

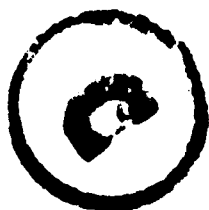
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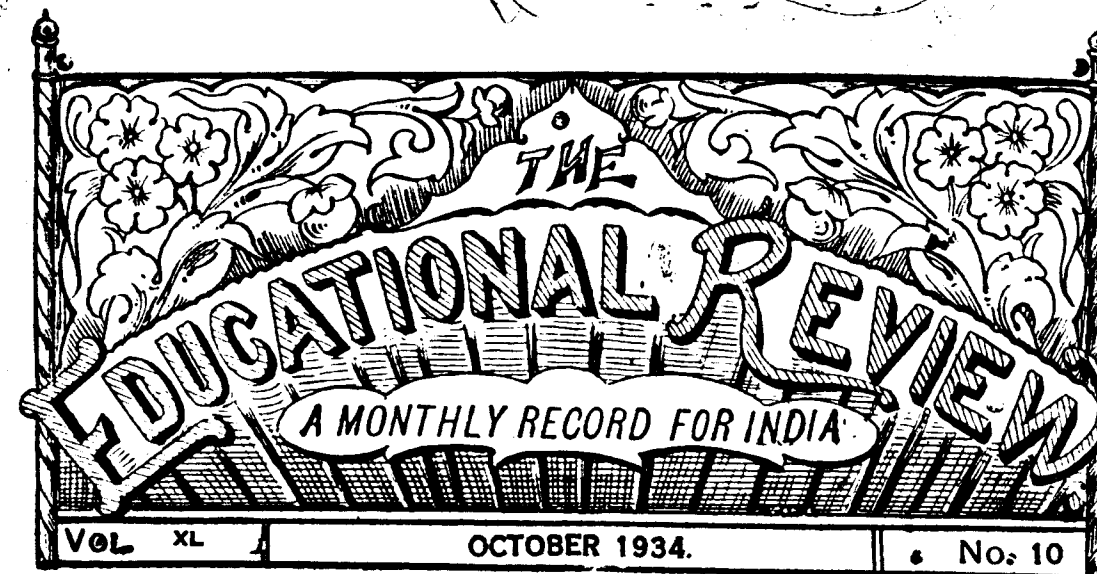
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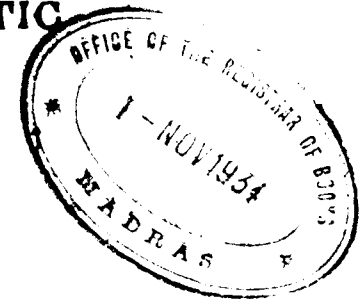
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VOL. XL.]

OCTOBER 1934.

[No. 10.]

A MONARCH TURNS ARCHITECT.

By W. A. DE SAGER.

THE gods must have smiled on Frederick the Great, king, warrior, musician, poet and architect, and it would seem as if a jealous destiny had ordained the converging of the most auspicious moments of the dynasty to favour the accession of the young prince. His exceptional gifts together with his indomitable will, and a fortune amassed by a careful and saving father, enabled the builder of Sans Souci to leave, as a heritage to posterity, a city pregnant with memories of a glorious reign, an enduring testimony to those creative powers which were to culminate in the development of a new phase in the history of art in Germany.

Cast in a golden setting amidst meadows, lakes and forests, Potsdam had been signalled out by the Hohenzollern, and became with time the residential city of the Brandenburg-Prussian sovereign house. It was embellished by each successive monarch, till finally, with the advent of the most famous of them all, it assumed the appearance which it has retained till the present day.

Although, historically, the facts connected with Potsdam are familiar enough, too little significance has been given to its artistic merits, which are important because of the

note unconsciously struck, resulting in the creation of something new, a Rococo neither French nor German, but an unconscious interpretation and adaptation of the former to the latter. It is only comparatively recently that the Rococo of Southern Germany has been accorded the recognition which is its due, but the right conceded the Rococo of Potsdam to stand side by side as its equal is, indeed, much newer.

There is no doubt that Frederick would have keenly resented any inference that he had deliberately sought to create a style of architecture peculiar to himself. Essentially French by education and sympathies—he spoke the language better than his own—cherishing an admiration for all that came from France, he desired, above all, to live and build like a Frenchman. Nevertheless, viewed in the clear light of the present, it must be admitted that the purely French element is less predominant, and that all bears the mark of Frederick's personality with its characteristic delicacy, grace and charm, fragile ornaments of naturalistic flowers, birds and fruit, and realistic colouring. We see how everything has been modified and enriched, and how a Rococo was born which has not its equal in France.

The constructive ambitions so strong in Frederick were not limited to the building of royal residences alone, and his desire that Potsdam should present a sumptuous and fitting frame to his picture is very apparent throughout the entire city. True, the king was concerned for the housing welfare of his people and granted substantial sums of money for the erection or improvement of their houses, but they were obliged by him to conform to his tastes and to bow to his will in every detail.

Though marked originality is by no means a salient feature—foreign examples having frequently served as models for houses and palaces—Potsdam presents an appearance both attractive and noble. The streets are often unusually wide and the withal charming facades reveal a unique sense of symmetry and form. A picturesque and colourful note is lent by the quaint Dutch quarter built by Frederick's father, the Soldier-King, for the weavers from Holland, that they might feel at home. Disposed in rows, it was in these bright, red brick houses with their deep gabled roofs that many of the famous giant Grenadiers were billeted.

But it is round Sans Souci, which reflects almost better than anywhere else the king's lighter moods, that centers an atmosphere vibrant with souvenirs of the past—the concentrated essence of the town itself. This palace, small, charming and intimate, which crowns the terraced vineyards so beloved by the king, was originally intended as a simple country-house, but the surroundings and its idyllic appeal cast a charm upon Frederick and it speedily became his favourite summer residence.

It was not long, however, before Sans Souci became too small to meet Fre-

derick's requirements; accordingly he built on either side as guest-house and picture gallery, the two charming pavilions which are a delightful complement to the picture. The two long, green, trellised arburs at either end served as a place of exercise for the king and his dogs; and here he often retired to play his dearly loved flute. It is difficult to picture the great monarch in those Rococo rooms, holding his small and informal court of some of the most brilliant minds; the gay suppers, the barking of the many dogs and the coming and going of the servants. It was almost an incongruous setting for a man of such an iron mind, of whom all stood in awe.

The general conception and the many individual features owe their origin to the king himself, and the plans with their French annotations, though drawn by his untutored hand, nevertheless, reveal an astonishing sense of uniformity and architectural composition. Sans Souci was built between the years 1744 and 1747, and proved to be the very last occasion when Knobelsdorf—the most renowned, perhaps, of all the "Potsdam" architects—was permitted to work for Frederick. Continually at variance with his royal master, Knobelsdorf could never completely reconcile himself to the king's artistic moods, as is testified by the marked contrast which exists between the stately and dignified courtyard — Knobelsdorf's work — and the sparkling, flamboyant facade with its Rococo figures supporting the roof.

The magnificent new palace which stands at the end of a wide avenue of majestic trees, was built by Frederick solely for festivities and state functions; and its imposing size together with the richness of the decorations

was used by him to convince his enemies that Prussia was still solvent after the strenuous Seven Years' War; moreover, it provided work for the many artists and craftsmen whom the king had gathered round him.

All that has been accomplished in Potsdam, either before or after Frederick II must, perforce, take a secondary place, for the glamour and the glory remain essentially his; the houses, streets, parks and palaces all breathe the atmosphere of Prussia's greatest monarch.

That Frederick was not an artist in the strictest sense of the word is clearly evident; however, his rough sketches and plans for buildings and gardens betray a natural ingeniousness and richness of conception. Although in poetry and music he was much more productive, it is nevertheless remarkable that despite his lack in the elements of drawing and painting, Frederick has been responsible for an important and vital phase in the history of German Art which rightly bears his name.

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF THE VOCABULARY OF HINDI READERS.

By MR. JOHN CHARLES KOENIG,
Washington University.

(Continued from page 589).

TABLE XI.

Distribution of Word Frequencies in a Series of American Readers.

Reader	Word Frequencies				
	Once	2-5	6-10	11-25	25 plus
Primer	...	89	82	81	48
Book One	24	212	135	126	66
Book Two	81	436	216	211	157
Book Three	153	755	253	254	178

The same data are expressed in Tables XII and XIII in percentage form. Words used only once present a range of 42 to 53 per cent. in the Hindi series, while the American readers present a range of zero to 10 per cent. Conversely the percentage of words used twenty-five times or more ranges from 0 to 6 per cent in the Hindi series, while the American readers repeat from 10 to 16 per cent. at least twenty-five times.

TABLE XII.

Percentage Distribution of Word Frequencies in a Series of Hindi Readers.

Reader	Word Frequencies in Percentage				
	Once	2-5	6-10	11-25	25 plus
Primer	53	37	8	2	...
Book One	45	34	10	6	5
Book Two	42	34	11	7	6
Book Three	42	35	10	7	6

Comparing the words repeated more than five times, we find the following percentage in the American series, primer to book three: 70, 58, 52, and 42 per cent. In the Hindi series the same frequency is attained by respectively 10, 21, 24, and 23 per cent. of the vocabulary.

We find, then, that the characteristic of a small percentage of infrequently used words

previously observed in Hindi primers⁴³ carries over into the succeeding readers. In the American readers the relationship of word frequency is reversed. As the higher stages of reading are reached, the contrast between the two series diminishes.

TABLE XIII.

Percentage Distribution of Word Frequencies in a Series of American Readers.

Reader	Word Frequencies in Percentage				
	Once	2-5	6-10	11-25	25 plus
Primer	...	30	27	27	16
Book One	4	38	24	22	12
Book Two	8	40	19	18	15
Book Three	10	47	16	16	10

Since frequency of words and vocabulary burden are closely related terms, all that has been said of the effects of a heavy vocabulary burden applies here also.

Continuous Use of Words.

It is evidently desirable that a large percentage of the vocabulary of a lower reader be continued in the higher readers. If an entirely new vocabulary were presented, pupils would find many difficulties in word recognition. It is of interest, therefore, to ascertain the extent to which the vocabulary of lower readers is retained in higher readers.

TABLE XIV.

Continuity of Vocabulary of Hindi Readers.

Reader	No. of different words	Number reappearing in		
		Book One	Book Two	Book Three
Primer	228	178	179	190
Book One	591	...	404	421
Book Two	1,077	...	...	657

⁴³ See page 518.

TABLE XV.

Continuity of Vocabulary of American Readers.

Reader	No. of different words	Number reappearing in		
		Book One	Book Two	Book Three
Primer	300	289	257	241
Book One	563	...	458	413
Book Two	1,081	...	...	858

Furthermore the continued use in higher readers of a word appearing in a lower reader is a measure of the importance of that word. It is evident that a word needed to express the thoughts of a higher reader is of greater utility to pupils than a word not so needed.

Tables XIV and XV present the number of words of the vocabulary of lower readers reappearing in higher readers of the Hindi and American series respectively. The same data are given in percentage in Tables XVI and XVII.

TABLE XVI.

Percentage of Vocabulary Reappearing in Hindi Readers.

Reader	Percentage of Vocabulary reappearing in		
	Book One	Book Two	Book Three
Primer	78	79	83
Book One	...	68	71
Book Two	...	...	61

TABLE XVII.

Percentage of Vocabulary Reappearing in American Readers.

Reader	Percentage of vocabulary reappearing in		
	Book One	Book Two	Book Three
Primer	96	86	80
Book One	...	81	73
Book Two	...	...	80

The percentage of the vocabulary of a lower reader reappearing in a higher reader

of the Hindi series ranges from 61 to 79. The range in the American reader is from 73 to 96 per cent. It appears that in every instance the American readers make more extended use of the vocabulary of lower readers than is the case with the series of Hindi readers.

One peculiar phenomenon appearing from the two Tables should be pointed out. While the Hindi readers at successively higher stages make greater use of the vocabulary of a lower reader, the trend in the American series is to discard progressively more of the vocabulary of a lower reader at successively higher stages of reading. This study furnishes no clue in explanation of the observation. As a possible solution it may be suggested that American series of readers at an early stage include many words suitable for children which may be discarded in higher readers, while Hindi readers use from the beginning a vocabulary more suitable for adults.

Summary.

The results of the comparison in this chapter of a series of Hindi readers with an American series may be summarized as follows:—

Hindi first, second, and third readers present a comparatively small quantity of reading material. The vocabulary burden of these readers is strikingly heavy. The percentage of infrequently used words is very large.

The percentage of the vocabulary of a lower reader reappearing in a higher reader is smaller in the Hindi series than in the American readers.

These characteristics are most pronounced in the primer and tend to approach the American standard at successively higher stages.

These findings are based on the comparison of one series of Hindi readers with one American series only. As, however, these characteristics agree with the characteristics ascertained of Hindi primers in general, the presupposition that the findings may be applied to Hindi readers in general is not entirely unwarranted.

THE IMPORTANCE OF THE VOCABULARY OF HINDI READERS.

The authors of American primary readers lay great stress on the choice of words. Efforts are made to restrict the vocabulary as far as possible to the words most widely used so that pupils in the earliest stages of reading may become familiar with the words most frequently met in all further reading.

In this objective authors are greatly assisted by two studies. The first is a list of 20,000 most common words prepared by Mr. Thorndike.⁴⁴ The second is a list of 1,500 words selected by Mr. Gates⁴⁵ especially for reading material in grades one and two. The method of procedure used in the compilation of these lists has been referred to in the introduction.⁴⁶ The authors of many modern American series of readers check their vocabulary with these lists.

No such list exists in Hindi. It was, therefore, determined to make a modest beginning by continuing the tabulation of words begun in this study to include all the reading material prescribed for primary schools in the Central Provinces of India.⁴⁷ The books tabulated include Primer I, and Readers IX to XIV listed on page 373.

⁴⁴ Edward L. Thorndike, *Teacher's Word Book of 20,000 Words*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City, 1932.

⁴⁵ Arthur I. Gates, *A Reading Vocabulary for the Primary Grades*, Bureau of Publications, Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York City, 1926.

⁴⁶ See page 372.

⁴⁷ *Educational Manual for the Central Provinces*, Government Press, Nagpur, C.P., 1928, page 114.

The same author⁵¹ reports that American primers select from 68·3 to 88·3 of their vocabulary from the first 500 words of Gates' list, while from 1·5 to 6·5 per cent. of their vocabulary is not found in the first thousand words of that list.

It appears, then, that the percentage of words chosen by American primers from the first thousand words of Thorndike's and Gates' lists is greater than that chosen by Hindi primers from the list of a thousand important Hindi words.

TABLE XXII.

Percentage Distribution of Words of Hindi Readers in List of important Hindi Words.

Reader	Percentage of Vocabulary appearing in		
	First 500	Second 500	Not in list
I	59·2	18·0	22·8
IX	48·2	16·4	35·4
X	33·6	19·1	47·3
XI	25·4	17·2	57·4

The vocabulary of Hindi first, second, and third readers was also cheked by the list of a thousand important Hindi words. This check appears in the last column of Appendix IV. Table XXI classifies these data and shows the number of words from these readers appearing in the first and second half of the list and the number not included in the list. Table XXII presents the same data in percentage form.

⁵¹ Schwieder, page 29.

TABLE XXIII.

Distribution of Words of American Readers in Thorndike's List.

Reader	No. of different words	Number of words appearing in		
		First 500	Second 500	Not in first thousand
Primer	300	202	51	47
Book One	563	302	102	159
Book Two	1,081	415	213	463

Equivalent data for a series of American readers checked with Thorndike's list are presented in Tables XXIII and XXIV. These data were secured from Manuals One⁵² and Two⁵³ accompanying the series 'The Children's Own Readers.'

TABLE XXIV.

Percentage Distribution of Vocabulary of American Readers in Thorndike's List.

Reader	Percentage of Vocabulary appearing in		
	First 500	Second 500	Not in first thousand
Primer	67·3	12·5	30·2
Book One	53·7	18·6	28·2
Book Two	38·4	19·8	42·8

A comparison of the two tables shows that the American reader in each instance selects a greater percentage of words from Thorndike's first thousand words than is chosen by the corresponding Hindi reader from the list of one thousand important Hindi words. The series of Hindi readers examined shares this characteristics with Hindi primers.

⁵² Mary E. Pennell and Alice M. Cusack, *The Teachers' Manual to accompany the Children's Own Reader*, First Grade, Grim and Company, Boston, 1929, Pages 390—429.

⁵³ *Ibid*, Book Two.

(To be continued.)

WHAT IS INTELLIGENCE.

By MR. H. V. VENKATANARAYAN, B.Sc. (Hons.),
Bangalore City.

THE word intelligence has given scope to many vagaries of meaning and suggestion. The popular notions about the symptoms of intelligence in a person are vivacity of expression, smartness of behaviour, bright sparkling eyes, quick and nimble movements and many other things which are scientifically unwarranted. Many distinguished psychologists have given various definitions of intelligence, which are really open to serious objections. The definitions are either vague, too general, partial or unsatisfactory. Let us survey briefly the various definitions promulgated by many scientists.

1. One of such definitions is that intelligence consists in creative ability. This definition is too narrow for our purposes, because there are various activities, physical and mental, which do not involve any power of creation.

2. Some others have looked upon intelligence as the capacity for successful adaptation. For successful adaptation, two factors are necessary. In some kinds of work success may not be dependent upon intelligence, but upon memory, muscle, etc. And a task may or may not lay emphasis on intelligence. For example, Socrates, who was known for his wisdom and intelligence, was persecuted. Similarly Russel and Bernard Shaw, men who are pre-eminently intelligent and far-sighted, failed in their early days. Other factors are involved in intelligence for successful adaptation.

3. Another interesting definition is from Cyril Burt. It runs thus:—"Intelligence is

inborn, alround, mental efficiency." Here there are two fundamental assumptions: (1) That intelligence is innate, and has its own laws of growth, (2) that it is alround and can display itself in all activities. Nowadays people have begun to question the absolute innateness of intelligence. But here it is enough to state that conclusive proofs are not available to demonstrate the innateness of intelligence.

All tasks may not require intelligence. In the capacity for absorption of intelligence, tasks differ. We also know cases where people are extremely clever in the handling of ideas or symbols, but who show extreme weaknesses and stupidity in other branches of life. Hence alround ability may not be present. Unless these assumptions are experimentally proved, we cannot accept this definition.

4. Colwin's definition runs thus:—"Intelligence is ability to learn from experience." This definition is good enough if we understand the meaning of "learn." Two interpretations are possible for this word. One is that learning means memorising. The other more important means the acquisition of a new skill. If learning is taken as the acquisition of skill, this definition is not unsatisfactory.

5. Thorndike says:—"Intelligence consists in the power of good responses from the point of view of truth or fact." Here also the definition is open to much the same objections as in 2. Besides that, the words good, truth and fact have no precise meaning. One difficult word is defined by three difficult words.

6. Terman's compendious definition of intelligence that it consists in the ability to carry on abstract thinking or symbolic thinking is only incomplete; because in mathematics mostly symbolic thinking is involved; there are no concrete objects. Should we assert that mathematicians are more intelligent than historians, poets and politicians? We know of mathematicians who show extreme skill and ability in abstract thinking and who may not necessarily show the same amount of skill in elementary things of life. The definition of Terman seems to be partial to mathematicians who usually deal with abstract notions.

7. Feor Spearman:—"Intelligence consists in the power of systematising experience and in the power of filling out blanks in experience." This statement brings to relief two functions of intelligence: one of systematising experience and the other of filling out the blanks. In other words, it consists in (a) the finding of principles and (b) the applying of principles.

The first is known as correlate finding. In the second phase we are actually transcending experience. We are going from what is given to what is not given. In the scientific-world the work is of this nature. Hence the power of systematising and transcending experience is called intelligence. To the extent to which any person engages in this task, a person is said to be intelligent to that extent.

Hence we see that nothing is asserted; there is no implication and no suggestion. The experience may relate to any field in human activity. From an academic point of view, this definition is more satisfactory. From the point of view of the intelligence tester, we

must know something more of the dimensions of intelligence.

Therefore Prof. Gopalaswamy has rightly supplemented this by saying that intelligence consists in the possession of the efficient habits of thinking, in the sense of quickness, precision, relevancy, persistency and objectivity.

Then we must know some of the important manifestations of intelligence through work. It is in terms of output that we can measure intelligence. A few empirical answers are possible in this connection. Some of these activities are:—

1. Perception of similarities.
2. Perception of absurdities and incongruities.
3. Tactful dealing with men.
4. Skilful handling of tools.
5. Profiting from experience.
6. Meeting novel situations.
7. Systematic thinking.

These are not the exhaustive manifestations of intelligence, but only the significant part of it.

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THE TEACHING OF SHAKESPEARE.

BY MR. S. VISWANATHA IYER, B.A., B.T.,

Bangalore.

IT is said that the needful thing is to teach students to enjoy literature. Yet this enjoyment must depend upon comprehension, since no reasonable creature can enjoy what he does not understand. In no sense, can a student be said to understand a play of Shakespeare, who does not know the meaning of all the words in it. The words, then, must be understood. When this is accomplished, it is only then the work of appreciation begins. Appreciation will be the more apt word, for English literature is the record left by the countrymen of their highest feelings upon human life.

But it is highly regrettable to note that many teachers are not conscious of delight in the beauty and truth of literature. Year after year, some play or other of Shakespeare is selected for the S. S. L. C. class. Instead of revealing the beauty of literature to their pupils, they fall back upon the historical details of the author, the minute examination of words and phrases and annotations. Nothing is more calculated to destroy the interest of boys in, and to give them a distaste for, English literature, than teaching of this kind.

The work of literature will accomplish its purpose when the impression is transferred from the poet's to the reader's mind, so that he may see the particular phenomena as the poet has seen them. Hence the function of the teacher is to put the student at such a point of view, that the work, he is studying, may make upon him the entire impression it was intended to make—a reflection of that

in the writer's mind. He must clear away hindrances, stimulate interest and direct attention.

In the first place, it is necessary that the plot must be known. It is quite common that many do not know how the play ends. The mischief comes chiefly from using, for school purposes, editions furnished with notes. These should never come, on the contrary, in the hands of the pupils, but be reserved like cribs exclusively for teachers. The very appearance of such books will convey a false impression. The pupil will jump to the conclusion that what needs so much explanation must be intolerably dull, and secondly, the notes occupying in his mind the position of honour, he will prefer to take them solid, as they stand, without troubling about the text. As the notes are purely philological, at the hands of an incompetent teacher, the impression may be conveyed that the chief reason for reading Shakespeare is to learn the life-history of such expressions as 'hurly-burly.' The child would far rather learn any number of pages by heart than give his mind to understand a scene of a tragedy. The result of such note-cramming is seen in two ways, immediately when he takes the play as read and afterwards, on leaving school, when he puts away his Shakespeare with his school books. The class-book, put into the pupils' hands, should be a simple text, with at most a glossary. The pupils should at once be told to read it. Before the play is brought into the class at all, it should be read and re-read and read again privately, until there is a very

definite outline in the mind of what happens. It would not be amiss to let the class read, first of all, the story of the play in Lamb's *Tales from Shakespeare*.

When the outline of the story is known, attention must next be directed to the plot; if it be a tragedy, who the hero is and in what the tragic action consists. The student should be told that it is of the essence of the tragedy, for the circumstances in which the hero is placed to be such as to play upon the weak points of his character and bring him to ruin. *E.g.*, if the play to be read were *Julius Cæsar*, the class would be told that the tragic interest would be centred in Brutus, who is the type of a patriot, perfectly noble and unselfish, and yet without insight into the needs of the time. They would be stimulated to watch how this one great practical defect in Brutus brings on the catastrophe, first by allowing a base conspiracy to come to a head and then by mismanaging things when the conspiracy had apparently triumphed. It would be well to read the play in the class, at first rapidly, for the sake of showing the development of the main action and how each scene contributes to it. The teacher, after the first scene had been read, would point out that it puts us in possession of the state of feeling at Rome after Cæsar's triumph, for his victory at Munda, and shows us that his absolute power, although offensive to the old republican magistrates, did not press heavily on the people. He would point out in the next scene, that Cassius is the originator of the conspiracy and bid the class notice his skill in angling for Brutus, whose reputation he sees to be essential for the success of the plot, compared with the rough and ready means employed for catching Casca. And so on.

When the play comes up for reading a second time, the teacher would naturally give a closer attention to the dialogue. A question always on the teacher's lips should be 'Why does X say that?' 'What is the object of the speech?' 'How is it characteristic?' It should be a first axiom that every speech is appropriate to the speaker and should be recognisable as his and his alone by a person who knows the play. It should be no less axiomatic that everything is said with a purpose and reveals character.

But some teachers are likely to lecture on the more important persons of the drama. Against this process of lecturing, there is not much to be said, provided always that the lecture does no more than put together what had been evoked in the class from the play itself. But the valuable teaching as to character is that which is given by hints, as the reading proceeds and is not restricted to the major characters. Thus, a teacher, who pointed out in *Julius Cæsar*, how Casca first echoes Cæsar and then echoes Cassius and how in the next scene, he makes a sudden discovery that he is a bondman, will have done more for his pupils' appreciation of this hero, than by the most epigrammatic character-sketch, which would be taken down, learned by heart, tossed to the examiner and then forgotten. The teacher, again, should not be too proud to be a sign-post, to be for ever pointing the finger, 'Notice this,' 'Notice that.'

Explanation of difficult phrases must then be given by the teacher very shortly and *viva voce*, when they come up in the reading of the play; but of course, there is advantage now and then in devoting a lesson entirely to such matters for more exact instruction. Sometimes much explanation

will be needed in regard to the manners and customs of the time. But, here again, a warning is necessary. It is not enough that the allusions be explained. These will remain mere isolated facts of archaeology, until the meaning of the whole sentence is seen in the context.

The comedies are generally less well-known to the boys than the tragedies. It may be that more time in class is allotted to the tragedy as being the more difficult, while the comedy is trusted to explain itself. But, if so, the expectation is not father to the fact. A joke is pretty sure not to be understood. If trifling jokes are explained to the class, they will never be forgotten. The class will be enraptured and conciliated by the thought that Shakespeare could make a pun.

When the play has been read first, 'in great swathes' and then piecemeal, it is well to go back and consider it as a whole lest the general impression should be lost in the details. At this last stage, the teacher can point out the unity of the drama, the interaction of the characters, the happy way in which the main and under-plots are combined and other points of like nature. Unless with very advanced and particularly intelligent pupils, it will be well to avoid any mention of the sources from which Shakespeare drew his materials.

It is highly problematical that the difficulty in the way of the Indian students' appreciation of English literature can be surmounted. Assuming, however, that they can be surmounted, the aim of the high school should be to give the students a good command of English. What little direct training in appreciation is possible in the high school, should be followed, leaving the fuller work of appreciation to the colleges.

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THE NEW S. S. L. C. SCHEME AND THE NEED FOR THE REVIVAL OF THE OLD LOWER SECONDARY EXAMINATION.

BY MR. V. SANKARA AYYAR,
Paramakudy.

THE S. S. L. C. reform began in 1909. There were only five subjects for the Public Examination, *i.e.*, English, Elementary Mathematics and Vernacular Translation and Composition under Group A with two optional subjects under Group C. The remaining subjects, *vis.*, History, Geography, Elementary Science and Drawing were taught under Group B. Naturally many schools began to neglect the teaching of B Group subjects as they were not required for the Public Examination. So, in 1929, a new scheme came into force with six subjects for the Public Examination, one of them being an optional under Group C. To remedy the negligent tendency of the school staff towards the subjects that were not required for the Public Examination, History, Geography and Elementary Science (which were originally in Group B) were brought under Group A. But the syllabus was top-heavy. Even though the department had reduced the minimum for a pass to an unthinkable figure of 25 per cent. the percentage of passes did not increase and the school as well as the presidency average went low gradually. So a new device had to be found out. The department might have easily lightened the syllabus in subjects like Elementary Science, History and Geography. Without doing that, they have altogether overhauled the syllabus in 1934. Now the pupils have to study Elementary Science, etc., only upto the Fourth Form as they do not form part of the Public Examination.

The compilers of the S. S. L. C. scheme have completely forgotten the reasons for bringing the B Group subjects to the A Group. So, many schools will not complete the portion of the syllabus for these subjects from the First to the Fourth Form and may neglect them as they did in the past. The revised Elementary Science syllabus is good as pupils can have a good working knowledge of several things. But which school or teacher is going to complete the whole syllabus is yet to be seen as there is no Public Examination on the subject.

Some time back there was a proposal for the revival of the old Lower Secondary Examination. Many of the headmasters know very well the printed letter dated 14-12-1929 sent to them by Mr. V. V. Parameswara Ayyar, Headmaster, Native High School, Palghat, regarding the revival of the Lower Secondary Examination.

There is, everywhere, the cry that the standard of attainment of pupils of each and every school has fallen very low. Each and every parent wants his son to be educated so that he can earn his livelihood by becoming a clerk or an officer in some department. If we ask any parent why he educates his boy, he will readily give the same answer. The parents sell all their ancestral property and educate their boys to achieve this aim. All our advice to parents telling them that the school imparts general knowledge and is not

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THE NEW S. S. L. C. SCHEME.

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intended to prepare them for Government jobs will have no value.

The present-day pupil never cares for his study. He comes and goes. As some of the teachers say, the pupils purchase their tickets (school fee receipts) for benches in the school theatre (class room). They hear something and go out and come in as they like. Thus they while away their time till they reach the Sixth Form where begins their real difficulty. I shall explain hereunder what their difficulty is.

Before the present S. S. L. C. scheme came into force in 1910 the students had to sit for three examinations—the Primary, the Lower Secondary and the Matriculation. Five years of study before the Primary Examination and three years before the Lower Secondary and again three years before the Matriculation making in all eleven years of study and three examinations ensured a student his fitness for University education. Every one of these examinations was a Government examination and the names of the successful candidates used to be published in the Gazette. The syllabus and text-books were prescribed by the Government and as a result of such precautions, a high standard of efficiency was perceptible in students seeking University education.

To-day, when the student comes unimpeded for eleven years and faces the S. S. L. C. examination for the first time, the new experience dismays him and it is no wonder that the percentage of passes in the S. S. L. C. examination is deplorably low. There are other causes as well that are responsible for this state of affairs. In many high schools, students that have never undergone regular tuition previously are admitted upto the

Fourth Form straightway after a pretence of private examination by the school staff. As it is in the hands of the teachers to examine students for promotion and to find them fit for admission into the classes sought, many students are promoted and admitted with the least scruples. It is no fault of theirs, for, unless the strength of the school is ensured, their position is uncertain. But this only does the greatest harm to the pupils in addition to giving false hopes to the parents.

Again it is in the teachers' hands to finish the portions prescribed by the Department and to set questions for the examination. I am aware of many cases where there is a tendency among teachers to shirk their legitimate work. The major portion of the syllabus is left uncovered—may be due to ineffective supervision—and questions crop up from the lessons done in the class-rooms.

Under these circumstances, when the students reach the Sixth Form, they find it very difficult to reach the required standard. The flaw in the foundation cracks the whole building, and the poor candidate makes invasion after invasion. The parents and teachers cry in chorus to reduce the eligibility rules and it is being done even to a shameful minimum of 25%. What a fall there is between the eligibility rule in 1916-17 and that in 1933-34! We really wonder at the gradual lowering of the minimum and we ask in surprise "What next?"

Thus students scrape through their class examinations with the least effort and succeed in reaching the Sixth Form. They are not in a position to satisfy the required rules of eligibility and the rules have accordingly to be adapted to the present condition. Human nature being what it is, students read

only when an examination stares at them, and a Government examination is certainly preferable to private examinations. After all, 'the child is father to the man' and if young students are not made to sit for Government examinations even when they are young, the situation will be as bad as it is at present. India is not England or Germany or America.

The old Lower Secondary Examination should be revived. The portions taught in the I, II and III Forms should be examined. Only those that pass this examination should be admitted into the IV Form and Higher Grade Training School. The revival of the old Lower Secondary Examination will surely tone up the standard of knowledge of pupils in schools. The lack of uniform tests below the S. S. L. C. Examination has brought such a wide-spread cry that the standard of attainment of pupils has fallen very low. The standard of efficiency in different schools is different. A boy fit for the V Form in a school is found fit only for the III Form in another school, because of the varying standards in different schools.

So, the standard of knowledge of pupils presented for the S. S. L. C. Examination is so backward in many centres, that the pupils cannot understand the meanings of the questions even, and consequently the results are very unsatisfactory. Not knowing the real state of things, the public fall upon the examiners and the examination board. The Universities have also to suffer by admitting this poor stuff getting 25% in the S. S. L. C. Examination.

The Government, I hope, now atleast, will find out the real cause of this disease and remedy it by diagnosing it correctly. Some of the many advantages that result from the introduction of this uniform test at the end of the III Form are that (1) the pupils of the first three forms will study well to get a passport to the IV Form; (2) High School classes and Higher Grade Training schools will get efficient students; and (3) parents will not be under the false impression that their dull children are bright. The old Lower Secondary Examination should be revived at the end of the III Form and the minimum for a pass in the Lower Secondary or S. S. L. C. Examination should be raised to 40% in English, Vernacular and Elementary Mathematics and 35% in the other subjects.

The introduction of formal English Grammar in the high school is a step in the right direction. Now, our pupils are indeed very poor in English. Many teachers too have to study formal grammar now as it was out of the syllabus for the past twenty-five years. I have often felt that the introduction of grammar alone can improve the knowledge of any language. Fortunately the department has opened its eyes and has introduced formal grammar. So, I hope the day will not be far off when the department will take a wise step once again and revive the old Lower Secondary Examination, thereby doing good to the school-going children and their parents.

May God grant them the strength to take a wise step!

THE MODERN VIEW REGARDING THE FUNCTION OF GRAMMAR.

BY MR. V. N. RAO, M.A., B. ED.,

Guntur.

THE importance of determining the place of grammar in language teaching, especially foreign language-teaching, can hardly be exaggerated. Much of the delay in the learning of a foreign language by pupils can be ascribed to failure on the part of both the teacher and the framers of the curriculum, to delimit properly the sphere of grammar. 'Grammar for its own sake' is and has been the motto of many a framer of the English curriculum. That is the bane of English teaching in this presidency. The present writer does not subscribe to the view that grammar should be removed altogether from the curriculum, but that it should be kept in its proper place is his emphatic conviction. An attempt will be made in this article to describe what that proper or legitimate function of grammar is in the teaching of a foreign language. This view of the function of grammar may be called modern, as opposed to the old, view which believed in the motto, 'grammar for the sake of grammar.'

NATURE OF GRAMMAR.

We must consider first the nature of grammar, before we describe the modern view regarding the function of grammar, for the modern view with regard to the function of grammar is largely the outcome of the change of outlook in regard to the nature of grammar.

According to the Greeks, grammar meant the science which studies all the facts of a language; it was more or less a descriptive science. But later on it came to be looked upon as a regulative science or worse still as an art. This change of the function of gram-

mar from that of a descriptive science to a regulative one is well represented in the views of writers like Dr. Johnson. Their view is that we must first of all learn the rules of grammar and then apply them to the language material that we acquire. This is what has been called the artificial or logical view regarding the function of grammar. For it was believed that it is possible to determine correct forms of speech in a language for all time on a purely *a priori* basis. The modern conception of the nature of grammar differs from this and is well represented in the views of such writers as Dr. Ballard and Prof. Sonnenschien. Their view is that grammar is a science and not an art, and that it gives us a number of formulae which will help us to conquer language. Grammar, they say, is useful in so far as it helps language assimilation; that is to say, in so far as it is a science. Grammar, according to them, is the science which helps us to construct sentences correctly. Grammar develops the sentence sense, the polish and the finish that distinguish the writing of an educated man from that of an uneducated one. The rules of grammar, says Dr. Ballard, are not so much the consciously formulated laws which determine the growth and use of language in a race or child as the uniformities found in a language after it has grown. Prof. Sonnenschien says that the rules of grammar like the laws of physics are merely statements of fact and that grammar treats only of "syntactic types." Grammar, then, as a descriptive science, can be placed alongside of such subjects as elementary science, and like them it should be taught in the vernacular. Grammar is a very abstract

subject and as such it should not be taught, prematurely *i.e.*, it should not be taught to pre-adolescents. We must always remember that grammar of itself cannot teach language and that it is academic in basis and so is not a suitable subject for pupils. As Dr. John Dewey says "to pry into the familiar, the usual, the automatic, simply for the sake of making it automatic, simply for the sake of making it conscious, is boredom." *How We Think* by Dr. Dewey).

FUNCTION OF GRAMMAR.

Coming to the function of grammar, we have it on the high authority of Dr. Ballard that it does not help either composition or the avoiding of errors. Dr. Ballard holds that grammar should not be taught before the age of twelve. He advocates the view that even then grammar should be taught with the avowed object of improving composition. As for the early stages, *i.e.*, between the ages of seven and twelve, he thinks teachers should aim at exuberance and growth of the language of pupils. He tells us that in this period there is less danger of the pupils' English (he is speaking of English boys) growing rank and wild than its not growing at all. He also cites experimental evidence in favour of his view. Space forbids us to refer to these experiments in detail, but reference may be made to the statement of Dr. Ballard that it was the emphatic verdict of all those who had observed and compared the compositions of the grammar-ridden schools and the grammar-less schools that the compositions of the latter were incontestably better than those of the former. The view of Ballard is that mere copiousness will secure accuracy and that in the early stages this is what the language teacher should aim at.

This view is controverted by a writer who says that there is no harm in helping the early learner in regard to the structure of language. Inflections and changes of forms

and other grammatical peculiarities, he says, may be taught without a discourse on terminology. This view seems to be more helpful than that of Ballard that mere copiousness will secure accuracy. Thus in the early stages only such grammatical material as would help the pupil in the assimilation of language should be given. This view of the function of grammar may be called the functional or scientific view as opposed to the logical view which emphasised grammar for its own sake. Here we look upon grammar as a descriptive science and not as a regulative art.

Summing up, we may say that the modern view regarding the function of grammar resolves itself into this. In teaching grammar, as anything else, we should have an entirely practical aim. We should not dissect language to kill, but only to understand its structure. Grammar is only the established usage of a body of speakers at a particular time. In the early stages grammar should be taught without bringing in much grammatical terminology. As Ballard says it is impossible for boys below twelve to understand grammatical terminology. So up to that age grammar may be taught without having recourse to grammatical terminology. For instance, pupils can be taught about concord without knowing anything about concord. In the later stages too, grammar should be taught with a view to improve the composition of the pupils, or better still, with a view to give them a practical command of the language. Grammar in the early and later stages should be taught in the vernacular, for, as Dr. West remarks, a grammar written in a foreign language is of doubtful value. Pupils' attention may be drawn to similarities between the structure of the foreign language and their own mother-tongue. This will be found very useful as the grammar of one language does not differ much from that of another, at bottom.

VOCATIONAL INSTRUCTION IN HIGH SCHOOLS.

By MR. C. N. RAGHAVACHAR, B.Sc., B.T.,
Kolar.

SECTION I. GENERAL SURVEY.

Meaning of the term:—By vocational education is usually meant the training of a pupil in a particular vocation to enable him to earn a living. It is this narrow definition of vocational education that has brought about the distinction between cultural and vocational education. The latter is neither narrowly practical nor merely pecuniary. In the words of Prof. Dewey: "A vocation means nothing but such a direction of life activities as renders them perceptibly significant to a person, because of the consequences they accomplish. The opposite of this is neither leisure nor culture but aimlessness, capriciousness and absence of experience on the part of the individual and idle display and parasitic dependence upon others, on the part of the Society."* Every individual of a society should have occupation, which is a concrete term for the continuity of the race—its cultural past, etc.

Vocational education is an old idea:—Training for an art or a profession is no modern innovation. In fact, education in the past has been much more vocational in practice than at present. The separation of liberal education from professional training can be traced back to the times of the Greeks, who made the distinction specially on the division of classes into those who had to labour for a living and those who were relieved of this necessity. Sparta trained her boys to become efficient soldiers and citizens. The various communities and sects in India were allied

closely with the professions. Even the present so-called cultural or liberal education existing in India was introduced originally with the idea of preparing young men for service in public administration. Though it may have a liberalising influence, the chief aim was to get a job. It was only with this idea that many parents sent their children to schools and colleges. Till latterly, it was a common practice for very many parents to equate an S. S. L. C. with a twenty-five rupee job, an Intermediate with a forty and a B. A. with a sixty rupee job and so on. This tendency has now diminished not because the public has recognised the true aim of education and is anxious that it should be sought for only for its intrinsic worth, but because there are no employments available for an M. A. or a B. A. and the money value of the present schooling has deteriorated terribly. This accounts for the gradual fall in the strength of not only the colleges but also of the high schools (*vide* Table No. I.)

Modern education is education for leisure only:—The majority of the students that even now take a high school or collegiate education, do so with the hope of getting a white-collared job, which does not produce a sweat of the brow but only a sweat of the brain. For more than a century, emphasis in education has been placed upon the preparation for leisure, that is, for life's activities outside the province of vocation. Education has been so far dominated by the consideration of leisure that it has neglected to care for the needs of vocations. Millions have been educated for a leisure which they can never enjoy for want of

* Dewey: *Democracy and Education*, p. 359.

proper vocational qualifications. The content of education for leisure has been derived largely from a past and a foreign conception of the nature of the demands of leisure. Modern education does not make men really cultural in the sense of training them in a capacity for expanding constantly one's experience and useful service to the community. On the other hand, it has made men abhor labour as demeaning and servile and fit only for the illiterate. An educated man is ever after a soft berth which gives him a living without much exertion but with plenty of leisure. That all labour is sacred and that there is nothing intrinsically demeaning in any kind of occupation as such and only men make it so, are never realised. Reading large meanings into simple things is one great function of education and this, the present system fails to develop in the young. Vocational education is the only remedy to remove this narrow conception of labour and leisure. Vocation regulates the amount and distribution of the leisure time for the individual and often the environment of such leisure.

The demand of democracy :—"The development of worthy wants or ideals and standards of leisure that condition favourably the efficiency and happiness of those who in vocation produce utilities to meet them is a function of democratic education."* It is admitted on all hands that democracy is gaining ground in all parts of the world and that is the ideal for all aspects of human endeavour. Democracy means something more than the right to vote. It means the abolition of special privileges and the securing of equal opportunity for all 'to live well and usefully.' Men are not born equal. They

are born with unequal capacities, mental and physical, and into varied environments. They are equal only in the right to happiness and duty of service according to their capacities. It is on this basis that Socialism is built up in Russia.

Everybody cannot do everything efficiently. The happy life of service demands a division of labour. Vocational life is the real centre of all endeavours towards happiness. Every vocation viewed from the stand-point of service is a source of inspiration and happiness and a necessary point in the economy of human life. Such a conception can be created only by a proper vocational training. It was Plato's conviction that an individual was happy and society well organised when each individual was engaged in those occupations for which he had a natural equipment. It was also his conviction that the primary office of education was to discover this equipment to its possessor and train him for its effective use. Though several centuries have elapsed since Plato, there has not been any organised, systematic attempt on the part of the schools—at any rate in India—to help each individual to discover his aptitudes and interest, so that he may take his right place in the economy of the State.

SECTION 2. THE PRESENT CONDITIONS.

Vocational misfits :—At present our colleges turn out graduates quite as blind to the opportunities of life and their aptitudes for particular modes of it as do our elementary and high schools. In the midst of hundreds of occupations, a city boy or girl sees much of only a few and can try his or her hand at fewer still. The choice of vocation is restricted usually to the calling of his or her relations or friends irrespective of the particular capacities of the individual. Very often this

results in vocational misfitting. People with great capacity for organisation and leadership, for want of proper guidance, knowledge or opportunities, get into subordinate positions of a routine kind and the best in them is never available to the society. In the words of the famous German poet, Goethe, "What mortal in the world if, without inward calling, he takes up a trade, an art or any mode of life, will not feel his situation miserable? But he who is born with aptitude for an occupation, finds in the pursuit of it the fairest portion of his being."

Training citizens for a living is a function of the State :—The State now protects the individual in his life, health and property. It looks after his belongings, supplies him with good water, keeps the streets clean for him and creates parks for his enjoyment. It has established schools for his education, museums and botanical gardens for the leisurely study of animals and plants of the past and the present. In short, it does everything for him except preventing him from becoming poor. The State offers very inadequate protection against poverty. In the olden days of India when a man was born into a profession his life's vocation was generally fixed and the necessary training was available by apprentice course in the family itself. Though this system was defective in a number of ways and cannot be copied under modern conditions, it guaranteed training in at least one occupation and gave the individual a training in a vocation which made him lead a useful life and earn his living. The hereditary occupation no doubt did not often give free scope for the choice of a vocation but the hereditary culture and a vocational environment from the moment of birth prepared the individual to adjust himself to the environ-

ment. But the home is no longer the centre of industry. The number of cottage industries that were prevalent in the country are ruined due to economic and political reasons. True apprenticeship is only an institution of the past and cannot be revived *in toto*. It is a better duty of the State to prevent people from falling prey to poverty by enforced idleness or ignorance, than to think of constructing poor homes and orphanages after the people are driven to idleness and poverty.

The growing discontent of the misfits :—The greatest evil of modern life is not found so much in poverty and in the suffering it entails as in a number of persons having callings which make no appeal to them and which are pursued merely for the money reward that accrues. Because, such misfits constantly provoke one to aversion, ill-will and a desire to slight and evade. Neither men's hearts nor their minds are in their work. Those that are rich and much more wealthy than they need or deserve, are cut off from equality and generality of social intercourse. They lead a life of indulgence and display and use their wealth and position in ways which impress force and superior position. Naturally every one's aim is to get rich and lead a life of luxury and ease. When this life cannot be had for many, it is natural for the disappointed and the poor not to harbour good feelings towards those in a better position. This is the cause of so much unrest in labour, the fight between the capitalist and the labourer, the employer and the employee, the high class and the low class. If this system continues for a long time, there cannot be any peace in the country. In the interest of the future peace of the State or the world, it is absolutely essential to prevent or at

* Eaton : *Education and Vocation*, p. 84.

least diminish the number of vocational misfits by proper training.

The blind alleys:—Another defect of modern conditions is found in a number of occupations which at start look very promising and hopeful but later on are found to be blind alleys. The young man out of sheer ignorance or force of circumstances takes to professions like that of an office boy, a bus conductor, a clerk, and latterly of a teacher, and finds that they lead nowhere and that the prospects are nil when it is too late for him to change his occupation. It is only a vocationally untrained boy that is forced to enter such alluring blind-alleys and lead a life of discontent and misery.

The play of parsimony in trade, etc.:—From the point of view of the society, the vocational training is more essential than from the view-point of the individual. The modern educated young man is unfit for any profession except that of a clerk or a school master. The result is that many of the most vital occupations in the society like trade and industry are in the hands of men without a broad conception of life. This has acted detrimentally to the interests of the trade as well as of the society. Hotels have become a necessity in modern life, due to quick locomotion and wide travel. Man does not live by bread alone but bread is a vital part of one's life and the hotels supply that vital part. But who manage these factories that cater to the bodily needs of thousands of men daily? What is their ideal in running them? The hotel proprietor is usually an uncultured man with only one purpose in life, that of making as much profit as possible. He does not care to find out the food value of the materials he uses, nor the effect they have on the customers; but is mainly concerned with their cheapness and the margin of profit they allow. He knows that coffee drinking has

become a habit, though a vicious one. He is aware that it has the same grip on one addicted to it, as alcohol has on the drunkard. He fries sugar and uses it along with coffee, producing a thick decoction and a pungent taste which people begin to like gradually and makes them its slaves. But an ounce of this fried sugar is enough to kill a hen; it is so poisonous. But the hotel-keeper is either ignorant of it or does not care about its evil effects on the consumer so long as it enables him to make good profit. This is true of very many other products of that factory which come out as food. Neither their purity nor freshness nor wholesomeness is guaranteed. All this because the business is looked upon only with a selfish view of profit and not with the larger interest of the society. The so-called educated man who has a thorough theoretical knowledge of hygiene and health is the first to suffer from the evil effects brought about by the caprice and ignorance of the hotel-keeper.

What is true of hotels, is more true in regard to bigger industries and trades. The capitalist is concerned mainly with his profits and does not care how he makes it. He exploits labour through merciless competition, adulterates the material, passes mediocre material as good, deceives the public, sets a low standard of appreciation of materials. The educated man is ignorant of the trade and its conditions; he is unable to distinguish between good and bad products, because the present schooling is divorced from real life and has nothing to do with materials used in it. White bread made of maize flour unfit even for the consumption of street dogs, is made and sold in thousands of pounds for human consumption. Fat is passed off as ghee; artificial silk is preferred to cotton; Japan cloth is bought as Swadeshi Khadi. Neither the labourer in the factory gets his due share either of money or of leisure; nor can

the honest trader nor the good workman hope to make a decent living by selling genuinely superior stuff as people have lost the capacity to distinguish the best from its imitation.

Ideal of the Queen-bee:—It was Abraham Lincoln who said of America in the last century "that the old general rule was that educated people did not perform manual labour. They managed to eat their bread, leaving the toil of producing it to the uneducated. This was not unsupportable to the working bees, so long as the class of drones remained very small." This was true not only of America but also of India. Except for a few who followed a purely literary education, the majority were born into professions and were trained for them. The conditions have now changed. With greater facilities for education, everybody has a chance of getting liberal education. But every educated man is only anxious to be the queen-bee. Their number is too great for the society to maintain them without labour on their part. The system of education should necessarily change, so that even the queen-bees know how to labour.

Effect of science:—In the first place, the democratic conception of community extols manual labour and commercial occupations. Service is a much-lauded ideal. Substitution of machinery for hand labour, aggregation of capital and subsequent concentration of manufacturing on a large scale have made modern commerce and manufacture no longer domestic and local but world-wide. The manufacturer, the banker and the captain of industry influence the State to a larger extent than the politician or the poet. Education should necessarily change with the changing conditions of modern life and the schools should adapt themselves to social needs.

Economic exploitation:—Foreign exploitation has depleted the resources of the country

as industry has ceased to be an empirical rule-of-thumb procedure handed down by custom. As the educated man has not entered these fields in large numbers, they are still in the hands of people who are ignorant of the modern tendencies of the West. In spite of hundred and fifty years of modern education, our agriculture has stayed where it was and there is a lot of wastage in the art and method of not only its execution but also in the sale of its products. The raw products are exported and finished goods are imported in greater quantities. The educated man has not put his shoulder to this aspect of social life and unless he is trained properly and equipped to take up trade, agriculture and other so-called non-liberal professions, the wealth of the country can never improve. Till then, the educated man will only be a vehicle for dumping foreign goods into the State while the peasant will be a tool to prepare raw products to be sent out to foreign lands. Scientific application to industries, agriculture and trade can alone save the country from ruin. The demand for such education as will acquaint the workers with the scientific and the social bases and bearings of their pursuits, is too imperative to be neglected any longer.

SECTION 3. THE NEEDS OF THE STATE.

Having considered the need for vocational education purely from theoretical considerations, it is necessary to find out if the students are anxious for such training, the parents ready to help them in that direction and the merchants to co-operate in the enterprise.

High Schools:—A consideration of the problems of the high school helps greatly the solution of the above points under discussion. The high school stage is most vital in the scheme of education as it deals with the boys in the adolescent period and is linked both with primary and collegiate education. Any

reform introduced in this stage, is bound to have its influence both on the lower and higher grades of the educational ladder.

TABLE I. *Strength of High Schools* *
(Excluding girls' High Schools.)

Year	No. of Schools	Strength
1924-25	22	6935
1925-26	23	7234
1926-27	23	7093
1927-28	23	6710
1928-29	25	6380
1929-30	28	6549
1930-31	29	6528

From Table I, it is clear that though the number of high schools has increased by more than 25 per cent. between 1925 and 1931, the strength of the high schools has diminished by nearly 10 per cent. in the same period. This may be due probably to the realisation on the part of the public that a high school education as it exists merely increases the number of the unemployed and the unemployable.

TABLE II. *Results of S. S. L. C.*
Examination. *

Year	Number Examined	Declared E. C. P. S.	Percentage
1926	2347	1124	48
1927	2311	915	40
1928	2017	637	32
1929	2158	709	41
1930	2203	767	43
Total	11036	4152	37.6 Av.

From a comparison of the results of the S. S. L. C. Examination in various years (*vide* Table II) it is seen that not more than forty (40%) per cent. of the young men appearing for the S. S. L. C. Examination are on an average

* Administration Reports.

declared as fit for University education. The University in its report regarding the causes for poor English of the college students, has stated that a good percentage of even those that secure E. C. P. S., is unfit for higher studies in the colleges. It is therefore essential to free the high school course from the domineering ideal of preparation for the University and introduce changes to make it worthwhile and useful for the majority of its students as well. High school education has so far been concentrating its attention on the needs of the minority, with the result that all its products have a dislike for manual work and are fit only to become social parasites.

Opinion of Students. The following tables prepared from the data supplied by about six hundred students of the top-most class in the various high schools of the State, in reply to a questionnaire sent by the writer on behalf of the Mysore Secondary Education League confirms the above statement.

TABLE III. *Place of future vocation.* †

Place	Number	Percentage to the total No. of replies
Cities	270	50.4
Towns	139	25.9
Villages	89	16.6
No idea	38	7.1

Half the number of students desire to settle down in cities like Bangalore, Mysore, Madras and Bombay. These students cannot live efficiently in large cities unless they are trained in the proper knowledge and use of materials and avoidance of blind alleys. It is only then that they can guard themselves against the keen competition and exploitation of a city life. The Government itself is exploiting the

* Prepared from the data collected from about 600 students.

graduates by offering them low salaries. Such a condition would not have arisen if they had been trained for specific vocations.

Nor do those who are willing to stay in rural areas have an adequate training in the high schools for such work. According to the census of 1931, there are 16,483 villages in the State as against 107 towns and cities with a respective population of fifty-five lakhs against nine lakhs. These villages have an agricultural population of more than eighty per cent. (80%) who mainly maintain the whole social, economic and administrative organisations of the country. Yet the high schools cannot give back to these villages more than 16 per cent. of their students as willing workers. Though this may be partly due to increased facilities and better social amenities provided for in the cities and towns, the present system of education is also largely responsible for creating such a feeling among the boys. No scheme of reorganisation can be effective unless it takes the village conditions and needs into consideration.

TABLE IV. *Service.* *

Nature of service	No. anxious to get into that service	Percentage
Government	236	44
Private	76	14
Independent	189	35.3
No idea	35	6.7

Causes for preferring Government service:— In spite of the unemployment of a number of graduates and others who have finished their schooling, the desire to get into Government service has not diminished. Government is

* Prepared from the data collected from about 600 students.

the only biggest organised unit that can employ the products of our schools and colleges. The students with the exception of the few trained in technical schools and colleges, are not fit for any other kind of work either by the amount of literary knowledge they have or by the habits inculcated by their education. Young men lack perseverance, thrift, punctuality, patience, enterprise and a number of other qualities essential for success in trade, industry and other independent professions. The majority of our students have no self-confidence to stand on their own legs or to work in rural areas. They lack initiative and very often even the physical vigour necessary for an active out-door life. It is no wonder that under these conditions of education nearly 45 per cent. of the students are still anxious to get into Government service, though they are aware that it cannot be had easily and that even if it can be had the remuneration is far smaller than what they can expect in other walks of life. The power and prestige associated with service in Government are some of the other causes for this kind of mentality. 'Dignity of labour' is yet an ideal not even dreamt of in actual living by many. This is again due to the kind of training given in schools and the false conception that the leaders in the community, the educationists and statesmen, still have, regarding cultural education. Culture need not be opposed to, and cannot be divorced from, vocation. Any occupation when followed by worthy ideals, gives ample scope for real exposition of culture. Culture is not something dissociated from living; it is not merely a thought process. The test of true culture is in its manifestation in actual contact with the everyday world. If culture cannot stand the temptations of the work-a-day

world and seeks shelter only in libraries, temples and closets, we can as well bid adieu to it. Every human being can and should be trained in a cultural atmosphere, whatever his vocation may be. The sublime pieces of art and architecture surviving the ravages of time and the onslaught of alien conquerors, is a standing monument to show that in ancient India, culture was not dissociated from life.

Suggestions by students :—The students who have given their opinion regarding the nature and effect of the kind of education they are having, have suggested that the present defects of high school education may be removed by adopting the following methods. Instruction in rural industries has to be given from the middle school course. In every high school there should be provision for vocational courses and each student must be trained compulsorily in one of those subjects chosen by the student. The number of technical schools in the State has to be increased. A technological college providing for advanced instruction in the vocational subjects taught in the high schools, has to be immediately started.

Suggestions of parents and merchants :—Some of the merchants of the State whose opinion was also sought in this connection, have shown their eagerness for the modification of the present state of affairs in education. They suggest that an elementary knowledge of general technical education be given compulsorily in the Fourth Form and an advanced training in the special subject of the student's choice be given in the higher forms, that the present hours allotted for vocational instruction be increased, eliminating at the same time the unnecessary waste of time and energy now in vogue; that the

present number of high schools be reduced, giving place to more technical schools with the vernacular medium. The factory owners do not at present employ any appreciable number of high school men. They feel that University graduates without technical qualifications are absolutely useless for business and trade concerns. But they are not so despondent of the high school products, probably because they have still some chances of learning new habits. The parents of students have also expressed similar opinion. Thus it is seen that the parents and merchants are anxious that young men should have some kind of vocational training in schools.

TABLE V. *Further training.**

	Number	Percentage
Father's profession	96	18
Industrial schools	298	56

Need of Vocational Instruction :—Only 18 per cent. of the students wish to follow the hereditary occupations, mainly agriculture, trade or artisan's work like that of a goldsmith. The rest, a huge percentage of 82, desire to have a change and try other walks of life for which they have no specific training or heredity. Nearly sixty per cent. of the students are anxious to join a commercial, an agricultural or an industrial school, to prepare themselves for specific vocations. Hence the problem of vocational instruction is very urgent.

The present scope for vocational instruction :—The only technical schools that demand at least high school qualification for admission at present are the Hebbal Agricultural School, the Medical School, the commercial schools and the Mechanical Engineering School, most of which are situated at Bangalore.

* Students' opinion.

TABLE VI. *Number of Vocational Schools.**

Year	Total Number	Nature
1925	35	This includes the School of Engineering, commercial schools, agricultural schools, industrial schools and training institutions for teachers.
1926	36	
1927	36	
1928	37	
1929	38	
1930	42	

TABLE VII. *Strength of Vocational Schools.**

Name of school	1925	1926	1927	1928	1929	1930
1. Engineering	221	222	236	260	279	285
2. Commercial	628	619	424	381	371	511
3. Medical						
4. Agricultural	31	36	51	51	75	88
5. Training	392	729	705	753	666	766
6. Industrial	1181	1465	1130	1130	1130	1419

The demand and scope :—Of the above, the industrial schools and the training institute are purely meant for those who have passed the Lower Secondary Examination or have lower qualifications. The agricultural schools include in addition to the Hebbal School, the rural agricultural schools, open to lower secondary candidates. The Engineering School admits students who have finished the Fifth Form course to lower grades of mechanical and electrical engineering classes. Hence the schools or the technical courses requiring a minimum qualification of a pass in the S. S. L. C. (i.e., E. P. S.) cannot take in on an average more than three to four hundred students every year. Nearly 1500 students are declared annually by the S. S. L. C. Board as having the minimum qualification for admission into the above schools. Besides these, a number of graduates and Intermediates are also of late seeking admission into these schools, and year after year it is becoming extremely difficult—almost impossible—for an ordinary E. P. S. to get a seat in any one of them. More than one thousand students are thus yearly thrown out of the high schools without any idea regarding their

* Administration Reports.

future vocation and without any opening for further training. The choice of a technical course in the case of the fortunate that get admission into it, does not depend upon any natural aptitude but merely on their luck in getting the seat by influence of the gods below or above. They have had no chance of discovering their aptitude in the high school and they have themselves to the course they are able to get. If a boy finds that the course he has obtained, does not suit his temperament or capacity, for fear of public opinion at home and outside, he tries it for one or two years and then discontinues. Even if he succeeds in completing the course, he will only be a vocational misfit.

Present scope of vocational subjects in the high schools :—With a view to modifying this handicap, the Department of Education introduced about sixteen additional subjects in the high school. Out of them, the vocational subjects are Book-keeping, Business Correspondence, Typewriting, Shorthand, Printing, Weaving, Electric Wire-Winding, Smithy and Drawing. The group also includes purely literary subjects like Mathematics, Sanskrit and Persian. The following table giving the number of candidates that took various additional subjects for the S. S. L. C. of 1932 explains the effect of this attempt.

TABLE VIII. *S. S. L. C. (1932).†*

Subject.	Number	Percentage
1. Additional Mathematics	1151	40.4
2. Book-keeping	783	27.4
3. Drawing	395	13.9
4. Business Correspondence	156	5.5
5. Other vocational subjects	366	12.8

Every student undergoes training in Drawing for four periods compulsorily in the IV Form, unless he selects Sanskrit or Persian as an additional subject in which case he is not

† S. S. L. C. Board's Report.

taught drawing at all but studies the additional subject for all the three years of the high school course. The remaining pupils select any one of the remaining additional subjects in the V Form and have four periods of instruction per week in the subject of their selection for two years. Though theoretically the scope of the choice is wide, in practice it is not possible for every candidate to select from such a big group. Very many high schools in the mofussil have provision for teaching only additional mathematics, drawing or book-keeping. It is only in Bangalore that a student can take any vocational subject he likes.

Opinion and suggestions of head-masters :— The head-masters of the high schools who were requested to give their opinion regarding the influence of the present vocational subjects, feel that the present courses in the vocational subjects do not give a sufficient vocational bias to make the students seek

further training after leaving the high school and that they do not certainly fit the pupils to earn a living immediately. The time allotted for some of the courses is insufficient to give a thorough training and the scope of the course is meagre in others. Students are therefore neither trained for a vocation nor do they get a vocational bias. There is no provision in the form of advanced technical schools where some of the subjects can be pursued with advantage. The provisions that exist for further instruction in some subjects, are too inadequate to meet the demand. Another defect of the present system is that a student is rarely given an opportunity to change the vocational subject, after having once selected it. Due to these causes, the introduction of vocational subjects has not solved the problem which vocational education is intended to solve and a reform is therefore necessary.

(To be continued.)

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RAMESH.

BY MR. D. P. RAO,
Lalitpur, U. P.

RAMESH had just come back home after appearing at the B. A. Examination of 1930. It was the spring season. Nature appeared all gay and bright with flora and fauna. The various fruits and flowers combined together in spreading sweet fragrance all around, adding to the freshness of the bracing and salubrious air. One may call it as the most beautiful and pleasant time of the year. But Ramesh had no heart for such enjoyment. He could not take advantage of playful nature. He had a serious proposition before him. Success at the examination was the chief burden of his thought. At times he would entertain every hope of success, but at another moment he would cling to 'chance,' the god of all men, who are too often swayed by fear rather than duty. "It might," said he to himself, "throw me this way or that." His mind, now and then, oscillated between hope and fear, certainty and doubt. He was sometimes even inclined to question the mentality of the examiners. "They are after all," he used to say, "human beings inconsistent and imperfect, with failings of their own. Masters of Arts and Sciences, not of passions and prejudices, they all have got weak and gloomy hours. They may hold the answer-books at lack-lustre periods and may be excited at the sight of a slight flaw, a slip of pen, bad spelling or bad construction, absurd thought or clumsy turning of the page. And with their slightest irritation of the brain, I may be ruined and undone." Ramesh was, thus, a duality of lower and higher moods as all rational beings are. If there were moments of depression to be got

over, he was, at another moment, filled with cheering and promising thoughts of faith and hope. "Why not depend on the good sense of my masters of Fate?" remarked he. "They have grown wiser heads by experience and consequently would like to override their whims and caprices in the due discharge of their duties." He was busy in weaving the threads of his imagination, making and unmaking them according to the understanding of the hour. He went to the post office daily to enquire if the results of the University were out. On casting a hurried glance at the contents of the *Leader* and finding that the results were still in the womb of time, he came back home or saw his friends for a while to relieve himself of the impending worry. He had, however, no easy time for him. Days and nights passed in calculation, waiting and watching. But those, placed in charge of the destinies of the young scholars, were sitting in the hills with every comfort and luxury that man and nature could provide. Little did they care to know of the storm of fear and anxiety that was beating about the breasts of so many young men who were perhaps thinking of building their future on these little incidents of their careers.

At last the day came. The *Leader* in its momentous issue dated 7th June 1930 published the results of the Agra University. A crowd of boys was waiting at the post office. Ramesh too was present at the window. The post was sorted hurriedly. A copy of the *Leader* was given by the courtesy of the post-master to one of them. Ramesh was eager to have a look at it; but was waiting

for his turn. Some one at last burst out saying, 'Ramesh passes in third class from the Agra College.' Ramesh was filled with ecstasy. But he wanted to satisfy himself by seeing his name with his own eyes. He could, however, tear the crowd and find his name among the successful candidates. He ran back home transported with joy, and communicated the news to his parents who themselves were filled with great pleasure and satisfaction. He was now at ease. His doubts and fears had all come to an end. Now letters of congratulations poured in from friends and acquaintances on his well-deserved success. Ramesh passed a week or so in answering letters, expressing his thanks for their good wishes. But joy or sorrow is a short-lived feeling. The swiftly flowing current of time washes away either, bringing us to the shores of new thoughts and aspirations of life. Ramesh, accordingly, had another problem, more serious than ever, to face. "What should be done now?" was the question of the day, confronting him. To be a graduate is one thing in these hard days of expensive education and then to find out an opening for oneself is another. But Ramesh was a man of the world. He had all the time observed the sad plight of graduates coming out every year from the various University centres and then knocking about for some job at the employer's doors. He therefore considered the matter in a serious manner. But nothing succeeds like success. Hope once encouraged will build castles on a point. Ramesh too might well be justified in holding high hopes for his future.

Ramesh's father was a Zamindar, but his circumstances were meagre. He could not afford to bear the expenses of his son's education any longer. One day Ramesh was

sitting outside the verandah of his house, thinking over his future plans. "What should be done next?" was the query of his much excited brain. "Shall I join the medical line?" said he to himself. "No, certainly not, this cannot be possible, requiring as it does five long years' training and considerable expense. Engineering is quite a rich man's avocation. Other lines too are almost full and blocked. As regards Government service, it is a long way off, full of botheration and useless effort, since at every step there is a competitive examination which means sheer waste of time, money and energy and ultimately yields no good. I should in the face of so many walks of life prefer to be a teacher; but that too is a serious affair. To be a graduate only is no qualification. Get yourself trained for the profession and then see the columns of the *Leader* for a vacancy for days and months. Pleaderships are the only profession that can suit me under the existing conditions. But that too is a two years' business. Where shall the money come from? Father will hardly approve of the idea. And even if he does, he will hardly be in a position to defray the expenses of my education." Ramesh was just busy in this cast of mind, thinking over the pros and cons of the various lines open to him, when his father arrived. "What are you about, now, Ramesh?" asked his father. "It is time to consider what you are going to do. You are a graduate now," Ramesh replied, "This is just the point I am discussing myself."

Father—"Did you go to Tahsildar Sahab?"

Ramesh—"No sir, not yet. What for?"

Father—"Just to ask him what you should do now for yourself. He is a veteran Tahsildar and can suggest a thousand avenues of fortune for you."

Ramesh—"I know him well. For all his qualification and experience, he is not a graduate. I am already above his grade. If recommendation is forthcoming, I can be a Deputy Collector direct."

Ramesh's father got a little excited at hearing this bold and forward answer. He consequently burst out saying, "Raw product of a University, do not be so impudent. You are still young for all your grave hood and fur. Tahsildar Sahab will teach many young men like yourself for years together. True knowledge must teach humility and reverence. But you seem lacking in either. You are only a master of books. This is a student's affair. Experience comes by practice and years."

Ramesh went a little ashamed, but it was too much for him to slight his hard-earned degree. He considered it as a God-sent boon. He said, "All the offices go to a graduate these days."

Father—"So far so good. I also wished you could fill one as early as possible."

Ramesh—"But I have no mind for service. I propose to study law and go in for that line."

Father—"Law? It is a most crowded profession these days. I can wager if it can pay in these hard days of depression and cut-throat competition. Then, you know that Vakils are growing like cucumbers these days."

Ramesh—"But all Vakils are not on the same footing. There are men and men. Talents will always differ and so will the fortunes of each. I am sure, father, I shall make my way through. It requires perseverance and a pushing nature to shine and prosper in every

line. As for good-will, we are already men of established reputation."

Father—"Well, you are a graduate now and can understand things better for yourself. So choose any line you may; but see that all depends on you. At any rate you have to stand on your own legs; for you see that I shall not be able to help you any longer in the pursuit of your further studies. My means are scanty and whatever resources I had, have been well-nigh exhausted in your education," Ramesh replied, "This is alright, father, I see it all very well. I shall now be the last man on earth to burden you with that question. I shall now shoulder the burden myself, if I care at all for the prosecution of studies." Ramesh now thought over the whole matter seriously. He had two alternatives before him. Between service and law he had to decide for himself. A conflict arose in his mind. He considered both the sides critically. "The profession of law is, indeed, losing its charms day by day," observed he, "but then there is hardly any other line but is subject to a keen competition. Life, these days, is a constant struggle for existence and man must adapt himself to his environment. It is in contest that the heroic in man asserts itself. To make the drama of life really interesting, there must be a villain or a pang. A war-horse will never bear the yoke, if he is set to the broken and crushed wheels of a carriage. He will emit fire at the war's rattle mixed with the dying groans of men at arms. I must, therefore, look up and prepare for the best or the worst that may happen. As for service, it is all a pick-thank and petti-fogging business. One has to stoop awfully low to serve one's ends and objects. Then there is the question of recommendation which comes after long weak-kneed flattery and crouching

courtesy. Besides, service is not the badge of my tribe. My ancestors have all along been independent. And so why should I break a time-honoured tradition? But there is one thing more. Supposing that I go to attend law at the Agra College, how shall I pay my way? I shall do a little coaching work. I can be a teacher as well. Teachership is no service. It is only living a student's life on a better scale. Agra will be the best place for me. It is only an hour's work at law and the whole day will be mine. If God wills, everything will be agreeable to me."

The colleges were about to open. Ramesh had, eventually, little or no time to lose in coming to a decision. With a hundred rupees, he joined the Agra College, with resolution, heart within and God ahead. In the meanwhile he put up in one of the hostels. He got his admission to the Law Previous Class and paid all the dues. The month of July ended without any discomfort to him. With August the problem of maintenance arose. He wanted to secure some private tuitions; but being a sheer stranger to this line of work, he met with disappointment rather than with success. One day, Ramesh was reading papers in the Reading Room of his hostel. He was always first to see the advertisement columns of the papers. Fortunately, when he was reading the *Hindustan Times* of Delhi, his eyes fell over an advertisement. "Wanted an experienced graduate to serve as a part-time tutor. He must be strong in English and Mathematics. Interview is essential. Pay according to qualification. Applications must reach Box No. 17, c/o *Hindustan Times*."

The same day Ramesh sent up an application to the above address. Great emergencies

sometimes effect the most effective remedies. The ways of the Almighty are inscrutable. It is during moments of gloom and despair that the unseen hand of God comes to relieve the needy. On the third day Ramesh got a letter asking him to see the gentleman concerned with the advertisement personally with all his certificates and copies of testimonials, at 8 A.M. Ramesh read the letter with mixed feelings of joy and fear. His spirits sank ten degrees below. He felt a little nervous considering that he was not good at interview. Besides he was a man of few words. A successful interview requires a clear brain, ready wit and conversation and a good personality. But Ramesh had none of them. Nevertheless he got himself ready for the interview. He dressed himself properly and took with him all the necessary certificates and letters of recommendation. He reached the place some fifteen minutes before the appointed time. There were fifteen candidates more waiting for the interview. Ramesh was astonished at the crowd of visitors. He began to feel all the more nervous considering that he would have to compete with them all to ensure his success.

The employer happened to be a first grade Deputy Collector and Land Acquisition Officer getting Rs. 750 per month. He was a man of refined tastes, holding enlightened and progressive views. Although he was unconnected with education, he took a keen interest in educational matters and had a broad and sympathetic outlook on life. The sad plight of the educated or ill-educated young men moving about with the object of service with their frustrated efforts, had made his cheeks glow with compassion. He was, therefore, always ready to help them, if he could, whenever any chance arose in his department or

elsewhere. How often he used to observe on the modern Education and its inadequacy in administering to the needs of the present-day young man! "The problem of unemployment," he used to say, "is getting acute day by day and it will have to be solved, sooner or later, in the best interests of the country. The multiplicity of the Universities providing a purely academic type of education, without any regard being paid to the vocational training of the youth, seems to be responsible for this national wastage. The time has arrived when there should be a halt to the modern system of education that is undermining and sapping the strength of the youth."

When all the waiting candidates had assembled outside his bungalow, he called them one by one. Ramesh was the fifth to appear for the interview. In his turn, he entered the room calmly and took his seat in the chair provided for the purpose. The officer took out his application. "You are Ramesh Chandra," said he. "Yes, Sir," replied Ramesh with a great obliging courtesy and a demeanour showing as if he was ready to answer another possible question. "And you belong to Agra District," remarked he. "Yes, Sir," said he, "I belong to this very district. My residence is in a village close to Ferozabad. My father owns a little landed property but with scanty means. He has given me education upto my B. A. Examination with a great sacrifice and can no longer pull me through it. I have a mind to study further. And just to shift for myself, I have submitted this application to you for your kind consideration." "That's alright," said the officer, "you are a graduate. Are you not? What were your subjects at the last examination?" Ramesh replied, "Sir, I am a graduate taking up History and Sanskrit as my optional

subjects." "I see," said the officer in a meditative tone. "But, Mr. Ramesh Chandra, can't you teach mathematics to my boy? He is a little behind in the subject and I wish that he should make up his deficiency therein. He is going in for the High School Examination of the Allahabad Board this year. This is the beginning of the session. There is, I believe, ample time for a teacher to coach him up to the mark in the subject." "Mathematics," said Ramesh, "I can teach; but well, to be frank and honest with you, sir, and with the boy, I must say that I can only help the boy to help himself. I learnt mathematics long ago while I was at school and have since been out of practice. In the Intermediate I had Logic, History and Classics. As regards other subjects, I shall be able to do full justice and coach him up with remarkable efficiency. The truth of my remarks can be verified in this very month if but a trial be given to me." "That may be so," replied the officer with some ease and satisfaction. "The boy is not going to be a mathematician. He is already doing the subject at school. What I want is simply that he should do at least five or six sums daily under the supervision of his tutor. At school he gets only 45 minutes. What can the poor teacher teach in such a short period of time and what can the boy learn and grasp? So, this point is almost settled. Now for your remuneration. What is the minimum amount you would like to accept? There are, you know, fourteen candidates more waiting outside for this very engagement. I may tell you that for a temporary vacancy that had, of late, arisen in my office, as many as 150 applications poured in and after full consideration a graduate strong in English and Mathematics had to be kept at Rs. 30 p. m. When all is said, economic

motive works supreme in everyday life and we are all governed by the great law of supply and demand." "That is right," replied Ramesh. "But my case is rather different and would hardly admit of those economic considerations. I must get at least as much as will enable me to pay my way. I am living in a hostel too. I have to pay for my boarding and lodging apart from the college dues, every month. And for all this I have to manage myself. This is the chief point I wish to impress upon your good self."

The officer listened to this part of his conversation very closely as if he was deeply moved to pity and inclined to give his decision then and there. But he restrained himself at the moment. He shook hands with Ramesh telling him that he would give his best consideration to the matter in question and let him know his decision within a week or so. Ramesh thanked him and left the room and came back to his residence. The officer then saw the other candidates and took down short notes, about each, for his own guidance. Though the other candidates were as good as Ramesh, yet the obliging courtesy and a sort of sad predicament and helplessness which was visible on his countenance, impressed the employer much. Consequently the choice of the employer fell on Ramesh, who got a letter of appointment on the third day of his interview. The letter read thus:—"With reference to your application and personal interview, I have to inform you that you are appointed Tutor to my boy on Rs. 40 p. m. Please see your way to join the post at once."

(Sd.) BRIJENDRA SWARUP,
Dy. Collector and
Land Acquisition Officer,
Agra."

Ramesh read the letter of appointment again and again, to his great pleasure and surprise. With folded hands, he lifted his head and said, "Great is the bliss of God. When we are under a cloud of darkness and despair, then surely bursts forth the golden ray of Hope from the heavens to dispel the gathering mist from our midst." Ramesh thanked the officer for the kind offer through a letter expressing therein his acceptance. He joined the appointment the next day.

With this engagement in hand, Ramesh passed the session quite comfortably.

The annual examination of Law finally approached. He appeared and passed the examination and was placed in the Second Division.

Ramesh spent his vacations at home. His father was glad to see the progress of his son in education and was all the more gratified to know that his son was learning to stand on his legs. The college opened on the 17th July 1931. Ramesh again joined the very college, that had sent him successful at the Law Previous Examination. A day after his arrival at Agra, he went to see the officer and to ascertain if he was to continue his work as a Tutor as usual. The officer was pleased to see Ramesh. He congratulated him on his recent success and then said, "Mr. Ramesh Chandra, I shall let you know when I require you again for coaching the boy. The boy has just been relieved of the sham. I do not wish to burden him with extra work at this time. I have to see to his health too. If a boy turns out a sheer physical wreck either from a school or a college, the very education remains self-condemned. I am however glad to note that you have all along been industrious and punctual. I shall be right glad

to know if I can be of any use to you. Tell me, Ramesh, frankly, what I can do for you." Ramesh heard these words with a little disappointment; but his disappointment was to a certain extent relieved by the kind courtesy and the prompt readiness of assistance that were held out to him. Ramesh at once composed his features and said in a calm and collected manner, "I have already been much indebted to you, Sir, for this assistance. But for your timely help, I would have hardly maintained my studies. I owe all this to your good self."

The officer once more thanked him for his complimentary words concluding that he would like to see him from time to time. Ramesh promised to see him now and then and after expressing his gratitude once more, he bade him adieu. Thus Ramesh returned more satisfied than disappointed at losing his easy job.

Ramesh was, now, on the look-out for some other engagement. After a month, the post of a teacher in the Rajput High School was advertised and applications were invited from trained and experienced graduates and undergraduates, capable of teaching English, History and Geography to the higher sections of the school.

Ramesh read the advertisement and made a note of it. He went to the Dy. Collector in the evening. The Dy. Collector was at home, lying in an easy chair, having just returned from the court.

Seeing Ramesh, the Dy. Sahib asked him to come in and said, "Well, Ramesh Chandra, How do you do? I hope everything goes well with you." Ramesh thanked him for his kind enquiry and sat down in a chair lying close by. "What can I do for you, Ramesh?" remarked the Dy. Sahib. "It is a month since you saw me last." Ramesh at once took the cue and explained the intent of his visit. "To-

day I saw an advertisement," said he, "in the *Leader* for the post of teachership in the Rajput High School. I have a mind to apply for the said post. They require a trained man; but I believe I shall prove quite as good a candidate for the post. I searched some private tuitions here and there; but they offered me only Rs. 8 p.m. and required two hours' work from me. I had to decline the offers with thanks considering that the remuneration was quite inadequate to the work to be exacted from me. I therefore wish to try to secure this job. The applications are to be addressed to the Manager. I believe it is possible for you to help me on this occasion." The Dy. Sahib replied, "I shall be glad to do what I can; but not to-day. You see, I have just put off my clothes coming as I do from the court. I am very much done up to-day. You had better come up to me to-morrow this very time. I shall then like to take you to the Manager and get you introduced to him." "That is alright," said Ramesh. "It will be most kind of you to take so much trouble for my sake. I am sure I shall succeed in my undertaking by your kind intercession."

Ramesh, thanking him once again, took leave of him and came back to his hostel with every prospect of success.

Next day, Ramesh approached him at the right moment. The Dy. Sahib ordered his coachman to get the carriage and pair ready. He then drove with him to the Manager's house. The Manager was much surprised to see the Dy. Collector at his house.

Dy. Sahib—"Raja Sahib, I have come to introduce to you this gentleman who is a candidate for a post of teachership alleged to be vacant in your school. He worked as a tutor to my son for a year and I found him very painstaking. To the best of my knowledge he bears a good moral character and

good manners. I can safely recommend him to you. You must have received applications by this time."

Raja Sahib.—"Some sixty applications have already been received in the office and more are expected since the advertisement is to be published three times on alternate days."

Dy. Sahib.—"That I know. There is a tremendous rush every time. The question of unemployment is getting very acute these days. But for all that I would request you to consider his case. He seems to be a young man of some go-ahead nature. He is a law student at present, but will serve your purpose. At least he may be given a trial for all he is worth."

Raja Sahib.—"Dy. Sahib, I can't forego your words. But I may just mention that law students are not taken in the educational line. They are birds of passage serving their ends and then flying away elsewhere, leaving work and the school at God's mercy."

Dy. Sahib.—"Well, you are the master of the situation and as such are a better judge of these matters than I. I have no mind to influence your decision in a matter which I can little appreciate. I only wish that he may be considered in case there be any scope for his employment."

Raja Sahib.—"I have only remarked this by the way. I can try the man for a few months and see how he discharges his duties. Please rest assured, Dy. Sahib, your words cannot be ignored."

The Dy. Sahib thanked him for the promise and drove back to his bungalow with Ramesh.

The Dy. Sahib said, "Ramesh, there is a chance for you. You will be taken as far as I

believe." Ramesh replied, "I hope so, but that is all on account of your effort and influence; otherwise a law student these days is a wholly unwelcome figure in the educational line."

Thereafter Ramesh got down on the way leading to his hostel.

The Dy. Sahib drove back to his bungalow, feeling a sort of inner satisfaction at having done a good turn for the day.

Within a week, Ramesh received a letter from the Manager of the school, stating that he was appointed teacher in the school as a temporary measure on Rs. 50 p.m. and that he should join the post immediately. Accordingly he joined the school as a teacher and remained there as such upto the end of the session. Thus another year passed and Ramesh was able to maintain himself without any kind of pecuniary difficulty.

He appeared at the Law Final Examination of 1932 and passed it.

On the receipt of the news of his success, he hastened to Agra to see the Dy. Sahib and thanked him a thousand times for his prompt and ready assistance.

The Dy. Sahib expressed his great pleasure at his achievement and wished him all success in his new profession of law.

Ramesh returned home with an impression stamped on his memory that if man is true to his flesh and blood, he should never forget his benefactor.

Ramesh's father, too, was highly pleased to learn of his son's success at the examination. He was all the more pleased to know that his son proved resourceful enough to have had the power of going his own way. With a great satisfaction in his mind and a ripple of joy in his face, he said, "Ramesh, you have

after all achieved your object in life. I have now little anxiety on your account. Now comes the question of practice. You will have to undergo six months' training, I think, according to the new rules of the High Court.

Ramesh replied, "I owe nothing to myself. That is all due to your blessing and kind inspiration. As for the achievement in life, it is but a little chapter finished. The great book of life keeping a long future hidden from us, is still to be gone through. There is still six months' apprenticeship to be undergone, under an advocate as notified by the High Court. Rs. 300 as a minimum fee for the training will be charged. But all this rests

with the sweet will of the advocate. He is an essence of discretion in this matter.

Father.—"Well, that is no difficulty. I have got many acquaintances as advocates. I can put you under anybody's training. All the time I have given cases to them. Will they not do this much for me now? Even if it comes to fees taking, I won't mind it."

Soon afterwards his father took him to an advocate practising at Agra, for the purpose. The advocate was glad to keep Ramesh under his training.

After six months' probation Ramesh became a pleader at a court.

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OUT OF THE SHADOWS.

BY THE REV. D. T. ROBERTS, M.A., L.C.P.,

Cuttack.

DURING our childhood days we often used to repeat:

"I have a little shadow
That goes in and out with me,
But what can be the use of him
Is more than I can see."

Shadows aroused in us mixed feelings. We liked to see them grow bigger and bigger, and at other times smaller and smaller, but there was some fear in our response. At times we wished to know what these shadows meant, but as we tried to get a glimpse of one, we were terrified. As we grew older, we became amused and even curious at these "Ghosts" which followed us. Shadows are in direct contrast to light. Man's life may be looked upon as a gradual development out of the shadows. Life appears dark and gloomy at first. Infancy is the period of greatest potentiality. During this period man changes from a very helpless creature into the best equipped of all the species. Development is a succession of different stages and is conditioned by an inherited disposition. For some individuals, development is most rapid while for others it is very slow. If this development is checked, serious disturbances are the result. These disturbances cast a shadow over the whole of life, and these shadows hinder the smooth working of the mind.

The dawn and morning of life is a period of unfolding; but if this evolution is impeded, the morning shadows become blurred and uninteresting. As soon as a person becomes capable of conceiving the idea of sin, he

conceals it. This concealment acts like a psychic poison and may result in alienating the person from playing his part in the society to which he belongs. A private repression resembles a burden of guilt which cuts off the unfortunate possessor from the joys of social life. Soon the person conceals this burden from himself and forgets that it is part of him. It splits off from his consciousness and exists in the shadow of his mind, where it is almost impossible for it to be corrected or interfered with by the conscious mind. This is what psychologists call a complex. It is an independent part of the mind which exists underneath and develops a peculiar fantasy life of its own. It wells up from beneath and in sleep this activity shows itself as a dream, the nocturnal shadow of the mind. All psychic contents which either approach the threshold of consciousness from beneath, or have sunk only slightly beneath it, have an effect upon our conscious activities, and offer resistance to the functioning of the mind in everyday experiences. The significance of the morning of life undoubtedly lies in the development of the individual and his entrenchment in the outer world. All factors which hinder this leave a shadow behind them.

The complex psychic life of a child is of course a problem of the first order to parents and educationalists, but when normal, the child has no real problems of its own. It is only when a human being has grown up that he can have doubts about himself—doubts which increase the shadows and prevent his

smooth re-action to life. So doubt is human, but to remain in a state of doubt is inhuman. We are all thoroughly familiar with the sources of the problems which arise in childhood. For most people it is the demand of life which abruptly puts an end to the dream of childhood. If the individual is well educated, the transition to manhood and a career may take place smoothly. But if it clings to illusions that are at variance with reality, then shadows and conflicts will surely arise. No one takes a step into the whirlpool of life without reactions emanating from the back-ground of life. If this back-ground is false, full of conflicts and repressions, the individual fails to overcome the difficulties that make him a balanced personality. This adaptation is often a question of exaggerated expectations, of under-estimation of the calls of reality, of unjustified optimism and of a negative attitude. One could compile quite a list of false pre-suppositions which give rise to the earliest conscious problems.

It is not always the contrast of subjective pre-supposition with external facts that gives rise to inefficiency in our reactions. It may as often be inner psychic disturbances. These inner disturbances exist when things run smoothly enough in the outer world. The psychic balance is hindered by the feeling of inferiority or a potent sexual impulse which springs from an unbearable sensitivity. If we try to extract the common and essential factors from the great variety of shadows that exist in the mind, we meet in all cases with one peculiar feature: a more or less patient clinging to the childhood level of consciousness. Something in us wishes to be a child. In this leaning we have something like the inertia of matter,

Modern psycho'ogists, and especially psycho-analysts, are repeatedly throwing light upon these conflicts and complexes, and revealing how damaging their effects are upon the normal working of the mind. Numerous examples could be cited to prove the injurious results of this clinging attitude to a previous stage in our life's development.

A doctor was hindered in his professional duties by such a childish fear. He found great difficulty in talking to his patients in the privacy of his consulting room. He could only find ease of mind when all the doors of his consulting room were left open. This was not conducive to the demands of his profession. Patients refused to be consulted when the doors of his consulting room were left open; they desired privacy behind closed doors. This complex worried the doctor and he determined to fathom it. He consulted an analytical expert and the reason for this reaction of his was discovered. It appears that, when he was quite young, he was shut in a small room in which there was a cat.

This frightened him very much and the fear was suppressed. This experience existed in the depths of his mind and re-asserted itself in later life when he was consulting his patients. The remarkable feature of this case, like all similar cases, was that when the real reason was found, the fear of enclosed spaces vanished.

Life has many burdensome responsibilities that tax human strength, but the greatest responsibility is the rearing of a child in the way it should go. Educationalists are becoming increasingly aware of this task and are availing themselves of the results of modern research so that the children committed to their care may develop normally. They are endeavouring to rid the mind of its shadows and to bring these shadows to the light of reason so that socially efficient individuals may be the much desired result,

UPTON SINCLAIR.

By MR. K. P. PADMANABHAN THAMPY, B.A.,
Trivandrum.

(Continued from page 553.)

V

THE year 1905 was an epoch-making one in the eventful life and literary career of Upton Sinclair. He wrote a book which changed his career completely. In the Socialist weekly, *Appeal to Reason* there appeared a full length novel of the Chicago stockyards, serial after serial, the author of which was Sinclair. Jack London called the book "The Uncle Tom's Cabin of Wage-Slavery" and wrote a rousing manifesto calling on the Socialists to rally to the book. Said he: "It is alive and warm. It is brutal with life. It is written of sweat and blood, and groans and tears." The Editor of the *Appeal to Reason* read the book with enthusiasm and found out the genius of the author. The spirited author was encouraged by the understanding Editor to write a powerful book about Wage-Slavery and agreed to advance \$ 500. A farm was bought for \$ 2,600, \$ 1,200 cash and the rest on mortgage. Before starting to write *The Jungle*, Sinclair went to Dr. Savage and poured out in profuse strains his woes on the good head of the devoted friend. Dr. Savage agreed to lend a thousand dollars. Referring to *The Jungle*, Sinclair says: "I wrote with tears and anguish pouring into the pages all that pain which life had meant to me." October 1904 saw Sinclair at Chicago. Seven weeks he lived with the wage-slaves of the Beef Trust.

Sinclair's *Jungle* is one of the most powerful books in all the world's literature. Vivid realism characterises this sensational book

from beginning to end. The book tells the sad and serious struggles of a group of poor emigrants, who lived and worked in the notorious Chicago stockyards. The poor labourers who led a hand-to-mouth existence, that too with extreme difficulty, struggled hard and desperately to own a home and to bring up their children somewhat decently. Poor souls! all their hopes were shattered. They were ruined by a clever conspiracy of unavoidable and miserable circumstances. Ultimately the group perished as the result of unbearable hardships. The book is a terrible and tragic panorama of the working classes. Such is the pitiable and heart-breaking, yet highly realistic, picture drawn by Sinclair. The *Jungle* was published in book form in 1906. The book easily became a "best seller" in America. The brilliant success achieved by the *Jungle* brought its poor, young, aspiring and struggling author thirty thousand dollars. The volume was translated into more than seventeen languages. The world knew what a tremendously horrible picture Industrial America presented. Sinclair fearlessly let the cat out of the bag. The *Jungle* created a mighty literary sensation and aided "the momentum which resulted ultimately in the passage of the Pure Food Laws." Theodore Roosevelt, the then President of the United States, was shocked by the *Jungle* and he ordered investigations to be made into the charges levelled against, in the book. Roosevelt's Secretary, one day told Sinclair that over a hundred letters about the *Jungle* were addressed to the President. Sinclair says: "I

aimed at the public's heart and by accident hit it in the stomach."

As a Socialist, Sinclair took hold of the opportunity of agitating against the packers and large business interests in general. They were roused by Sinclair's free and fearless criticisms. They exerted all their influence, fair and foul, to keep the valiant agitator under check and hold him out as an irresponsible, hot-headed and foolhardy sensation-monger. Sinclair tried his best. His indomitable spirit urged him to fresh fields and pastures new. The newspapers did not support him, nay, they, thoroughly mobilised by the large business concerns, damaged Sinclair. So his success was but little. His reputation received a rude shock. President Roosevelt said to Sinclair: "Mr. Sinclair, I have been in public life longer than you and I will give you this bit of advice: if you pay any attention to what the newspapers say about you, you will have an unhappy time." Sinclair did not withdraw himself and consequently he suffered.

The wonderful success achieved by the *Jungle* brought a decent fortune to its author. With this, Sinclair founded that fall at Englewood, a co-operative undertaking called the Helicon Home Colony. The young writer, who had been victim to starving for six years and who now had a fortune of \$ 30,000 and who considered investing money as an immoral thing, decided to spend the money for the betterment of mankind. So he founded the Colony. The enterprise proved to be a signal success with children. There were fourteen children in the Colony and they were taken good care of. The "Kiddies" were taught to live a social life. The mothers actively cooperated in the care of the children, probably as against the common practice

in the land of money and wine. The newspaper men of New York took it for granted that Sinclair started the Colony with the sole purpose of having plenty of mistresses handy. The newspapers described the Colony as the "free love nest." Sinclair has written thus referring to this and cognate matters: "Reporters came in disguise and went off and wrote false reports; others came as guests, and went off and ridiculed us because we had beans for lunch." Forty adults with a high standard of sexual morals lived in the Colony. The colonists for the most part were young literary couples who had one or two children. Prof. W. P. Montague of Columbia with his wife who was studying for Medicine and their two boys lived in the Colony. Soon the Faculty Club of Columbia denounced him as a "red." Two runaway students from the Yale University, Sinclair Lewis and Allan Updegraff, came to the Colony and received wholesome education there.

This laudable enterprise was wiped out of existence all on a sudden. Fire swallowed the Colony one Sunday morning. The furious flames that swept over the Colony, Sinclair saw with tears in his eyes and anguish in his heart. Says he: "If I live to be a hundred, I shall never forget that sensation; it was like a demon hand sweeping over me—it took all the hair from one side of my head, and a part of my night gown." Thus the beautiful Utopia crashed in flame and roar and ended in a glow.

The tragic end of the Helicon Home Colony in which Sinclair had put all his money, made him a poor man again. He spent what he had earned too suddenly. Sinclair was compelled to commence a wandering life, meanwhile writing a couple of novels—the *Money*

Changers and the *Metropolis*. The first was published in 1908 and the second in 1907. *Metropolis* was an attack on New York society and *Money Changers*, a novel of the Wall Street. These two novels marked a low ebb in the literary powers of the author. Perhaps the reason for this should be found in the writer's ill-health, poverty and serious opposition from newspapers and business magnates. All these powerful attacks tormented Sinclair very much. The books are important for they throw much light on the author's mind at that time. The celebrity which resulted from the *Jungle* had made Sinclair an interesting figure. The capitalists viewed him with deep interest, great curiosity and grave concern. The labouring classes almost worshipped Sinclair as their true friend. The literary world focussed all its attention on the author wielding a furious and powerful and astoundingly satirical and true-to-life pen. Sinclair had time to study the life of the rich during the days of his fame. The rich endeavoured their best to lionise Sinclair and win him over, but failed miserably in their attempts to seduce the spirited writer who was avowedly against all the vagaries of the wealthy and the privileged. Sinclair could have easily led an idle and luxurious life if he had only wished for it. It all happened thus, as he has said in his *Brass Check*, a later novel, "A group of capitalists had come to him, with a proposition to found a model meat packing establishment; they had offered him three hundred thousand dollars worth of stock for the use of his name." Sinclair remarks thus as to what would have been the case had he accepted the generous offer: "If I had accepted that offer and become the head of one of the city's commercial show-places, lavishing full page advertisements upon the news-

papers, I might have.....been invited to be the chief orator at the banquets of the Chamber of Commerce and the National Civic Federation, and my eloquence would have been printed to the extent of columns; I might have joined the Union League Club and the Centenary Club, and my name would have gone upon the list of people about whom no uncomplimentary views may be published under any circumstances. At the same time, I might have kept one or more apartments on Riverside Drive, with just as many beautiful women in them as I wished, and no one would have criticised me. No newspaper would have dropped hints about 'love nests.' " This reveals at once the extreme sincerity and strong determination of Sinclair. Poor as he no doubt was, the attractions which pomp, wealth and luxury in their idleness, vanity and transience offered, could not corrupt Sinclair. Uncommon mental and moral strength he possessed in abundance. Sincerity and scholarship went hand in hand with him.

"The reason the *Metropolis* is a poor book is not because I did not have the material, but because I had too much. Also I wrote it in a hurry, under most unhappy circumstances. The career of a novelist is enough for one man, and the founding of colonies and starting of reform organisations and conducting of political campaigns had better be left to persons of tougher fibre. It took me thirty years to learn that lesson thoroughly; and meantime I lost the reading public which the *Jungle* had brought me." Such are Sinclair's thoughts on the *Metropolis*. The book sold eighteen thousand copies. While Sinclair was writing this book, the *New York Herald* offered him his own price, to make another investigation of the stockyards.

Sinclair turned the job over to Ella Reeve Bloor with the result that "a great story was killed."

Sinclair's health threatened him considerably. Customary indigestion and headaches became virulent and frequent due to overwork which Sinclair heeded not. His wife suffered from a severe attack of appendicitis. Doctors pronounced the verdict of death on Sinclair's young wife. He "literally pulled her back through the gates of death" by taking her to the Battle Creek Sanatorium. It was during this severe ordeal in domestic life that Sinclair finished the *Metropolis*. The book was declined by Doubleday, Page and Co., who had made a fortune out of the *Jungle* and used it to become the richest and most reactionary publishing house in the country. "I bade them a sad farewell" Sinclair concludes.

Michael Williams, one of the Helicon Hall Colonists, thrown out of job, took shelter under Sinclair's roof. Sinclair's wife was unwell and at the sanatorium. Soon he joined her at the Battle Creek. Mike, as Michael Williams was called ordinarily, went to the health resort to get himself cured of a nasty Tuberculosis. He was an ardent Socialist and a writer of no little talent. Sinclair and Mike put their heads together. They all undertook a tour—"a literary caravan" as they styled it. All expenses of Michael were liberally met by Sinclair. Mike agreed to repay out of his future earnings. Sinclair and Michael worked at a health book. With the book, their common property, Michael hurried to New York. F. A. Stokes and Co. accepted the book and an advance was promptly paid to Michael, but he did not share it with Sinclair. Soon Michael fell to bad ways and Sinclair's at-

tempts to raise up and train a new Socialist writer ended in shame, disappointment and loss of money and energy. The five thousand dollars which Sinclair had received as advance for his *Metropolis* were spent out in the "Utopia on the Trek," as the literary caravan organised by himself in collaboration with Michael was called. No wonder Sinclair, the bad businessman, got "stuck" again!

Soon Sinclair was favoured with an advance from a publisher and the writer took his family to Lake Placid and rented a little "Camp" and settled down there to write the *Money Changers*, a sequel to the *Metropolis*. "The *Money Changers* did not come up to my hopes, mainly because of the unhappy situation in which I was living," writes Sinclair, in justification of the defects of the book and stresses that "unhappy situations are a factor in the lives of authors" to be taken note of. Of course this has always been a controversial point in literary criticism.

During this time Sinclair had "the good company" of H. G. Wells. Upon this Sinclair has expressed himself thus:—

"For myself I had good company that summer; a man whom I had met two years ago, at the time of the *Jungle* publication. An Englishman, twelve years older than I, he had come to New York, and sent me a letter of introduction from Lady Warwick, our Socialist Countess. H. G. Wells was the traveller's name, and I had been obliged to tell him that I had never heard of him. He sent me his "Modern Utopia," inscribing it charmingly, "To the most hopeful of Socialists, from the next most hopeful." I found it a peerless book, and wrote him a letter which he accepted as a "Coronation." I had him with me that summer in the Adirondacks, by the

magic of eight or ten of his early romances, the most delightful books ever made for a vacation. "Thirty Strange Stories" was one title, and I smiled patronisingly, saying that a man could write one strange story, or may be half a dozen—but thirty—! Yet there they were, and every one was strange, and I knew that I had met a great imaginative talent. For twenty-three years since then I have heard the highbrow critics belittle H. G. Wells; but I know that with Bernard Shaw he constitutes a major period in British letters."

The *Money Changers* was published and sold about the same as its predecessor. Sinclair was ahead again. His health was shattered and he feared he was on the verge of a nervous breakdown. "An unhappy domestic situation" sprang up and Sinclair needed complete rest. His partner in life desired to live alone at New York and solve her own problems. Sinclair was receiving invitations much too often from Gayferd Welschire and George Sterling, two of his friends, to spend some time with them. "So I set out over the pathway of the Argonauts in a Pull man Car" writes Sinclair about his trip.

(To be continued.)

ANDHRA UNIVERSITY.

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SHAKESPEARE—KING RICHARD THE SECOND, with Introduction and Notes, by J. C. Rollo, M.A. ...	1 12	SHAKESPEARE—OTHELLO, with Introduction and Notes, by M. Macmillan M.A., D.Litt. ...	1 6
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JUNIOR RED CROSS WORK DURING EPIDEMICS.

By MR. T. KRISHNAMOORTHY, B.A., B.ED.,

Alur.

WHAT do the Junior Red Cross members do when plague or cholera breaks out? Here is a question. But we shall ask another question, what has any Junior Red Cross group done when an epidemic broke out in the locality? I shall try to answer the second question which may prove to be a sort of answer to the first question as well.

It was just after rains and just before winter we heard of a rat fall in our village. The rat fall took place somehow in one of the teachers' houses.

The Junior Red Cross boys and girls were seen very busy. Every one of them knew the cause for the death of the rat and what they had to do first. Not only did they get themselves inoculated but persuaded all other children in the school and also outside to get themselves inoculated. Some boys prepared posters taking suggestions from the teachers to explain to the people of the village the cause for plague and the preventive measures to be adopted. The village was ordered to be vacated by the Collector. Then some of the members went to the various camping places to study the localities to see if they were outside the danger zone. Some prepared plans of the places and some attempted to write good sketches of the sheds which were erected by the people.

The ignorant villagers are very often reluctant to report the case of a rat fall and would keep it a secret if a person was attacked by plague. The Junior Red Cross members helped very much in bringing to the notice of the authorities all such cases.

The members of this group set apart a day for the purpose of disinfection. With the help of one or two teachers they prepared a good quantity of lotion and thoroughly disinfected the whole school building to set a good example to the villagers. In all these activities the members were learning what they had to do in time to come in a larger scale. Here is a way for the teacher to put children in the right line. This organisation will be of such great help to the teachers of all schools.

Another year we had very heavy rains. Every tank and pond was full to the brim. The countryside appeared very pleasant. The streams were full of water and there was the cool refreshing breeze. But unfortunately most of us were not allowed to enjoy this season, because of the outbreak of severe malaria.

The water which gave life to the green grass and strength to the trees and pleasure to all of us breded plenty of mosquitoes, man's enemy and persecutor. Everywhere we could hear the music of these creatures and some of us protected ourselves with curtains to have undisturbed sleep.

Slowly one after another became a victim to the fever. Then the Junior Red Cross group met in the school premises to consider the measures to be taken. They decided to purchase out of the funds they could collect and to supply quinine free to the poor people of the village. Each member was asked to maintain a register wherein he had to record the names of persons and the number of pills issued and when they were free from fever.

Some of the members wanted to do some work by way of collecting statistics. The village was divided into wards and each ward was entrusted to a member and he went from door to door and collected the required information such as how many persons suffered from fever and how many died and how many were cured completely and how many still had fever.

Some very interesting conclusions were drawn. We could prove that dirtier localities suffered more and that still there were many people who were not completely free from the fever and many other facts.

This is the kind of training every teacher has to give to the students in India, especially in the rural areas. We have heard of 'remaking of rural India' and the important part the teacher has to play. Here is the Junior Red Cross, an organisation which will be so helpful to the Indian teacher in giving the right kind of training to the future citizens of India.

PLACES OF EDUCATIONAL INTEREST.

XXXV. SIMLA.

By MR. L. N. GUBIL SUNDARESAN,
Trichy.

FROM one who has travelled more or less over the world, a few impressions of the summer capital of India may prove of interest to readers. Simla or 'Shimle,' as it is locally called, is a hill station which combines business with pleasure. Situated at a mean elevation of 7,200 ft., it is justly famous for its bracing air which is said to possess the property of restoring to health and vigour, in a comparatively short period of time, the jaded nerves and appetites of visitors from the plains. It has an interesting history, but this is not the place to trace it, from an obscure village early in the nineteenth century to a prosperous city in the course of seventy or eighty years.

Simla is famous not only for its bracing air but gathers its real importance from the fact that it is the capital of the Indian Government and the local Government of the Punjab during the summer months. It has been estimated by competent authorities that the Government of India have spent more than Rs. fifteen crores in laying out the station and in buildings of various kinds, ranging from the Viceregal Lodge on Observatory Hill, an object of very great beauty, to the workshop of paramountcy, Gorton Castle, where more than two thousand officers, assistants and clerks, to say nothing of red-coated chaprasis, gather every day for the discharge of work. The building houses the Home, Legislative, Finance, Education, Health and Lands Departments

as also a number of their attached and subordinate offices such as the Central Board of Revenue, the Archaeological Department, the office of the Director-General, Indian Medical Service, the Bureau of Public Information, the Imperial Secretariat Library, etc. The building was completed in 1904 and forms a prominent landmark in and around Simla. Other Government buildings are the P. W. D. building which houses the Railway Board and Commerce Departments, and "Kennedy House" commonly known as "Uncle Tom's Cabin" in which work the Industries and Labour Department and subordinate offices too numerous to mention. The last and probably the most handsome of all is the building which houses the Foreign and Political Department. This lies on the road leading to and near the Viceregal Lodge. Other places of interest are "Snowdon," the residence of the Commander-in-Chief, which was once the property of Lord Roberts, the Legislative Assembly Chamber, commonly known as the "Gas House," and "Barnes Court," the residence of the Governor of the Punjab. There are some half a dozen first class hotels. On the lighter side of the picture, we have the Gaiety Theatre and two very good Talkie Houses. Simla has many churches, Christ Church, which dates from 1844, St. Andrew's, commonly known as 'Scot's Kirk,' St. Mark's Union Church and also a newly built Catholic Cathedral. The Hindu temples are situated for the most part in the Lower Bazaar, but

they are also picturesquely distributed on tops of various hills, the most famous being those of Jakko, Prospect Hill Elysium and Taradevi. There are also two or three Muhammadan mosques, but none of any outstanding architectural beauty such as one finds in the plains. Round and about Simla are many places of interest. These include the valley of Annandale where we have the annual summer races, Gymkhanas, and the Durand Football Tournament. For week-end excursionists there are the top of Jakko, the Chadwick Falls, a pretty place called the "G'en" and of course Mashobra and Wild Flower Hall.

It is interesting to reflect as to what might

happen if the Government of India decided to abandon Simla, as the station owes all its importance to the patronage of the supreme Government, but that time is not yet. It would be inappropriate to close this article without a reference to the famous Simla Mall, along the length of which there are, from the Telegraph office to Combermere, an unceasing line of shops. Time was when trade and commerce flourished in Simla, but it is sad to reflect on the many closed doors, some of which once housed the oldest established firms in Simla but which succumbed to the world-wide depression. Let us hope that revival in trade will once again enable them to open their doors.

Books useful for Intermediate and B. A. Degree Examinations.

A HISTORY OF INDIA, by C. S. Srinivasachariar, M.A., and M. S. Ramaswami Aiyangar, M.A. Part I—HINDU INDIA, with six maps. (Prescribed as a text-book for the Intermediate Examination of the Andhra University)	RS. A.	2	8	LECTURES IN LOGIC, by Rao Bahadur S. Mangesh Rao, B.A.	RS. A.	2	8
Part II—MUHAMMADAN INDIA—by the same authors	3	0		STUDENT'S HAND-BOOK OF PSYCHOLOGY, by the late Dr. S. Sathianadhan, M.A., LL.D. (2nd Edition)	1	0	
INTERMEDIATE GEOMETRY (Theory and Practice), by M. Satyanarayana, M.A., L.T., and K. S. Patrachariar, M.A., L.T. 4th and Revised Edition	2	8		QUESTIONS AND ANSWERS ON ELEMENTARY LOGIC, by M. Macmillan, B.A.	1	0	
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EXAMPLES ON ALGEBRA, containing F.A. Algebra Papers for 17 years, 1849 to 1905, by the same author	0	8		F.A. MATHEMATICS—ALGEBRA AND TRIGONOMETRY PAPERS, with Solutions and Notes from 1901—1903, by B. Hanumantha Rao, B.A.	0	4	
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INTERMEDIATE PHYSICS, by the same author	4	0		INTERMEDIATE MODERN HISTORY being Out Notes of Lectures, by P. S. Ramakrishna Aiyar, M.A., Professor of History, Maharaja's College, Ernakulam	1	0	
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NEWS AND NOTES.

FOREIGN

THIRD INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE ON
PUBLIC EDUCATION.

The Third International Conference on Public Education, organised by the International Bureau of Education, was opened at Geneva on 16th July. The following Governments accepted the invitation transmitted by the Swiss Federal Council: Belgium, Bulgaria, Chile, China, Colombia, Costa Rica, Czechoslovakia, Denmark, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, Egypt, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Guatemala, Holland, Hungary, Irish Free State, Italy, Japan, Latvia, Lithuania, Norway, Panama, Paraguay, Persia, Poland, Portugal, Roumania, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Turkey, United States of America, Uruguay, while the Government of Cuba was represented by an observer. The League of Nations and the International Labour Office sent observers. Although unable to be represented at the Conference, the Ministries of Education of Albania, Estonia, and Northern Ireland sent a report on the educational movement in 1933-34. The success of this third Conference has proved the advisability of continuing these annual international gatherings on Public Education. The officers elected by the Conference were Mr. Marcel Nyns (General Secretary of the Belgian Ministry of Public Instruction) as President and Dr. George Zook (United States Commissioner of Education, Department of the Interior, Washington), Assal Bey (Egyptian Consul-General at Geneva) and Dr. Ph. Idenburg (Chief of Division at the Central Bureau of Statistics at the Hague) as Vice-Presidents.

The results of the Conference cannot be better expressed than in the words of Professor Piaget, Director of the International Bureau of Education, in his closing speech, extracts of which are given below:

"The reports presented by each delegate on the educational movement in his country, have enabled us to make, as it were, a tour of the educational world. The most striking impression remaining in our minds is at the same time the similarity and the originality of these reports. The problems are practically the same everywhere, but the particularities and the solutions are very different. The questions and discussions which have arisen out of several of the reports have shown the interest which we have all taken in this mutual information.

"As regards the three questions on the agenda, you have approached these with both courage and prudence. You are delegates of your Governments. Now a Governmental Conference could have resulted in imperative conclusions or even in the preparation of conventions. Neither the International Bureau of Education, which convoked the Conference, nor you yourselves have wished this. From the opening of the Conference, we have insisted that this was not our intention, and you have had the wisdom to avoid carefully this imprudence, realising that to-day any pressure in the matter of education would probably lead to contrary results. What you have done is to vote recommendations showing the value of the different possible solutions. And, I may state that these recommendations are stronger than any which we expected.

"Your recommendations insist on certain general principles, such as a minimum of seven years of compulsory education, which deserves to become absolutely general, or such as the necessity of co-ordination between legislative measures relative to education and those relative to labour.

"You have also stressed questions of school organisation, for example—co-ordination between the various types of instruction, the choice of teachers specially capable of giving a continued

education beyond the age of fourteen years, and the different types of secondary schools. Finally, you have touched upon certain problems of methodology, for instance—the curricula of this continued education and the necessity of giving guidance to the pupils.

"These recommendations, I am sure, will have a considerable influence. They will be discussed by the educational world, and will stimulate the action of those in authority."

The annexed resolutions were adopted at the Third International Conference on Public Education.

Economies in the Field of Public Education.

The Conference,

Being convinced that it would be dangerous to train up a future generation of citizens inadequately prepared physically, intellectually and morally, and therefore incapable of facing the formidable problems caused by the reorganisation of the world,

(1) Draws the attention of the Governments to the serious consequences which economies in the field of education are likely to have and suggests that attempts should be made to economise in other fields which are not so closely related to material and spiritual progress;

(2) Notes with satisfaction that resolutions of this nature have been adopted by the Executive Committee of the International Bureau of Education, by several large international educational associations and conferences, and also by the International Committee on Intellectual Co-operation and the Assembly of the League of Nations;

(3) Noting with regret that certain countries have been compelled, by circumstances due to the economic crisis, to introduce retrenchments, often of serious consequence, in the field of education, the Conference draws the attention of Governments to the following considerations:—

(a) the most dangerous reductions are those made *en bloc* without regard to the usefulness or efficiency of the institutions affected;

(b) it would be wiser to represent contemplated restrictions for study to the authorities responsible for public instruction rather than to have them determined by the authorities primarily responsible for the budget;

(c) reductions in the salaries of the teaching body constitute a serious danger to the recruitment of teachers who ought to be an elite, since to them is entrusted the future of the nation;

(d) no reduction should be made which would injure the physical health and the morale of the children—healthy school premises, school canteens, playing fields, holiday camps, the various social agencies, which have given a new orientation to the school of to-day and which are more necessary than ever in a period of depression;

(e) any reduction of school equipment likely to jeopardise the output of education should be avoided;

(f) the size of classes should not be increased to the point of impairing the efficiency of instruction nor of compromising the health of the pupils;

(g) school inspection, upon which partly depends the competency of the educational system in a given country, should be kept up to a high level of efficiency.

Admission to Secondary Schools.

The Conference,

While recognising that diversity of circumstances compels different countries to adopt different systems of organisation,

Believing that a certain number of pupils admitted into secondary schools are incapable of benefiting sufficiently from the regular secondary curriculum,

Believing on the other hand that the overcrowding of institutions of higher education, and

the extent of unemployment among the intellectual classes are likely to cause dangerous unrest among young people,

That this overcrowding of institutions of higher education is due, among other causes, to the very laudable desire for general culture and the determination to be assured of the advantages of good moral and material conditions in life,

That it is important for the social life of nations, as well as in the interest of individuals, to prepare,—along with an elite belonging to the liberal vocations—commercial, industrial, agricultural elites, etc., corresponding to the different types of economic activity, while possessing at the same time a truly general culture,

(1) Deems it necessary, in order to avoid as far as possible errors in the guidance of pupils and the discouragement resulting therefrom, to organize vocational guidance during the last compulsory year of elementary school, so that advice to the pupils will be given after collaboration with the teacher, the doctor and the office of vocational guidance—the final decision however to rest with the family;

(2) Believes it desirable to establish better co-ordination between the elementary school curriculum and the curricula of the secondary schools in order to ensure, especially in the first years of schooling, easy passage from one type of school to another;

(3) Wishes to emphasize the importance of the type of school called in some countries "middle schools," in others, "senior elementary schools," "schools of pre-vocational guidance," etc., which, though not having as their aim preparation for the Universities, are able to give their pupils both sufficient general culture and a practical training, preparing them directly either for the immediate entry into a profession, or for certain higher vocational schools;

(4) Believes it desirable to improve the methods of selection for admission to secondary schools properly so-called. For this selection,

the following factors should be taken into consideration:—

(a) the leaving certificate of the elementary school, as well as the individual report of the elementary school teachers,

(b) an examination conducted according to scientific methods, aiming not only to determine the knowledge acquired, but also the capacity of the student for continuing his studies;

(5) Notes with interest that in several countries there are, sitting on commissions of vocational guidance and of selection, either representatives of the teaching body, or representatives of the parents, and in some cases representatives of both;

(6) Draws the attention of the school authorities to the fact that, as all selection means forced elimination, every pupil refused admittance to the secondary schools proper should be guided towards other studies or towards a practical vocational training corresponding with his aptitudes;

(7) In spite of the complexity of the problem of free schooling and the diverse conditions in different countries, believes that school fees should in no case prevent the attendance at secondary schools;

(8) Consequently attaches the greatest importance to the granting of scholarships, the amount of which should cover as completely as possible the cost of studies, and if the financial position of the parents demands it, should even compensate for the child's loss of wages.

Compulsory Schooling and the Raising of the School Leaving Age.

The Conference,

(1) Notes that the problem of compulsory education and the raising of the school leaving age differs greatly in different countries and that therefore no single and uniform measure can be recommended at the present time.

(2) Recognises that, in countries where the number of schools is not yet sufficient for the

school-age population, the urgent problem is not so much that of raising the school leaving age as of ensuring to every child the possibility of attending school regularly for a definite minimum number of years.

(3) While admitting that the number of years of compulsory education may vary in different countries, considers it highly desirable that this number should in no case be less than seven, and notes that in many countries this minimum is already exceeded.

(4) Believes that the school leaving age should not be lower than that which will assure to each child adequate physical, intellectual and moral development.

(5) Draws the attention of Governments to the fact that the adoption of the principle of compulsory education and of sanctions for the infringement of this principle must coincide with a determined effort on the part of school authorities to secure the carrying out of this obligation as completely and as thoroughly as possible.

(6) Considers that in principle, and for the majority of countries, raising the school leaving age even beyond fourteen years would be undeniably advantageous if allowance were made in certain cases for temporary exemptions of short duration, as, for instance, in periods of pressing agricultural work.

(7) Affirms that the problem of raising the school leaving age should be considered in relation to that of the age of admission to gainful employment.

(8) Hopes that in the national administration there will be complete co-ordination between the Educational and Labour Departments, and that in the international field, studies concerning the age of admission to gainful occupation will be conducted in conjunction with those of compulsory school attendance.

(9) Expresses the desire that education, as given in the school proper, shall be prolonged by continuation courses of an equally compulsory character

that this continued education, whether given in the school or in continuation courses, shall consist essentially of general instruction, deriving its interest and subject matter from the chief activities of the locality, whether rural, industrial, commercial, etc., and—in the case of girls—from domestic training, and that, by according an important place to practical work, it shall seek to arouse and develop the vocational aptitudes of the pupils;

that an important place shall be given to physical and moral training.

(10) Believes it desirable that all measures concerning the raising of the school leaving age shall take into consideration the necessity of co-ordinating the various types of schools and of ensuring the continuity of their curricula.

(11) Draws the attention of school authorities to the need of adapting the methods of the continued schooling to the psychological peculiarities pertaining to the age of the pupils.

(12) Emphasises the fact, that by reason of the peculiar characteristics of the curricula and of the methods to be used in continued education, it is desirable to train teachers especially capable of giving this instruction and to select them from those teachers who in their previous experience have shown special ability for this kind of work.

CITIZENSHIP THROUGH GEOGRAPHY.

"The approach to the teaching of a subject like that of the aims and achievements of the League is necessarily cautious. Direct or dogmatic methods might arouse the opposition of the parent and in some cases the resistance of the pupil who, in this country, is reserved about giving any outward expression to his convictions."

The report itself reveals that, with characteristic diversity of method, there is a large volume of education upon the aims and achievements of the League of Nations in the schools, and every

one familiar with English education will agree that both in and out of school hours, on corporate occasions and by individual study, the schools in making known the work of the League are doing a great work for international goodwill. Undoubtedly, the most effective work is that done naturally in the class-rooms, for when "League Instruction," as it has been termed, falls within the curriculum as part of the normal syllabus, children appreciate in a way not otherwise possible that the League of Nations is not some abnormal excrescence, but an integral part of our system of Government. I do not intend to suggest that it is not a suitable subject for the school on corporate occasions, but rather to stress the view that it is no less for that reason the concern of the normal curriculum. The abnormalities of school life tend to produce reactions, and, like Christmas pudding and simnel cakes, can be indigestible. The progress of the study of world citizenship depends largely upon how far teachers succeed in finding it a place in their syllabuses and upon what that place is. Since opinion appears to be strongly against its inclusion as a separate subject, the question resolves itself into its incorporation into existing subjects of the curriculum or, more correctly, the assumption by one or more of those subjects of an international bias.

Political and Cultural side of Geography.

The growing tendency of the geographer at the present time to introduce this bias is one of the most hopeful signs that has yet appeared of a satisfactory method of forming an internationally minded citizenship. The tendency is natural and unforced. The teaching is not extra to the curriculum; nor does it rely for its creation of international outlook upon pamphlets, occasional talks in the assembly hall, or an exceptional share of the school notice board. It is a movement of the class-room and is an unstrained evolution of geographical method. In a paper written last year by Mr. Donald Gray on the teaching of geography he puts the position as follows:—

"Hitherto geography has tended to stop after physical and economic questions have been dealt with. Only very recently has the political and cultural side begun to receive adequate treatment under such teachers as Professor Fleure of Manchester. The interdependence of nations in trade is obvious, but respect for our neighbours will be assured by recounting their contributions to civilisation as well as to the trade of the world."

The movement is strong in many elementary and secondary schools and where it flourishes, the geography room is not only a hive of intellectual activity but also a miniature Chantham House in which information about world affairs, pictorial, statistical, and literary, is carefully docketed and readily obtainable.

Outside the class-room, the most valuable ally of the geography teacher is undoubtedly travel. As John Locke advocated the grand tour for the young ruling classes of his aristocratic age, so should we urge forward the well-prepared school journey and the interchange of teachers as essential parts of the educational system from which our young citizens derive their philosophy. At present, travel and interchanges are incidental, a sort of extra arranged only "by special requests," but it seems likely that they will become, in time, a regular feature of everyone's education and of every teacher's training. It is encouraging to note that, in 1931, over 60,000 British children travelled under the auspices of the School Journey Association, of whom 10,000 appear to have visited Europe or gone even further afield.

International Relations and the School Curriculum.

A word may usefully be said as to the danger of introducing international relations as a separate subject in the schools. Enthusiasm may encourage some in that direction, but not if they reason it out. In the first place, let them remember that in the hands of any but a profound student of foreign affairs—a Wickham Steed or

A. E. Zimmern—it can become a most arid theme, a medley of petty detail about constitutions, assemblies and treaties. In like manner, it can relapse into the other extreme, an abstract study lacking that reality which children demand. On the other hand, there can be no question that, in efficient geography class-rooms, pupils are to-day receiving an education which gives them an insight into world problems almost as sure as the knowledge which pupils of an earlier generation had of Cæsar's exploits. We may know more about the Gallic wars than they ever will, but they, in their turn, will share our ignorance of Central and Eastern Europe, they will know why China and Japan are unfriendly, they will understand the implications of a White Australia, they will be alive to the significance of the Monroe Doctrine in the New World, and they will realise as we do not, the mighty significance of an awakening Africa. Such knowledge must, at least, help to stimulate an intelligent public opinion in international affairs, and it should tend to give the nation balance in times of international stress. It is premature to speculate as to whether far-reaching consequences may evolve from it, but, if this learning through geography should ever permeate the class-room of the world, civilisation will be much better equipped for that "last ascent" which Kant declared mankind could only hope to climb after "a long and intensive education of the spirit for all citizens in every country."

INDIAN—GENERAL

ALL-INDIA FEDERATION OF EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS.

The Hon. Secretary of the All-India Federation of Educational Associations, P.O. Box No. 52, Cawnpore, writes:—

The Tenth All-India Educational Conference will be held at Delhi on December, 27--30, 1934. In order that the work of the Conference may not be delayed, the constitution provides that suggestions should be invited from Associations and individual members as well as educationists in general on the following:—

(a) Topics round which the papers and Addresses should centre in the General Sessions and the Sectional Conferences.

(b) Subjects on which papers should be invited for the General Sessions and the Sectional Conferences.

(c) Names of educationists who should be invited to read papers or deliver Addresses at the General Sessions and Sectional Conferences, together with the subjects in which they specialise.

(d) Resolutions that should be passed by the General Sessions or Sectional Conferences.

The following Sectional Conferences have been decided upon:—

1. Primary and Rural Education Section.
2. Secondary Education Section.
3. University Education Section.
4. Childhood Education Section.
5. Vocational Education Section.
6. Adult Education Section.
7. Examinations Sections.
8. Health and Physical Education Section.
9. Moral and Religious Education Section.
10. Training of Teachers Section.
11. Experiment and Research Section.
12. Internationalism and Peace Section.

I shall be obliged if interested educationists would kindly send suggestions to me regarding each of these matters for the General Session and for each of the Sectional Conferences separately. The suggestions should reach me by the 15th October, 1934, at the latest. I regret very much that I shall not be able to place suggestions received after the 15th October before the Executive Committee and the Council for final selection.

MADRAS

DISTRICT TEACHERS' GUILD, KURNOOL.

The Annual General Body meeting of the Guild was held on 1st September 1934 in the Coles Memorial High School, Kurnool. The attendance was very large. The proceedings

began with a discussion on the revised S. S. L. C. syllabuses in English, History, Science and Mathematics. It was held by the house that the Non-Detailed Study in English ought not to have been abolished, and the Elementary Mathematics syllabus has been made stiff by the inclusion of formal Algebra and Geometry. The C Group syllabuses in History of India and History of England were considered adequate and workable, though it is regrettable that pupils are prevented from taking both the subjects owing to the unnatural grouping of the C Group subjects. The syllabus in Elementary Science is a distinct improvement inasmuch as due prominence is given to portions relating to practical life. But the house was of opinion that the volume of work to be done in the B Group subjects was so large, and the time allotted to them was so meagre that sufficient justice could not be done by teachers, much less by the pupils, especially in view of the fact that they are not subjects for public examination.

Mr. G. Siva Rao, B.A., L.T., the Secretary of the Guild, read the Annual Report which showed that much good work was done last year.

The Teachers' Associations affiliated to the Guild were :—

- (1) Municipal High School, Kurnool.
- (2) Coles Memorial High School, Kurnool.
- (3) Government Muhammadan High School, Kurnool.
- (4) Government Training High School, Kurnool.
- (5) S. P. G. High School, Nandyal.
- (6) Municipal High School, Nandyal.
- (7) Board High School, Atmakur.
- (8) Board High School, Koilkuntla.
- (9) Board High School, Markapur.
- (10) Board High School, Cumbum.
- (11) Government Middle School for Girls, Kurnool.

(12) Elementary School Men Teachers' Association, Kurnool.

(13) Elementary School Women Teachers' Association, Kurnool.

The following three members have directly joined the Guild :—

1. M.R.Ry. M. Hanumantha Rao Garu.
2. Miss J. Vyramuthu Ammal, B.A., L.T.
3. Mrs. P. Raju, B.A., L.T.

The report showed that the Education Week was celebrated on a grand scale. An Exhibition was held and prizes were distributed to the winners in the races. The financial position of the Guild was sound, the closing balance being Rs. 30-0-6.

After the Annual Report was read and adopted, a portion from Krishna Leela was staged by the young girls of the Peta Elementary Girls' School, and the audience found it an agreeable diversion.

The following resolutions were then passed by the House :—

Resolutions Passed.

(a) 1. Resolved that Bye-law No. 5 (b) be amended. Instead of a Vice-President read two Vice-Presidents. Instead of three members read five members of the Executive Council.

2. Resolved that Bye-law No. 9 (3) be amended. For a month's notice read two weeks' notice.

(b) This Guild appeals to all affiliated Associations to send as many delegates as possible to attend the Provincial Educational Conference to be held at Anantapur during the ensuing Christmas in view of the venue of the Conference being very near our District.

(c) This Conference appeals to all affiliated Associations in the mofussil to send at least two representatives each for every General Body meeting of the Guild and to meet their T. A. from their Association funds.

(d) This Guild resolves to depute the following members to attend the S. I. T. U. Conference at Anantapur paying Rs. 5 each to meet their train fare and delegation fee.

1. The President of the Guild.
2. The in-coming Secretary.
3. The out-going Secretary.
4. A lady delegate.

(e) This Conference disapproves of the inclusion of formal Algebra and Geometry in Elementary Mathematics and requests the S.S.L.C. Board to delete them, and restore Algebra and Geometry as one of the C Group subjects.

(f) This Conference expresses its gratitude to the Chief Minister, the Hon. Raja Saheb of Bobbili, for the move to standardise the scales of pay of teachers serving in the District Boards and Municipalities, and humbly requests that a generous provision be made in fixing scales of salaries so as not to affect adversely the pay of existing incumbents.

The following office-bearers were then elected for 1934-35.

- (1) Mr. B. J. Rockwood, M.A., B.D.,
President.
- (2) (a) Mr. R. K. Kuppuswami Iyer, B.A.,
L.T.,
and (b) Mr. G. Gurubotham, B.A., L.T.,
Vice-Presidents.
- (3) Mr. S. Radhakrishnan, B.A., L.T.,
Secretary.
- (4) Mr. A. S. Jayanandam, M.A., L.T.,
Assistant Secretary.
- (5) (a) Miss K. Chinnammal, B.A., L.T.
(b) Mr. M. Venkatasubbiah, B.A., L.T.
(c) Mr. Mohdin Sahib, B.A., L.T.
(d) Mr. M. P. Rajam, B.A., L.T.
(e) Mr. Muhmud Ibrahim,
Additional members of the Executive Council.
- (6) Mr. G. Siva Rao, B.A., L.T.,
Representative of the Guild on the
Executive Board of the S. I. T. U.

A SCHOOL EXCURSION TO KARNATGARH.

A party of pupils of the E. L. M. Fabricius High School, Purasawalkam (Madras), under the charge of their Geography master, Mr. S. J. Devasahayam, B.A., L.T., went on an excursion to Vellore and Karnatgarh recently. The party left Madras on Friday night by the Bangalore Passenger, and spent the Saturday, at Vellore, where they were lodged in the S. M. D. High School.

Starting early in the morning, the party, which was swelled by the addition of some of the teachers of the local school, climbed the main hill to the east of the town, and studied the ruins of the old fortifications as well as the prospect of the country round about as seen from the hill-top. The afternoon was spent in going about the town, and visiting important parts of it, such as the fort, temple, bazaar, etc. The same night the party together with the Vellore school left for Polur, where the Headmaster of the Board High School had made all necessary arrangements for climbing Karnatgarh, the next morning, besides getting his staff and students to join the excursion party, which now increased to over 120 persons.

Karnatgarh (3,180 feet) is the second highest peak of the Jawwadis, being exceeded by only one other peak a little farther west by about 200 feet. But though slightly lower in elevation, it is the former that commands a splendid view of the central part of the Karnatic plains from Vellore in the north to beyond Tiruvannamalai in the south at one sweep—a fact which easily explains why it was chosen for fortification (by Sivaji?). As the foot of the hill is about 650 ft. above sea-level, the actual ascent was over 2,500 feet, which had to be done by a bridle-path in disrepair, walking over which, with or without shoes, was equally a penance. After an ascent of three to four hours, the party reached the

fortifications on the summit, where they finished their mid-day meal. They then went round examining the fortifications, which were overgrown with jungle in most places. Two trigonometrical stations could be traced within the fort—one 3,180 feet and the other 3,139 feet. The masonry building of the powder magazine was in tact; and the black powder, quite innocuous through age, was found heaped in a corner; while an old cannon about three yards long was found rusting in a bush by the side of the bridle-path near the summit.

But what interested the party most was not the historical ruins so much as the glorious view of the Jawwadi Hills behind and the panorama of the plains with its pattern of fields, tanks and villages as far as the eye could see in the east, stretching from Kailasgarh near Vellore in the north to Tiruvannamalai in the south. With the help of the one-inch map it was interesting to identify important landmarks such as Gingee, Nedunkunram Hill, etc., as well as the communication-lines and important places. The

pleasure and profit gained were felt by all to be worth the trouble and expense of getting to that inaccessible place. By about sunset the party got down the hill and reached the Polur railway station. The nucleus of it, consisting of the boys of the E. L. M. High School, Purasawalkam, returned via Villupuram, reaching Madras on Monday morning.

The total cost for the Madras boys, who journeyed 300 miles by rail, was only Rs. 5 including food for two days and cartage. The success of the excursion was due mostly to the excellent arrangement made by the headmasters and staff of the S. M. D. High School, Vellore, and the Board High School, Polur. The party was specially indebted to Mr S. Srinivasa Iyer, Secretary of the North Arcot District Teachers' Guild, and to Mr. R. Kuppuswami Iyer, Headmaster of the Polur High School, who spared no pains to bring the excursion to a success. The organization and conduct of the excursion were by Mr. N. Subrahmanyam of the Teachers' College, Saidapet.

A Hand-book of the English Language

FOR HIGH SCHOOLS

By K. SUBRAMANI AIYAR, B.A., L.T.,

A Fellow of the University of Bombay;

An Incorporated Accountant of London, and late Principal of the Ryramjee Jeejeebhoy College of Commerce, Bombay

REVISED BY

MARK HUNTER, M.A.,

Principal, Government College, Rajabmundry.

FIFTH EDITION. PRICE—Rs. 1-4.

(Approved as a text-book by the Director of Public Instruction, Bombay.)

SRINIVASA VARADACHARI & CO., 190, MOUNT ROAD, MADRAS.

REVIEWS AND NOTICES.

A HISTORY OF ENGLAND—PARTS III and IV (1689—1927)—BY CYRIL R. ROBINSON—METHUEN AND CO., LTD., LONDON—PP. xv & 321, xii & 380—Price 5s.

This well-known text-book of English History has gone through several editions; and the last two parts have now been issued together in one volume in which the narrative is brought down to 1927. It is marked by (1) a stressing of the most prominent facts which are set down in summarised form at the end of each book and which are treated in detail at the expense of smaller issues and unessential details that have been largely omitted from the picture; and (2) an arrangement of chapters, each forming in some sense, a real and connected whole, and intended to provide matter for an hour's work of preparation. The diagrams and maps have been designed upon the same principle of selection as the text itself; and all superfluous names have been suppressed therein. A reading list of books dealing with history proper, special aspects such as social life, sources and the literature of the periods and including novels of a historical character is given for each part. The Great War has been specially detailed as well as the recent trends in European diplomacy and politics which are so necessary for a proper perception of the development of Britain and her Empire in the last one century. Notice has also been taken of Liberalism and Conservatism, Imperialism, the idea of Commonwealth, the rise of Labour, etc. The detailing of the military operations of the Great War is clear and good.

THE CONTINENT OF ASIA. BY LIONEL W. LYDE—MACMILLAN AND CO., LTD. 1933—PP. xxii and 777.—Price 16s. or Rs. 5 INDIAN EDITION.

This book has been written from the same stand-point, on the same lines and in the same

way, as *The Continent of Europe*, i.e., on the basis of human geography and of close relation of the environment to man's life. Professor Lyde has never been dull or non-provoking of thought in his books. He says that his attempt to form a mental picture of Asia has taken a longer time than the picture of any other continent and the regional work has taken twelve years. This means that different regions were treated in different ways, the particular way being generally decided by the human note; "but the regional exception was never allowed to override the continental law." Thus Professor Lyde pictures China as a collection of people arranged in families presented mainly in little plots of economic analysis; Arabia's description is dominated by the thought of the Semitic type and tongue; and his imagination of Mongolia was obsessed with time as well as with space.

The world-relations of Asia are first described. The west is regarded as a narrow zone between two converging blocks, Russian and Arabian; and the east is looked upon as a wide zone between two diverging blocks, Siberian and Indian. The human spirit of Asia has expressed itself in extremes like its terrestrial environment; and "virility on the one side, as humanity on the other," seems to have been born of the sea foam. In Asia size gives proportion and perspective to contrasts. The history of Europe, like its political and social phenomena, presents the strongest contrast with that of Asia. We notice, with pleasure, the remark that the Mesopotamian and the Hindustan lowlands, which are of great importance, are two exceptions, for, elsewhere, the young folded mountains of Southern Asia come practically sheer up against the sea; and the terrific waste from the mighty Himalayas is all concentrated on a single front.

Central Asia is described as a link between two lobes and includes five important units, two interior and three peripheral, with a core of two parallel belts. The rhythm of climatic phenomena and rainfall features is studied elaborately, along with nomadism which is regarded as the central key to the unique importance of Asia in the history of migration. The two great continental axes are interpreted to suggest a very rough ethnic classification; and the political note has been related to this idea. The responses of human life to conditions of relief and climate are most ingeniously described to elucidate certain general tendencies.

The second part, coming after these aspects of general treatment, devotes itself to regional description and deals successively with Siberia, Turania, the lands of the five seas (the Caspian, the Levant, the Black Sea, the Red Sea and the Persian Gulf), India, occupying with Ceylon about 140 pages of descriptive matter, the lands of the Indo-Pacific fan, and the countries of the old Chinese Empire and Japan. There are a few points wherein one can easily differ from the author, as for instance, when Professor Lyde says that there was a strong religious motive behind the political development of Madras. Also he is obviously mistaken when he says that Hiuen Tsiang calculated the walk round the walls of Chingleput as covering a distance of six miles (p. 470). The causal links between life and environment are very elaborately noticed and excite the reader's admiration for the painstaking and exhaustive thoroughness and penetration of the description, taken from a collection of over 200,000 of newspaper and magazine cuttings and frequently added to and altered. As remarked elsewhere about the author, one feels that in this book, he never seems commonplace and never wearies the reader by telling him the obvious; and his picture is "impressionist and extraordinarily vivid." Not merely the professed student of geography, but the historian, the scientist and the devotee of culture should read and understand the book.

INDIA TO-DAY AND TOMORROW SERIES:

NO. 1. INDIA'S NON-VIOLENT REVOLUTION.

NO. 2. PESHAWAR: MEN vs. MACHINE GUNS.

NO. 3. THE STORY OF PEACE NEGOTIATIONS AND AN OPEN LETTER TO THE AMERICAN PEOPLE.

NO. 4. THE ROUND TABLE CONFERENCE AND ITS AFTERMATH.

BY HARIDAS T. MUZUMDAR. (PUBLISHED IN NEW YORK CITY, 20 VESEY STREET).

These pamphlets are written by a very vigorous mind, symbolical of the surging national enthusiasm of young India, eager for all-round emancipation, with a view to present "first-hand, reliable and documentary material" regarding India's non-violent revolution and the achievement of Mahatma Gandhi. The first in the series traces the genesis of the non-violent revolution of 1930, under the *Repolman* Gandhi, who mixes up Religion, Economics and Politics and is at once prophet, saint and statesman. The writer appeals to the peoples of India and the world and declares that the *Swaraj* of India shall have no Imperial Preference strings tied to it. The second pamphlet attempts to narrate the outstanding events of the Peshawar tragedy and outlines the nature of the Investigating Committees appointed both by the British Government and by the Indian National Congress, i.e., the Sulaiman Committee and the Patel Committee; and it maintains that Peshawar has given the lie direct to the fantastic notions that the Christian world cherishes regarding Islam and the trans-border tribes in their attitude towards India.

The third pamphlet narrates the circumstances leading to the agreement between Lord Irwin and Mahatma Gandhi whose participation in the Second Round Table Conference falsified the idea that the Congress policy was primarily one of obstructionism and also exposed the deviousness of the Conference procedure. Mr. Muzumdar, in his Open Letter to the American People, written on the 26th January, 1932, urges that Americans should remove the least possible cause of friction and misunderstanding between themselves and Indians. The last of the pamphlets stresses on the futility of the Second Round Table Conference and on its aftermath of a

recrudescence of persecution and its attendant repercussions.

KINGSHIP THROUGH THE AGES (A HISTORICAL SURVEY). BY PROF. P. S. RAMAKRISHNA IYER, ERNAKULUM. (VIDYA VINODINI PRESS). 1933. Pp. 180. Rs. 2.

This book by an experienced Professor of History traces the evolution of kingship from the ancient times down to the present stage of constitutional monarchy. It is mainly based on material furnished by European History; but it includes a chapter on the origin of kingship, its importance, the conception of Rajadharma and the limitations imposed on the king according to ancient Hindu practice and theory. It begins with an account of primitive chiefship and the patriarchal chief of the tribe, traces the different stages in the evolution of monarchy in ancient Greece and Rome, down to the military monarchy of Cæsar, the Principate of Augustus and the absolute empire of Diocletian. Strangely enough, the writer comprehends Papal theocratic pretensions to supremacy among the forms of mediaeval kingship. He is clear and also fairly detailed in a few points, about mediaeval kingship and its relation to theories of sovereignty such as were elaborated by Marsiglio of Padua and other scholiasts. Traversing the forest of political thought of the Reformation epoch and of the seventeenth century doctrines of Hobbes, Bodin, Bossuet and others, he comes to the conceptions of the Divine Right Monarch and of the Enlightened Despot and then notices the theories of anti-monarchism and revolution. He rounds up his treatment with a survey of constitutional monarchy in the nineteenth century and at the present day and with an expectation that wherever kingship should be able to continue, it will be of the strictly constitutional type. He thinks that the phenomenon of dictatorship will be only a temporary one. The book can be used with advantage by our under-graduates; but we wish that there had been fewer typographical errors and mistakes in the spelling of proper names, which, we trust, will be rectified in the next edition. The bibliographical list is fairly comprehensive.

MUGHAL EMPIRE IN INDIA—PART I. BY S. R. SHARMA, FERGUSSON COLLEGE, POONA. (THE KARNATIC PRINTING PRESS, BOMBAY). Pp. 52. Price Rs. 4.

Mr. Sharma's book is a fairly good text-book written principally to help the college student

and this motive is evident throughout the work. As Father Heras remarks in the Preface, a good text-book is not always easy to write, and Mr. Sharma has attempted a difficult task by seeking to serve two different and almost incompatible objects; while being quite mindful of the examination, he has made a sustained effort to show his readers that history is well worth studying for its own sake. He defines the object of his endeavour thus: "To prove useful to the students of the history of the Mughal Empire in India, not by lightening their reading but by acting as a reliable guide to more exhaustive studies."

This volume is the first part of the story; here Mr. Sharma carries the history of the Mughals in India to the death of Akbar. The conditions of Hindustan as Babur found them, the foundation of the Mughal Empire, the Sur interregnum, and the restoration and reorganisation under Akbar are all detailed in clear language under well-arranged headings; two maps and some good illustrations have been added.

A wealth of quotations from original authorities as also from almost all the writers that have written on the history of the Mughals in India is the most prominent feature of the book. The former are classed under primary sources of information and the latter under secondary, and at the beginning of each chapter the student is introduced to most of these authors, and what follows consists of long and copious extracts from these 'sources of information.' Such a compilation has, of course, some advantages. But all the same the author might well have avoided such numerous and not by any means essential borrowings from other text-books, which, though perhaps good in themselves, are by no means among the original sources of our information for the history of the period. Mr. Sharma would have done better to depend a little more on himself and a little less on his colleagues in the field. He also institutes many superficial and far-fetched comparisons between Indian and European events and personalities. In spite of all the reservations made, it is quite a forced attempt to compare Aurangzeb with Cromwell or Sher Shah with Kautilya, Machiavelli and Asoka.

The get-up of the volume is good. An index is a desideratum.

PUBLISHERS' NOTICE.

All literary contributions, books for review, newspapers, or magazines, sent in exchange, &c., should be addressed to the EDITOR, No. 190, MOUNT ROAD, MADRAS. Articles and communications intended for publication in the succeeding issue should, as far as possible, reach the Editor not later than the 20th of the month. The Editor solicits contributions on all subjects of educational interest. Stamps should accompany the MS., if the writer wishes it returned, in case of non-acceptance. The Editor can in no case hold himself responsible for accidental loss.

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THE EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

The International Intellectual Co-operation Section of the League of Nations has been busy continuing its attention to the question of suitable text-books for children all over the world, eliminating traces of racial bitterness and all writing calculated to counter the work of peace and international friendship. The proceedings of its meetings held this summer furnish interesting reading. It is recognised that it is not merely a question of improving the text-books at present in use by deleting passages which might be detrimental to good understanding between nations, but also of encouraging the publication of books inspired by a desire for international good-will. It has instructed the International Institute of Intellectual Co-operation in Paris to make and publish a collection of objective passages in school books. It has also instructed the organisation to follow the development of the movement

and to publish the laws, decrees and regulations issued on the subject. Instructions have also been issued to draw attention to the work of national and international associations of teachers and professors in the field. Attention was also directed during the year to the activities of the International Congress on Educational Cinematography held at Rome and the Committee recognises more than ever the importance of the Cinema as a means of educating the masses and the consequent responsibility of authors, producers and managers. The international exchange of educational films is another suggestion put forward by the Conference this year.

The United Provinces of Agra and Oudh have lost the services of a good Director of Public Instruction by the recent retirement of Mr. A. H. Mackenzie who has been at the head of the educational department of the Provinces for the last more than a decade.

There has been enormous increase of educational activity in the Provinces during his period of office and he has devoted himself to his work with soundness and judgment. Striking tributes were paid to his work on the occasion by various sections of the educational world in the provinces, but it is significant that one of the most enthusiastic functions held in his honour was under the auspices of the United Provinces Secondary Education Association. Officers of the Educational Department are often apt to be unfriendly to teachers' organisations and instances have not been unknown in India of some of them even actively working against them. Mr. Mackenzie has, however, always been a friend of the teacher and has done much during his tenure of office to secure for the teachers in his provinces the conditions of service which would ensure efficient and undisturbed work. The rules relating to the compulsory execution of contracts of service on the lines laid down by the Department and the proposed setting up of Arbitration Boards to prevent the usual tyranny of school-managers are only two examples of his efforts to ensure decent conditions of service for the teachers. As he himself has said more than once, he was always anxious to secure 'dominion status' to Headmasters in their work, without undue interference from school-managers. Replying to the farewell addresses, Mr. Mackenzie said that the Department had been endeavouring to secure for the teachers two conditions in particular: that within their own sphere of school teaching and organis-

ation they should be given unfettered freedom without unreasonable interference either by the Department or by the managers of schools, and that they should be given sufficient security of tenure to enable them to carry out their duties with sufficient self-respect. We wish all Directors of Public Instruction in India were equally conscious of these requirements and exerted themselves sufficiently to secure these conditions. Readers in South India will be glad to learn that Mr. A. H. Mackenzie has since been appointed and taken charge as Pro-Vice-Chancellor of the Osmania University, Hyderabad, and General Educational Adviser to the Government of His Exalted Highness the Nizam and his services will thus be available to this part of the country for some years more.

There is perhaps not much patronage available for educational journals in India to-day; but we extend a cordial welcome to the *Educational India* which has just made its appearance at Masulipatam in the Andhra country. The magazine will be edited by Mr. M. Venkatarangiah of the Andhra University, though published at Masulipatam, and it has already secured the support at least of those connected with the Andhra University. Sir G. C. Coyajee of the Andhra University writes in the August number in appreciation of the Fascist Ideals in Education, though one would expect a University professor to denounce its tyranny and its encroachment on the spirit of freedom of the educational world. Though Prof. Coyajee seems to be a humble apologist

for the spirit of Fascism in education, against which all enlightened educational circles in Europe outside Italy have very vehemently protested, he could not apparently help concluding his article with the following words:

On this note, let us conclude the present brief outline of the educational reforms under the Fascist regime. No doubt, in the main, the programme of reforms is highly praiseworthy. Few will also deny that it is the duty of the State to regulate and co-ordinate educational activities of the country. From the point of view of efficiency there can be no questioning of the great merits of the programme of reform. Nevertheless the task of the State in preserving the due balance between authority and liberty is an extremely difficult one and requires for its proper performance great administrative genius. It is well for the State to regulate education and to control it through a comprehensive system of State examinations and through the nomination of high educational officers; and it is to be hoped and desired earnestly that the Fascist authority will succeed in their task "of watching over without fettering the highest activities of the mind"—to use Signor Volpe's own words. It is indeed very probable that the genius of Fascism will succeed in effecting that delicate compromise to which we have drawn attention. Fascism is as yet in its vigorous youth, full of a strong and intelligent initiative. The world will judge of its success in reforming education when it finds that Fascism can control education effectively, "without deadening the free and fine initiatives" of universities and schools.

Mr. R. N. Kapur, also a member of the Andhra University staff, writes a descriptive article on the Oxford Tutorial system and hopes for the day when similar facilities may exist in India. We wish the magazine a successful career.

The Use of English in India.

In the course of one of his recent utterances in Bangalore, the Rt. Hon. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri drew attention to the foolish prejudice which seemed to exist in some quarters in India against the use of English. He said that some people, obsessed by misguided notions of patriotism, delude themselves into the belief that it is absurd to acquire proficiency in English. "In some parts of India a man is considered guilty if he should speak English. He is looked upon with suspicion. He is a pro-Britisher!" He warned scientists not to make that mistake, for English was a rich language, best fitted for the accurate scientific expression of one's thoughts. Great as were the possibilities of Hindi as an all-India language, still it was a spurious and misguided form of patriotism to give up the study of English until Hindi was well-established as a national language. Mr. Sastri's remarks apply with equal force to the humanities and again it is also no small advantage to be able to find correct expression in a language which links at present all the provinces of India and also the outside world. Nothing can be more prejudicial to the interests of the country than the pseudo-patriotism which seems to discover something wrong in the use of the English language.

The annual report of the University of Nagpur for the period ending with 30th June 1934 has already been issued with commendable promptitude

The Nagpur University.

and gives evidence of the rapid progress the University is making, though one of the youngest in India. Reference is made in the report to the death, during the year, of Sir Bepin Krishna Bose, the first Vice-Chancellor of the University, who took active part in its foundation and to whose ripe knowledge and experience the University owes not a little. Among the decisions of the year was a resolution exempting members of the Depressed classes from payment of examination fees, for the present, up to the year 1940. It is hoped that their progress will be found to be adequate enough during the next few years to dispense with such a concession. The desire to make legal education more efficient which is finding expression in many Indian Universities at present is manifesting itself in Nagpur also. It is proposed to make the University Law College a whole-time college from June 1935, its ordinary working hours being from 11 A.M. to 4 P.M. The staff will consist of a whole-time Principal and three whole-time lecturers. The University has also been able to run a Sports Tournament in which all the affiliated colleges were able to take part during the year. It is a pity that nothing very much has yet materialised in connection with the Lakshminarayan bequest. In the first place, there is still litigation regarding the legacy. There does not seem to be any scheme complete in details and the miserably small sum of Rs. 2,500 per year is being spent in connection with the endowment to award scholarships for technological education in India or abroad. We hope the Univer-

sity will soon be able to utilise the magnificent endowment of forty-five lakhs of rupees for the advancement of the purposes for which it has been endowed. It is not enough to receive an endowment—you must have the energy and expert knowledge necessary for utilising it to advantage at as early a date as possible.

Reference has been made more than once in these columns to the need for re-organising the lower stages of instruction, if University education is to be a success in India and the present problem of unemployment should become less acute. Recognising this need, the Punjab University Enquiry Committee went into the root of the matter and suggested two radical reforms worthy of wide consideration in India. The present secondary course may be made shorter by one year and may well be the stage at which pupils will leave school. The reduced year may be added to the two years of the present Intermediate course, to train up pupils for admission into the University, in institutions specially set apart from the purpose or for joining such technical and professional courses as may be possible. This will serve the double purpose of confining admission into Universities only to those who have been adequately prepared for it and diverting others into channels in which they may find more useful training. This is as near a solution to the problem of unemployment as Universities can attempt. It is therefore not surprising

Reform of Secondary Education.

that the United Provinces have definitely put forward this scheme for the consideration of the public—the following is from their recent circular on the subject:—

It would therefore seem advisable to constitute in the United Provinces a secondary course, of which the object should be to provide a general education complete in itself and untrammelled by University requirements. The following definite suggestions have been made:

The course may be shorter than the present high school course by one year and the medium of instruction should be the vernacular throughout. Only those who have a bent for literary studies should prolong them beyond the high school stage. The high school examination should therefore have two kinds of certificates—one certifying completion of a course of secondary education and qualifying for admission to industrial, commercial and agricultural schools, and the other qualifying for admission also to Arts and Science Intermediate Colleges. The Intermediate course should, if the high school course is curtailed by one year, be extended to three years and should be of four parallel types: (1) Industrial, (2) Commercial, (3) Agriculture, and (4) Arts and Science and end with an examination which may be called the Higher Certificate Examination. These diversified courses would to some extent meet the criticism expressed by the Hartog Committee: "In the present system all sections of the community, with their different occupations, traditions and outlook and with their different ambitions and aptitudes have little, if any, choice of the type of school to which they will send their children. In fact, the present type of High and Middle English School has established itself so strongly that other forms of education are opposed or mistrusted and there is a marked tendency to regard the passage from

the lowest primary class to the highest class of a high school as the normal procedure for every pupil." Only students who have passed the Higher Certificate Examination in Arts or Science should be eligible for admission to the Arts and Science courses at Universities; but the Higher Certificate in Commerce and Agriculture may qualify for admission to University courses in Commerce and Agriculture respectively on such conditions as the Universities may prescribe. The Higher Certificate in Commerce may be recognized as the qualification for admission to all clerical posts in the public services. Students who have specialized in a single aspect of some industry often find it as difficult to obtain employment as those who have received a purely literary education. The industrial courses should therefore not be of a specialized vocational character, but should aim at giving technical training of a general character designed to develop skill of hand and eye, cultivate practical aptitudes and prepare boys for and pre-dispose them towards industrial life. In order that schools may discover at as early a stage as possible boys who are fitted rather for an industrial course than for a literary course, manual training or handicraft in some form should be compulsory in the lower classes of secondary schools and optional in the two highest classes.

Is it too much to ask that these proposals should receive consideration in the Madras Presidency also where conditions are exactly similar at least in this matter?

Considerable dissatisfaction seems to exist in the ranks of the Subordinate Educational Service of the Department of Education in the Madras Presidency, at least in the colle-

Madras Subordinate
Educational
Service.

giate branch, owing to the operation of the communal principle in the matter of promotions to the Provincial Service. No civilised government in the world will tolerate the principle of promoting a man in service over the heads of others on the mere ground that he belongs to a particular caste, or what is worse in Madras, that he does not belong to a particular caste! If communal inequalities in service have to be redressed, it must be by regulating direct recruitment, rather than by promotion which should be reserved for hard work and seniority. We are told that while the principle of communal selection has been abandoned in most other departments, it continues to operate in the educational department alone, where ability and capacity for work should matter more than elsewhere. We hope that early efforts will be made to see that some justice is done to such a hard-worked and poorly paid branch as the collegiate section of the Subordinate Educational Service in the Madras Educational Department, many of whom, curiously enough, are entrusted with the highest kinds of educational work.

It is gratifying to note that the recent Conference held in South Africa under the auspices of the World Fellowship of Education paid special attention to the education of the African aborigines and laid down principles which should receive attention in all parts of the world where educationalists are confronted with a similar situation. It is doubtful if sufficient attention has

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yet been paid in this country, for instance, to the education of the numerous aboriginal tribes found in many parts of the country. The following may be described as an educational charter for the aborigines and is of application to several tribes in India which have not yet been brought within the pale of civilisation:

Recognising that the African to-day is faced with the necessity of adapting himself to changes in his society, we feel that the anthropologist, the educationist and the missionary each have contributions to make in assisting the African to do this.....

All should find it possible to co-operate in assisting the African and also the European to appreciate the African's destiny and the means whereby that may be attained, namely—

Enrichment of the mind and character to enable the African to benefit from the new knowledge and experience;

Equipment of the African in such a way as to enable him to maintain himself in whatever environment he may be placed;

Provision of an economic status that will give the African the means to live a decent, self-respecting life and of a status that will permit him to take his share of responsibility for the well-being of his people;

Co-operation of the African himself in all measures for his advancement and well-being.

We trust that leaders of educational policy in India will not be unmindful of the great task that awaits them in this country in the matter of the education of the aborigines.

The recent report of the Tariff Board, in connection with the request of the Tata Steel Company for protection for a further period, publishes valuable information with regard to the educational provision which has been made under the auspices of the Company. The training of apprentices who will be able to join the workers of the Company in its various branches would be suitable work even from purely commercial motives. But the need for it is considerably enhanced when it is remembered that large contributions are made by the poor Indian tax-payer in the shape of subsidies to this organisation and the nation is entitled to benefits of technological training from the concern. Apart from the social and other amenities provided by the Company for the welfare of its workers, it has organised a system of education and training of various grades which must be pronounced a success and which has already proved its usefulness by providing an increasingly large number of workers in the various branches of technology embraced by its extensive operations. The Technical Institute under its auspices had admitted

about 250 pupils even by the end of 1932 and the number must have increased considerably since that date. Honours students of Indian and Foreign Universities are recruited to 'A' class and are being trained with a view ultimately to filling positions as superintendents or assistant superintendents of the various production departments. Ordinary graduates are recruited to the 'B' class of apprentices who are intended to fill the positions of foremen or assistant foremen. There is also a subordinate class of apprentices for boys ranging between 15 and 17 years in age, consisting mostly of the children of people employed in the locality who undergo training for five years. They spend four days in the week in actual work in the shops and get themselves used to manual labour and acquire skill in various details. It is claimed for these young apprentices that they live and breathe the atmosphere of the work for which they are to be trained. They receive not only theoretical training, but also practical experience by actually coming in contact with men, machinery and materials. All this educational system is of course besides the provision for general education in the shape of a high school, three middle schools and several elementary schools either maintained directly or aided by the Company and educating more than five thousand pupils.

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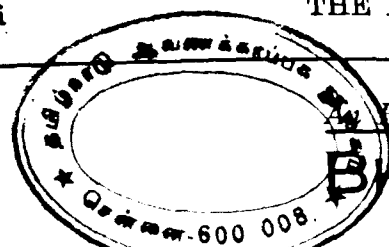
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