{2}}$ as $\sqrt{a}$, $a^{\frac{3}{4}}$ as $\sqrt[4]{a^3}$, and so on, how shall we interpret $a^{\frac{1}{2}}$, $a^{\frac{2}{3}}$, and b^m ?

2. If a^{-3} means $\frac{1}{a^3}$, $a^{-\frac{2}{3}}$ means $\frac{1}{\sqrt[3]{a^2}}$, and so on, what is the meaning of a^{-m} , and $a^{-\frac{r}{s}}$?

3. In the light of the above explanations, find the values of $4^{-\frac{1}{2}}$, $27^{\frac{1}{3}}$, $25^{-\frac{1}{5}}$.

4. $P_0, P_1, P_2, \dots, P_{19}$ stand for 20 consecutive odd numbers. What does P_r stand for?

What is the value of $P_{r+2} - P_r$?

(N.B. Assume r to be any integer less than or equal to 17).

5. In the well-known *Katapuyadi* notation in which the place-values—units, tens, hundreds, etc., in the ten-scale—are given according to the left-to-right order of the letters, the consonants represent digit-numerals according to the following scheme:—

1	ka	ta	pa	ya
2	kha	tha	pha	ra
3	ga	da	ba	la
4	gha	dha	bha	va
5	na	na	ma	sa
6	cha	ta		sha
7	chha	tha		sa
8	ja	da		ha
9	jha	dha		la
0	na	na		

In the case of a conjunct consonant, the second consonant alone has a numerical significance and not the first, nor the vowels, anusvara and visarga.

What numbers are represented by the following words—Dharmonashtah, Bhadrabudhih, Ganitam?

6. The relations between two persons A and B are denoted by the following symbols:—

$A = f(B)$ denotes that A is the mother or father of B.

$A = h(B)$ " A is the husband of B.

$A = b(B)$ " A is the brother of B.

$A = s(B)$ " A is the sister of B.

Two relations are combined thus:

$A = sh(B)$ means that A is the sister of the husband of B.

When two similar relations are combined, for example, $ff(B)$, it may be written $f^2(B)$ meaning 'grandfather of B.'

In the above symbolism, denote the relation between two persons X and Y when—

(1) X is Y's grandfather's sister.

(2) X is Y's nephew.

(3) X is Y's daughter-in-law.

Point out any absurdity, superfluity, or redundancy in the following notations:—

$A = flb(B)$, $A = bs(B)$, $A = h^2(B)$, $A = b^3(B)$.

What is the relation between A and B when (1) $A = hff(B)$, (2) $bh(B) = f(A)$?

7. If a denote the operation of multiplying by 5, aa or a^2 , the operation of multiplying by 5 twice in succession and so on, while b denotes the operation of adding 5, bb or b^2 the operation of adding 5 twice in succession and so on, state what the following denote, assuming the symbols to operate successively from left to right:—

ab , ba , $abab$, a^2b^2 , and a^3b^3 .

State also the results of operating on the number '2' with the above symbols.

In Question (1) the symbol $\sqrt[3]{a}$ is assumed to be more familiar than the symbol $a^{\frac{1}{3}}$. To interpret $a^{\frac{1}{3}}$, etc., after the manner of the examples given, one has to perceive at least three analogies. For example, (i) the analogy between $\frac{1}{2}$ and $\frac{1}{3}$ in that they are both unit fractions, (ii) the correspondence between 2 and square-root on the analogy of that between 3 and cube-root, and (iii) the index-position of the fractions.

Question (2) also involves a similar perception of analogies.

In the first part of Question (4) one has to recognise each of the compound symbols (a letter and a numeral) $P_1, P_2, \dots$ as a single symbol and avoid confusing them with other more familiar combinations of letter and numeral.

In Question (6) the structure of the notation has to be carefully studied; the order in which the constituents of the symbols like sh have to be successively interpreted is important. The difference between this order and the language idiom-order should not be confused. Again, there is also the factor of selection in interpretation. When a symbol happens to have two or more meanings, the appropriate one has to be selected.

In Questions (5) and (6) the laws of association of symbols are stated and the testee is asked to explain what particular notations represent.

In all symbolic work, it is important to attend carefully to the minute details in the forms or configurations of the symbols and be able to analyse mentally the chief features and the relative positions of the constituent elements (if more than one).

In some of the items of Question (6) the throwing into symbols is complicated by a new factor, perception of relations and adaptation. The given

expressions have to be suitably transformed to admit of the given symbolism. For example, to denote the relation, X is Y's nephew in symbols, one has to go through the following processes:—

(i) Recognition that no symbol is given for 'nephew.'

(ii) Transformation of the relationship connoted by 'nephew' in terms of the given relations 'father,' 'mother,' 'brother,' and 'sister' thus:

X's father or mother is Y's brother or sister.

(iii) Translation of the transformed expression into symbols, which is a purely mechanical process after the preliminaries (i) and (ii) are settled.

It is now seen that there are two elements in symbolism:

(1) The intelligent element requiring the perception of relations and analogies, and selection.

(2) The mechanical element implied in the relative position, the order of occurrence, and the face-values of the symbols.

The latter parts of Question (4) and Question (7) involve reasoning with symbols. They demand a certain amount of originality to fill in the method and details of procedure from one's own experience. In Question (7) in particular, the face-values of the symbols, though not quite difficult to comprehend, tend easily to be lost sight of in the manipulation stage; because the process of manipulation brings with it a train of habitual associations where the face-values of the symbols are something different. A familiar manipulation with symbols of strange face-values requires a certain height of abstraction to keep steadily in mind these values undistracted by the habitual ones; and if this height is not attained, confusion is the result.

On the whole, symbols demand a high level of abstraction and concentration side by side with memory of, and attention to, minute details. A

test like the one proposed here is desirable to gauge one's ability to cope with these demands.

The object of the present writer in placing his test with comments before the teachers is that at least some of them should come forward with suggestions for improvements in the construction of such tests and report on the results of experimenting with such tests on the pupils under their charge. A group of workers interested in the psychology of symbols is at present a great desideratum, in view of the fact that mathematics, essentially a science of symbols, is fast becoming a key-science permeating almost all the other sciences; and it is important to determine by objective methods the quality and quantity of mathematical interest and training adequate for one to be fruitfully engaged in scientific work.

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CONSTRUCTIVE CRITICISM.

By

MR. N. SRINIVASACHARIAR, M.A.,
Presidency College, Madras.

IN these days when everybody is taught to be free and bold in the evaluation of any idea or institution, it may at first seem very strange and perhaps antiquated too when a note of humility and a need for restraint are recommended as indispensable qualifications of scholars engaged in the hallowed task of re-searching the hidden past. It may be readily conceded that no sane man will advocate the fettering of the mind in its commendation or condemnation of any thought-construction. The discipline and control suggested here and now are only calculated to qualify us aright in our search after truth.

The main stimulus for this expression is the frequent and undaunted modern craze to rush to the platform, pulpit and the press with theories of construction or reconstruction often based on a misunderstanding or superficial understanding of ancient ideas or ideals. It is not now intended to defend them or advocate their revival or retention but it is opportune to refer to the conscious or perhaps unconscious intellectual dishonesty that is taking stronger and stronger possession of particularly juvenile minds in the modern era.

It is a truism not requiring any elaboration that criticism to be useful and beneficial must be historical and sympathetic. Some truths are of eternal value while others are important and intelligible only in relation to certain contexts of time, situation and society. The second kind of them will be as absurd and ridiculous out of their legitimate context as the very significant gestures of an eloquent orator to a deaf and distant onlooker.

It is necessary to recognise that a good critic is primarily an artist and an actor capable of re-living the past which he desires to revive, or reform. In this re-living he must have the sympathetic imagination and a peculiar frame of mind to dramatically rehearse or play the part of individuals or groups who were prominently associated as the champions of any idea or ideal now engaging the attention of the critic as to its fitness or otherwise of being revived and retained. To examine ancient institutions with modern associations or evaluate them with present standards is like advertising for good clerks and blaming them for not being good cooks.

Broadly speaking, it is easy to recognise, at least from an empirical stand-point, that no inherently bad or mischievous idea or ideal will have the potency of being embraced as worthy of possession by a large public for a long time. Likewise the authors and defenders of such ideals which have the dynamic power of inspiring a large number of not altogether uncultured minds cannot be easily brushed aside as incarnations of the devil bent upon the mischievous errand of ruining a society by injecting into it selfish and mean ideals. The truth is that the different philosophical systems, social institutions and religious schools are all inspired by good intentions and are useful for people of different qualifications or *Adhikāra*.

Armed thus with this kind of psychological apperception the disinterested student or reformer will find very many valuable lessons to learn from the past, not certainly to pay blind homage to it by mechanically repeating it but to adopt and adapt such forms as can be harmonised with the ever-growing present.

Life, in truth, is neither simply marking time nor random quick-marching. While adaptation or adjustment is the very soul of evolution of institutions as well as of individuals, any advocacy of change for the mere pleasure of it without any proof of the futility of the old order or utility of the new one is likely to be not only of doubtful value but hazardous and the danger is all the greater when big groups are thereby affected.

The cultivation of this attitude of historical sympathy in the study of many of the ideals and institutions of the ancient world is certainly a difficult though not an impossible art and demands a good deal of patience and imagination. The difficulty is all the greater when the old ideals and institutions are bereft of all their life-interest and linger in their ghost-like forms, when the present is mechanically cut off altogether from the old moorings and when prejudices largely created and sustained by political causes vitiate the historical search for, and recognition of, truth. It is the same sad story all the world over that when any institution degenerates beyond recognition, the later day critic not gifted with historical sympathy and imagination, in his good enthusiasm for correcting a certain evil misdirects his wrath against the good-intentioned sage-like originators or propounders of the scheme.

It cannot be gainsaid that evils of every kind must be removed and that tyranny of every form must be put an end to. Often it is easier to adopt as instruments of reform, methods which are capable of assimilation and appreciation by the people concerned rather than venture upon doubtful experiments of alien importation. Herein lies concealed the secret of successful reform in

any field—its capacity to appeal to the natural genius of the group and evoke a pleasant and ready response.

It is certainly absurd to insist upon the present being a repetition of the past for that would mean the denial of the creative power and aesthetic beauty of the art of life. Nor is it possible for the present to break away altogether from the past with a misguided and exaggerated notion of liberty and originality. May we not be humble and learn the lesson taught us everywhere and every day by the Master-Artist, that true beauty is the harmony of the two very friendly and inseparable though distinguishable tendencies of conservation and creation, the former being responsible for stability, order and discipline, and the latter for variety, freshness and interest.

In conclusion, the disinterested and sympathetic point of view championed above as the *sine qua non* of proper search or research for truth may suggest that sometimes a good reform consists in simply removing the evil accretions brought about by the degeneration of the good old ideal which will continue to radiate its lustre even as a beautiful gem when polished by washing off the dirt and dust accumulated over it. In simpler and plainer language, progress may sometimes be equated with a right-about-turn and quick-march back to the purer ideal.

KALIDASA

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SEA POWER

By

Mr. T. KRISHNAMURTI, B.A., B.Ed.,
Teacher, Board High School, Chodavaram.

THE more favourable the geographical conditions, the greater the Sea Power is likely to be. But according to historical evidence, geographical conditions alone will not make a people maritime. The Phoenicians and the Jews lived side by side on the same coast, but the opportunities were differently availed of by them, the former being the greatest maritime adventurers of the ancient world, the latter having never developed any aptitude for the sea. Venice and Genoa were almost compelled by geography to be great at sea. Holland is the most conspicuous instance of a state wholly created by the sea.

Spain had an incredible start for ocean commerce. Her large coast-line, her excellent harbours, gave her a favourable position on the globe. She had the inestimable advantage of first taking possession of vast tracts in the New World. But the bad financial policy of the government, and the lack in the people of the maritime aptitude conspicuous in some other races threw it into the background. The disasters of Spain in the Armada and others have been largely due to want of seamanship in the widest sense. Despite the advantages of their geography, the Spaniards are not seamen, comparable to the English or the Dutch. The Portuguese, scarcely distinguishable from them in race, produced during their short golden age at least two great explorers, Vasco de Gama and Magalhaens, besides others of less note. They established considerable commerce with the East Indies, from which they were only ousted after a long struggle with the Dutch.

The Britons, the most distinctively Celtic of the French people, are also the best sailors. But it is certainly not from the Celtic sections of the population that the British navy has been manned. The Boers of Transvaal, descended from a highly maritime people, exhibited an almost grotesque dread of the ocean. Even the Greeks rather dreaded than loved the sea. It is only in modern times the temper has been developed to love the sea and encounter its perils.

Commerce is mostly worked by established routes, and geography determines the direction of these. On land, mountain chains drive it to circuitous channels. At sea, prevailing winds and currents determine the best course for ships. The routes are liable to change from age to age under the influence of new discoveries or political revolutions. From about the date of the discovery of America, commerce tended to be more and more completely maritime. The railways carry goods with immense speed, and have given to land some importance. But, nevertheless, the sea remains the chief medium of commercial intercourse. The Mediterranean was for many ages the centre of human civilisation. Until the discovery of America the luxuries of the East passed through the Mediterranean. In the political events which altered the channels of Eastern trade, history and geography reacted on each other in relation to commerce before the 16th century.

The gold, diamonds, the silk and spices of the East could be conveyed to the Mediterranean through three routes, one as far as the Egyptian ports in the Red Sea, one up the Persian Gulf and across by land through Asia Minor to Constantinople, one entirely by land to the shores of the Black Sea. So long

as Egypt continued to be a highly civilised country, the Red Sea route conveyed the greater part of the traffic from the East. The Greeks carried on most part of the trade in the Black Sea. The Carthaginians practically monopolised the commerce of the Western Mediterranean. Under the Roman Empire, trade flourished. Commerce was not diverted from its old channel until the successors of Mohammed overran Egypt. The strength of the Saracens in the Mediterranean, followed by the appearance there of Norsemen, drove much of the trade to overland routes. The Crusades gave importance to Venice and Genoa as trade centres.

The discovery of America, followed by the opening of the Cape route to India, transferred the centre of gravity of the commercial world to the shores of the Atlantic. The Spaniards and the Portuguese failed to make good use of it. Holland followed in point of time, but she was ultimately outstripped by England. Naval strength and perfect geographical position gave England her immense commercial preponderance. The cutting of the Suez Canal has facilitated English trade.

Naval warfare, pure and simple, is but little controlled by geographical conditions. The sea is open in all directions and trackless. A fleet can go anywhere at any time, and leaves no trace of its passage. It naturally carries its own supplies on board. Laden vessels from home must be despatched to renew the supplies. An army is absolutely forbidden to enter neutral territory.

Naval warfare is different from land warfare. Their objective is to destroy the enemy's fleet. The weaker side declines to risk a combat. Both sides can pass and

repass freely over the ocean which belongs to neither. Battles are fought not on positions prepared beforehand, but on the trackless water. Geography influences the course of naval warfare but little. Steam power having become universal, ships of war are liable to be rendered helpless unless they renew from time to time their supply of coal. Among British possessions, Singapore and Aden are called the coal holes of the East. The coaling stations must be adequately fortified and garrisoned.

A serious invasion over sea is impossible in face of superior naval strength. But expeditions on a smaller scale are feasible under certain conditions. Alexander the Great invaded the Persian Empire in face of a superior fleet. His invasion was across the very narrow waters, separating Europe from Asia Minor. On the mastery of Asia Minor, he appreciated the value of naval power. The Phoenicians and the Asiatic Greeks, who furnished the king of Persia with a fleet, were merely his subjects, and had no attachment his to throne. So Alexander besieged Tyre, and was thereby enabled to conquer Syria and Egypt, and so establish a firm basis for his empire round the Eastern Mediterranean. The despatch of an army by sea is always a serious undertaking.

An expedition by sea has one advantage. It can land at any place on the hostile coast not strongly defended. The enemy should guard the whole coast or resign himself to being invaded. So great is this advantage that a high military authority of the 19th century maintained that in case of a general European war with France and Russia in arms against the Triple Alliance, the British Fleet alone would be worth something like

half a million men to the Triple Alliance. Germany inferior to Russia at sea, and Italy to France, must guard their coasts everywhere. But the Railways and Telegraph do not allow an invader unopposed. So no invasion by sea is worthwhile unless the invader has full fighting strength. A French invasion of England would be lunacy for the chance of destroying Portsmouth. An English invasion of France would be equally foolish, because no command of the sea could avail to maintain an invading army against gigantic numbers in the field.

A very narrow arm of the sea will serve as an impassable barrier. In 1402, Timur overran Asia Minor with ease. As he had no ships, he was unable to cross to Europe. The relics of the Ottoman power were safe beyond the narrow Bosphorus. In 1812-13, England was able to guarantee Sweden against attack by Napoleon across the narrow straits at the entrance of the Baltic. Napoleon expelled the Bourbon king from Naples, but he was unable to deprive him of Sicily. He could annex the territories of the king of Sardinia on the mainland, but he could not have a chance of acquiring Sardinia in face of the British fleet.

England, as an island State, has necessarily carried on war in no way except the civil wars and wars with Scotland before the union of the kingdoms. Athens, in spite of its being the leading naval power in the Greek world, failed in its expedition to Sicily. Rome and Carthage fought for the mastery of the Western Mediterranean. The naval superiority of Rome compelled Hannibal to recede.

The expedition sent in 1807 to Copenhagen was perfectly successful because the Danes

were surprised. Buckingham's expedition to the Isle of Rhe in 1627 succeeded at the outset, but proved a failure on France putting her strength. In 1808, the troops of Napoleon were ten times those of Sir John Moore. Moore could advance into the heart of Spain, because he could change his base at will. In the last campaign of the Peninsular War, Wellington could transfer his supplies round to the ports on the Bay of Biscay. In 1854, the allies landed unopposed on the coast of Crimea, because they were free to select the spot. The capture of Sebastopol would have been impossible had the Russians possessed a railway into Crimea.

The value of the sea as a base of operations is furnished by the campaign of Waterloo. Wellington's army was guarding the western portion of the Belgian frontier, drawing its supplies from the sea through Westend. The Prussians lay along the eastern part of the frontier, their base being on the Rhine. So long as the allies were united, they were stronger than Napoleon. The risk lay in their being separated. This the two generals agreed, should not happen, and their adherence to this resolve was rewarded by complete success. If forced to retreat, Wellington would be able to direct his supplies through Antwerp. But Blucher would have to rely on temporary assistance from his English colleague. Fortunately they were saved all this trouble.

Wolfe's attack on Quebec gives the most perfect illustration of what sea power can do to assist military operations. His expedition sailed up the St. Lawrence unopposed, the French having no men-of-war to face the fleet. Having command of the water, he could land anywhere, and pitched his camp

on the south bank of the river, Quebec being on the north with the French along the same shore. By means of ships, Wolfe could attack the French when he pleased, and they could not tell until the last moment where the attack would be delivered. The French had considerable superiority in numbers. By judicious use of the fleet, Wolfe landed unopposed, and won an easy victory.

The same general conclusion can be drawn from the long and sustained wars which England had conducted, with every condition against her except sea power. The Hundred Years' War opened with the great naval victory of Sluys. Thenceforth English forces could be landed anywhere on the French coast. Through the facilities offered by the sea, England achieved a considerable measure of success in the war. The same holds good of the Peninsular War as a whole. When the American Colonies revolted, their success was assured when France and Spain took part in the war. England was temporarily deprived of the full command of the sea, and so her armies in America could not be reinforced or supplied.

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BRAHMACHARYA ASRAM AND ITS APPLICATION TO MODERN STUDENT LIFE.

By

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When a lad of the twice-born castes enters upon the life of a student, he undergoes the initiation ceremony called the *Upanayana*. A Brahmana boy is initiated in his eighth year, a Kshatriya in his eleventh year, and a Vaisya in his twelfth. A Sudra has no initiation at all and has no right to enter on the life of a student. The difference in age is intended "to symbolise the supposed intellectual superiority of the Brahmana who was thus ready to begin the study at an younger age than his non-Brahman fellows."

The clothing of the student was according to certain regulations. The students wear a sacred cord after the initiation. It varies in material according to the caste in which he is born. The under-garments must be undyed cotton cloth. The arrangement of hair too was regulated by ranks varying with the caste of the students.

The teacher, having invested a pupil, should first teach him "ceremonial purity, custom and the attending to the sacred fire, and also the Sandhya devotions." At the morning twilight, the pupil should stand reciting the Savithri manthra till he has seen the sun; and at the evening he should recite it seated till the constellations appear clearly. Being bathed and pure, he has ever to make libations of water to the gods, seers, and manes, and also to worship the gods.

After initiation, the pupil is received into the household of the teacher, who treats him as his own son and subjects him to rigorous discipline. The length of the course varies according to the number of the Vedas studied. The study of one Veda requires twelve years. If all the Vedas are required to be studied, the student requires forty-eight years. Most of the study consists in committing to memory the sacred texts.

The student has certain obligations towards the teacher. He has to stay with the teacher in his house. He has to fetch water, collect fuel, and cow-dung and Kusa grass and prepare for the "Homa." He has to get his own food by begging. Strict obedience is enjoined on the student. He should never contradict the teacher. He should occupy a seat lower than that occupied by the teacher and should rise up when he wants to speak. Every morning he has to embrace the feet of the teacher.

The rules of conduct laid down for the students include hygienic, moral and religious precepts and also regulations of good manners. The student has to bathe regularly and has to avoid all luxuries relating to clothing, bedding and eating. Manu has it that he has to "avoid honey and flesh, perfumes, garlands, sweet juices, women, all sweets turned sour, and injury also to living beings, ointments, collyrium for the eyes, shoes, carrying an umbrella, lust and anger and greed, dancing and music, gaming also, and disputes among people, gossips and falsehood, looking at or touching women, and striking women." (Manu: Ch. II, 177—179). The student further has to give up "love, anger, perplexity, covetousness, garrulity, playing musical instruments, elation, singing, dancing, calumny and horror, and all pungent foods." "Tongue, arms and stomach" were

to be kept in subjection. He should always speak the truth and avoid bitter speeches.

The teacher has to love his student as his own son, and has to teach him with his whole

attention the sacred science without withholding from him any part of it. He has

to instruct him also in the rules of personal purification, conduct, fire worship and Sandhya devotions. He should always use sweet and gentle speech. "He forsooth, whose speech and thoughts are pure and ever perfectly guarded, gains the whole reward which is conferred by the Vedanta. Let him not, even though in pain, speak words cutting others to the quick; let him not injure others in thought or deed; let him not make speeches which make others afraid of him, since that will prevent him from gaining heaven"—(Rev. F. E. Keay: *Brahmanic Education*). The teacher should not expect any fee from his student. But when the course is finished, it was the duty of the pupil to offer a present to his teacher, according to his ability. A field, a cow, a horse, a pair of shoes, a seat, a quantity of grain, or even of vegetables, may be given to please the teacher. We may here recall to our minds the devotion and self-sacrificing love of the pupil *Ekalav* who cut his finger and offered it to the image of his Gurn in whose presence he learnt not Veda but Dhanurvidya.

When the course is finished, the student performs certain bathing ceremonies, and is called a "Snataka," and is now ready to enter upon another Asram. In most cases he marries and becomes a Grihastha. But in some cases he at once enters on the Vanaprastha or Sanyasa Asrama.

This pleasing picture of the life of the student and the teacher as existed many centuries back in India is really interesting and pleasing. And it may as well

serve as an ideal even to the present-day students. The discipline to which the student is subjected is no doubt rigorous but is not harsh or cruel. A very high and noble ideal of life and character is held before both the student and the teacher. The teacher does his work not for money or gain but only for fulfilling his duty to others and to the student in particular. The student has to live a simple life whether he is rich or poor. He is trained into good habits and helped to cultivate self-respect and reverence to elders.

Though the regulations which the student and the teacher are asked to observe appear to be trivial and meaningless to us, they must have been intended to impress the solemnity of the work done, to the mysterious sacredness supposed to characterise Vedic knowledge.

It is strange that the lads of the twice-born castes are subjected to the initiation ceremony, which is still very much the same as it was in India centuries ago, though the noble spirit of the Brahmacharya Asrama is forgotten, and though it is not, except in very few cases, followed by the actual study of the Vedas and kindred sciences. At present the country sticking to this mere shell and leaving the kernel only, does one work, viz. the perpetuation of the caste system.

The life in Brahmacharya Asrama, as pictured in the Dharma Sastras, deserves to be made a model to modern India so far as the relations between the student and the teacher, the regulations and discipline to which the student is subjected, and the high

Ideals of Brahmacharya Asrama, as applied to the student-life in Modern India.

ideals of service, learning and love presented before the mind of the teacher, are concerned. A teacher should look upon himself as the real guardian of the student to whom is entrusted the noble work of moulding his character and ideals and the shaping of his intellectual life. And also the public should value the teacher not according to the pay he gets but according to his devotion to his special mission in life.

Once Sage Gautama asked Satyakama, "Of what clan art thou, my child? It is only fitting for a Brahman to aspire to the highest wisdom." "Master," answered the boy, "I know not of what clan I am. I shall go and ask my mother." Thus saying, he came back to his mother's hut and asked, "What is the name of my father, dear mother? It is only fitting for a Brahman to aspire to the highest wisdom, said Lord Gautama to me." The woman lowered her eyes and spoke in a whisper. "In my youth, I was poor and had many masters. Thou didst come to thy mother Jabala's arms, my darling, who had no husband." Then Satyakama went back to Gautama and told him "My Lord, I know not of what clan I am. My mother said 'I had served many masters in my youth and thou didst come to thy mother Jabala's arms who had no husband.' The students there muttered at this shamelessness, insolence of that out-cast. But Master Gautama rose from his seat, stretched out his arms, took the boy to his bosom and said, "Best of all Brahmans art thou, my child. Thou hast the noblest *Heritage of Truth*."—(The story is re-told here largely in the words of Dr. Rabindranath Tagore; *vide* Fruit Gathering). The spirit of catholicity that Sage Gautama exhibited, should be the spirit—should be an inspiration to all teachers.

The student has to give up the craze for luxuries, for costly western modern modes of dress and diet and train himself to the ideal of simple living and strenuous work for the cultivation of his body, mind and character. The student should not marry till he completes his education and establishes himself in life in a manner that will enable him to support his wife and children without depending on the support of elders, who should be left free to follow their own Asramas of life. And also he should not submit to the meaningless ceremony of Upanayana as it now exists and put on the Yagnopavita or the so-called sacred-thread.

Thus the plan of the Brahmacharya Asram will be realised to be one of the saving blessings that Indians inherit from their ancestors, and will serve as an inspiring model for the re-construction of the life of the student and the teacher in the world of modern education.

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WILLIAM HAZLITT.

By

Mr. R. KRISHNAMURTI,
Vellipalayam, Negapatam.

A HUNDRED years have elapsed since the death of William Hazlitt. It is with feelings of extreme sorrow and pity that we have to record the memory of one who, in his last moments, and in spite of diverse circumstances, never hesitated to say "Well, I've had a happy life." To him we owe many great works on literature which have stood the test of time and are ever a source of inspiration to the budding literati.

Any author who has wielded much influence in his life, when he dies, suddenly passes over a period of neglect. It may be that men in general are ill-disposed towards the works of a dead author probably because they might have lost a portion of their original life. To some, the present is the all-engrossing factor and any other time, be it past or future, never holds any interest. Every generation is in quest of new and advanced ideals and is never satisfied with what their predecessors might have explained and explored. But Hazlitt, we may hold, is an exception to the popular distaste. He is ever beloved and admired and his works acquire an increasing fragrance with the times.

Born of humble parents in the County of Kent, Hazlitt "started in life with the French Revolution." His father, a dissenting minister, cherished vain hopes of young Hazlitt succeeding him in his office. But the latter chose to disappoint him. There is a fine reminiscence of it in his essay, "On the Knowledge of Character." "The son, for instance, is brought up to the church, and nothing can exceed the pride and pleasure

the father takes in him, while all goes on well in this favourite direction. His notions change, and he imbibes a taste for the fine arts. From this time there is the end of anything like the same unreserved communication between them." It is evident from the foregoing lines that Hazlitt evinced taste for the fine arts. Ever afterwards he applied himself steadily to painting and visited many picture galleries. However, he was not destined to attain any great mastery over the art. He was doomed to fail and despite his unsuccess he was a sympathetic critic of painting. Collateral with this pursuit he studied incessantly and practised the art of precise thinking. He attended theatres and was an ardent admirer of Kemble, Kean and Mrs. Siddons. And this was of much help to him later as a dramatic critic.

The year 1798 was a land-mark in the life of William Hazlitt. For, it was in that year that the genius of Coleridge "shone into his soul like the sun's race glittering in the puddles of the road." And now he underwent, as it were, a radical change. It was in one of his meetings with Coleridge that he acquired the friendship of Lamb, Wordsworth, and other literary luminaries.

Of a passionate disposition, Hazlitt had time and nerve enough to flirt with as many girls as fell within his sphere of activity. But, as everything born in this world at a certain period of its progress must either dissipate or settle itself, his affections crystallised into the heart of one Sarah Stoddart. And in spite of its being a love-marriage between them, it did not prove enjoyable to either and was any thing but connubial felicity. This naturally ended in a divorce. Some time, after he became enamoured of a certain Sarah Walker and was mad with love for her. This furnish-

ed him with a theme for a book and he called it *Liber Amoris*. But unlike many, his ill-success did in no way prevent him from indulging in his favourite hobby of love making. In 1824 he even found it possible to wed a certain Mrs. Bridgewater and very soon the second Mrs. Hazlitt also left her husband to return no more.

Amusing as are his amours, they did not in any way jeopardize his more serious work as a literary artist. It was only a bye-play in his life. There was greater work for him in the world of literature and he began it by writing political pamphlets none of which is ever widely read. He was later employed as a dramatic critic and this was sufficient training for young Hazlitt to express his thoughts clearly and concisely. The period between 1815—1822 saw the publication of a number of critical works, chief of which are *Lectures on English Poets*, *Dramatic Literature of the Age of Queen Elizabeth*, and *Characters of Shakespeare's Plays*. These were valuable additions to the critical literature of the era, and they displayed a marked individuality of thought, purity of expression, and incisive originality. The *English Comic Writers* abounds in caustic sarcasm flavoured with remarkable critical acumen. "And the dagger that he uses as a critic is uncommonly like a stage weapon, and does no serious damage."

Criticism was later extended to general literature and his efforts in this direction include *Table-Talk* and *Round Table*. The following years were characterised by his careless careering along the ocean of literature in spite of adverse circumstances, bodily weakness, and the bad way in which domestic affairs were drifting. And the books written during this period amply illustrate Hazlitt's

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powers of genial hilarity and exhibit his powers aphoristic diction.

Liber Amoris was his next work and is amply illustrative of Hazlitt's morbid passion. Through and through he enlarges upon the theme of his infatuation for Sarah Walker and, as elsewhere said, never despaired. The next few years between 1823-'26 were diversified with essays, criticisms and biographical sketches, and among these, *The Plain Speaker*, *Characteristics*, *Spirit of the Age*, and *Life of Napoleon* come in for special mention. His *Life of Napoleon* is the least read, though he intended it to be his *magnum opus*.

His essays are brimful of personal anecdotes and with scrupulous exactitude he would take us to an inn at Tewkesbury to read *Paul and Virginia*. He would tell us how he walked all the way from Shropshire to Somersetshire to hear Coleridge speak. He would describe to us, with all his boyish enthusiasm and sprightly animation, the walk between Llangollen and Wrexham with a head full of steam that should somewhere somehow blow off. He would stop in the middle of a discursive essay to dandle us in revolutionary politics. And had Swift not preceded him, Hazlitt would have provided him with a concrete example for his digression, on the "Digression upon digressions!"

But howsoever it be, he never bores the reader. He keeps us in a state of animation and the enthusiastic fit never leaves him. Compton Rickett observes that his works "abound in a tonic wisdom, a breadth of imagination as welcome as they are rare." In him there is a curious conglomeration of the Puritanic and the sensuous, two really opposing elements. The Puritan reigns supreme where the intellect most comes in, while in the realm of emotion, passion is the predomi-

nant quality. A man of epicurean tastes and indulgences, Hazlitt stays "far from the madding crowd" if there is promise of a new sensation in life and has no sympathy with the 'homely' reader who confines himself to the cupboard.

As a critic of English literature, Hazlitt's viewpoint is curious. To him the thing that matters most is the man and not the writer. Once when an understanding of *the man* is reached, criticism becomes a child's play and, more often than not, allows his constitutional bias and party predilection to creep in and spoil a just estimate. It was his pro-revolutionary sympathies that caused his bitterness against Coleridge, Wordsworth and Burke.

His piquant phrase, studied sentences and stately periods are his assets. "The style is the man." This is the root quality of all his writings and it was from this standpoint that he argued the excellences of some and depreciated the faults of others. Every page of printed works teems with simple yet elegant sentences, noble in diction, pure in sentiment, and profound in thought. Every word lives fresh in our memory and falls like a shower upon the reader to our infinite delight. He is adept in the art of choosing words and fitting them in their proper place when the whole essay dances to the music of his thought. Rhythmic cadence is an essential quality of his writings and it adds charm and novelty to his works. He possessed an ear for music and every sentence is characterised by an all-pervading symphony of thought. And it is this quality of his works which induced R. L. Stevenson to say "We are all mighty fine fellows, but none of us can write like Hazlitt."

It is best to end this essay by a review of his personal qualities. By no means attrac-

tive, he did not endear himself in the heart of his friends, but drove them to desperation. Being of a short temper he had a genuine knack to make enemies and was himself unable to account for it. Here it may be suggested as a possible solution that his ardent pro-revolutionary ideas did, to a certain extent, mar a straightforward and unprejudiced estimate of his friends. They carried him far away into the currents of the French domain as to lose sight of England and her people. Burke, Wordsworth, and Coleridge would not and could not dare venture themselves to go far; and when they beheld the whirlpool of the Revolution swallowing several thousands every moment, their hearts sank within themselves and would no more trust the "Revolutionary harpies of France." Hazlitt never forgave them as he considered them political apostates. Very often he found himself in hot waters by his churlish and cantankerous disposition and was involved in more than one serious domestic trouble. His impulsive passion drove him mad over girls and he played the hero in many love escapades. Though he was moody and depressed, he never lacked the genial mirth which animates every page of his works. And despite all these temperamental drawbacks, he had a delightfully open and communicative mind. He was shy and reserved in society, but curiously enough he would confide in us all about his personal life and would not wrest a single detail. "He may miss the merits of a writer; never those of *the man*." And in Hazlitt we may miss the merits of a man; never those of a writer.

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PLACE OF ASSIGNMENT IN TEACHING.

By
Mr. A. S. VENKATARAMAN,
Chittoor.

It is curious to note that children who are growing are entrusted to adults whose views and minds never change. Custom, good or bad, is a die-hard and a teacher who becomes enslaved to it finds it a very difficult, if not impossible feat, to cast off its fetters.

The veriest tyro in psychology knows that all the forty pupils in a class do not possess the same mental equipment and do not progress at the same rate. Mass instruction, like mass methods of production, is taboo, and there are many reasons why it is so.

The phenomenon of a mischievous pupil is not hard to explain, and he must be set down to the credit of mass instruction. Either he is bright and finds the teaching ill-suited to his genius and capacities or he is too dull and sees the task is too high for his intellect. Mischief is therefore afoot and it grows with every repression that comes down upon it. Both with the intelligent and the dull pupil, mass instruction is a failure as at present conducted or organised.

Not only that, the pupil cannot grow to be a self-reliant man. Being accustomed to "spoon-feeding", he waits to be helped by the master. He cannot and does not bestir himself to learn any lesson. He cannot think, feel or act by himself. He is like the babe using crutches.

What is more, the proper use of books under the mass instruction scheme, is ruled out. The pupil is not asked to prepare beforehand or there is no means of testing his

preparation for the very reason that there is little time or less inclination for the teacher to take up that task. Homework is demanded but is not checked or scrutinised. Sometimes it is even too heavy for the pupils that it has to be necessarily slipshod. And if it is attempted in the hope that it will not be seen—not under fear that it will be seen—the result is a state of things which cannot, by any manner of means, be mended. At the time of examinations, the pupil is obliged to plunge into his so-called text-book and succeeds neither in his effort to read his text-book nor to depend on his teacher's help which cannot take as permanent a form as the text-book.

There appears to be only one remedy for this state of things. Pupils must be made to do, experience and learn things themselves. Teaching by assignment can be made to produce excellent results. There is an ill-founded belief that assignment is possible only in small classes and it has no place in bigger classes. Equally so is the impression that individual instruction is always successful in smaller classes. Very few teachers bring about good results by the mass instruction method and they form a class for themselves. Our contention is that teaching by assignment in classes of 40 or 50 as under the Dalton Plan in smaller classes is bound to prove a better success than teaching without any assignment. Assignment is of the essence of the Dalton Plan but it ought to be possible to introduce it in bigger classes also, so as to make teaching effective and more successful. Individual instruction is possible and the Assignment system shows the way.

Much depends on the way in which assignments are made. The year's work may be divided into assignments, and instructions for the independent study of the text-book have

always to be given. Some principles of assignment have to be adopted or followed. The portion must be divided and allotted. Possible difficulties should be forestalled and cleared up. Questions designed to guarantee a study of the work and a knowledge of the matter have to be framed. Shortest possible answers only need be insisted upon. References to pictures, diagrams and other books should invariably be made.

The teacher will have to go round and encourage the pupils in their work. The slow may be assisted then and there as occasion demands it. As the assignments are furnished, they may be ticked off and evaluated or marked on the very spot. Attention to the error of the pupil may be easily drawn in his presence. The problem of correcting a number of note-books at the same time does not arise. As the note-books come up, they may be looked into. A progress chart will give us an idea of the progress of pupils and the slowness of a few may be detected and checked.

It is perhaps feared in some quarters that assignments may give the go-by to class instruction by the teacher. Not so, necessity may now and then dictate a description or

explanation of some topic which the text-book does not relate. Often it may be lively and interesting. It may relieve the monotony of the pupil's daily routine of duties.

This teaching by assignments indeed can be depended on to herald a new era of development of instruction on sound and proper lines. As the work of learning has to be done by the pupil himself, he can never be idle. Habits of self-reliance will be formed. Again a capacity to consult dictionaries, journals and other literature of references is created. A new spirit is instilled and the outlook broadened. The pupils' knowledge of English is vastly improved and more so, if it be the medium of instruction. Above all, there is plenty of scope for practice in expression and writing. An enthusiastic teacher sees his enthusiasm on the increase instead of waning and this cannot be said of very many new schemes or enterprises. Then we shall be in a position to say good-bye to the old time-honoured practice implied in

"Ram it in, ram it in,
Children's heads are hollow;
Ram it in, ram it in,
Still there's more to follow."

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THE IMPLICATIONS OF GEOGRAPHY.

By Mr. S. RADHAKRISHNAN, B.A., B.ED.
Specialist in Geography, Bapatla.

ALITERAL etymological interpretation of the term geography would merely mean a description of the earth which tends to detract much from the glories of the modern conception of the subject. The very fact that it is a graphy and not a logy was formerly made the basis of an argument against geography as a science. But opinion has since then changed and an expert knowledge of all the names of the mountains and rivers, the bays and gulfs, the islands, continents, oceans and a mastery of geographical nomenclature are no more deserving to be called rational or scientific geography than a mastery of the Railway Guide entitles one to know all about the principles and working of the steam engine. It has been this vein of empiricism in the realm of geography that has blasted the ambitions of all young intending votaries of the subject and created a deadly aversion in their minds. It is so painfully reminiscent of those 'dark ages' when any at present, even in spite of the wealth of scientific data, belabours his student with all the lumber of geography instead of considering the world as an organism subject to all the laws of growth and decay, exposes the relations of cause and effect between one fact and another; explains their mutual interactions and harmonises the apparently-divergent, contradictory facts of geography. Such a scientific temper of mind is bound to reduce the intractable pile of meaningless facts into well-ascertained conclusions with universal applicability.

Passing through all the toils of a wearisome transition, geography has at present assumed

the status of a science which is as composite in its character as it is synthetic in its affiliations and consequently contains many inter-related and well-understood sub-divisions. The unfortunate teacher of the present day instead of being able to cling to a core of crude fact is forced in spite of himself to launch upon broad seas of experiment and conjecture where the most careful steering is necessary if he is not to be swamped by the waves of conflicting hypotheses or swept away by the current of side issues.

Another recent development discernible in modern times in the publication of geographical literature is not to trust the subject entirely in one hand but to parcel it out among several. A monumental work like the *International Geography* brought out by seventy authors or even so modest a venture as Blackie's "Lands and their Stories Series" produced by several, amply bears out the tendency towards multiple authorship which as a portent challenges our consideration. Whether or not this is the result of specialisation, it is not our province to enquire at present but it is a feature in keeping with the nature of the subject.

We are given a round earth of a definite size and shape spinning on an unchanging axis which thereby acquires a polarity enabling us to fix a place both on its longitude and latitude in relation to external objects and a movement in space at an inclined angle to the plane of its orbit bringing thereby every point on its surface under the influence of the sun under varying degrees of insolation with the resulting phenomena of day and night and the seasons. This is all mathematical geography.

Then there is physical geography dealing with the differences in material and in func-

tion of the parts of the earth—the rigid lithosphere, the mobile hydrosphere and the all-pervading atmosphere—and explaining the laws of physical control. The waters of the ocean carving out the scenery of the coasts drawn to it by capillary action and gravitation and the other innumerable forces of nature ceaselessly fashioning and refashioning the architecture of this planet spinning, tilted and throbbing with the innumerable activities 'which solar and telluric energy impart to terrestrial matter,' are all the charms of physical geography.

The distribution of life forms—vegetable and animal—on this earth, why they fall under allotted biological provinces, their associations and the laws that determine them are some of the chapters of bio-geography. The distribution of forests, savannahs, deserts and steppes falls under the laws of bio-geography and these forms of life show an underlying harmony with acknowledged scientific principles, their inconsistencies being only apparent. Biological science considers man also an animal but unlike others he does not fall within a definite province of life but penetrates to every corner of the earth. This universality of habitat makes his study difficult. With all that the study of the distribution of the varieties of mankind, their grouping and their degree of culture is the work of the anthropo-geographer. All other studies are tributary to this and the practical importance combined with the vastness of anthropology makes it necessary to sub-divide it into political and commercial geography.

As man attains a higher stage in evolution and is capable of holding definite regions of the earth's surface to himself to the exclusion

of others and gradually begins to annex the neighbouring portions, political geography comes into prominence. It considers the sites of towns, cities and ports, the boundaries of man's settlement and interprets them in terms of his physical environment.

Rising still higher in the level of civilisation man is driven to foreign lands and gradually establishes relations of exchange of desirable and useful things from one place to another which the student of commercial geography seeks to explain.

The foregoing divisions may seem to be distinct and different but really all are interlocked together and form a geographical pyramid broad-based on a well-laid substratum of mathematical geography rising through tiers of firmly-laid principles of the physical sciences and the less sure products of biology and anthropology to the irregular courses of political geography and the ever-shifting rubble heap of commercial geography, which caps it if it does not crown the edifice. "A geologist the geographer should be or he has no solid basis on which to build, a meteorologist and something of a physicist, and a chemist in order to deal with the composition of air, the nature of rocks, soils, etc.; a biologist and an oceanographer, an anthropologist, an ethnologist, an archaeologist, an historian and a traveller." To these powers he should add the mind of a logician for the harmonising of facts and theories and if then he also possesses the 'inward eye' of the poet and some artistic sense he will be able to vitalise the dry bones of fact with the rainbow tints of romance. The anthropologist, the ethnologist, the archaeologist and the historian, all deal with the common subject—man from different standpoints as demanded by their respective sciences, but it is the supreme task

of the geographer to co-ordinate and combine the knowledge of man acquired through these divergent lines of research and interpret them in terms of man's existence in his environment and the inter-actions and inter-relations of one upon the other. To define it more precisely "Geography is the exact and organised knowledge of the distribution of phenomena on the surface of the earth, culminating in the explanation of the inter-actions of man with his terrestrial environment."

Some may perhaps conclude that geography is made to include too much and that it is made the centre and circumference of all knowledge but this is simply the effect of perspective. That geography includes all the sciences is as true as it is to say that the house includes all the quarries, the forests and the mines which only yield their stone and timber and metal-work.

The world then in the light of this knowledge would wear a better aspect and become a living whole replete with beauty and meaning for

"Earth's crammed with heaven

And every common bush afire with God

But only he who sees takes off his shoes."

Through geography will come understanding ripening into tolerance of our neighbours which will demolish the walls of prejudice and insular arrogance which in the past made one nation implant on another an alien character. With the help of this mental wireless we gain the human touch which makes us realise the activities and potentialities of another race and discover the secrets locked up in every atom of our planet.

With such tremendous possibilities for good geography has an yet unrealised glorious

future. The increasing interest throughout the world is sufficiently attested by the societies and organisations that are from time to time being formed. We have proofs to show that even as early as 1896 there were no less than 83 active geographical societies in Europe, 6 in Asia, 6 in North America, 4 in South America, 4 in Africa and 4 in Australia, all amounting to 107 with a total membership of 50,000 persons. There are at least not less than 200 geographical journals or magazines published in all parts of the globe. It may therefore be safely said that there is a more widespread interest in geography than in any other science, the reason being that geography is of practical every-day utility to the average citizen of the world. There is also the prospect that, with the disinterested services of scholars, everything that has yet to be known about the Polar regions, in the heart of Asia, Africa and South America, will be furnished and that the geographer will have no more to do. Quite far from it his real work will only begin then to perfect the theory which explains the relation of man to his terrestrial home.

A knowledge of geography in all its ramifications seems then to be a Promethean task. It is hard, exciting and unending—that is the burden—but it is also the delight, the abiding satisfaction.

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BY

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TEACHING OF HISTORY IN HYDERABAD SCHOOLS.*

It is generally felt that the teaching of History in our schools is not very satisfactory. The chief defect is the absence of a definite aim in the teaching of the subject. Political and military events are emphasised and the social and cultural aspects are neglected. Names of kings and emperors, accounts of wars, treaties and annexations are mechanically memorised. More attention is paid to words than to the ideas underlying them. The text-books are not suitable to our environment. Sufficient attention is not paid to the correlation of History with the other subjects. Lastly, all the teachers of History are not sufficiently qualified and many of them are not trained in the methods of teaching. This report is an attempt to make a few suggestions to remedy the above defects.

The Aim of Teaching History.

The primary aim of teaching History should be to train the pupils in citizenship. But the question arises, what is citizenship? It is the increasing sense of social relationship that develops between man and his neighbours as civilisation advances. In primitive times, a good citizen was one who satisfactorily discharged his duties to his family and tribe. In mediæval times, a good citizen was one who scrupulously followed the demands of his religion. In modern times, a good citizen is one who is prepared to give up everything for the cause of his country. The post-war world, with its increasingly shrinking nature, presents to us a higher conception of citizenship, viz., loyalty to humanity. The pupils of the present day must be trained to feel

* Report of the Sub-Committee of the Hyderabad Teachers' Association presented to the Fourth Annual Conference.

that what we call modern civilisation is a common heritage and is to be shared by all.

But this idea of world-citizenship should not lead to the self-effacement of our peculiar contributions to the culture of the world. The pupils must be impressed with the richness of our past culture. They must be able to appreciate it and feel proud of it. They must feel that they are the inheritors of worthy traditions, which have to be passed on to future generations. Our boys must feel equally proud of the contributions made by the Hindu, Moslem and British periods of Indian History. In the words of Sir Akbar Hydar Nawaz Jung Bahadur: "It will not be the growth but the death of Indian nationalism if the Mussalmans of India fail to be impressed by the greatness of Asoka or Chandragupta or be filled with pride and joy at the immortal frescoes of Ajanta and the sculptured monuments of Ellora or fail to derive inspiration from the glorious songs of Jayadeva or Tukaram, or find food for deep and satisfying thought in the discourses of Sri Krishna or Gautama Buddha. It will not be the growth but the death of Indian nationalism if the Hindus are not filled with pride at the architectural splendour of the Moghuls and the Adilshahis; at the political achievements of great rulers like Sher Shah and Akbar; at the fine heroism of noble queens like Chand Sultana and Nur Jahan; at the liberal statesmanship of devoted ministers like Muhammad Gawan and Abu Fazl; at the wide learning of scholars like Alberuni and Faizi; or at the inspiration of poets like Amir Khusru and Ghalib. It will be sad indeed if the minds of Hindus and Muhammadans alike are not stirred with the high and noble aims of Viceroys like Mayo and Ripon, of administrators like Munro and

Elphinstone, of friends of India like Fawcett and Bright, of missionaries like Hare and Miller."

Advantages of the Study of History.

History thus taught, will enable the pupil to develop a healthy patriotism and will not lead to a rabid nationalism or communalism. It will enable the pupil to understand the world he is living in. He will also be able to better understand the present in the light of the past. His sense of judgment will develop, and in later life, he will be able to develop a critical attitude towards political problems. The examples of sacrifice and devotion, presented by great political and spiritual leaders of past times, stir the imagination of the pupil. He is made to feel that life is a mission, and duty its highest law, and that the acquisition of privileges involves the sharing of responsibilities.

The Curriculum.

The achievement of our aims depends upon our curricula and our methods. At present, Indian History is taught throughout the school course, and English History in the two highest classes of the school. The former is a compulsory subject for all the pupils from Standard IV onwards, while the latter is studied only by those who wish to specialise in History. There is, however, no uniformity in our schools. We have two sets of schools, one set offering instruction in Urdu and the other in English. Again the Osmania schools provide for a two years' High School course, while the English Schools spread it over for three years. We understand that the High School course is going to be extended to three years. We think that this will be a step in the right direction and we hope that it will lead to the intro-

duction of a uniform course of study in all the schools irrespective of the language in which instruction is given.

We consider that in no subject is the question of medium of instruction so important as in History. Experience has shown that even in the High School stage, the students are not able to grasp the subject in English, still less to express themselves clearly in that language. We are, therefore, of opinion that not only in the Primary but even at the High School stage, History should be taught in the vernacular of the pupils.

Treatment of the subject in different classes.

We recommend the following syllabus:—

Standard III. Stories from Indian History bearing on the Deccan History.

" IV. Stories from the Deccan History.

Emphasis should be laid on the events of the pupil's neighbourhood. The pupil should feel proud of the heroes of his locality. His imitative instinct should be appealed to and his imagination and sympathy should be roused.

Form I. History of the Deccan and related Indian History.

Form II. History of India: Early and mediæval periods.

Form III. History of India: Modern period and revision of the earlier periods.

The aim of the teacher during these three years should be to emphasise the importance of the history of the Deccan. At the same time, the intimate connection with India should not be overlooked.

The Moslem boys should be made to appreciate the value of Hindu culture and

art and the Hindu boys to appreciate Moslem culture and art.

The abolition of the Middle School Examination is a step in the right direction. The teachers can exercise a certain amount of freedom in the choice of topics and need not be guided by the examination routine. Unchallenged facts only should be presented to the pupils at this stage. Topics that are likely to engender hatred of any kind, religious or racial, should carefully be avoided.

Form IV. Indian History: Early and Mediæval.

" V. " " : Modern.

" VI. " " : A more advanced survey, with special emphasis on civics, modern movements and world problems.

A more intensive study is attempted in the higher forms. The Asiatic background should always be kept in view. The spread of Hinduism outside India to Java and the Indian Archipelago, the spread of Buddhism all over Asia, the spread of Islam in India and the intimate connection between India and Arabia and Persia, offers an interesting contrast to wars and conquests. The school-boy should not be made to leave the school with the impression that there is no Asiatic culture worth remembering.

The intimate connection that existed between Ancient India, Ancient Greece and Rome should be emphasised and their reciprocal influence explained.

Greater emphasis should be laid on the social, economic and political changes that have taken place during the last 100 years.

Civics.

We recommend the following syllabus for Civics:—

A clear analysis of the structure of the Central Government, the Viceroy and his Councils, the Governors and their Councils, Ministers and responsible Government, the principles of Local Government, the working of Local Boards and Municipalities, the government of Indian States, differences between States and British India, the rights and duties of citizenship.

The profound changes that have followed the Great War, their effect on the British Commonwealth, the changed position of India after the war, the League and its social, economic and intellectual activities, their advantages to India and the East.

We have outlined a course of History extending over a period of 8 years. If it is followed in the spirit in which it is drawn up, every school-boy at the age of 16 or 17 will not only feel proud of belonging to the Deccan but will also be able to appreciate the place of the Deccan in India and that of India in Asia, the British Commonwealth and finally the world.

While the school curriculum provides for the compulsory study of Indian History by all the students, English History is prescribed in the two highest forms of the school for those who wish to specialise in History. The course for the H.S.L.C. Examination consists of English History from the earliest times to the present day and in addition one of the periods of English History is studied with more intensity. We are of opinion that since English History is taught only for 2 years in the High School, our aim should be to enable the boys to understand the leading events of English History and the general principles underlying the development of English institutions. We, therefore, recom-

mend that the special period might with advantage be dropped. A more detailed study of the whole period is suggested and the course will be as follows —

Form V. English History up to 1603.

Form VI. English History after 1603.

The details of wars and battles should be neglected. Emphasis is to be laid on broad movements. Feudalism, Monarchy, Parliament, Reformation and frequent comparisons of similar movements of Indian History, should be emphasised. The modern movements in English History like the Suffrage Movement, Factory Legislation, Problems of the Poor, should be stressed with the idea of enlisting the sympathy of the pupils with similar movements in our country. It is our considered opinion that a sound knowledge of the working of English institutions is essential to a country eagerly desirous of political change, for it is well-known that almost every country in the world, Anglo-Saxon or non-Anglo-Saxon, has derived its political inspiration from the institutions of England.

Methods of Teaching History.

The usual method in schools is the text-book exposition. Graduates fresh from college are so much accustomed to the lecture method that they do all the talking and expect the boys to be passive listeners. This method is unsuitable for the school. Dictation of notes or extracts from other books is a method that encourages cramming. The teacher must have a suitable text-book and combine narration, questioning and a skilful use of the black-board and other visual aids. At present, there are a few Urdu text-books specially written for our boys. But there are no suitable text-books either in the other

vernaculars of the State or in English. The writer of a text-book should be not only a master of the language in which it is written, but must possess an intimate knowledge of the country about which he writes and have the outlook, which we have presented in our aim. An Italian school boy who does not know anything about the ruins of Pompeii but has learnt every detail about the Chinese gods from his text-books is a phenomenon absolutely inconceivable. But there are at least hundreds of school boys completing their school course every year from our State, who have not seen Golconda or Warangal or Ajanta or Ellora and who are not able to write an account of ten sentences about their historical significance. It is the emphatic recommendation of this Committee that the text-books for the primary classes and the lower forms of the school should be written from the point of view of the Deccan. The text-book should never be a medium for propaganda of any kind. It is therefore essential that every text-book should be approved by a Board, before it is introduced in the schools.

We recommend the preparation of the following text-books in English and Vernaculars, viz., Urdu, Telugu, Marathi and Canarese :—

Standard III. Stories from Deccan and Indian History.

Standard IV. Stories from Deccan History.

Form I. A short history of the Deccan, with related Indian history.

Forms II & III. A History of India, with special reference to the Deccan

Forms IV, V & VI. A History of India.

Correlation with other subjects.

The history of a country cannot be well-understood without a knowledge of its

geography. The general configuration, the position of rivers and mountains, the mineral wealth and its distribution, proximity to the sea—all these have profoundly influenced the history of the country. Geography has determined the location of battle-fields and the migration of conquering hordes. In the lower classes it is advisable that the history teacher should teach geography also.

The language teacher can be of great help in creating interest in history. The history of a country is embodied in its literature. The ancient history of India cannot be appreciated without some knowledge of Sanskrit. The mediæval Hindu history cannot be appreciated without a knowledge of Telugu, Canarese, Marathi and Tamil. Historical research is impossible without a working knowledge of these languages. Similarly, Moslem history cannot be appreciated without a knowledge of Persian and Urdu. It will be a great step towards the achievement of our aim of cultural unity, if every Muhammadan boy gets a fair knowledge of at least one of the Hindu vernaculars of the State, and Hindu boys of the State do not give up their old practice of mastering Persian.

Civics.

Civics is another important subject intimately connected with history. In several American schools it forms a separate course of study in the school. But we are of opinion that for the present, as in Germany and England, Civics should be taught only through the history lesson. From the lowest classes the idea of duty to the family, the village, the church and other similar bodies should be impressed. In the middle classes, ideas of government, loyalty to the ruler and the State, elementary ideas of education, sanitation and municipal

life should be given. The importance of team work must be emphasised and opportunities given for team work in school activities. In the higher classes, ideas of citizenship, rights and duties, the mechanism of the State, Central and Local Government, should be clearly explained. At present, the sources of information for Hyderabad Civics are the Government reports, which are not easily accessible to teachers. We suggest the preparation of a small book for the use of teachers, giving an idea of the working and organisation of Central and Local Government and the civic progress made by the State in recent years, as well as the main principles of government in British India and relationship between British India and our State.

Laboratory Aids in the Teaching of History.

Rapid changes have been made in the teaching of science in recent years. A separate room is provided and a fully-equipped laboratory is insisted upon. The history teacher, on the other hand, has no room of his own and his equipment is often confined to the black-board. In this connection, we would like to draw the attention of teachers of history to the very instructive series of articles in the "Times Educational Supplement" of January and February 1930. There should be a separate room for history equipped with, what we may call, the history apparatus.

Pictures.

A few typical pictures of Indian interest must adorn its walls. The pictures of Indian art and architecture, published at a cheap price by Messrs. Macmillan & Co. are recommended. All the schools in our Dominions should be supplied with the picture post-cards issued by the Archaeological Department. They

should be framed and hung up on the walls of the history room. Copies of the Ajanta frescoes should find a place in the history-rooms of High Schools.

Abundant use of pictures should be made in the lowest classes. Cuttings should be made from the pictorial journals like the "Indian Pictorial Education," and boys should be encouraged to make their own cuttings and paste them in their note-books.

Maps.

The historical map is absolutely indispensable for history teaching. Small size maps of the Deccan, showing the political divisions in the Andhra period, A. D. 3rd century, the Chalukya period, 7th century, the Rashtrakuta period, 9th century, the Yadava, the Kakatiya and the Hoysala periods, 13th century, the Bahmani period and the period of the five Sultanates and the modern period should be prepared and published in all the languages of the State and in English. The historical maps of India and England, published at a cheap price by Messrs. Macmillan & Co., are recommended for the schools. The geography maps published before the war should be replaced by maps published after the war. The excellent map of the League of Nations published by Messrs. Longmans Green and Co. is very useful for the history teacher. The pupils should be made to draw maps in separate map-drawing books with explanatory notes. Time charts are also valuable aids to teaching.

School Museums.

Higher research belongs to the University stage, but a taste for research, the spirit of investigation and a love for antiquities, should be promoted in the school stage. Our Dominions are full of interesting antiquities. Epigraphical records on stone can be found

in the neighbourhood of almost every school. Old interesting coins can be obtained in several towns from the bankers. Broken pieces of beautiful sculpture are scattered over several villages. A small history museum will encourage the teacher to make a small collection of these antiquities. The boys could also be led to take a pride in making their own contributions to the museum. Old palm-leaf manuscripts, old paintings, mediæval costumes and armoury can be collected at a comparatively small expense. The deciphering of inscriptions may be encouraged as a valuable hobby. The teacher must, however, be careful to see that the exact historical value of the collections made is understood by him and by the pupils.

Excursions.

Excursions play an important part in developing the enthusiasm for investigation. The Boy Scout movement has been encouraging excursions, but the aim is different—physical exercise, life in the open air or training in the several Scout tests. In other cases the excursion is a picnic. The historical excursion must have a definite aim in view. If the teacher has no previous knowledge of the place to which he is taking the boys, the excursion has no value. The teacher must carefully prepare the plan of the excursion. He must study the guide-books and all the available literature about the place. He should also give a previous discourse to the boys about the historical facts that the boys are going to learn as the result of the excursion. One teacher should not take more than 12 or 15 boys. If more boys are to go, more teachers should also go and divide the boys into groups. After their return from the excursion, the pupils should be made to write down their experiences and the teacher

should satisfy himself that they have learnt something new. A small recurring grant should be made to enable the students of our schools to visit Ellora, Ajanta, Warangal, Gulbarga, Bidar, Golkonda and Hyderabad.

History Libraries.

Sir Philip Hartog in his recent report has drawn attention to the paucity of books possessed by our college students. The desire to pass an examination obsesses the mind of the pupil as well as the parent. Very little attempt is made by the teacher to create a reading habit. In several cases the reading habit does not exist even among the teachers. The schools must have decent libraries and history must get a decent share of the allotments every year. The latest books in Indian and English history, including books on teaching methods and a few books on the modern world should be obtained for the use of the teacher. Books suitable for the school standard, and several copies of them, should be added for the use of the boys. Even in those schools which have decent libraries, the boys are unable to make a judicious use of them. The teacher should tell the boy where he has to seek certain information and the portions of the book he has to read. In the 5th and 6th Forms, it is desirable that one of the history periods should occasionally be converted into a library period and the teacher should guide the boy in the way of using the library. The latter must be trained to use the index of a book.

The value of source-books in developing the historical sense carrying the pupil's imagination to the times of the events is very great. There are several source-books in English History, but there are none on Deccan History and there are practically very

few in Indian History. It is desirable that source-books on Deccan History should be written.

Enactment of historical dramas, pageants in the costumes of the different periods, the use of the lantern and the stereoscope are also valuable aids in instruction. The extent to which they can be made useful as aids to the teaching of history depends upon the teacher. Needless to say, in the hands of an ill-equipped teacher, they would degenerate into amusements.

Examinations.

The success of our suggestions, both as regards the curricula and methods, depends largely on the requirements of our examinations. If our scheme secures the support of the Department, there will be only one public examination at the end of the school course with common papers in Urdu and English. The examination test prevails all over the world and for the present we cannot give it up for want of a more satisfactory test. But the examiner and the examination play a very important part in our country in reducing the instruction to a soulless routine. If the questions set in Indian history over a series of years are so distributed that by reading a period of 300 years, one can answer the required number of questions, the teacher is perforce compelled to neglect the other periods. There must be a Board of Paper-setters, and the members of the Board should see that the papers satisfy the aims mentioned in this report.

The Teacher of History.

Our aims, curricula and methods—even the examination system—may be very perfect in theory and yet the results unsatisfactory if

the teacher is not of the right type. The view yet prevails in certain quarters that given two days' time any one can prepare to teach history. The difference between the teacher and the pupil is that the former is in advance of the text-book. As far as possible the teaching of history should be entrusted to trained graduates who should be appointed from the 4th Form onwards. Where trained M.A.'s, or trained Honours graduates are available for the same salary, they should be preferred. Instruction in history should be imparted by trained men even in the Middle classes and, if possible, by trained graduates where trained graduates are available on lower salaries.

The teacher must carefully prepare his lesson. His note-book should indicate the books to which he has referred before making notes, the aids and appliances he is going to use for his lesson and the questions he wishes to put to the class. The note-book should also indicate the changes he is making from year to year in the light of fresh study or fresh experience gained from year to year. The note-book is only an aid to enable the teacher to have a plan and not to go astray. He must not dictate or create an impression that he is reading from it.

There is a tendency to lecture. The lecture method is not suitable for the school. It is hardly necessary to point out that it often means talking far above the heads of the boys.

There is a great danger of the teacher getting out of date in his subject. With 5 or 6 periods of daily work at school, with other duties connected with sports or Scouting outside school hours, with extra private tuitions, which probably have to be control-

led to some extent by the Department, the school-master is unable to keep himself up-to-date. It is very necessary that refresher courses be instituted from time to time to enable the teachers to be in touch with modern developments in their subject. Vacation Schools in Geography, Civics, Deccan History, Library organisation may be started in the Osmania Training College with advantage. Facilities should be given by the Department to enable the teachers to attend these courses. Opportunities should be given to the teachers to travel and visit institutions in other parts of India where the latest methods are successfully applied.

The Annual Conference of the Teachers' Association may be followed by an historical excursion to places of interest in the Dominions in which, all teachers of history should take part.

The personality of the teacher plays a very important part in the training of youth. If the fire of enthusiasm is burning in him, he can kindle it in the minds of his pupils. There is a danger of this fire becoming extinguished as the teacher becomes old. He should therefore frequently self-examine himself and see that the ideals of youth are not shattered in the fierce hunt after the vulgar prizes of life.—*The Hyderabad Teacher—Conference Number—July 1930.*

The Principles and Methods OF TEACHING GEOGRAPHY

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XXXVI—78

GISSING AS A NOVELIST.

Mr. H. S. Nanjundaiyya, M.A., reviewing *Veranilda* and *Will Warburton* in the *World's Classics*, published by the Oxford University Press, writes as follows in the *Mysore University Magazine* :—

The reviewer would fain open with a note of regret that Gissing should not be better known than he is, to Indian readers at any rate. He is not yet labelled a "standard" and his books are completely lacking in that pornographic appeal which characterises the rapid sellers of our enlightened age and constitutes perhaps their chief attraction. But there is no denying the charm of the man. Without being actually great, his writing is yet distinguished. There is a certain scholarliness in his style and a certain fineness about his point of view, and, if one may add, a delightful sense of leisure pervades all his writings. He knows a fine thing when he meets one, and that, after all, is the true end of all culture, and he can describe most artistically. The "Private Papers of Henry Pycraft" is a glorious medley and thoroughly interesting as the revelation of a subtle if somewhat piquant personality. Literary flavour is not the least of his attractions and he is a master of word-painting whether he is out to describe a landscape or discuss a situation of human existence.

Turning to the books themselves *Veranilda* in spite of its 300 and odd pages is an unfinished romance. The reader is left in doubt whether the book would have closed to the peal of wedding bells or would have trailed off into tragedy. The denouement so far might warrant either conclusion. What is more curious is though *Veranilda*, the beautiful Goth, gives her name to the novel and though she is the fulcrum of its activities, her direct appearance in the book is really slight. Royal blood flows in her veins, but her father, a military captain, is traitor to the Gothic cause, immaculate herself, that fact saddens her whole life. Dove-like in her innocence and in her purity, she is yet carried off into the vortex of high passion, political and personal. Misfortune dogs her footsteps. She

is whisked off from captivity to captivity and just as better times are about to dawn, the story breaks off. Twice there was the chance of happiness and honourable union with her lover. In the first instance, she is cunningly kidnapped by a wily ecclesiastic and at the second opportunity, a worse fate happens. She is chaste as Diana herself, yet, she becomes suspect in the eye of her devoted lover, whose best friend perjures his soul and concocts a tale of perfidy, all because he is guiltily infatuated with her beauty himself. A complicated series of events brings Basil (the lover of *Veranilda*) on the scene. In a fit of fury he slays his "other self," refuses to listen to *Veranilda* and rushes away in bitterness and sorrow. Time, and the excellent discipline of a real house of God, bring sanity to his mind and restore the true perspective. The lovers are reconciled, but duty calls him away and the book closes abruptly.

The story is laid in the 6th century A.D. in the reign of Justinian. The ancient majesty that was Rome had perished. The forms were there, but life had departed from them. What remained seemed more an incubus than a heritage. Imperialism had shifted out of Italy and the country lay open to every species of invader, Goth, Roman and Greek. At Byzantium lived the emperor, Roman in name, but whose court and government was half Greek and wholly corrupt, combining the worst features of East and West. Heresy was rampant and the sense of duty, whether in the church or in the body politic, was practically non-existent. Of course, there were noble exceptions, administrators like Belisarius or Totila and Benedict, the Abbot. But on the whole, the Roman Empire was in a most sad condition. The long night of the Middle Ages had set in and salvation was a long way off in the lap of gods. The historical aspect is vividly brought out by Gissing and the human interest of the story is never allowed to flag.

Will Warburton reveals another aspect of Gissing's genius. Gissing is, after all, a Meredithian. The comedy of life is more in his line than its intensities or tragic passions and though Gissing lacks the masterly analysis

of Meredith, he has more of the vital gift of sympathy. In literary criticism, Meredith and Hardy are often paired together. Barring the fact that both are great writers, one fails to see any fundamental resemblances between the two. Hardy's Muse—I use the word advisedly, because both by gifts and temperament Hardy is a tragic artist who has chosen prose as the vehicle of his thoughts—is distinctly serious, always probing below the surface of things, whereas about Meredith there is always an uncanny air of detachment and the happiness or otherwise of his *dramatis personæ* does not seem to be of much moment at all. Even in the brilliant analysis of character and situation that are at once the joy and the bane of the reader of Meredith, there is an undue preponderance of the intellectual over the emotional. Foolishness is the one touch of nature that makes the whole world kin and we squirm under the lashes of Meredith. This is crude criticism, but it strikes at a most important characteristic of the great master. This is a digression though perhaps not quite so irrelevant as it looks. Coming back to Gissing, he is essentially the scholar though there is nothing anæmic about him. He does not exhibit that fierce gusto which characterises Hazlitt, but there is a quiet sense of enjoyment and reflection about him. Not the thing itself but the vein of thought and feeling it arouses in the writer's heart, is what matters. In *Will Warburton*, Gissing moves in a more congenial atmosphere than in the other novel. We are far removed from the high politics and the uncomfortable intrigues of decadent imperialism. In *Will Warburton* we have a Victorian setting—1886, but still Victorian—and the story is of the "domestic" type though not exactly in the sense of Goldsmith's *Vicar of Wakefield*. The story is not much either. It is more a study of temperaments and the situation rising therefrom or leading thereto. Love is the staple food of fiction as well as of drama and the tangled webs of love are duly presented in *Will Warburton*, but we are free to admit that the webs are not so tangled after all. In fact, if a paradox be forgiven, the story opens with a denouement of a sort. Will Warburton, the hero, has an artist friend,

Norbert Franks, to whom he is a sort of elder brother. Norbert has fallen in love with a charming young lady, Miss Rosamund Pomfret. The lady reciprocates his feelings but poverty stands in the way of marriage and the couple wait for the aspiring artist to become a little more prosperous. Norbert is a real artist, but happiness in love has the curious effect of making his work commonplace though it would make him more popular and consequently more saleable. He is conscious of the fact, but it does not trouble him, because the lady seems to be appreciative. But it is not so. Rosamund is pained at this decline though she lacks the courage to be frank. Meanwhile Warburton, whom fate has unkindly landed in a commercial business, takes a holiday off from the cares of sugar and in the course of his continental tours comes across the Pomfrets. The acquaintance deepens though nothing decisive happens yet. Rosamund's feelings towards Norbert grow less warm and slightly more critical and the mind of Will is sub-consciously affected. The story opens at that point in their life's history though actual allusion comes a few chapters later. An estrangement between the lovers is inevitable but Warburton does not step into the breach. He has his own affairs to mind and they are embarrassing enough. He is partner in a sugar business and his chief is an old college friend, Sherwood. Neither Will nor Sherwood were carved out by nature for merchants and both are more vastly interested in the speculative problems of life. They are guided into an unfortunate venture in jam and the whole affair goes wrong. Our hero turns grocer and one of his customers turns out to be Miss Bertha Cross, an intimate friend of Rosamund. Warburton has changed his name but keeps his friends ignorant of the fact. In the shop, the customers know him as Mr. Jollyman. A sort of Jekyll and Hyde existence is kept up and affords room for much comedy. In the end all ends well. Norbert marries his old flame and Will becomes the happy husband of Bertha. As a matter of fact, the estrangement between the artist and the high-strung Rosamund is only to be considered as a temporary aberration and it is

characteristic of Gissing that he does not allow the triangular contest to develop but plies Will with other worries of his own, though in the last chapter he just drops a hint that Rosamund, now Mrs. Franks, does not feel quite easy. No serious trouble or qualms of conscience, but just a passing thought.

After all, with a man like Gissing, what matters is not the theme so much as the way of saying things. There is nothing very sensational or poignant about his situations and the whole beauty lies in his grouping up of characters and the fine imaginative manner in which he describes their thoughts and feelings. It is altogether fine drama. Again, about the conversation of an educated Englishman who is also a man of the world, there is an indefinable charm which is easier to feel than to express. He has a constitutional preference to understate rather than emphasise. There is nothing cheap or vulgar even when the raw material of conversation

is merely the commonplace. This charm of dialogues Gissing's books give us in plenty. The style is always delicate but there is nothing ætæmic.

His characters have rich blood and they have a keen zest for life. He is vigorous without being blatant. We are so thankful that he never indulges in rhetoric or gush. He is a realist gifted with a delicate and scholarly imagination. He is altogether without pedantry and you get the charm of "Oxford" without any of its arrogance, and, one may be permitted to add, ignorance. Gissing is a keen student of Wordsworth; he has the master's eye for Nature but he never stops to sermonize. There is a very fine vein of reflection in Gissing's books but that reflection is always true to the context. Above all, he has a splendid sense of humour with a deep current of irony, but that irony is rarely caustic or unkindly. In closing, the style is the man and both are eminently attractive.

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THE NELLORE DISTRICT REFRESHER COURSE IN GEOGRAPHY.

Under the auspices of the Nellore District Board, the course commenced at 8 A.M. on Saturday, the 20th September last, in the V.R. College, Nellore. Professor N. Subrahmaniam of the Teachers' College, Saidapet, assisted by his Model School Assistant, Mr. G. Narayanaswami, was in entire charge of the tutorial work. After a few lectures on modern geography and its correlation with other studies, the learned lecturer commenced practical and field work, the latter with the help of the District Board Asst. Engineer, Mr. A. Sadasiva Aiyar, and his Overseers. There was an interesting interspersing of general lectures amidst the regular geography course. On the 22nd, Mr. K.C. Ramakrishnan, University Reader in Economics, who was here on a flying visit, kindly addressed the members of the class on "The Scope for Original Work in Geography," under the presidency of Principal M. Venkatarangayya of the local college. The lecturer related some tendencies in the deterioration and movement of local commodities and exhorted the teachers to investigate the causes thereof and thus help the Madras Geographical Association in the studies of local geography.

The whole class went out on an excursion to Narasimbulakonda on the 26th, accompanied by the lecturer and his assistant. The lecturer interpreted the very interesting views of the river-basin, the sloping upland to the distant off-shoots of the Eastern Ghats; and pointed the immense possibilities for carrying on intensive survey of the region. Another evening the lecturer took the class through a rich variety of lantern slides and gave an illuminating picture of the various geographical phenomena the world over.

After a group photo on the 27th, a branch of the Madras Geographical Association was formed by Mr. N. Subrahmaniam, who also took the

opportunity to amplify the theme of "Regional Survey". With an address on "Civic Survey," and a word of exhortation by Principal M. Venkatarangayya, and a vote of thanks to the lecturers and all others who made the undertaking a success, the members dispersed on the 28th.

A substantial adjunct to the valuable course was the ably got-up show-room of Messrs. Longmans, Green & Co. in the charge of Mr. K. Jogiah; and the rich equipment of Messrs. Poilip & Sons in the field of Geography and related studies often engaged the lecturer and the teacher-candidates. Also Messrs. Macmillan & Co. kept their publications on show during the last three days.

Teachers from Guntur, Chittoor and Kurnool availed themselves of the opportunity, along with the teachers of the district, all numbering 46. The subject of geography has gone through many vicissitudes during the last two decades, and the need for such refresher courses cannot be over-emphasised. It is hoped that other District Boards will follow the example so well set by Malabar and Nellore, and the Madras Geographical Association.

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Reviews and Notices.

A GRADED COURSE OF GEOGRAPHY (IN FOUR BOOKS), BY E. S. PRICE. BOOK IV, PART I. EURASIA. (GEORGE PHILIP AND SONS). Price 1s. 6d.

The four books of the series are intended as the basis of a four years' course in Geography. This is not a text-book which can be used independently of the teacher. It has been recognized that prominence has to be given to individual work in order to stimulate self-activity of the pupil and to correlate the subject to other studies in the curriculum. These modern principles are adopted in framing these exercises.

The book under review is divided into eight chapters. The first two chapters deal with Eurasia in general, and the others with the different countries of Asia. There has been no treatment separately of the different countries of Europe. The exercises bear on all aspects of geography. It would have been better if some exercises had been set on pictures (depicting human activity in the several regions) as well. One fails to find in this book the grace and thoroughness of finish in maps which are generally met with in all publications of Messrs. Philip and Sons.

The book has two useful Appendices, one on reference books and the other on climatic statistics of Asia. This will certainly be very useful to teachers of Geography in High Schools and has been included as a reference book by the Madras Educational Department.

THE MODERN GEOGRAPHY ROOM, BY V. C. SPARY, B. SC. (GEORGE PHILIP AND SONS). Price 6d.

"The utilitarian reasons are not the only ones that make the claims of Geography to inclusion in the time-table incontrovertible; its value rests on its use as an instrument of education and as a consequence it should occupy no subsidiary or doubtful place but should be one of the principal items in the curriculum"—Hadow: *Report on the Education of the Adolescent*.

This booklet of 40 pages is particularly welcome at the present time when many teachers are likely to require help in fitting up and furnishing the Geography rooms in their respective schools. All aspects of the subject are dealt with in detail—pupils' furniture, fittings, general furniture, equipment and accessories.

It is well-pointed out how the Geography room does not mean merely a room set aside for

geography teaching but a room intended particularly for the teaching of the subject from the time the first brick of the building is laid. Such a room is justified by the economy effected not only in money and time but also by the broadening which it brings in the scope of teaching.

Mr. Spary points out how since the home region will occupy a large part of the time given to Geography, it is desirable for a geography-room to be in the top-floor in order to command as good a view of the surroundings as possible. Every matter of detail has been treated, based on experience gained in the famous William Ellis School. It is hoped that geography teachers would avail themselves of the opportunity afforded and peruse this book before fitting-up the Geography-rooms.

GERMAN COMMERCIAL CORRESPONDENCE, BY R. LUSUM, PH.D., GERMAN LECTURER AT THE REGENT STREET POLYTECHNIC. (PUBLISHED BY EFFINGHAM WILSON, 16, COTHALL AVENUE, LONDON). Price 3s.

This book will be welcomed by all those who have business relations with the German commercial world. After the recent war, the Germans are fast recouping their commercial strength, and they have already forged ahead in many spheres of trade. The value of a knowledge of commercial German is being increasingly felt by traders everywhere. Even in India, wholesale dealers and proprietors of large scale undertakings, who may have to transact business with German firms, will find the need of a knowledge of commercial German imperative: for, although some German merchants do use English as the medium of correspondence, there are very many who restrict themselves to the use of German.

The present book is aimed at supplying students of commercial German with exhaustive lists of words and phrases used in commercial correspondence and also a large number of model specimens of full letters bearing on different aspects of business transactions. There are 26 chapters in all, and to each of these is prefixed a set of detailed directions in German, dealing with the nature and possible variations of the form discussed in the chapter.

No grammatical rules are given in this book, as it is presumed that those using it will already have acquired an elementary knowledge of German grammar and sentence construction.

Commercial German is a trade dialect which has built up a unique phraseology and usage of its own. And commercial people entering into business dealings with German merchants have need to learn this dialect deliberately. The present book will abundantly meet this need.

GERMAN TRAVELLING COMPANION, BY R. LUSUM, PH.D. (PUBLISHED BY EFFINGHAM WILSON, LONDON). Price 2s.

This is a small book of 55 pages intended for the use of foreign (English-knowing) tourists in Germany who would like to avoid the bother of finding out English interpreters at every stage of their tour. The chapters treat about the different phases of a journey by train: and in each chapter full sentences, word-lists and phrase-lists are given.

It is a matter of doubt whether the book will at all be of use to those who lack an elementary knowledge of the language. The tourist who mumbles out what to him might but be a group of unmeaning sounds would, we are afraid, hardly make himself understood by the natives. Single words picked out for special emergencies might now and then enable him to relieve himself from an awkward situation, or two, but the assistance thus afforded does not amount to much.

The tourist who is absolutely ignorant of German will therefore find this book (as it at present stands) to be of little practical help. The inclusion of a grammatical sketch and also of full phonetic transliterations on the basis of some well-recognised notation would, we think, alone make this book popular.

A FRENCH COURSE FOR SCHOOLS, PART I, BY HERBERT F. COLLINS, M.A.—WITH ILLUSTRATIONS. (MACMILLAN & CO., LTD.) Price 2s.

This is an excellent beginners' text-book containing a number of reading lessons so graded and arranged that each one of the lessons serves as a basis for the study of certain definite elementary rules of grammar and usage. Each lesson is immediately followed by the grammatical points it illustrates and by copious exercises (intended mainly for oral work) in translation, re-translation, recasting of sentences, etc. At the end of every fifth lesson there is also a Vocabulary Revision list. The grammar is well graded and distributed over all the lessons.

As the scope of work in connection with each lesson is thus well-defined and limited, vagueness

is avoided and thoroughness is ensured. This is a very commendable feature which will be appreciated by teachers who have to do with beginners in French.

The reading lessons include—besides easy narrations and descriptions—letters, diaries and two small connected pieces (on Joan of Arc) in dramatic form.

The exposition of the elements of grammar is sufficiently attractive to interest young minds, and there is a conspicuous absence of anything repelling or forbidding about the rules themselves, as they are all presented in a simple and often graphical style.

The portion on grammar is done in English—an undoubted advantage for beginners. The essentials of grammar that a beginner in French specially has to study are all here: the Partitive Article, the formation of Feminines and Plurals, Expressions of Negation, the position of Pronominal Objects (Direct and Indirect); the simpler tense-forms of the three conjugations, a few ideas about Reflexive verbs and about the three common Irregular verb-types: *dire pouvoir* and *voir*.

Besides the inevitable general vocabulary at the end, there are also included four French *chansons* accompanied by musical notation.

All teachers who have to do with beginners in French will extend a hearty welcome to this book.

MIRROR OF INDIAN ART, BY G. VENKATACHELAM. (D. B. TARAPOREVALLA & SONS, BOMBAY). Pp. 254. Price Rs. 2.

Books have been pouring out of the publishing houses but few of them are of importance or contribute to the progress of mankind. "Mirror of Indian Art" ranks among the few books which reveal an intense study of the subject it treats and which is written with a purpose behind.

The subject is one of great interest as it bears a vital message to all Indians. It is expressed with an intense feeling for the glory that is passing for earnestness that is appealing and convincing.

Art in India as depicted in the book had pervaded every phase of life and had been expressed in folklore, house-keeping, crafts, textiles, music, painting, etc. Indian Art had a distinction of its own and appropriate to the modes of lives of the peoples, to their tradition and their culture.

The author, himself an artist and a lover of his country, laments the decadence which has set in,

and condemns in forceful language the influence of the West which has reduced the expression of the higher nature in man to a commercial basis. In textiles and crafts, the art decorations are copied from wall-paper designs, just because the people want the imitation and not the indigenous art. The Schools of Arts in the different provinces are run by Government and there is very little scope for creative art. The people know very little of what is being done in these Arts Schools.

After this clear exposition of the present conditions of art in the various spheres, the author expresses his fervent desire that it is yet possible for the sons and daughters of India to revive the dying arts and adapt them to the present conditions. He asks for a determination on the part of Indians to encourage by the use of articles of indigenous art.

The book abounds in wood-pictures of famous Indian arts, and gives a fund of valuable knowledge about art and artists of India. It is written in an easy style and does not confuse the mind with technical terms. The chapters on the stage and screen, and the national dress for India are well-worth reading. The book will repay a thousand times the cost of its price of Rupees Two.

A CLASS-BOOK OF MECHANICS, BY H. E. HADLEY, B.Sc. (MACMILLAN & CO., LTD. 1930). Price 4s. 6d.

This book is a useful addition to those who prepare for the first examination in Science and supplies a long-felt want. It covers the elementary principles of statics and dynamics, using simple applied mathematics. The author recognises the interdependence of mathematics and physics, and illustrates the purely dynamical principles with practical exercises bearing upon every-day life.

A most noteworthy feature of the book is the very large number of examples and exercises, which if properly worked, cannot fail to impress the fundamental principles of the subject.

The get up is very neat and the book is bound to command wide circulation.

HYDROSTATICS, BY D. K. SEN, M.Sc. (MACMILLAN & CO., LTD., 1930). Price Rs. 3-8-0.

Closely allied to Hadley's Mechanics is this book on Hydrostatics that will be found useful to students of mathematics and physics. It consists of 11 chapters dealing with fluids, fluid pressure, floating bodies, specific gravity and hydrostatic mechanics together with numerous examples on each of these topics.

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First Edition, March 1928.

Second Edition, June 1928.

Third Edition, April 1929.

Fourth Edition, February 1930.

Fifth Edition, August 1930.

COOPER, Publishers, BOMBAY.

KANDAPURANA VACHANAM, URPATTHI KANDAM.
(RAJA RAM & CO., MADRAS). Price 10 Annas.

This is a prose rendering of the Urpatthi Kandam of Kandapuranam of Katchiappa Sivacharya Swami's well-known standard poem, the Kandapuranam. The rendering has been done with great care and carefully designed to meet up-to-date educational requirements. We have no doubt that this would serve as a reliable moral reading text in all secondary schools, judged by its style and method. The publication well deserves patronage in the hands of all educational authorities.

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The Educational Review.

We have pleasure in acknowledging receipt of the Administration Report of the Director of Education of Ceylon for 1929. The Department of Education is assisted by a Board of Education consisting of twenty members nominated by the Governor, and thirty-two Education District Committees.

There are 1,400 Government schools, and 2,425 "assisted schools." There are three kinds of instruction provided: (1) A full course of elementary instruction in the vernacular; (2) a full course of such instruction with a working knowledge of English, and (3) a full course of instruction in English, also providing for those who have no knowledge of English at the beginning of their school life. Of vocational schools, there are two kinds, part-time and full. The industrial schools teach carpentry, weaving, basket work, pottery, printing, lacquer work, blacksmith work and other industries.

The report refers to the great improvement effected by a new syllabus, by which freedom of curricula has been given, with a view to the special needs of each area. The Government deserves to be congratulated for the safeguards it has taken to give security of office to teachers in 'assisted schools.' The teachers cannot be dismissed except with the approval of the Government. There are also pensions by the Government. A change has also been adopted in enforcing equal treatment of the pupils of different castes in schools. Apparently this is receiving some opposition.

The gross cost of school education in 1928-29 was Rs. 15,056,026 against Rs. 1,464,811 in the previous year; the average cost per pupil was Rs. 28.09.

In the Elementary School-leaving Certificate Examination, 42.77 per cent. of the total number which appeared, passed. For the Vernacular Certificate, the percentage stood at 34.72. In the Cambridge Junior Examination, the passes stood at 62.91 %, and in the Senior, at 30.66 %.

Ceylon has not presented any special difficulties in the education of girls. It has gone in side by side with that of the boys, the same curriculum being followed for both, except for domestic subjects added for girls. Of 2,111 Vernacular and Anglo-Vernacular schools, 1,680 are mixed schools. Of 237 Assisted English schools, only 55 are mixed.

University education is relegated to the fifth chapter in the Report. The University College teaches all the usual subjects, and the students appear for the London Intermediate and Honours Examinations. The Government award annually six scholarships of the value of £300 a year for the students of the college for post-graduate education in the United Kingdom. It is a pity, Ceylon has made no independent provision for its University courses.

The Cadet movement flourishes in the English secondary schools. The junior cadets are below the age of 16 and the seniors between 16 and 19. The junior cadets receive funds from the Education Department votes, whereas the senior cadets are dependent upon the Ceylon Defence Force votes. The Boy Scout

movement is progressing in the vernacular schools. There were 5,662 scouts in all in 1929.

Half of the Report is taken up with the details of the working of the Education District Committees.

Ceylon has no doubt concentrated efficiently on school education, but it is still to provide independently for the University courses. The way in which it has provided for the security of tenure for teachers in 'assisted schools' and for their pensions is worthy of imitation by Indian provinces.

With its October 1930 issue just to hand, "India" enters

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