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CONTENTS

	Page
THE SCHOOL AND SOCIETY by Rev. Milton G. Kuolt, M.Sc. (Edn.), Columbia	173
THE BACKWARD AND THE MENTALLY DEFECTIVE by Mrs. M. Varughis, M.A., L.T., Dip. in Edn.	184
SUB-COMMITTEE'S DRAFT AMENDMENTS TO S. I. T. U. RULES ..	214
THE SOUTH INDIA TEACHERS' UNION—26TH ANNUAL REPORT	217
JUNIOR RED CROSS AND THE RE-MAKING OF RURAL INDIA by Mr. T. Krishnamoorthy	233
PUPIL TEACHERS' SECTION—THE TEACHER AS THE BUILDER OF THE NATION by Mr. K. V. R. Krishnan	235
THE CHILDREN'S CHARTER FOR INDIA	237
GLEANINGS	239
FROM OUR ASSOCIATIONS	240
THE TEACHERS' BOOKSHELF	241
EDITORIAL	247

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THE SOUTH INDIAN TEACHER

Vol. VIII.

April 1935

No. 4.

THE SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

BY

REV. MILTON G. KUOLT, M.SC. (EDN.) COLUMBIA.

Principal, M. E. L. M. High School, Ambur.

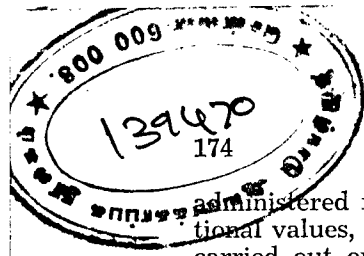
THE RESPONSIBILITY OF THE SCHOOL TOWARDS SOCIETY WITH RESPECT TO CITIZENSHIP.

In approaching the topic under consideration there are, no doubt, various methods. Several such present themselves to the mind at once, one as important as the other; so much so that it seems wise to make a threefold approach for our present purpose.

On every side to-day, we hear the question asked as to the objects of discipline in school life. We can, no doubt, accept the fact that discipline ought to be administered in such a way that sufficient order is present for the efficient progress of the school. There should be a minimum amount of general disturbance. We may also be able to accept the fact that proper discipline ought to be so administered as to gain the respect of the pupils for all authority in general and school authority in particular. And finally, it is a generally accepted object of discipline that it should inculcate a desire for *intelligent citizenship* on the part of the pupils.

Now, to approach the topic from a somewhat different point of view, attention may be called to the various types of government through which India has passed. The history of India, with which you are familiar, is very colourful with its tribes and clans, its kings and companies, until we come to more modern times when it is incorporated with the British Empire. And now under that rule you are once more on the eve of a great constitutional change when there is every possibility that the citizens of this country will be given the opportunity to accept a greater *responsibility in government* and the administration of the welfare of the people and the country.

If we may be permitted to make one more approach to this topic, it might be wise to approach it once more from the view-point of discipline in its more modern aspects. In the first place this requires that all discipline which is administered should not be done for discipline's sake but should be



administered for the purpose of giving to the pupil some permanent educational values, something of lasting benefit to him in life. Discipline properly carried out ought also to lead the pupil from those destructive tendencies which make discipline necessary and lead these tendencies towards some useful action. In certain respects this might be called a transmutation of energy. And finally good discipline ought to lead the pupil to a desire for, and an efficiency in, *self-government*. Here your attention should be called to the fact that self-government does not mean in every case that a body necessarily governs itself, but that each member of such a body is able to govern himself. This, of course, makes for the ultimate welfare of the whole body and puts the larger body in a better position to assume greater degrees of responsibility.

Considering therefore the three major points in this approach, namely, school discipline for citizenship, India's opportunity for greater responsibility in administration, and the modern tendency of discipline for self-government, the topic under discussion, the responsibility of the school towards society with respect to citizenship, is indeed timely and interesting. It, therefore becomes the duty of educationists in general, and all Indian school teachers in particular, to consider what the modern tendencies have been in this line, to build on, modify or remodel present school conditions, and to introduce such experiments in the administration of school affairs as will redound to the future glory of India. It is the purpose of this discussion to suggest various methods and examples.

Theoretically we have been training for citizenship in our schools for years. This has been done through certain subjects such as Civics, History, Geography, and more recently Sociology and Economics. If you were to study certain books about the first three subjects here mentioned, undoubtedly, amongst permanent values of the subject would be listed the quality of inculcating good citizenship. In recent years however, this value has been challenged, and no doubt rightly so, not so much because the subjects do not contain rich possibilities, but due to the faulty handling of these subjects. There is no doubt as to the value of Civics in the training of citizenship. However, if the teaching of this subject means little more than storing up in the memory the different powers present in his community in their proper succession, the pupil who has been the subject of such a course will be happy when his examinations are over, provided his memory has played no tricks on him. But to set up class room scenes which demonstrate topics in Civics, or to take classes to such places in the community where the practice of Civics may be actually experienced, is to prepare the pupil for a practical examination in the subject, but more than that, prepare him for the greatest test of all, his life as a citizen in his community.

For developing the memory or presenting topics of interest, there is probably no subject like History. It would be a mistake however, to use it for the former; and to use it only for the latter would be to rob History of much of its great value. Therefore, if there is any truth in the old saying, thread-bare with time, that History repeats itself, then History can become one of the leading and most interesting courses for training in citizenship. But this can only be done with one eye to the distant past and the other to the distant future with the power to observe throughout the whole span; this is necessary rather than with one eye to the past and the other eye only to the examination. There is no desire here to criticize the pupil for his interest in the examination. There is a desire however to broaden the outlook in History teaching.

Another subject of high value, but of somewhat uncertain berth in our present educational system is Geography. Fortunately, this subject has received its best attention in India somewhat recently, during a period of reconstruction in the teaching of the subject, so that we find in many cases a very practical and interesting presentation of the matter. More and more as we can compare conditions of other countries with our own country, find causes and results of modern progress, and make the application to our own conditions, the sooner we will be bringing up a generation of intelligent citizens capable of solving in a scientific way the problems of the nation. However high we may laud the powers of Geography, History and Civics, the fault in connection with their ability to inculcate permanent educational values may lie in our present compartment method of teaching, the method by which Geography is limited to geography, History to history, and Civics to civics.

With a view to overcoming this water-tight compartment of teaching individual subjects, in other countries, especially in America, certain subjects have been grouped together to make up a course in Social Science. The social sciences are the subjects that have already been mentioned. A combination of these subjects has been made and called the Social Sciences or Social Science. All of the time allotted for each of the subjects mentioned is put together and given, as a rule, to one teacher in one class. This teacher must see to it that the pupils are well grounded in the various subjects just as they are to-day. However, the most important point in the system is to co-ordinate the subjects in such a way that pupils may soon begin the real work of problem solving. Some teachers prefer to use the text books used for History, Civic, Geography, etc., whereas others prefer special books which have been written keeping in mind a combination of the various subjects. Whatever method is used, it is important to give the pupils thorough grounding in the subject matter which can be used in problem solving, and at the same time give such problems which will require the knowledge already absorbed. But in no case must the problem wait for the subject matter to be taught or the subject matter wait until the problem is asked. Pupils are taught right from the beginning to find their material in text books and reference works, and this after all is the object of the course. Problems are of a civic or citizenship nature, dealing with national and international subjects, so that, given a background in subject matter, the skill to find material, and the method of solving problems, pupils so trained ought to become better members of the community, the country, and the world. If any course in school work can do it, surely this system makes the best of the opportunity that we have to use subject matter.

It has been asked how early a course of this kind might be introduced. It has been suggested that it ought to be introduced not later than the beginning of the Middle School or Higher Elementary Grade classes, say, the Fifth Class or First Form. The complaint has been that these pupils cannot begin so early because they have not learned how to do it. That is true. Many a man at fifty cannot swim whereas any number of children at five can swim splendidly. Applied to school work it might be said that children often do not learn what we do not teach them. Let us not hesitate to teach them to solve social problems because they have not been taught till now. In fact, it may not be too much to say that a beginning of solving simple social problems can be taught as early as the solving of simple problems in arithmetic. At least a beginning can be made. To wait until after the Third Form or equivalent class is to lose too many children to whom these skills are important.

To repeat then, if the school curriculum has anything to offer in the line of citizenship-training for its pupils, this method seems very satisfactory, if not the most satisfactory used upto the present. However, as much as such systems may be recommended, they are somewhat theoretical in nature and ought to be used gradually with certain extra-curricular activities which may be introduced in school life, giving a more practical outlook on the problem of citizenship.

In making various suggestions in connection with these extra-curricular activities, it is not implied, that sudden changes be made, that proper preparations are not first necessary, that necessary precautions are not essential, that all the suggested activities can be introduced, or that all are possible. It is hoped, however, that suggestions made will be of such a nature as to point out directions in which there are possibilities. And furthermore, as simple as it might be to describe in detail how these suggestions have been worked out in actual situations, detail here would be dangerous since no two situations are alike.

The ultimate, and somewhat distant aim of practical citizenship-training in school work is to set up some type of student government. It is neither desirable nor practical to start out with such a course. For that reason it has been mentioned as the *ultimate* aim. This student government may be organized in various ways according to the size of the school and degree of progress which the pupils have made. In the earlier stages, monitors, appointed by the head of the institution may help to give pupil opinion. On the other hand, as time progresses, a Student Council, composed of elected members would be a great step forward. A certain number of students representing each Form, or a pupil elected to represent each room, or any method by which a somewhat broad representation through a small body can be had, is satisfactory.

Before going further, a point which really ought to be mentioned later, but must be kept in mind from this point forward is this, that in no case can entire authority be placed in such a council. Its work at all time must be but advisory to the Head of the school. This is the opinion after a quarter of a century or more of experience in many schools, and is only natural and reasonable, since the pupils are being trained in citizenship and are not yet matured. The logic of this seems parallel with the statement that a boy who studies History cannot be termed a student of History, in the real sense of the word, much less an historian. Nevertheless, a clever executive in a school or a tactful staff advisor in the Council can so manage and lead things that the students seldom have to be conscious of the fact that they are not assuming the greater part of the responsibility.

Keeping in mind, therefore, the advisory nature of such a council, it may be made responsible for the organization and running of various school activities such as Vernacular and English Literary and Debating Societies, Sports Committees and Councils, Dramatic organizations and the like. The fact of the matter is that such organizations are now often largely in the hands of pupils under the guidance of a staff advisor. It is by starting in organizations of this kind that the pupils can be guided and trained to assume the greater responsibilities of the Student Council. It is in such organizations that you have the opportunity to observe how the pupils are measuring up to the smaller responsibilities and to gauge the time and manner of instituting a type of Student Council. Once more, if the Student Council is the ultimate aim, these organizations may well become the training ground.

Once the Student Council is well organized, among other duties that may be given it in addition to those already mentioned, the following are examples. It may be asked to gather information from week to week concerning all extra-curricular and out-of-school-time activities and make up a schedule for approval as well as take an active interest in the supervision of such activities. A vigilance squad may be organized to see to the care of the buildings and compound in order that buildings and furniture are not marked up, destroyed, or in other ways misused, and in order to keep the compound and school rooms free from unsightly papers and the like. Social affairs may be arranged and fostered largely through the work of the students and their representatives. Social functions originating from the group as a rule get group support. And in the case of prize distributions or other competitive functions, though the time may not be at hand when the students can judge well amongst themselves, there is no reason why they should not be guided to suggest what events or actions in a school merit prizes, and also suggest representatives from the staff to act as judges. This, it can easily be shown, is consistent with the policy of calling on judges outside of the competing group. Library work also to a very large extent can be given over to the students. Where the open shelf is in vogue, specially assigned pupils may look after proper conduct of the pupils during the periods the library is in use. A librarian from the staff, of course, will be in charge of his student helpers.

Another direction in which pupil-help can be utilised in order to build up a spirit of altruism, so essential in an intelligent citizenship, is the case of charity. This can be done with least embarrassment in larger schools. Where the staff is aware of the fact that a boy, very poor, but intelligent and deserving, is in need of a book or two for the proper progress in work, on recommendation of the Head of the school, the Student Council might be persuaded to collect money for the purpose, or go to the better situated students for the purpose of getting a donation of second-hand books or funds. Since in cases of this kind most strict confidence is necessary if self-respect is to be maintained, the work of recommending charity and administering it ought to be left to the Head of the institution, a trusted member of the staff, or if ideal conditions permit a very small committee of students. In this connection it may be that the Student Council will be in a better position than teachers and heads of the institutions to decide what pupils in the school ought to pay highest fees. Students are at times more keen in this direction than we have reason to believe. And to feel that they will always reduce fees to a minimum is a notion, not a necessary anticipation. Much depends on the approach.

And finally, the extent to which the Student Council may be utilized to maintain attendance and reduce truancy is hardly realised until tried. Personally, experiments in this line have been made with most gratifying results among pupils and a great improvement in the tone of the school. The stimulating effect of this experiment on the staff was not the least gratifying result.

To sum up therefore, it seems sound to recommend the general duties of the Student Council, or any other group in the school to which responsibility is assigned, as follows. In the first place it should manage student affairs, and that along lines just indicated. In the second place it should develop proper pupil opinion. Most of the things which citizens to-day do or refrain from doing, are the result of the approval or disapproval of the group in which they

live. That spirit may be engendered in the school. When a pupil does something in school his thought should not be, will the staff approve or not, but rather, will this action receive the approval or disapproval of the group. Here too, and probably the most vital of situations for self-government, is an unexplored path, at least relatively so in many school situations in India. In this connection also it must be said that, if Heads of institutions would more often consult responsible pupils of the school in connection with rules which might be desirable for the efficient running of a school, a wealth of information may be had. If it is true that it takes a thief to catch a thief, it takes a pupil to know what a pupil will do and how to avoid it.

If it is maintained that there are many difficulties and limitations in connection with what has been suggested here, it must be admitted. But to say that they are insurmountable is going too far. And every time such a difficulty is surmounted it is salutary both to the pupils and staff. When the objectives in view are kept in mind, we must be willing to undergo many hardships and expend much effort and thought to the work involved. This is especially true when we realise that the pupils of to-day will become the citizens of to-morrow. And if the citizens of to-morrow are not good citizens it will reflect badly on the educators of to-day.

One or two observations are necessary before closing. The school, as far as is compatible with pupil mentality, ought to approximate life situations and reflect ideal community life. The plan proposed here attempts to point in that direction. However in that situation, the teacher or educator is a vital advisor, and in that capacity it behoves him to be impartial. Unbiased, he ought to be vitally interested in all government, but free from all accusations of politics.

May this glorious land of India, the land of eternal sun, be proud of her citizens of to-morrow, and this reflect credit upon you, the educators of to-day!

II.

THE RELATION BETWEEN THE SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

Inasmuch as this series of lectures has to deal with modern tendencies in education, it may be readily understood that much of what one says is open to criticism. The reason for this is that a tendency is often in an experimental stage the end of which has not yet been reached. Or in another case the experiment might prove satisfactory under a certain set of circumstances, but not under another. Here, having studied all the material, the educator tries to fit the experiment to his own conditions, and with certain changes, modifications, or additions brings about a system which fits his own case. So also in this discussion, as well as in the previous one, no attempt is made to offer something which will fit every case. If, however, in the material here offered some suggestions can be taken and altered to suit individual conditions, the time and effort expended will have been well worth while.

In making a somewhat abrupt transition let us plunge into the school situation. In a class of physiology one ought to have cross sections of various parts of the human anatomy as well as organisms in general for intelligent work. In other fields of work the builder for example, wants a cross-section

of the building he is to build. And so, more and more, we try to analyse present and future situations by getting a cross-section of the subject. Likewise, if we wish to study society, either as it is to-day or as it will be to-morrow, we do well to look for a cross-section of society, and the school seems to offer such a favourable situation. If this is true, and if we are to believe what teachers say about pupils, especially when teachers speak while off guard, there is every reason to believe that there is little satisfaction with society as it exists to-day, and little hope for society of to-morrow unless teachers take a hand and conscientiously apply themselves to the task.

However, the question arises, has the teacher a right to remould society. After all, most of the taxes for running the schools comes from the people, and the people are the ones to say what the school ought to do. You will agree that there is something vicious in the argument. For, if society to-day is not as it ought to be, it may be difficult to get the members of society to realise their shortcomings and to be willing to support proposed changes. Society usually feels that, if it pays the piper, it may also call the tune. This is usually the case. However, when educationists combine and seek ways to mould society through the school it seems as if they want to call the tune in spite of the fact that they do not pay the piper. Ordinarily it cannot be done. There is a method of doing it and that is by establishing the proper relation between the school and society. It is the purpose of what follows to show how this relationship may become an intelligent and pleasant one, and what can be done once that relationship has been properly established.

One of the first and most important steps in this direction is the Parent-Teachers' Organization. In a country where illiteracy is so high, no doubt there are great obstacles in the way. It is true on the other hand that there are many communities where the percentage of literacy is fairly high, and many centres in large cities where a fair number of educated people may be found. And though the ability to read and write may be essential to literacy, let us not forget that it is not essential for a sound ability to reason out things and discuss the merits and demerits of every day propositions. So, even the uneducated may be utilised for the purposes of such an organization. But let us go a step further. It seems that the scope of the Citizen-Teachers' Organization is still greater. This organization seeks to get into the interest of school life not only the parents of its pupils, but all members of the community, the host of married people who have no children, or children too young to attend school, as well as the great number of people who have become of age and not yet become married. The mere fact that a man or woman has not become a father or mother does not relieve that person from the responsibility of training society. Since he is a member of society to-day he must be interested what society will be to-morrow, and the school is the chief centre of training the members of that society. Just this type of person may give balance to discussions concerning children, where parents may at times take a naturally biased point of view.

Some of the aims and objects of such an organization may be listed as follows:—It may have dues collected and from these dues supply things which the school needs. In every case however such supplies should be of a type which may not be bought from grant money and the contribution of the management. Where it might be out of place to buy desks or laboratory supplies, it might be an excellent idea if a gramophone and records or a radio were bought. The organization also gives ample opportunity to establish a

friendly relation between the people of the community, especially those interested in the school, with the teachers. Where parents can depend only on the pupil opinion of the teacher you may rest assured that very often you do not rate very high with the parent. It is remarkable how parent and citizen opinion of the teacher changes for the best when the two meet. (Under certain circumstances the opposite may happen). Through such contacts parents may also learn what the objectives of the education offered are. Things are much different in school to-day from what they were in his time, and unless he can understand why the difference has taken place he may not be able to co-operate. And it is especially important that the members of the community on the whole may understand that the school is working in the right direction with sound ideals for the future of society. More important than this however is the fact that the teachers learn what society requires for itself. It is here in the discussions that the alert teacher will learn what is of importance for the pupil to learn while he is in school. Many of our adult population have outlook, foresight, and ability to reason out things. Let us learn from them what they think the school ought to do.

Another important object of such an organization is to arouse adult sympathy for school problems. The teacher will never lack support with citizen backing. Parents may also be shown ways of improving the out-of-school environment which is often very faulty and a great detriment to the school. And finally parents may help to evaluate the work of the school, though it must be understood that this should never amount to an interference with the professional conduct of school work. All the aims here mentioned have been cited as the result of the work of educationists who have given close study to the possibilities of such an organisation.

Once such a friendly and intelligent relation is established between the school and society, the school must continue to offer its best for society. This can be done by stimulating the natural growth of pupils. Once the needs of the community have been evaluated, the school system must offer a great variety of studies for its pupils, both arts and vocational in nature. The day for training the pen-pusher, (the student who has failed his S. S. L. C.) and the college man, (B. A. attempted or otherwise) is past. Education in the broad sense of the word must train for every walk of life. And it must be careful not to introduce any subject which is in defiance of the community in which it is introduced, nor would it be well to introduce any subject in a vocational line in which the community is higher skilled than the school can ever hope to be. All offerings of the curriculum should be of practical benefit to its students and reflect or be based on the needs of the community. So also the immediate needs of the pupils must be kept in mind so that eventually no curriculum, nor parent's desire nor teacher's hobby can compel a pupil to study in a line opposed to his abilities or inclinations. And for this purpose then we will need broad syllabuses giving minimum requirements and broad aims, with examinations to test whether or not minimum requirements have been attained, and problems set to see whether general aims have been inculcated. The present method of regimentation through the syllabus will have to be abolished. It will be the happy medium of individual instruction through group administration.

If society is to be better to-morrow than it is to-day, it will become essential that the school takes a more serious attitude towards both active and leisure time activity. In the line of general knowledge to read and write will be essential. More important than many other things, however, will be

the training to find material which can be used. Along with these habits the fundamentals in computation as they touch everyday life and business are necessary. Savings, loans, interest, tax, etc., are examples. Of a practical nature in another direction is the habit of problem solving through the social sciences and a course in civic education.

Good habits in discipline are also to be inculcated. For this purpose good-mannered and self-disciplined teachers who can serve as examples become a *sine quo non*. As soon as we get a greater number of that type of teacher, respect for authority, respect for the rights of others, good manners, and punctuality, will be habits in discipline which can follow.

In certain schools we must offer subjects in manual labour where a pupil may become skilled in such a way that he naturally fits into the community. To train commercial students who fall behind the product of short-time commercial institutions, to train farmers who want to *superwise* work, or introduce dry cultivation in Ceylon, to train carpenters so that they are unable to revert to villages and do the ordinary work expected from the village carpenter, reflects little credit on the system of education and the syllabus under which it works.

If the foregoing offers any suggestions along the line of more practical aptitudes that ought to be inculcated, the following might be introduced in order to prepare pupils for leisure time activity. As time goes on and as production increases, less and less work will be required of each individual. Present tendencies in many countries show this. Happy is that nation which has inculcated enough skills and appreciations into its people that its people will not become a nuisance as spare time hangs heavy on its hands. The school has a very important place to play in this problem of society. Suggestions only can be given here. Art, music and literature with an appreciation thereof are important factors in keeping a community entertained. Art by the introduction of beautiful and worthwhile pictures, and attention called thereto; music with the introduction of a gramophone during recess and noon hours, before and after school hours, using only the very best that India has produced; literature, where good books are read because they are interesting and not because they are prescribed; these are but suggestions of what can be done and done in a way that a pupil will not soon lose the aptitude. The school must also be in a position to help the student evaluate dramas and cinemas in order that a proper taste for good presentation may be aroused and to foil the enterprises offering such demoralizing trash as is presented in cinema houses of larger cities and in the drama hall of every smaller village. Sports too should be popularised more than ever, for example as it was done in one important commercial centre so that to-day such an interest has been aroused in sports that the worst dangers of rowdiness have all but been removed. These skills and aptitudes are to be inculcated by the school if society in the future is to be contented. What a splendid opportunity the school then has not only to inculcate these skills, but to help entertain the community as we have it to-day through socials, entertainments, and sports functions.

Then also community life in the school must be accentuated. This has been dealt with at greater length in the lecture on Citizenship. Briefly restated, the pupil must help in governing the group by learning self-government. He must be given responsibility little by little as he grows under training, always acting only in an advisory power, but in the group spirit. This

work can often be done best by starting with the individual societies and expanding the scheme to the whole school.

And in this community life and spirit as it should manifest in the school, immediate life situations must be studied and observed. Pupils themselves may be made responsible for the cleanliness and sanitation of the school surroundings. If that spirit can be inculcated into pupils we are doing as much as we can at present to have a clean and beautiful country. Every self-respecting citizen must rebel when he sees beautiful buildings marked up with white marks from lime or chunam, (as a result of chewing), or the vivid red marks all over prominent buildings and railway stations as a result of promiscuous spitting, to say nothing about the most disgusting and insanitary habit of making the whole of India the largest latrine in the world. Undoubtedly these things are bad customs of the country and must be eradicated. Huge as the task may be, let us set about and by example or precept begin to educate the community, and especially the children of the community, teaching them what ordinary decency requires.

Though this feature of inaugurating life situations is very pessimistic, there is a phase more optimistic, the value of which cannot be overlooked. That is the societies which are already organised. These are some of the best socialising agencies that we have. If in time we can get pupils to work together in harmony and union in such organisations, society to-morrow will be fortunate to have in its midst members who can get together and work out common problems.

Up to this point hints have been offered as to the important position the teacher plays in serving as an example to his pupils. Since the teacher is the cementing element between the school and society great emphasis must be placed on him and his work. He must be a teacher for the sake of teaching. It is unfortunate that so many people are teachers because they can do nothing else or have been excluded from other labour. It is but necessary to call your attention to the situation for you to give your own examples. Teachers in turn must learn to be more tactful than many of them are if they wish to win the confidence of the community. Their own life and character must be of such a nature that they can automatically gain the respect of the pupils. When teachers suddenly change class tactics before observers and members of the administration, when they carry on their lessons differently at the time of inspection than at other times, when they talk lightly about the work of superiors and others in authority, pupils will be the first to learn what a fraud the teacher is. Rather let the teacher hold sacred the position he holds and become a pal, an advisor, and friend of the pupil. Let him serve in this capacity for every pupil without favourites. And when in after life the pupil looks back to his school days let him be able to say that but for his teacher he would not be such a worthy member of society if it had not been for the part that his teacher played in his life. And a teacher with such qualities will in time gain such respect in his community that his opinion will also be respected in his community so that he will be able to make his direct contribution to society as it exists to-day.

All of this presupposes that a teacher will have love for his work, without such an educational bias which will make it boresome to speak to him. Let him be a sane member of his community with none of the earmarks of the absent-minded professor. And above all let him identify himself with his community so that those of more lowly estate may not have to feel that

a favour is being bestowed upon them if the teacher condescends to speak to them.

With teachers of the proper type, the members of a community will naturally gravitate towards the school. School buildings will become meeting places for the community where teachers in charge will have ample opportunity to converse with the parents of their pupils. In illiterate communities the members thereof will not have to resort to quack interpreters and writers. Teachers will find here a way of getting a contact with the community by helping the illiterate. And where school gardens, decorations, and things of an aesthetic nature can be fostered, the community will follow the lead given by the school through the pupils. There are communities in the world where the community naturally swings around the school. Happy is the day for education, educators, and the community when this happens in India.

Finally, to review briefly and revert to the beginning of this discussion, you will recognize the fact that an indication has been given as to how the school situation is in school to-day. Inasmuch as it can hardly be called satisfactory, suggestions have been given to show ways in which improvements can be made. In addition to this we have seen something of what the relationship is to-day between the school and society and how this also can be improved. Above all it is important that we grasp from what has been presented, the far-reaching results of proper work in the school to-day.

You may say that the ideals which have been set are high and well nigh out of reach. That is true. Ideals must be high, and if they are not entirely out of reach they are capable of attainment. There comes to mind the proverb with a comment. Hitch your wagon to a star, but do not forget to grease your axles. The material here presented has sought the former without losing sight of the latter.

To revert therefore to the introduction we again ask the question, 'Can the school dictate to society to mould its future?' The answer is 'Yes'. This is true if the proper relation exists between them, and it can exist provided the teacher is honest, tactful, and considerate in his scheme of education in order that he may get the confidence, trust and good-will of his community.

THE BACKWARD AND THE MENTALLY DEFECTIVE

BY

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THE BACKWARD

John Milton, the English poet, has given us one of the best definitions of education. "I call a complete and generous education that which fits a man to perform justly, skilfully and magnanimously all the offices, both private and public, of peace and war." Education, thus, is the development of strong interests which give children a consciousness of power to control their environment and participate in the activities of life. There are in our schools those who are not competent for such a participation in spite of the training they get. Such incompetent children who cannot do the seemingly simple tasks given to them are classified as backward.

Backwardness is often attributed to deliberate perversion and laziness, and the real causes that make children failures in schools are lost sight of. Our inability to evaluate the many deviations from normal behaviour which children manifest is responsible for the problems of discipline, of overage and non-promotion, which confront us every day in the class room. An elaborate study of the public school children of America has revealed that educational retardation is due to the physical, mental and social condition of the children, and not to any fault in the curriculum of studies. When we test a large number of children of the same chronological age on their school achievement we find that the majority come close to the average, and that those who are either brilliant or backward become comparatively fewer in number, or in statistical language, they distribute themselves according to the normal distribution curve. Pupils of the same chronological age show increasing differences as they grow older. They differ greatly in physical traits, nervous stability, mental balance, emotions, intelligence and acquired knowledge. Children's minds do not all develop equally fast, and they have their own individuality. Their individual differences appear in proportion to the varying quantity of their different traits.

The variation in achievement and acquired knowledge among school children is great. Prof. Gates in a study of a group of 50 children of the same age in a New York school found, that, in reading, the score of the best was 242 when the poorest score was 126, in spelling, the best score was 95 as against 33 of the poorest, and in Arithmetic the score varied from 26 to 11, and that similar differences existed between the extremes in other abilities. Prof. Burt in a similar study of 689 children in their educational achievement in reading, spelling and arithmetic found that while about 70% of the pupils showed average ability, 16.5% were below the average and 13.5% showed superior achievement. These differences in achievement are mainly dependent on mental capacity. A child with a high intelligence should ordinarily do much better in class than one with average or low intelligence. But what a child accomplishes is not always in proportion to his capacity. It is very important for a teacher to know if a child is making the full use of his mental ability. The device of measuring achievement in terms of capacity is what

teachers should make use of in order to prevent retardation of intelligent children. Just as the ratio of mental age to chronological age gives the intelligence quotient (I. Q.), the ratio of educational age to the chronological age gives the achievement quotient or educational quotient (E. Q.). The ratio of educational ability to intellectual ability gives the accomplishment quotient (A. Q.). A pupil with high I. Q. and low A. Q. needs the special attention of the teacher, whose duty it is to discover the cause of the retardation. The backward children in our schools are not all so because of mental deficiency. There are various other causes contributing to inefficiency, although mental deficiency is the most important factor in all cases of retardation. A study of the general intelligence of our school children would show that most children are normal, or in other words are able to do what the majority can do. There are a few who are slightly below the average in intelligence and inferior in achievement, and who, therefore, find it difficult to cope with the kind of work the majority do. About 2% of our children are so far below the average, that it is almost impossible for them to go through school successfully.

No two children are exactly alike, and they differ far more in mental traits than in any other. The innumerable dissimilarities we find in them are due to heredity and environment. Heredity is the influence of factors inherent in the child himself from the time he was conceived, and environment is the influence brought to bear on the child from the time of his birth. Life begins by the process of fertilisation of germ cells and division of cells. The elements resulting from this complex process become the basis of the growth of organs and their function. The human organism keeps a part of these elements in the form of germ cells. An individual, therefore, is only a carrier of germ cells; he does not produce them. He is thus a carrier of the characteristics of a series of forefathers. The resemblance of children to their parents and grand parents is the result of the law of heredity. The family characteristics get complicated and gradually fade as generations pass, and that is why the resemblance to near relations is stronger than to those far removed. All children do not resemble their parents in an equal degree which makes it rather difficult to predict accurately what a child is going to be. The prediction is made more difficult by a fact demonstrated by Sir Francis Galton, that the offspring tend to regress toward the average of people in general. Children of parents of extraordinary mental and physical characteristics do not always become extraordinary, but reproduce their characteristics in accordance with the 'law of regression.' Therefore a study of the parents' physical and mental traits alone does not help us to make a correct prediction of a child's predisposition. Individual differences found in children at birth are mainly due to heredity predispositions. In rare cases, the harmful effects of infectious diseases and poor nourishment may influence a child in prenatal days. Again, it is heredity that determines the growth of the body, functions of the senses and nervous system and motor control; but these are all capable of being influenced and modified by environment, although it is not possible to state the extent to which the modifications may take place. It is difficult to separate the forces of environment and heredity and make a quantitative study of their influence on the physical, mental and social growth of children. In the Year Book of 1928 are found certain articles published by the National Society for the study of Education relating to the results of experiments to determine if the intelligence and achievement of children are affected by the nature of the environment. One experiment was for the purpose of studying the difference between a child in the family and a foster child, between children of the same family when one of them is

adopted into another family when they are all separated and adopted in different homes. The results proved that the achievement of children was affected by environment, and that the improvement depended on the home in which the child was placed and on the age at which it was left in that home. When unrelated children are raised in the same home, differences in their ability tend to decrease. The resemblance of siblings is partly due to their common environment. Another study was for the purpose, of finding how nature and nurture affected mental level. For this purpose, children were removed from their homes in their very infancy to avoid the influence of parents and placed in other homes, and were then tested. The result of the study concludes that home environment contributes only about 17% of the variations in children, the total contribution of heredity being about 75 to 80%. Heredity is the most potent factor in mental ability, and the influence of environment is seen most in character and personality traits.

The question of the relative importance of inherited endowment and environmental influence has long been a matter for controversy. According to Galton, if a child has a good ancestry, the nature of the education we give him is of little importance, while Herbart holds that the nature of education we give a child is all important, and that, if the education is sound, ancestry need not be considered. In distinction from both these views, Sir Percy Nunn asserts, "that the living organism has a principle of autonomy, of self-determination, which does not indeed make it independent of endowment and environment, but does enable it to give its own characteristic form to, and make its original use of, what it derives from those sources. The human organism is a centre of creative energy which uses endowment and environment as its medium; so that the elements it receives from nature and nurture do not themselves make it what it is, except in so far as they are the bases of the free activity which is the essential facts of its existence."

The individual differences due to heredity and the influence of the environment are responsible for the variations in achievement of school children. In the time of James it was believed that the mind had a patent pattern and that a good teacher could eradicate individual differences. Galton in England and Cattell, his student in America, made attempts to measure individual differences making allowance for differences in traits. In our schools children are grouped on the basis of achievement. Those who are successful are allowed to move up a class every year and those who are failures are kept back. This method of repeating a class is offered as an adjustment for pupils of low ability; but it can be justified only in the case of those who are not able to cope with the fundamentals of the subjects taught in the higher class. Repeating a class should be recommended only if by so doing, the pupils can gain anything valuable. What is required in cases of retardation is not repetition but a correction of the causes of failure and an adjustment by developing new interests. The preparatory class and the divisions A, B & C in standard I in our old schools were mostly attempts to meet individual differences. In our elementary schools to-day, about a third of the pupils is made to repeat a class because we have no facility to group them according to their ability and meet their individual needs. The whole problem of retardation can be solved if pupils are given work that suits their ability.

There are many reasons for educational backwardness, the most important of which is mental deficiency. The backward are dull, and when the reason for the dullness is investigated it is invariably found that mental deficiency is at the bottom. But if children of average mental ability are found to

be backward in the class, the cause may have to be looked for elsewhere. Sensory defects, special disability shown in reading, spelling and arithmetic, wrong methods of study and failure in social adjustment are some of the reasons that drive children of normal ability to neglect their class work and become problems to the teacher.

Of the special senses, it is the defects of hearing and sight which mostly interfere with the progress of school children. The deaf are inferior mentally, showing a retardation of about 2½ years. There are two types of deafness, congenital and acquired, the latter being twice as numerous as the other. Congenital deafness occurs in families of low mental standing. Very probably the defect undermines the brain power. Acquired deafness is often the result of diseases like fever, meningitis or small-pox. The Scotch Report on the study of the deaf states that there is no difference between those born deaf and those who have become deaf later, and that, in performance tests, both are found to be able to do just as well as those who can hear. The mental retardation in deaf children seems to handicap them all through school life; at no stage do they come up to the average mental level. In language, they are found to be about 4 years retarded, but in motor achievements they do just as well as the normal children, if not better. That is why industrial training is recommended to them as more useful. Those who were not deaf in their childhood are found to be superior mentally. The lack of capacity to comprehend usually found in the deaf is due to their inability to have normal social intercourse. As Dr. Cyril Burt says, "deprived of opportunity, growth becomes barren." In the London Board of Education pamphlet of 1923 appears the account of an experiment carried out on 350 physically defective children in London schools between the ages of 6 and 12. The mental tests showed an I. Q. of 79 for 27 of them, and the rest had an average I. Q. of 86.7. It was found that there was very close approximation between the average mental and educational ratio. The low average I. Q. was explained to be not due to social environment and heredity or to physical defects, but due to loss of educational facility brought about by physical defects.

The blind are inferior to sighted children. There is a large percentage of feeble mindedness among them. Their educational achievement is superior to that of the deaf, although far below that of normal children. Their difficulty to acquire language is just as great as that of the deaf. Even in mild cases of eye-defects like myopia and astigmatism, if proper attention is not paid to relieve eye-strain, children would naturally dislike reading and, consequently, become retarded.

Weakness in special subjects like reading, spelling or arithmetic makes children retarded in class. Ability to read fluently facilitates the acquisition of knowledge. If reading is easy, the subject-matter will always become interesting. There are wide individual differences in the capacity to acquire skill in reading. There are many methods for teaching reading, but the wisest thing to do is to select what is useful in each method and adjust it to individual needs. A boy of average mental ability was found to be below the average in reading. An investigation of the cause of his trouble revealed that he was overtrained in the phonetic method of reading. He had to see each word before he could recognise it. This process interfered with his comprehension and made him still more slow in reading. Remedial instruction to overcome the particular defect improved him and made him quite fluent. A mere practice in reading would not have helped him in this case. If by the adoption of a wrong method a child becomes unable to develop skill in fluent

reading and comprehension, learning becomes a burden and a strain. It is not to be wondered at if such children show a disinclination to study.

Correct spelling becomes a necessity because of its value for written communication; for without it, it is not possible to convey the idea intended. Intelligence has a considerable influence on learning to spell. An analytic study of errors in spelling shows that the causes for weak spelling are imperfect vision, poor memory, defective hearing and false association. A practical way to teach spelling is to find out the individual differences in children and devise a type of drill that would correct the special point of error. Correct spelling and correct usage of words go together, and therefore weakness in spelling would lead to poor language and retardation in class-room subjects.

Pupils who rate high in mental ability are generally good in arithmetic, and therefore poor achievement in arithmetic may be put down for poor ability. An analysis of the specific errors of pupils in arithmetic shows 3 major difficulties, difficulties arising from a deficiency of certain character traits like industry, initiative and carefulness which are necessary for success in any subject, difficulties due to terminology that prevent the pupils from making full use of the teachers' explanation, and difficulties resulting from pupils' unfamiliarity with the situations of everyday life which teachers use for explanation. In computation it was found that operations involving subtraction caused most difficulty. The errors in multiplication and division were, in a majority of cases, due to the pupils' failure to subtract correctly. More initiative in computation was noticed when the difficulties in the process of subtraction were removed. If a pupil who is generally good in all other subjects is backward in Arithmetic, his failure may be attributed to any one of the difficulties mentioned above. What is needed in a case like this is improved methods of instruction to remove the difficulty, as otherwise he may tend to fall back in other subjects as well. Failure in arithmetic creates a sense of inferiority which has an adverse influence on the mastery of other subjects.

Considerable variations are seen in reading and other abilities of children. Those who have the same general intelligence and the same training are not always uniform in any one of their abilities. Differences in original aptitude and differences in the amount and nature of training may to some extent explain these variations. Prof. Gates adds a third factor, the influence of special capacities, such as musical and artistic capacity, social capacity and capacity to read and spell. It is true that it is the original intellectual endowment that determines the attainment in all school subjects, but the variations in children's ability to master the different subjects must be due to the influence of external factors. If a pupil who is generally good in all subjects shows a special disability in any one subject, it can be safely inferred that his weakness is due to wrong educative influence. The following case study of a boy of superior intelligence, who was unable to read for 2½ years of his school life, is described by Prof. Gates as an illustration. The boy was described to be suffering from 'congenital word-blindness,' a term used for original inaptitude for reading. He had no constitutional deficiency. His hearing, speech and memory were normal. An investigation of the errors he made showed that he lacked the technique to see a word correctly and analyse it into its elements. The boy was not evidently dull and his disability was therefore diagnosed to be a wrong technique of reading. Remedial instruction quickly improved him and made him rank as high in reading as his superior intelli-

gence warranted. This is perhaps an extreme case where a wrong educative influence is frustrating the even course of an original ability; all the same, it proves that extrinsic factors play a very important part in the education of children.

Reading depends on the co-ordination of several bodily movements and mechanisms. A defect in any one of these will interfere with the reading skill. The eye makes a short backward movement known as 'regression' which when it follows a long forward movement is a necessary factor in reading facility. When regression follows a short forward movement, poor reading is the result. Children who are defective in motor control become slow in reading and acquiring knowledge. Vocalisation and bad eye-habits are two factors interfering with rapid reading. Defective motor control interferes also with handwriting, drawing, typewriting, playing on the piano and clear speech. In strength of grip and speed of movement children of low mental ability are far inferior. Motor tests involve comprehension, and when those who are below the average in intelligence appear to be unable to control their muscular reactions, their weakness will have to be put down for lack of comprehension and in ability to follow directions rather than any lack of specific motor ability. Certain motor habits are found in some children, which are ordinarily peculiar to the feeble-minded, but it is common to find habits like tapping, whistling, grunting, biting lips, sucking the thumb etc., in a few in every school. Sometimes such movements are caused by organic irritations, but very often they are the symptoms of a mental conflict. Sound motor achievement is possible only through conscious control of the muscular reactions and conscious learning.

Learning is said to be a successful response to a novel situation, or as Thorndike puts it, learning is a bond between situation and response, the determining force of the bond being satisfaction in the result. The two phases of learning are *acquiring motor skills* and *acquiring information*. The acquisition of information is just as much the result of one's reaction as the learning of motor skill is. As long as we believe that information can be passively absorbed from environment or from direct teaching, the learning process is bound to be uneconomical and the result unsatisfactory. Any phase of learning is a conscious reaction, and a child can recall only such items to which he has reacted. Different children learn different things from a common subject because their reaction to the several items is not similar. This leads us to think of the nature of the reaction and how it affects learning. The feeling that the acquisition of information is not affected by the method used has made learning ineffective. Even in these modern days, there are teachers who feel immensely satisfied when they find their pupils able to repeat multiplication tables or a series of names and dates in History and Geography. They are satisfied with the subject matter and fail to realise the immense loss in their apparent neglect of responses. One must learn the reaction that will be needed for practical purposes. Take the illustration of mastering a multiplication table. The usual method is drilling the children in repeating the whole table. Although children are uniformly trained to repeat evenly the whole table, they may fail to make the correct response if asked to repeat what twice nine is. I have seen children going through the whole table as they learned it, until they stumble against the correct response in some round about way. Unless they have practised such reactions, a prompt response to all the questions is not practicable. Again, look at the process of learning a poem by heart. In most of our schools children are told to learn it part by part. And analysis of the time taken to master the poem by learning it as a whole, and by parts, and of the amount of material that can be recalled after

a time shows that the 'whole method' is more successful in point of time and gives more lasting results. Here again it is quite common to see children struggling with their recitation and trying to recall a lost thread by starting from the very beginning. This is the result of wrong connections made by following the 'part method'. Another defect noticed in learning is the use of a temporary device to help the pupils to master a difficult task easily. Counting on the fingers is a very common device of this kind. Although this temporarily relieves the difficulty of counting in abstract terms, it gradually becomes a habit which it is sometimes difficult to break. I have seen even grown up people counting on their fingers when they have to do subtraction or addition.

Errors in speech, spelling and information result from an inadequate memory. If the errors are not recognised in children at the initial stage, there is the danger of practising them all through their further studies, making it extremely difficult to dislodge them. Errors of this kind although simple at the outset cause serious difficulty if they are not eradicated at once. Even children of average and superior intelligence become failures in certain subjects by wrong responses. Failure to remember a word or a wrong recall, results from an inappropriate response. Fear, excitement or loss of confidence may interfere with the right response and make children forget what they know or substitute a wrong response. In all such cases, the cause for the confusion and error is to be searched for and eliminated if normal reaction is to be restored.

When we guide children in learning, it is important to give them models of correct reactions and help them to acquire ability to know when they are successful and when they are failures. In our everyday work in the class room, we emphasise the place of interest in successful learning. It is believed that if the pupils' interest is aroused in any subject by external means, effective learning can be secured. I have seen some teachers go to the extent of even making themselves ridiculous for the sake of getting their class interested in a lesson. Such endeavour on the part of teachers is the outcome of a wrong impression that interest leads to successful reactions. Interest is not the cause of successful activity, but the result of it. Children show themselves immensely interested in all activities which they can perform well. Failure and difficulty in a subject make children uninterested and listless, while success keeps them satisfied and interested. A task that is too easy or too difficult becomes uninteresting, while a task that can be performed well by overcoming the difficulties becomes interesting. It is important, therefore, to select activities that are suited to the ability of individual children if interest is to be kept up in the class room. Activities which children can do successfully may be made more interesting if they have a motive or purpose behind them. A need must be felt for the work they are asked to do, if success and enthusiasm are to be expected. There are some children who are inefficient in school even though they realise the motive for the work, because of their difficulty to make a beginning. This inability to make a start may be the result of illness, excitement, or fatigue, or sometimes may be due to laziness or lack of will-power, but the most important cause is the habit of thinking or doing other things at the time. This distaste to begin work is increased sometimes when the work turned out in the beginning appears to be poor. The only remedy is in removing all possible distractions and creating habits of prompt action.

In the constant struggle for growth and purposive activity the environment plays an important part, for, the proper development of the child de-

pends on his interpretations of the realities round him and his relations to them. Alfred Adler attributes all the problems of childhood to an inability to make right social adjustments. He thinks that all reactions in childhood are a striving for superiority, and that all complications arise from failure of adjustment. The teachers' function in this process of education is to guide the child to a right understanding and rational direction of the developing self by helping him to make a healthy interpretation of his environment. They have to be watchful to study the needs of the individual child by noting the nature of his reaction to the environment, to stimulate his thinking by clearing from his mind all misinterpretation, and to create in him greater confidence for successful adjustment. Adler believes that every individual exists as a unity of personality, and the fashioning of that unity is influenced by the striving for 'superiority' and the feeling of 'inferiority.' William McDougall perhaps means the same thing when he describes life as a continuous unified process of self-assertion influenced by 'positive self-feeling' when one feels superior to the situation and 'negative self-feeling' when one is baffled. Every individual passes through some conflict with his environment. Struggle in itself is not undesirable, but if it should end in a total failure it is harmful; but, on the other hand, if it ends in an adjustment which ultimately benefits the individual it is helpful.

The first conflict that confronts a child is the necessity to become a social being. The outside world is nothing to a child as long as his relation with it is satisfying and comfortable. The first realisation that he is not all-important and that his self-gratification has to be restricted by a consideration for others, is a painful experience to him. When a child first enters school he is still in the self-centred stage. He may have learnt to transfer his affection to his mother, but he has not yet felt the need for extending his affection to any one outside his own family. It is the teacher who has to train him to make proper social adjustments. He must learn to love his teacher and class-mates, must know that he can best satisfy himself by a consideration of others' wishes, must learn to forego immediate pleasure for the sake of future gratification, and understand the value of being honest with himself. As children are egoistic and only things that most gratify them are acceptable to them, it may be wise to hold out 'social approval' as a reward for making right adjustments. Teachers have, however, to guard against an abuse of 'social approval'. For example, a teacher who holds up a clever child as an example to the class or ridicules or abuses a dull or troublesome child makes the former, selfish and the latter defiant, and thus gradually gets himself alienated from the confidence of his class.

Groups of ideas built up from the experience of a child at times come into conflict when, what is experienced is not in keeping with hereditary tendencies. Even a previous experience, unless it is modified, is sometimes found inadequate to meet a novel situation. When the modification or readjustment is difficult, the individual is tempted to escape from boldly facing the issue by devising ineffective measures of adjustment. A normal child, when he meets with any difficulty in a new situation, would try to modify the cause of the difficulty and become successful. Success in any struggle requires 'will-power.' One who has a strong will is one who strives against obstacles persistently until they are removed and success is gained. Thus, strong will or the habit of success is something that can be created by training. How often we see in our schools children who cry and sulk because they cannot have their own way. These are children who have been unconsciously trained by their parents to persist in and obtain what they desire by

pleasure we anticipate always exceeds the pleasure we actually experience when the desired end is reached. Since reality is so hard, an individual who is not well-balanced may try to avoid the disappointment by giving up an anticipated pleasure or by living in a land of dreams. There are some who, in their anxiety to forget the disappointments of a past experience, drive them out from conscious life. The desire to forget is so great that sometimes they even ignore the existence of certain functions of the body which recall a painful experience to mind. Functional paralysis and functional blindness which have no physiological bearing, are cases of this kind. Ideas have a tendency to group together round an emotion and form a 'complex.' If the emotion is unpleasant, the complex is forced out of the conscious mind into the sub-conscious. But when the effort required to submerge them is relaxed, the complex appears again inducing the individual to wander over the past experience of failure. The sense of defeat compels him to find relief in day-dreams by ignoring the reality and picturing the past scenes in a form most agreeable to him. The dangerous aspect of day-dream is when it is used as an escape from reality. A person who indulges in day-dreams fails to meet the actual situation, and instead of admitting defeat and trying to remedy its cause, tries to derive great satisfaction from an imagination of what he might have done. If wisely used, day-dreams may be enlisted for character development, and as an incentive to make one a success. We all know how a great musician, a fluent speaker, or a fine athlete fires the imagination of children making them dream of the day when they would themselves be honoured as musicians, orators, or athletes. Such a dream may prove an incentive to make them strive to excel in the particular field that has caught their fancy. As a spur to activity, day-dreams are useful, but when it becomes a substitute for reality it is harmful. When we find a child indulging much in day-dreams, we should realise that he has chosen this method in order to be successful in a situation which, in reality, he cannot cope with. What we should do in such a case is to find out the cause that led him to this device and what he is dreaming about, and then help him to conquer the difficulty. He would cease to dream if he is directed to have a real victory in a baffling situation.

Phantasy is an advanced and more serious form of day-dreaming, when a person begins to accept all his imaginations as facts. Phantasy appears in many forms, as dreams, somnambulism, hallucination and double personality, but the phantasy we meet with in the class room is a much milder type. Children who easily get into a mood of phantasy are inclined to be superstitious, extremely suggestible and absent-minded. Stealing and other forms of dishonesty which we find in some children are imagination put into action. An illustration of the case of a girl I happened to meet in one of the schools would make this clear. The girl was an only child of well-to-do parents, intelligent and very charming. When a search was made one day for some missing articles, her box was found to contain almost all of them. She showed no signs of emotion and was so normal in her behaviour that I almost felt inclined to believe that some one, out of jealousy had placed these things in her box. She confessed, however, that she was the culprit although she had no explanation to offer for her misdeed. I could think of no punishment that would make her feel sorry except separating her from the rest of the girls. This, of course, gave her an opportunity to come to my room freely and prattle. She said that her father was very fond of her, and could afford to give her even far costlier things than what she had in her box and that her father never refused her anything. These statements revealed that theft was not the outcome of a desire to steal, but a dream put into action.

As an only child, she could command everything in her house, but she found the school different. Things she desired to have, she could not get because they belonged to some one else, and she could not expect the whole school to dance attendance on her to satisfy her least wish. The result was a desire to snatch them for herself which she could not very well put into action in a normal way. She struggled hard to drive this desire out of her mind, but it re-appeared again in another form. The desire that cannot be satisfied in real life finds an expression in phantasy. When a teacher sees any unsocial behaviour in children, it is safe to infer that they are having some sort of mental conflict. If, on the other hand, he tries to cure them by thoughtless punishment he is only paving the way for fresh outbursts. It mischievous children are punished in an open class, it does not cure them or make them quiet, but it only gives them the idea that to be caught in a mischief is wrong, but there is no harm in any anti-social behaviour practised behind the teachers' back. The children must be brought to understand that all unsocial behaviour has its own natural consequence, and that to avoid pain and loss they have to be moral. Some children outgrow this habit when they get adjusted to the conflict. There are others who fail to find an adjustment without proper guidance, and such children if left to themselves would later develop more serious forms of mental dissociation.

The early experiences of children affect their attitude to the environment either to modify it directly or if the experience was unpleasant, to distort reality and assume an attitude just the opposite of the experience. This distortion of reality which avoids the present by reverting to early ideas, is called 'regression'. When a difficulty arises in a new encounter with reality, the mind turns in imagination to the situations in early life which did not present any difficulty for adjustment. Such situations are usually those which made the strongest impression in childhood, such as a child's experience of his mother. The mother has, therefore, the greatest opportunity to give her children a training which would prove useful to them in their later life. Then comes a stage when a boy has to do things for himself without leaning on his mother. Even at this stage if he returns to his first attachment to the mother it is a sign of weakness. It is only an attempt to turn back on the development he has reached so far, in order to gain satisfaction from his early attachment in the same way he did in childhood, when he is no longer a child it is not possible to gain satisfaction from childish things, and therefore, once he has started on 'regression' the dissatisfaction he feels in every situation drives him further and further back until he reaches a stage when he is divested of all acquisitions. This desire to regress has its origin in an exaggerated feeling that all experiences in the past are pleasant. The tendency to forget all the unpleasant things and see only the glowing part of the past is common to both children and adults. As children grow up several new tendencies which are the result of education and the strengthening of instincts demand expression. When they cannot get an outlet, there begins a general feeling of regret that they cannot go back to the time when they had no such tendencies. This feeling of regret when children are thwarted in their attempt at self-expression is the beginning of 'regression'. The one way to stop regression is to find suitable social outlets for the tendencies that crop up. There are some tendencies which have to be checked for the good of society. The suppression of these is bound to result in disastrous consequences, if suitable substitute outlets are not found. Some of the common forms in which 'regression' appears in the class room are lisp-ing, a desire to cling to some one or other, a longing to be fondled, crying loud, creating disturbance in the class by rattling and shouting, etc. A long-

ing to show extraordinary cruelty and a desire to exhibit nudity are two of the crude forms of regression. A substitute outlet for the former may be provided in scientific investigation, and for the latter in opportunities for exhibiting their physical and mental vigour in the athletic field or on the school dramatic stage.

When we blame very small children for any wrong they may have done, it is usual to hear them say as an excuse, "I have seen you do it." This is an attempt to direct attention to others and thus escape criticism. The most common use of such excuses is to cover up a feeling of inferiority. When a child discovers his inferiority, the best thing for him to do is to acknowledge his defect and try to correct it; but what is done in most cases is to try not to admit any defect or to point out to the defects in others in order to show his own superiority. The practice of laughing at the failures of others is common even among very young children in our schools. They do it to show that they are superior and to satisfy their own ego. However much a failure a child may be, he can always see others who are worse than himself. Thus we may see a rather backward child in the class consoling himself that he is not the very last.

This is one way the mind tries to derive satisfaction by distorting reality and finding excuses to cover up any failure, and the other is again by distorting reality by inventing an excuse for doing the desired thing. Inventing an excuse for what one wishes to do and hiding the wish by making out that the excuse was the real reason, is called 'rationalization'. How often we see children who do certain things because they love to do them for their own satisfaction and who yet refuse to admit the real cause for the action, and bring in instead arguments in support of their position. There is a tendency among children and grown-ups too to belittle the function of emotion in their lives and to believe that conduct actuated by intellect is more desirable. They are always ready to perform an act if reason dictates it, but scarce dare to admit that they would do the same under an impulse of emotion. The normal life however, requires a proper balance of emotion and intellect. An attempt to exclude one would lead to a compromise by distorting the appearance of things. A child who wishes to be guided by reason alone believes he has maintained his ideal, while all the time he is hiding the fact that it is not reason that has guided his action. Rationalization begins very early in a child's life when he first learns the difference between a lie and an excuse. If he indulges in the first he gets punished, but in the latter he escapes. An excuse is not a lie. It has some elements of truth in it, but it hides the important facts and emphasises the unimportant. In rationalization, reasoning undergoes two types of distortion—creating logic tight compartments and distortion of emphasis. The logic tight compartments are created by accepting ideas without questioning. Certain statements are accepted in one situation and certain opposite statements accepted in a similar situation at another time. It is very rarely that a child perceives that the two statements are not harmonious, but if he does see the inconsistencies, he is made to accept them without getting any reasonable explanation for doing so. This method of teaching to accept an idea on authority is responsible for the many inconsistencies we see in him later. In the other form of rationalization, when an attempt made to harmonize different groups of ideas is not successful, one group is distorted. When a child is asked to do a work which he does not wish to do he distorts his reasoning process. The reasons given by him for not doing the work, may appear perfectly sound to him, although to a onlooker they are anything but the true reasons. Serious cases of dis-

torted reasoning leads to delusion and hallucination. A very common type of rationalization seen among children is putting the blame on others when they do anything wrong. A boy who is caught reading a book while a lesson is going on blames others for making a noise and disturbing him from listening. He rationalizes that in the circumstances, reading is better than wasting time. The teacher at once scolds the supposed disturbers, thereby teaching him to defend himself by blaming others.

In the struggle for social adjustment, when an individual fails to confront reality he seeks certain compromises with it in the hope to gain a victory. In compromises like day-dreaming, phantasy, regression and rationalization, although he has not come out quite successful in the struggle, he believes he has. At any rate he is not completely defeated. When he begins to surrender, the struggle ends in defeat. Fear is such a surrender reaction. Fear is a symptom of failure—it appears in two forms, anxiety and fear of a specific thing or situation. Fear is an emotional reaction to external stimuli. Both Watson and Thorndike have shown by elaborate experiments that the reaction of fear is something acquired in childhood. A child may have a number of natural fears connected with a large number of objects, and he may have a reason to fear them. These fears are caused by external conditions, and as a child gathers more and more experience, the fear producing situations may increase. At times when children are seen to fear rather trivial things, the unreasonable fear may be a defence against divulging the reasonable fear. This process of hiding the real cause of fear is called emotional displacement. Every child when he reaches the adolescent stage has the problem of restraining several impulses. It is the duty of the school to provide proper means for giving an outlet to the abundant energy of youth. When a boy fails to make an adequate adjustment of his energy in fruitful expressions, he shows anxiety which is a frank admission of failure. Anxiety causes great suffering to the one who is influenced by it. He argues with himself and tries to be rid of the anxiety but it persists and makes him surrender completely unless a proper use of his energy is suggested. A boy suffering from anxiety worries constantly and expresses a fear although he can very seldom specify what his fears are. This is morbid anxiety and should be distinguished from normal anxiety for doing a work well or to be first in class. It is usually a vague fear unaccounted for, and therefore difficult to deal with. If a child has a fear which appears absurd and for which we can find no reason, a deeper cause may be looked for. In most cases of fears of this kind, children try to give a reason but they may be only a subterfuge to hide a more serious cause. The thing feared may be a substitution for some other fear they conceal. Ordinarily a fear of this kind may not do much harm, but when that interferes with the whole life of the child, it is serious and should be included in the class of morbid fears or phobias. They are connected with morbid ideas which the child may admit to be foolish but which cannot be removed by any amount of reasoning. I have seen children losing their interest in study and becoming listless by fear of a simple word which might occur in the course of class teaching. Although it is ridiculous that a word should frighten them, it is a fact that it is so, and it is very seldom that one can succeed to talk them out of that fear. The words stand in their mind for some hidden conflict. When a teacher meets with cases of this kind his duty is to find the real cause of fear and make possible a right adjustment. It is not easy to get the children to talk of their fears. In most cases they are not themselves aware of what lies at the root of the fear, and the reasons they give may be far from being the real cause. A teacher should know the child well and should ascertain the

history of the child and try to find out to what the fear is related in his mind. It may be possible only by gaining his confidence and making him talk freely.

The total organization of an individual's instinctive, emotional and habit reactions together with his physical characteristics, forms his personality. Intelligence plays a very important role in personality. Personality is also influenced greatly by the experiences through which the individual passes. Undesirable trends in personality are to be carefully avoided in children since a wholesome adolescent personality develops from a wholesome childhood. The combined influence of maturation and learning makes it possible for a child to react to stimuli. This reaction is called behaviour. A wrong response to stimuli gives rise to behaviour problems. Though teachers find distressing behaviour in a majority of their pupils, they fail to interpret these problems as symptoms of their educational, social or emotional maladjustment. The problem child in school is identified as one who is antagonistic to authority, who refuses to conform to class room order and routine, who fails to make the requisite application to prescribed school work and who violates the teacher's standards of integrity. The personal problems of children which do not interfere with the teacher's objective, are not identified as maladjustments. The problems that relate to the welfare of the individual child are not considered so serious as those that hurt the teacher's moral sensitivity or interfere with his authority and teaching. While teachers emphasise the seriousness of problems relating to sex, dishonesty, disobedience, failure to learn and unruly behaviour, mental hygienists consider unsocial forms of behaviour as most serious. Social forces tend to control and regularise behaviour. An effort on the part of children to evade these controlling forces and strike out a course of their own, causes behaviour problems. In the course of their experience they learn that in the interests of their well-being they have to make adjustments to imposed social requirements; but when the requirements are too difficult for prompt acceptance, they try to evade them either by modifying the environment to suit themselves or by withdrawing from the environment. This latter phase of evasion has already been referred to. The reactions of teachers toward behaviour problems of pupils are largely determined by the effect such behaviour produces on them. The aggressive type of children is punished and the withdrawing type who is usually weak and dependent is pitied. Many forms of aggressiveness are normal activities which are characteristic of child development, but since they do not conform to adult habits of behaviour, are disapproved. Prohibitions and punishments are not the most intelligent mode of modifying behaviour, although they are resorted to very often in the ordinary class room discipline. The usual form of punishments and criticisms only antagonise children and aggravate their bravado. By attacking the aggressive type of children, and by treating indulgently the withdrawing type, the underlying difficulties of adjustment are increased and the undesirable expressions of social behaviour are made worse. The treatment of behaviour disorders is directed toward the undesirable trends which are only symptoms of maladjustment, while the underlying causes that produce the maladjustment are neglected. Social behaviour is not improved by knowledge or instruction until the knowledge becomes integrated into the behaviour of the child. Such integration depends on the child's emotional and social adjustments as well as on his conditional habits of behaviour. The social attitudes and experiences of children should be in harmony with the ideas that are presented. Teachers should have a general knowledge of what constitutes normal child behaviour. They should know the social background of children and the physical and mental

capacities that contribute to healthy child behaviour. They should know that behaviour problems can be treated only by directing attention to the underlying emotional factors. They should also pay some attention to their own emotional and social adjustments that they may be able to stand the shock of defiance and disobedience found in children.

Conflicts among tendencies are bound to appear in all children, but what has to be done in order to evolve a satisfying life without continual clash of interests, is to select certain dominant trends and develop around them systems of reactions. A full life is one that is guided by dominant purposes. A child's activities must be sufficiently varied to adequately meet his needs and give satisfaction to his fundamental cravings. An admirable personality can be developed only by the co-ordination of the various interests and habits which further the dominant trends. By co-ordinating the useful reaction tendencies and by providing proper substitutes for rejected impulses, a harmonious life is possible. A well balanced and integrated personality is the unity of consistent habits.

For a proper adjustment of mental life, health is essential. Physical fitness is important for mental health and happiness, and should be promoted by attending to nutrition and diet, sleep and rest, exercise and recreation, and hygienic conditions of home and school. Children need food rich in elements necessary for growth. The need for food is greater in early adolescent period than in childhood, reaching a maximum at about 14 for girls, and 16 for boys. The duty of the school in contributing to the health of the children, is to give suitable instruction in personal hygiene, sleep, diet, exercise and general care of the body, to provide for physical exercises in the form of games, play, corrective work and drill, to keep the buildings and premises in hygienic condition, and to arrange the school curricula in accordance with the ability of the children.

Another important item to be included in a programme of mental hygiene is sex instruction and sex hygiene which should touch on the many problems of life arising from the manifestation of the sex-instinct.

Thirdly the child should be taught the art of facing life as it is. He should understand that he would meet with opposition and disappointments in his life and that he should face them boldly without giving way to harsh and ungenerous thoughts and a sceptical attitude.

A child has to be taught a habit of success by giving him problems which require effort to solve.

A child should understand the value of honesty, and above all of being honest with himself. If he makes a mistake he should know that it is better to make a frank confession than to hide the fact by subterfuges.

Children have to be taught practically to keep a proper balance between self-gratification and service to others.

The weak and backward children are not to be neglected, but they have to be treated individually by giving them opportunities for making the best of their life.

Mental health means the ability to attain and maintain satisfactory human relationships. In a mental hygiene programme for adolescents should be included a variety of useful, wholesome activities creating useful ideals and purposes and effective habits, teaching skilful work of some kind or other,

avoiding worry and shock, providing freedom and responsibility, firm, just, kind and rational treatment, self-reliance and self-control. The adolescent boys and girls can best be influenced by the home and the school. Proper home conditions, and the wise dealings of the parents and the religious ideals are strong aids during this period for a natural growth. In school activities attention should be paid to methods of work and study, adeptive difficulties and behaviour troubles, and it has to be seen that the nature of work provided is suited to their ability, and that they are given opportunity to master a subject and to have extra-curricular interests. Many of the principles of mental hygiene are illustrated by the duties assigned to Boy Scouts and Girl Guides. The inveterate truants and idlers in our schools are not moral perverts but misdirected children whose strong impulses when deprived of normal outlets find satisfaction in anti-social conduct. The remedy does not lie in repression but in sublimation. This fact is amply illustrated by the success of two well-known institutes, "George Junior Republic" of America and the 'Little commonwealth' of Homer Lane in England.

II

THE MENTALLY DEFECTIVE.

All forms of learning require intelligence, and therefore it may be safely inferred that the main cause of backwardness is deficiency in intelligence. Spearman describes intelligence as a general factor 'G' which varies from individual to individual, but remains the same in any one individual in respect of all his correlated abilities, and a specific factor 'S' which varies from individual to individual and also from one ability to another in the same individual. 'G' is not a concrete thing but a value and is seen more in some abilities than in others. In a general survey of the operations of intelligence, he reduces the whole problem to three qualitative laws. 'G' is only a factor in all the laws, a factor entering into all the performance, a form of mental energy. Thorndike describes intelligence as "the power of good responses from the point of view of truth or fact." He distinguishes the four attributes of intelligence-level, range, area and speed. Enumeration, description and interpretation are three different levels, one being more difficult than the other. Range refers to the number of tasks that can be solved at any given degree of difficulty and is positively correlated with level. Range is determined by level as well as by breadth of experience and opportunities to learn. Area relates to the total number of situations at each level that one can respond to. Difference in area is brought about by differences in opportunity, interest and temperament. Speed is the rapidity with which one can respond to situations. Thorndike also speaks of different kinds of intelligence-abstract, concrete and social. In most of the school subjects like reading, arithmetic, history and geography, abstract intelligence is needed. Ability to respond to things or ability to comprehend actual concrete situations is concrete intelligence. Social intelligence is the ability to react to persons. Thorndike does not believe in the two factor theory of Spearman although he does not discard the factor 'G'. He holds to the empirical point of view that intelligence is the ability to do a task, and that the higher forms of intellectual operations are identical with association or physiological connections in a larger degree. A bright child is different from a dull one because he has made a large number of connections of the ordinary sort, and not because he has any new physiological process. The difference may depend on original tendencies, larger interests and environmental opportunities.

Children are distributed with regard to their general intelligence in accordance with the normal curve of distribution. If we study the children in any of our schools we can see that the majority are those of average ability. About 1½ to 2% of them will be found at one extreme, of very low ability, and about the same percentage at the other extreme, of superior ability. Children of average ability who form the majority would themselves show varying degree of intelligence as they fall within the curve from one extreme to the other. Prof. Pintner states that the elementary school children of America show a distribution of intelligence from 40 to 140, the High school pupils from 97 to 119, and the college students above 99. The relation between psychological tests and academic success is not very high, but intelligence is one of the most important factors that contribute to efficiency in all kinds of work. The variation in the range of intelligence seen in pupils of different grades may be due to the elimination of duller pupils year by year.

Some of the earliest definitions of mental deficiency emphasise the lack of intelligence from birth. From a medical point of view, mental deficiency is considered to be a disease, arising from physiological causes such as dysfunction of ductless glands. Tredgold, an eminent authority on mental deficiency, however, does not mention any specific physiological reason, but suggests arrest of cerebral development as a probable cause. Psychologically mental deficiency is defined as 'weakness of the mind'. Herbart describes it as 'inborn' differing from normal or superior intelligence only in degree and not in quality. Binet and Simon were the first to think that mental deficiency could be defined in terms of mental age, the mental age ranging from 0 to 2 years in the lowest group in intelligence, and from 2 to 7 years in the group just above these. The modern definitions speak of the social consequences of mental deficiency, one of them being a lack of ability to get on in society. Binet's definition is more psychological than social and mental deficiency as defined in statistical terms is the lower end of the curve of normal distribution of intelligence.

The mentally deficient are classified according to the degree of deficiency. They are called aments and classified as idiots, imbeciles, and feeble-minded. The British report of 1929 rates idiots at a mental age of 3 years, the imbeciles at 3 to 5¼ years, and the feeble-minded from 6 to 8½ years. In America these three groups are known as idiots, imbeciles and morons. The idiots are those who cannot look after themselves or avoid physical dangers. It is impossible for them to make any adequate adjustment to environment. The imbeciles can rarely be taught to read and write; they can only do very simple tasks. The feeble-minded or morons can be taught reading, writing and arithmetic, and they can do the ordinary tasks given to them under supervision. They can rarely compete with persons of normal intelligence. This classification is important since the mental level gives us a fair idea as to what a child can accomplish educationally. It would help us to know the probable development he can reach. Another method of classification is according to clinical types. Ninety per cent of the mentally deficient are not of any specific type. The remaining ten per cent usually appear in four main types, cretins, the mongols, the hydrocephalic and the microcephalic. Cretinism is due to a disturbance of the functions of the thyroid gland, and appears in a retardation of physical and mental growth. The more pronounced the physical characteristics, the greater is the mental deficiency. The mongols are so-called because in physical features they resemble the mongol race. They are born in normal families and the defect is probably caused by some disturbance of the ductless glands. They are mentally very retarded,

and they seldom live beyond the age of 14. Hydrocephalics and microcephalics are much rarer than the other two. The hydrocephalics are found among all grades of intelligence. The large head is caused by an excess of cerebrospinal fluid in the brain. The microcephalics have very small heads, and they are almost always extremely mentally retarded. Other types are the paralytic, the epileptic and the idiot-savants or 'wise idiots'. These latter are very rare. The variations in abilities seen in people generally, are observed in a striking degree in these. They show remarkable ability in some special line, although mentally they are deficient. Ability to draw, to memorise by rote, to play musical instruments and extraordinary skill in arithmetical calculations are some of the special talents they possess. In a special school for the mentally defective I once found a boy of twelve years who could not perform the daily tasks without help. He could not be trusted to go home by himself, nor could he be made to master the rudiments of reading or writing, and yet he showed remarkable ability in clay-modelling.

In physical developments the mentally defective are below the normal, although their physical development is not so greatly retarded as the mental. When their physical growth is compared with the growth of the normal, age for age, they are found to rank lower in height and weight, the difference always depending on the degree of mental defect. In cranial measurements, in the capacity of lungs and in general vitality also they rank low. Cranial measurements, however, cannot be taken as reliable tests of mental deficiency. The defective are often awkward in gait. Lombroso, the Italian criminologist believed that he could detect them in any group by the presence of anatomical peculiarities which he called 'Stigmata of degeneration'. Peculiar formation of skeleton is common among the defective, such as the saddle shaped and 'V' shaped palates, receding or protruding lower jaws, deformities of fingers and toes and malformation of ears, nose and eyes. Very few mental defectives have a good set of teeth, and sometimes the teeth appear later than they should in normal cases. While the appearance of the first tooth in normal infants is at about the 6th month, it appears in them in the 9th month. However, mental deficiency cannot be based on the stigmata of degeneration, alone, since many of the abnormalities mentioned above may appear in normal persons also. Lombroso's conclusions were not altogether wrong. A person who has several pronounced stigmata is likely to be sub-normal also. Anatomical deformities are far more common among the mental defectives, although these deformities appear in the normal as well.

The mentally defective are subject to defects of the special senses. They suffer from defective vision, partial deafness, perverted taste and a weakness of the sense of smell. The feeble minded are very near the normal in sensory reactions, while the idiots show extreme sensory defects. The idiots will eat and drink anything that comes within their reach and they do not show the least discomfort even at the most disgusting odours. In motor control, in grip, in speed and in muscular co-ordination they are far inferior. Here again the feeble-minded come very near the normal. Hollingworth thinks that they are nearer the normal in motor ability than in intellectual ability. Among the idiots a great variety of motor abnormalities are seen. Purposeless movements of the muscles and sometimes of the whole body are quite common, as in swaying backward and forward, pulling the ears, slapping the face, nodding and making faces. These motor tendencies appear as they do not have sufficient intelligence to control them. It is difficult to measure the sensory and motor capacity of the mentally defective, since any tests

that may be devised would involve comprehension and ability to follow directions. Hollingworth therefore attributes their failure in sensory and motor skills to lack of intelligence to comprehend and carry out orders and thinks that it is possible to train them to do any kind of work which does not require intellectual ability. Prof. Pintner however thinks that in motor ability they are inferior to the normal and even if they are trained to do any kind of work, their performance will be lower than that of the normal. He supports his view by pointing out how the mentally defective children are behind the normal in walking and talking ability. In motor ability of sitting unsupported a normal child of .58 years can do as much as a defective of .97 years, in standing a normal child of 1.01 years does as much as the other of 1.68 years, in walking normal of 1.23 years equals the other of 2.08 years, in speaking when the normal utters the first word at 1.06 years the defectives do the same at 2.07 years and the first use of phrase at 1.73 years of the normal appears at 3.04 years of the defective. Thus, although the mentally defective can be trained to perform all tasks, the retardation in motor ability cannot be prevented.

No systematic study has been made of the instinctive and emotional life of the mentally defective. Prof. McDougal defines an instinct as "an innate disposition which determines the organism to perceive any object of a certain class and to experience in its presence a certain emotional excitement and an impulse to action which finds expression in a specific mode of behaviour in relation to that object;" and thus emphasises the fact that emotions are the mainsprings of human behaviour. The instinctive behaviour in animals is uniformly the same throughout their life, while in human beings it is indefinitely plastic, capable of change and progress, the degree of progress depending on the amount of intelligence they possess. Thus, if we hold that intelligent behaviour is only a far advanced form of instinctive behaviour, it is easy to understand why the mental defectives are different from the normal in their behaviour. There is no doubt that they are both very much alike in their instincts and emotions, the difference being mainly due to the ability that the intelligent have to control and direct instinctive acts. The delinquencies committed by the young are found generally to spring from the original instructive reactions or their modifications. "It is the primitive emotions rather than the primitive instinct that provides the motive and energy for crime," says Prof. Burt. An analysis of the crimes of the mental defectives showed that theft was the most usual charge brought against them the others being truancy, sexual misbehaviour, disorderly conduct and fighting. The instinct of acquisitiveness shows itself in grabbing food, hoarding, hiding and collecting and gives rise to a sentiment of ownership, and when that is thwarted a desire to take things by force and violence is the result. Next to theft, truancy is the commonest offence. Burt thinks that truancy originates from the same instinct or rather an elaboration of it as the hunting and wandering tendency. 3.3% of the boys and 1.4% of girls of the truant cases did so solely from a desire to wander. Impulses to wander are seen also in cases of hysteria, epilepsy and depression. Hollingworth thinks that there are many instincts underlying truancy, such as tendency to seek friends, dread of disapproval and a desire to master the environment. When a boy finds that he is isolated and lonely in the midst of his class-mates who are far above him and that he cannot manage the environment, he seeks an environment which he can manipulate. The sex instinct in the mental defectives is quite normal and well-developed. Since they are weak in intelligence and cannot foresee the consequences of violating social conventions, their conduct is determined by uncontrolled instinctive acts resulting in various social problems. Disorderly

conduct like quarrelling, shouting and hurting others can be likewise explained as the result of giving free vent to their instinctive reactions of pugnacity. Anything that threatens to obstruct their self-assertion awakens the emotion of anger which results in attempts to remove the obstruction by acts of violence. Fighting and assault are also the result of anger. As long as defective children are permitted to have their way, they remain good-natured and pliable, but as soon as their instinctive desires are thwarted, they exhibit an uncontrolled temper, at times even leading to violence. A boy who stabs his class-mate who opposes him or throws stones or hurts his teacher is a case for study and diagnosis whether his perversion is not the result of a low mental ability. The defectives are very suggestible, and they lack the power to discriminate or judge facts. Their suggestibility has its origin in the instinct of submission. Most of the crimes of the defectives are those they have been made to do. In the case of very low defectives like the idiots and imbeciles, it is possible to make them say and accept anything we suggest. Little children, those below 4 years also show this tendency. But above the age of seven, it is not so easy to get a normal child accept any statement without demanding an explanation. Binet believed that the suggestibility of the defectives was the outcome of their lack of intelligence. Binet describes an experiment he performed on an imbecile. He took a chair, and asked the imbecile what it was when he readily answered 'a chair'. "Dreadful mistake," he said, "it is not a chair, it is a cork-screw." Then he asked him what it was, and the reply came readily again "a cork-screw." When asked on what he was sitting, he said a 'cork screw'. Suggestions like these that outrage common sense are successful only on the imbeciles. The feeble-minded cannot be so easily influenced. The defectives are not very submissive to each other or to those who are mentally lower. If instincts appeared in individuals in direct proportion to intelligence mentally deficient children would not have been a problem either in schools or in society. It is the disproportion between the strength of instincts and the amount of intelligence which is responsible for their anti-social behaviour. Instincts like 'being pleased at the approval of others' are also well-developed in the defectives. They can be easily won over by smiles and praise or by fondling, and they are capable of deep affection for those who win their confidence.

It was formerly believed that the mentally defective belonged to a distinct mental species. No particular provision seems to have been made for them in the ancient civilised countries like Greece and Rome. They were classed with the insane. It was with the advent of Christianity that the first provision was made for them by keeping them along with the blind and the lame in asylums. The laws of England began to differentiate between the idiot and the lunatic; but when in the 16th century, individual responsibility was emphasised the insane and the mental defectives could find no place in society; and they were very sternly treated. About two centuries later medicine began to consider the diseases of the mind, and distinguish the mentally defective from the insane. It was Itard, a physician at the institute for deaf-mutes who first took up the task of educating a defective boy. In 1837, Seguin, a student of Itard, continued the work of training the defectives, and in five years' time he convinced the authorities, of the necessity of educating the idiots and imbeciles and thus he was put in charge of the first school for the mental defectives, recognised and supported by the state. Later when he visited the United States of America he did much to stimulate the work for the defectives. By the close of the 19th century schools began to feel the necessity for organising special classes for the dull and feeble-minded, and the first psychological clinics was opened by Witmer at the University

of Pennsylvania. It was Binet who demonstrated that mental deficiency was only a lack of intelligence and not a disease, that the deficiency was only in quantity and that there was a gradation of intelligence from the lowest of the deficient, the idiot to the normal. He also devised the now famous scale for measuring intelligence.

Mental deficiency is inherited. 80 to 90% of the defectives are those who are born so. A few cases are caused by disease or accident. Glandular trouble and meningitis may cause mental retardation, as also hydrocephalus, syphilis and epileptic attacks. Biology tells us that children take their origin from the germ-plasm which are carried in the bodies of their parents. This germ-plasm is continuous from generation to generation and is not what is produced in the body of the parents. It follows therefore that children may resemble not only their parents but even their remote ancestors. Scientific researches into the nature of heredity show that all human traits are not inherited in the same way. Certain traits appear in accordance with the Mendelian law called after Gregor Mendel, the discoverer of the law, which states that if a member of a family with certain traits mates with a member of another family with different traits the offsprings do not show a mixture of these two, but they show one or the other trait according to the combinations found in subsequent matings from generation to generation. Research has not so far established how mental deficiency is inherited, whether in accordance with the Mendelian law or any other law, but it is proved that it is transmissible through the germ-plasm. Alcoholism and chronic diseases produce chemical changes in the bodies of the parents which may affect the germ-plasm and produce children of inferior mental ability. A small percentage of mental deficiency in children is caused by syphilis which is an organic disease affecting various tissues of the body. If it attacks the nervous tissue of a child, mental deterioration is the result. A defective thyroid gland causes stunted physical growth and sometimes arrest of mental development. Children who show these symptoms are called 'cretins'. They differ widely in intelligence, some never developing beyond a level of 3 years. A broad nose, spade-shaped hands and feet, short and bow legs and dry rough wrinkled skin are some of the physical characteristics of the cretins. They are usually very poor in motor control, and therefore the manual training which is recommended as useful for the mentally deficient in general will not be of help to them. Sensory defects, physical defects and certain diseases of the body like tonsils, adenoids, hookworm, are wrongly mentioned sometimes as causes of mental deficiency, since a cure effected in any one of these seems to improve the children mentally. What is meant, however, is that children who are backward in achievement, when they are freed from the obstructions that stand in the path of their progress, do well in class. An inferior intelligence can never be improved by correcting a sensory or physical defect; but a correction of the defect would enable them to achieve results commensurate with their intelligence. There is no cure for mental deficiency, but a special type of it, cretinism, may be warded off to a certain extent by glandular treatment.

The nervous and mental disorders which are likely to affect all children appear in the mentally deficient also. Certain organic diseases of the nervous system lower mental vitality. Abnormal growths in the brain tissue cause convulsions, headache and twitching and even paralysis which impair mental efficiency. The accumulated cerebro-spinal fluid in the brain in hydrocephalus, exerts pressure on the brain tissue and causes mental deterioration. Acute inflammation of the nervous tissue as in meningitis is some-

times the cause of subnormality. All these diseases of the nervous system are serious, and it is very seldom that a child lives through them. If it survives, the ravages of the disease will be evident in the form of paralysis, sensory defects, and impaired intelligence. When an attack of epilepsy begins in a child, whose nervous system is not completely developed, growth of body and mind is arrested. The deficiency appears in varying degree. Epileptic patients show a poor memory and much irritability. The epileptic fits are classified as of the Grand Mal type when convulsion appears in the whole body, and of the Petit Mal type when only convulsive twitchings appear. In certain cases of this latter type no bodily movements are seen, and the patient becomes unconscious. This type is often called psychic epilepsy. Epileptics show themselves to be very good in manual training, but since no one can predict when they may get an attack, it is wise not to give them heavy or dangerous implements, and not to allow them to work anywhere near fire or water.

Another disorder which appears in infants is cerebral degeneration resulting in blindness. These children very rarely live to school-age, and if they do, they are mere physical and mental wrecks. They never develop normal intelligence. Arrest of mental development results if the skull is fractured and haemorrhage sets in the brain. Little's disease, called after the physician who described it first, is an outcome of prolonged pressure on the head during child-birth. These children are invariably cripples, since paralysis of one or more limbs is a common symptom of the disease. They are poor in motor control and show mental deficiency. These nervous and mental disorders may be seen in any children, but they are more often found in the mentally defective.

There are certain other nervous and mental disorders which complicate mental deficiency. Speech-defects come first in this group. This defect is more common among sub-normal children than others. Intelligence is necessary to learn to formulate words and that is why certain grades of defectives can never learn to express their ideas. Sub-normal children begin to talk rather late, and distinct articulation is difficult for them. One peculiar type of speech which is seen in the mental defectives is repetition of everything said to them. They lack the intelligence to grasp what is said, or to make a proper response to it, and therefore echo the sounds that impress them. This kind of speech is known as Echolalia. The tendency to burst forth at intervals certain words without any external stimuli, called coprolalia is also a characteristic of the speech of the sub-normal. Some psychologists believe that there is a connection between speech and the mechanism controlling the hands, and that certain speech defects are caused by compelling a child to use the right hand when he is left-handed. The most common form of speech defect, stammering, is not dealt with here, since it appears alike in the normal and the sub-normal. *Chorea* is another nervous disorder which is most seen in the gait of the affected child. Deterioration of motor control is a feature of the disease, and that is why children suffering from chorea invariably write a bad hand, and why they are awkward in all manipulation of limbs. They drop things, stumble, speak indistinctly, and are never still.

A sub-normal intelligence is more influenced by hysteria and other functional disorders. It is explained that lack of mental ability to face a formidable environment often drives a child of low intelligence to seek refuge in hysteria. Hysterical attacks complicate mental deficiency and make

it difficult for the affected to do even the little they can. No one has as yet found out what relation there is between intelligence and the occurrence of insanity. It is not certain that it is the dull child who develops insanity more easily than the normal, but it is proved by experience that certain abnormal behaviour like dementia and manic depression are seen more often in youths of low intelligence than in others. I have already pointed out that manic depression and dementia praecox are the result of mental conflict; and therefore, these disorders can appear only in adolescents who are at a certain mental level where a mental conflict is possible. Idiots and imbeciles therefore do not suffer from these disorders.

Of the three classes of mental defectives, the lowest the idiots never get into the schools. High-grade imbeciles and the feeble-minded are quite common in our elementary schools, and unfortunately the teachers do not diagnose rightly the nature of their difficulty to learn. They are looked upon as lazy or perverse, and they are forced sometimes even by corporal punishment to fall into line with the average in the class. It is not surprising, then, to see these children gradually escape the tyranny of the school either by absenting themselves frequently or by discontinuing altogether. When children are questioned as to the reason of their stopping away from school, we may be sure to get the reply that it was poverty or family circumstances that decided their action. No amount of adversity would keep a child away from school, if he felt satisfaction in his adjustments and the joy of success in competing with his class-mates. Poverty is often a cloak for incompetence. It is easy for teachers to recognize the idiots and the low-grade imbeciles, but the task of identifying the feeble-minded by mere observation is difficult. There is a tendency among teachers to judge intellectual ability by success in school work. This would lead them into many errors, since we know now that there are many factors that contribute to efficiency and success, and intelligence is only one of them, although the most important. Again teachers are prone to overlook the age of a child when judging intelligence. When a child of 10 years is found to get on successfully in a class where the average child is only 7, no question seems to be raised about his intelligence. It is clear, therefore, that a scientific method of identification is necessary, if a correct estimate of a child's ability is to be formed. When the question of separating the mental defectives from the public schools of Paris was taken up, it was found necessary to organise a standard test by which average normal children could be identified. Sir Francis Galton in England believed that there was some sort of connection between intelligence and bodily traits. His research in this direction to establish a scientific method of measuring intelligence was not a success. It is interesting to note here that as a result of his research he has given us the Bertillon system of identification by finger-prints. Galton's theory, that he could find a physical measurement for mental ability was disproved by Prof. Karl Pearson. It was Binet who finally hit on a scientific scale of measurement. His scale is based on age performance. He regarded intelligence as a complex process whose main characteristics were purposefulness, capacity for adaptation and power of self-criticism. His tests are individual and they were organised on the basis of the actual performance of children themselves and not on his own judgment. His original attempt was to get together thirty tests arranged in order of difficulty, but later he standardised the tests that suited each age in terms of mental age. Since Binet died before he could complete his work, what we now know as mental tests are all modifications of Binet's test by others. Binet's scale was found to be not perfect in many respects. His chief concern was to identify the sub-normal, and therefore his scale was not applica-

ble to all children. He had also not standardised the directions for giving the tests, which are very important if we are to expect reliable results. He had not provided any method by which children of different ages could be compared. A child who is two years retarded at one age and one who shows the same retardation at another age cannot be put down as belonging to the same grade of mental deficiency. These defects were remedied by Dr. Terman in the tests he organised at the Stanford University. He introduced the intelligent quotient, which means the ratio of chronological age to mental age, to stand for the quality of intelligence, while the mental age is only an expression of intellectual status. The latest development of Binet's tests is found in Burt's system of reasoning tests, in which he has retained only one factor of Binet's system, the age performance and has rejected all his tests. Burt's definition of intelligence as "inborn all-round mental efficiency" would explain the nature of the tests he uses. If a child of 10 years is found to be able to do only the tests that an 8 year old can do, we say his mental age is 8 and his intelligence quotient is 80. The mental age is a guidance for grading him in school work, and the intelligence quotient is a guarantee of what may be expected of him at any time. It is important to note in this connection whether the I.Q. of a child changes from year to year. N. D. Hirset found after an experimental study of 300 school children during a period of 6 years, that the I.Q. of children showed a high degree of constancy except in a small percentage of cases, while F. Kuhlman after testing and re-testing 639 cases of subnormals ranging from idiots to nearly normal came to the conclusion that I.Q. decreases with age in the subnormal children, and this decrease is more in high-grade defectives than in the lower grades. From these two studies and from the observations of Hollingworth of the children of Horace Mann School, New York, it can be established that the I.Q. of average children remain fairly constant, while the I.Q. of subnormal children become slightly lower as they develop and that the superior children similarly show an increase of I.Q. as they grow.

William Stern has presented another method of measuring intelligence, a method of measuring the individual in various kinds of mental work. By analysing the mental make-up and by adding up the result of each test he was able to find in what kind of work a child was capable, and in what poor, thus recording the whole mental make-up of the child in a psycho-graphic picture. These different methods of intelligence measurement have one weakness, that they can measure only one individual at a time, and therefore they may not prove helpful in the identification of the mentally deficient from among all our school children. In this situation, the group tests would prove beneficial. The group tests are devised to test a large group at the same time, although the tests are not different in principle from the individual tests, the principle being to present a standard situation which stimulates a response which can be interpreted in quality and quantity. Intelligence tests are only useful in determining the level of intelligence. They cannot measure other forms of mental inadequacy resulting from a faulty training, family conditions, wrong adjustment or sensory and nerve defects. Besides, intelligence tests do not measure the whole of intellect or intellect alone. Binet's tests are a graded scale of intellectual difficulty to test how hard a task a child can do. It is not to be interpreted as a measure of intelligence which grows in him. The scores in group tests, similarly, represent what children can do to the extent of their ability, within a prescribed period of time. Since what a child does or his behaviour is mainly governed by his native capacity, intelligence tests may measure his capacity indirectly. Behaviour is conditioned by original capacity and by training. It is difficult to determine how far differences in children's behaviour are caused by original

endowment or by difference in training. Again we cannot measure all behaviour, but only certain aspects of it. Superior school achievements is the result of superior intelligence, although the opposite is not always true. Therefore reliable mental tests ought to include all possible reactions which constitute intellectual activity, and thus show a positive correlation with school achievement. The Board of Education pamphlet, London, of 1923 gives the record of the results of mental tests on retarded children. Tests on Gipsy children who lead a nomadic life and are very irregular at school gave a very low score of intelligence. The same result was found by testing backward classes in Elementary Schools who were mostly children of labourers. The results go to prove that mental tests do not measure native ability apart from what is gained in school, and that educational ratio gives a reliable estimate of not only scholastic attainments, but also of mental attainments. The problem of analysing a child's intellectual ability into what is due to nature and what is due to nurture will ever remain unsolved, as it is practically impossible to separate a child from the environmental influences. The wisest thing to do is to equalise environmental forces by using a wide variety of data, since we are sure that the number of intellectual accomplishments a child can learn and the degree of difficulty he can master are both limited by his original capacity. Mental deficiency is one of the psychological problems met with in the schools. It is the teacher's duty to identify and observe children who show such deficiency and organize work suited to their mental level.

Learning is a specific response to a given situation. The original responses that individuals are capable of, unfettered by environment are instinctive. These responses are modified by education to adapt them to the requirements of society. When a definite response is made again and again, a bond is formed in the nervous system so that when the same situation is presented, the response is easy. The nervous system when it has acted in a certain way has a tendency to repeat its action if it is associated with feelings of satisfaction. Thus, through practice, when responses are quick, a habit is formed. A habit is a personal acquisition which depends not only on practice, but also on the complexity of the nervous system. That is why children of different age cannot learn the same thing, however much they may practise it. The nervous system of children become more and more sensitive to external situations as they grow, and therefore a child of three years cannot form the habit of reading which a child of five can do. Again, children of the same age cannot learn the same things if their nervous systems have not reached the same level of sensitivity. The sensitivity of the nervous system depends on the intellectual growth or mental age which is the most important condition of learning although it is not the only condition. Children of the same mental age show marked difference in ability to learn by the influence of temperamental differences of sensory and physical defects or their attitude. The mentally deficient are different from the normal only in the degree of their mental ability, and therefore there cannot be any difference in the process of learning they adopt. This was not what was believed of them some years ago. In a class where there are children of varying mental ability, the lowest group is always found to fall behind the rest in sustained attention and capacity to learn, which led to the conclusion that the mental defectives could never be made to learn. The fact that their chronological age was not the criterion for judging their learning capacity was overlooked. The rate of learning of a sub-normal child is far below that of a normal child of the same age, and he can never come up to the level of the latter by any kind of training. If the rates of learning are represented graphically it would be seen that the curve for the sub-normal child is far

below that of the normal and that the increase in achievement is very slow reaching up to a maximum which is never the same as the normals. It does not require much investigation to prove that children of the same age would show very wide difference in learning if they are not at the same mental level. Teachers have been making this observation all along, but they failed to see that these children who appeared to be backward in learning were not to be given up as hopeless, and that they would get on quite satisfactorily if they are grouped with children of their mental status. In this connection it would be interesting to know the details of two experiments conducted on the mentally deficient. Dr. Woodrow studied a group of mental defectives of an average mental age of 9, and compared them with normal children of the same mental age. The two groups when tested showed equal initial activity in certain simple tasks given them. They were then given special training for 13 days to sort out labels of different designs into particular boxes kept for the purpose. After 13 days, their ability to sort out labels was scored, and it was found that the improvement in the facility to sort out was the same in both the groups. The chronological age of the abnormal was of course above that of the normal group, ranging from 10 to 19. The results of this experiment go to prove that the abnormal can learn just as well as the normal of the same mental age, and that there is no difference in the process of learning or the material learnt, if the tasks presented are capable of being performed by children of their mental level. Another experiment was for measuring the amount of material that can be learnt within a prescribed period by the normal and the mentally deficient. A group of subnormals whose initial ability in reading, spelling and arithmetic was ascertained was tested again after a year in these abilities, and their improvement was compared with the improvement that the average normal child makes. The result of the experiment was in some ways contradictory to Woodrow's conclusions. It was found that the normal learnt much more than the subnormal within a specified time, which led to the conclusion that perhaps such deviations in the amount of learning may be present where the abilities concerned are complex as in the case of reading and arithmetic. No psychologist would, however, admit that the ability required in sorting out labels of different designs is merely mechanical and therefore less complex than the others. The explanation for the discrepancy in the results of the two experiments must be found elsewhere. The second experiment covered a period of one year, and we know that the children were growing physically and mentally during this period, and that at the close of the year they differed in their mental age. Therefore it can be safely inferred that the superior achievement of the normal was the result of their normal mental growth which is greater than the growth of the subnormal.

There is another aspect of learning in which the mental defectives are said to be different from the normal. It is believed that by practising to do a certain task for a length of time, an individual would find it easy to perform other tasks which have similar elements in them. This principle is known as "transfer of training." It is true that the normal and the subnormal of equal mental age show the same improvement with practice in any activity, but they differ from each other in the amount of transfer of what is learnt to connected activities. From common observation we know that it is very rarely that we can get the low-grade defectives like the idiots or imbeciles to do any task without specific training in them. Here again, the fancied difference in transfer is the outcome of overlooking the question of mental age. Many of the imbeciles whom we put down as incompetent to do the ordinary duties of life without specific training have only a mental age of 5 or 6. We cannot then expect them to show any ability beyond the

age of 5 or 6. The difficulty of transfer is also found in very young children which led Dr. Woodrow to think that this difficulty was not a characteristic of mental deficiency but of the mental age. By a slight modification of his original experiment of sorting out labels he showed there was no difference in the amount of transference of improvement between the normal and subnormal of equal mental age. All these arguments go to prove that the mental age is the most important factor to be considered when judging the comparative merits in learning of any two children.

The next question to be considered is whether mental deficiency can be cured or removed. Mental deficiency as has been already mentioned, may be caused by innate or external causes. The first type of deficiency is more common, and it is the result of "a diminished innate potentiality for development." Medicine cannot cure it. The only treatment by which the evil effects of the deficiency can be avoided is educational. By this, it is not meant that by training, the mentally defective can be made normal or the capacity for learning can be increased. All that educational treatment can do is impart specific information and to help to form specific habits to the limit of their capacity, so that they do not turn out to be social misfits. The so-called improvement in intelligence that parents and teachers refer to as the result of education is mainly the formation of useful habits and not any change in their innate capacity. Their education must entirely depend on their capacity to form specific associations and specific habits of conduct to the extent of their intelligence. Take the case of a child of 8 years whose intelligence quotient is only 50. The training given to this child will never raise him to normal intelligence or even very near the normal. Since his mental age is only 4, it is impossible for him to keep pace with children of 8 years. He should either be put into a class with babies, or given such tasks in his class that he could easily perform without strain. A special class with special curriculum to suit the capacity of such children is the modern tendency in some countries, although there are some educationists who strongly oppose these special schools on the ground that it would create an inferiority complex in them. In some of the elementary schools in London, the provision for special instruction is made without letting the children or their parents know that they are in special classes, by dividing a class and grouping all the defectives and the backward in one division. The curriculum of studies for these classes is based on the educational aims and methods as in all other classes, but particular care is taken to eliminate every subject that is beyond their capacity. The first record we have of an attempt made to educate a mentally defective is the case of a boy who was found in the woods, who knew no language and whose behaviour was not different from that of a savage. Itard, a French physician undertook the training of this boy, taking him to be a normal boy who was only deprived of the privilege of civilization. After a long and persistent attempt to educate him and train him, he was disappointed and found that the boy was an idiot and that what he lacked was not training in civilised ways, but intelligence to cope with his environment. The French Academy, however, sent for the boy, and they were astonished at the changes they observed in him. Although Itard failed in bringing the boy up to the level of an ability to learn, he had brought about several remarkable changes in his habits and appearance. The great significance of this experiment is that it gives the clue to the nature of education that can be given to the mentally defectives. Education cannot change their original capacity, but it can teach them to form satisfactory habits in keeping with their capacity. In order to find out what work is suitable to children at different mental levels, the following observation of the capabilities of corresponding to the mental age will be

found useful. Take the case of a boy whose chronological age is 16. If his mental age is

- under 1 year—he is helpless.
- at 1 year—can feed himself—will eat anything given.
- 2 „ —uses discrimination in eating.
- 3 „ —plays, but not interested in work.
- 4 „ —anxious to help others.
- 5 „ —can do the simplest tasks.
- 6 „ —can do tasks of short duration.
- 7 „ —can do little errands in the home.
- 8 „ —can attend to certain duties in the home.
- 9 „ —can do harder tasks like scrambling the floor, cleaning rooms, washing etc.
- 10 „ —can do routine work.
- 11 „ —can do fairly complicated work.
- 12 „ —can use machinery, take care of animals but they cannot plan.

The majority of the feeble-minded give a higher score in performance tests than in intelligence tests, the imbeciles score about the same in both, while the idiots score very low in performance tests. The very low grade mental defectives like the idiots and imbeciles require a training which would save them from being a burden to society, while the high grade defectives like the feeble-minded have to be trained to make them lead a fuller and useful life, the training being academic, industrial and moral. In academic training it has to be borne in mind that a pupil is rarely able to do school work in even one grade above the corresponding to his mental age.

For an I. Q.	Mental age.	School Grade.
30	5	Kindergarten or 1st class.
40	6	2nd class
45	7	3rd „
50	8	4th „
60	9	5th „
65	10	6th or I Form.
70	11 or 12	IInd Form

In industrial training it is important to know that the defectives need repeated and long practice in order that they may get the habit of performing the duties successfully. Moral instruction is the most difficult to impart, since certain habits have to be eradicated before teaching them new habits. Repeated training in each item of the moral code may be useful in the case of imbeciles, while the feeble-minded can be influenced by individual or group talks and by public opinion. Disciplinary measures to suit different types are of the utmost importance. According to Dr. Burt, children who are capable of doing the elementary school work have an I. Q. ranging from 85 to 115, and these in later life will be able to do skilled work. Those that are dull and backward have an I. Q. ranging between 70 and 85, and can be trained only for manual labour. Those with an I. Q. of 50 to 70 are only fit for casual labour and those with an I. Q. below 50 are ineducable, and if they are to be kept from being a nuisance to the public, have to be cared for in institutions.

Defectives of very low I. Q. never attend schools, and even if they do, they get eliminated in the first two classes. Defectives between 50 and 70 I. Q. are seen in our elementary schools and in addition, those who have intelligence ranging from 70 to normal are seen distributed in all the classes.

This latter group is not classed under defectives. Teachers in high schools are not much handicapped by the presence of low mental defectives in their classes, as these get eliminated before they reach the upper classes. We have not yet realised the problem of the sub-normal since only the competent seek admission in the schools, when compulsory education is introduced and children of school-going age are all gathered, we may begin to feel this problem more acutely. Our schools are for educating the average, and when the pressure of the mentally defective is felt; it would be found necessary to adapt our curriculum to suit all ability, and should this be found impossible, it would be necessary to organise special schools for them with teachers specially trained to teach them. Many who are now dragging through the primary classes are little benefited by the instruction they get, since they are not competent mentally to cope with such instruction. We have no organization for testing intelligence on a wide scale, and all that can be done to avoid waste of time and to save teachers' energy is to make the elementary teachers to realise that there are wide variations in the capacity of children who pass through their hands, and that if those who are low down in the scale are to be benefited by the instruction they give, the teaching should be suited to their capacity. Every teacher can, if he or she is observant enough, sort out those who are not benefited by the instruction, and plan a special course for them. There should be special schools for children of low general ability. Until the necessity for such schools is keenly felt by the public or the State, it is not fair to subject these unfortunates to the strain of competing with their superiors. When these children are unable by an effort of the will to concentrate attention and learn, practical work will create interests. Action is the normal end to every train of thought and when thought leads to bodily movements, the corresponding brain records get deepened enabling better association of facts. This is why schools are emphasising the value of practical work. If the work selected is related to the children's existing interests, it becomes easier. It is this idea that is at the back of the Junior Technical Schools, some of the pastime handicraft schools of England. It will not be therefore too much to expect that the backward children in our schools can be relieved of the strain of study by every subject being presented as a necessary problem in the mastery of an interesting and useful handicraft.

To sum up, every backward child is the product of several subversive circumstances one of them as a rule predominating and all together conspiring to drag him down in class. All conditions, hereditary, environmental, physical and psychological are positively correlated with backwardness such as defective discipline, morbid emotional conditions, personality-complex or intellectual disabilities. The teacher's duty in all cases of backwardness is to identify the cause underlying the difficulty, to apply corrective measures, and to train the child to form useful habits.

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Definitions: .add.

Admission fee:—"Means the amount payable for life by affiliated associations and constituent guilds and provincial organisations."

Registration fee:—"Means the amount payable for life by individual members of the S. I. T. U."

2. *Objects: add.*

(e) "Achievement of Statutory recognition for Teaching as a public utility service with guarantees."

3. *Programme.*

amend I "Controlling the Protection Fund."

amend J "running the journal of the S. I. T. U. English and Vernacular editions."

add to K "guild co-operative societies, Registration Committee, Tenure Committee and Election Board."

4. *Membership.*

delete 4 (a) (5).

add to 4 (b) at the end, "and rights of participation in S. I. T. U. registry, Tenure Committee and election Board."

5. *Enrolment..*

(a) *add* "in prescribed form" after application wherever it occurs, and *add* at the end "and admission fee for life of Re. 1 for each association, affiliated to the guild or the union, and of Rs. 5 for each constituent guild or provincial organisation affiliated to the Union."

(b) *add* "in prescribed form" and *add* at the end "and registration fee for life of Re. 1 for graduates and As. 8 for non-graduates."

6. (a) (i) *Affiliation fee*:—Rewrite as under:—

"The annual affiliation fee for affiliated associations shall be calculated at the following standard rates of subscription from teachers to association:

Re. 1 for graduates; As. 8 for non-graduates.

The affiliated associations shall annually pay direct to the S. I. T. U. 20% of its collections at the standard rate and 40% of its collections at the standard rate to the guild.

(ii) The annual affiliation fee for constituent guilds shall be an amount calculated at the rate of Rupees Two per annum for each of its College or Secondary School Teachers' Association, and Re. 1 for each Elementary Range or other Teachers' Association on its rolls at the end of the previous official year, subject to a minimum of Rs. 15 or at As. 4 per member on its rolls at the end of the previous official year, where a guild is made up predominantly by individual members.

(iii) A Teachers' Association, including Provincial Organisation, not attached to any school shall pay annually an amount calculated at the rate of As. 2 per member on its rolls at the end of the previous official year.

(iv) A Teachers' Association of Schools in districts where there are no constituent guilds shall pay annually an amount calculated at the rate of As. 2 per member on its rolls at the end of the previous official year..

(b) *Subscription rewrite as under*:—

The "annual subscription for individual members of the S. I. T. U. shall be one rupee for graduates and eight annas for non-graduate teachers."

(c) *add* after subscription "and admission fee are."

8. *Office-bearers.* Rewrite as under:

The office-bearers of the Union shall be a President, a Vice-President, a Secretary, a journal Secretary and a Treasurer. There shall also be a working committee and the Executive Board.

The President shall be elected annually from among the members of the Union in the Province, in the annual meeting.

The Vice-President, the Secretary, the journal Secretary, and the Treasurer shall be annually elected from members resident at Madras in the annual meeting.

The Working Committee shall consist of the President, the Vice-President, Secretary, journal Secretary, Treasurer, the Secretary of the S. I. T. U. P. F. for the year ex-officio, and 5 other members to represent mofussil areas in charge of organisation, tenure, propaganda, Elementary Education, and Secondary and University Education, who shall be elected by the representatives of the constituent bodies from among themselves, at the time of the annual meeting.

The executive Board shall, in addition to the President, Vice President, Secretary, Treasurer, journal Secretary and Protection Fund Secretary, consist of one representative for each of the district in the Madras Presidency elected by the respective District Guilds and one representative for each Provincial Organisation elected by the organisation, whose names shall be communicated to the Secretary S. I. T. U. before the annual meeting of the Union. In case there is no district guild in any district, it shall be open to the Executive Board to co-opt. any individual member or member of any affiliated association in that district.

9. *The Executive Board.*

amend Seven into "eleven" as quorum.

add at the end—"The Executive Board shall meet once in a quarter to review the work of the Union, the expenses of members of the Board being met by the respective organisations they represent."

10. *The Working Committee.*

add to (2) "under different departments."

add at the end "7" instead of "5".

"The Working Committee shall meet, at least, once in a quarter and the expenses of members in this connection as well as in respect of other Union work shall be borne by the Union.

12. *Duties of guilds and Associations.*

add (e) Every guild or association shall forward to the Union at the end of each official year of the Union its financial statement, membership statement, giving reasons for changes in the year if any. Statement of meetings and work done in the year, statement of office-bearers, and a statement of the condition of Education and Teachers' tenure in the area of the guild or association—in prescribed forms.

add (f) Every guild, and every association in the guild or the Union shall subscribe for a copy of the official journal of the Union.

add (g) Any guild or association shall be liable to disaffiliation for unfulfilment of its obligations.

14. (a) *Secretary add* to 6 at the end "and the President."

add 7 "be in charge of Council propaganda for the Union during the sessions of the Madras Legislative Council."

(b) *Treasurer.*

add at the end

The Treasurer shall be the Manager of the Union journal.

(c) *President.*

The President shall be the executive head of the Union and the Editor and Publisher of the Journal. He shall preside over all meetings of the Union, the Executive Board and the W. C. He shall have general control over the office-bearers of the Union and reserve powers to direct the Union in extraordinary cases without violating the objects and programme of the Union.

(d) *The Vice-President* shall be joint Editor of the journal. In the absence of the President, he shall preside over the Union, the Executive Board and the W. C.

(e) *The Journal Secretary.*

The journal Secretary shall be in charge of the press work of the journal. He shall include in the journal only the matter approved and admitted for publication by the Editor or joint Editor, and all official notifications, proceedings, and news passed to him by the Secretary of the Union.

(f) *The Protection Fund Secretary* shall serve as a link between the Union and the Fund to watch their reciprocal interests, shall assemble information on the economic welfare of members and take steps to improve the economic welfare of members.

20. (g) *The member for organisation* shall assemble information on the state of the S. I. T. U. constituents and associations and chalk out a programme of work in non-union areas.

(h) *The member for Tenure* shall assemble information on Tenure cases of members, shall entertain complaints of members backed up by an unreturnable deposit of Rs. 5 and sworn statements about their case, record them in the log-book for the purpose and submit a report, after further personal enquiry into such cases, to the Working Committee for its decision about the means of redress to be adopted by the Union.

(i) *The member for Propaganda* shall get into touch with the Educational bodies in the province and post members with information about and interpellations for the Union. He shall also prepare a list of teacher voters in all constituencies open for election and be in charge of all election activities sanctioned by the Working Committee.

(j) *The member for Elementary Education* shall ascertain the needs of Elementary Education and the condition of Elementary Teachers in each district in the province and keep in touch with Elementary Teachers' Organisations and District Educational Councils. He shall be the Union spokesman for Elementary Education.

(k) *The member for Secondary and University Education* shall study the work of Secondary Schools and Colleges and get into touch with the Secondary Schools and Colleges. He shall be the Union spokesman for Secondary and University Education.

18. (a) *Delegate Rewrite.*

add after "its own members" in the first sentence "Every constituent body, however, shall send at least five delegates.

amend four annas into "eight" annas and rewrite the closing portion thus: The delegation fees shall be equally divided between the Reception Committee and the S. I. T. U.

19. *Voting at the Conference:*

In the sentence, "when a poll is demanded," rewrite, "every constituent body shall have five votes irrespective of the number of delegates attending the conference.

delete: "The Madras Teachers' Guild—five votes."

22. *The annual meeting.*

add at the end, "and on the basis of one vote for each constituent body, irrespective of the number of delegates attending the meeting.

THE SOUTH INDIA TEACHERS' UNION

THE 26TH ANNUAL REPORT

The Executive Board has great pleasure in presenting the Twenty-sixth Annual Report of the South India Teachers' Union for the period, 1st April 1934 to 31st March 1935.

Strength. In the beginning of the year there were 15 District Guilds and 8 associations affiliated to the Union. No fresh District Guild sought affiliation to the Union in the course of the year and the question of disaffiliating the Malabar Guild was dropped since the minimum affiliation fee for 1933-1934 was paid as stipulated by the Working Committee. It is reported that a District Teachers' Guild has been organised in Mangalore. It has not yet sought affiliation to the Union. Eight associations not attached to District Teachers' Guilds were affiliated to the Union in the course of the year. Of these, seven were from the Andhra and Ceded District areas. The number of individual members was 74, eight new members being enrolled in the course of the year. A statement giving the strength of the Union and its affiliated guilds and associations is given in Appendix A. Some of the office-bearers of the Andhra Teachers' Federation have suggested the formation of regional sections on the basis of language with a view to promoting the strength of the Union and providing for efficient and sustained work in the different areas. The suggestion is being considered by the Working Committee.

Office-bearers. The names of the office-bearers of the Union elected at the annual meeting held on 31st March 1934 or co-opted by the Executive Board are shown in Appendix B. There were no changes in the office-bearers.

Executive Board. The Executive Board met four times in the year. The first meeting of the Executive Board was held on 31st March 1934 at which the Working Committee was elected. At the second meeting held on 8th September 1934, representatives to the Executive Board for districts where there are no district guilds were co-opted, and the G.O. on Fee Concessions was considered. The Board met again on the 24th December 1934 at the time of the Provincial Educational Conference and resolved that, in future, the Provincial Educational Conferences be held in May of each year, and that the 26th Annual Meeting of the Union be held during the Easter week of 1935. It also discussed the invitation of the Salem District Guild to hold the Provincial Educational Conference. The fourth meeting was held on 20th April 1935 and the draft Annual Report was considered and passed.

Working Committee. The Working Committee met six times in the year.

1st Meeting. 31—3—1934. Appointment of the Journal Committee and Journal Secretary. Election of the Union representatives on the Council of A. I. F. E. A. Service Conditions Bill. Authorising Mr. Kuolt to obtain the opinion of the managing bodies.

- 2nd Meeting. 8—9—1934. Yearbook and Educational Directory and statement of Accounts. (2) Delegates to the 10th Conference of the A. I. F. E. A. (3) Service Conditions Bill. (4) Education Week. (5) Amendments to rules given notice of by Mr. S. T. Ramanuja Iyengar.
- 3rd Meeting. 24—11—1934. (1) Conference Agenda. (2) G. O. 4619 and memorandum. (3) Statement by Vigilance Committee Secretary.
- 4th Meeting. 24—12—1934. (1) To confer Kulapathi Title on Messrs. Dr. J. H. Cousins and M. Munuswami Iyer. (2) Note of the North Arcot District Guild on Grant-in-aid Code. (3) E. S. Sunda's Service Safety Bill. (4) Appointment of a sub-committee to amend the rules of the Union. (5) Journal accounts.
- 5th Meeting. 16—2—1935. (1) Deputation to the Chief Minister and personnel of the deputation. (2) Vigilance Committee Report. (3) Scheme for starting a journal for Elementary school teachers. (4) Rules revision question. (5) Fixing the date and place of the 26th Annual meeting.
- 6th Meeting. 20—4—1935. (1) Rules Revision Sub-Committee Report. (2) Resolution on the G.O. on Text-books. (3) Resolution on the Provident Fund.

The Board is glad to state that the members of the Working Committee took keen interest in the work of the Union and made it possible for the Union to record a year of fruitful activities.

Propaganda. As in the last year, the managing body of the S. I. T. U. Protection Fund was pleased to allot Rs. 300 from the Profession Fund towards propaganda. This enabled the Union to depute workers to visit different areas in the Presidency and to place before teachers the programme of the Union—the objects of the Protection Fund and the scope of the Service Conditions Bill. A sum of rupees one hundred and sixty-one and anna one was spent on this account (vide Appendix C for particulars regarding propaganda)

XXVI PROVINCIAL EDUCATIONAL CONFERENCE

This Conference was held at Anantapur. The Reception Committee constituted at the instance of the Anantapur District Teachers' Guild made excellent arrangements for the conduct of the Conference and the lodging and boarding of delegates. The Reception Committee in general and Mr. C. Ranganatha Iyengar in particular should be congratulated on the splendid success of the Conference. 171 delegates from different parts of the Presidency attended the Conference, in addition to a large number of teachers and visitors not connected with associations. A noteworthy feature was the presence of a number of teachers from the Andhra districts. An instructive Educational Exhibition, a refresher course for Elementary school teachers in the area, a demonstration of physical activities, and the Conference of the Geographical Association were other attractions of the Conference. Mr. G. Rameswara Rao, M.L.C., the Chairman of the Reception Committee, welcomed the delegates and the Conference was opened by Mr. Kuduva, District Magistrate and Collector. It was presided over by Dr. James H. Cousins who delivered an inspiring address. The Conference conferred on Dr. James H. Cousins and Mr. M. Munuswami Iyer, the title of Kulapathi. Many important resolutions were passed. The following papers were read at the

Conference. (1) Some aspects of National Education by Mr. P. Ramaswami Iyengar; (2) Leadership in Physical Education by Dr. G. F. Andrews; (3) S. I. T. U. Protection Fund by Mr. M. K. Ramamurthi.

In his concluding remarks Dr. Cousins made an appeal to strengthen the S.I.T.U. Jubilee Fund and a sum of Rs. 54 was collected.

THE WORK OF THE UNION

(1) *Service Conditions Bill.* At the annual meeting held on 31st March 1934, the Secretary explained the principles of the Service Conditions Bill and the necessity for securing support to the Bill from the different managing bodies. Mr. Milton G. Kuolt, Joint-Secretary of the Union, has, at the instance of the Working Committee, been in correspondence with the various managing bodies of educational institutions in the Presidency. He has also addressed the Departments of Education in foreign lands. Interesting material has been gathered and a report will be made at the annual meeting regard to this.

(2) *Education Week.* The Fourth Education Week was celebrated with great success throughout the presidency from 22nd October, 1934 to 28th October 1934 inclusive. As usual, an influential Central Education Week Committee representing fifteen organizations was constituted. His Excellency the Governor of Madras was pleased to send a message to the Committee which was made available to all the centres celebrating the Education Week on the opening day. This year the programme centred on one main theme—How to make the school an efficient social centre? Posters and leaflets were prepared as usual. Many more elementary schools participated in the celebrations this year and in many schools regular teacher-parent co-operation has been established. It is hoped that the annual celebration of the week would bring about a better understanding and appreciation of the school by the public.

3. *Fee Concessions.* G. O. 46 of the Department of Education restricting the amount of fee concessions was brought to the notice of the Union and at an executive meeting the effect of this G. O. was discussed. It was resolved to represent to the Government to cancel the G. O. It was felt that the list of backward communities listed under rule 92 needed revision so that abuses might be avoided and deserving pupils of the backward communities might derive appreciable benefit. The Union is glad to note that the G. O. has now been cancelled and it hopes that the list will be revised at an early date.

(4) *G. O. 4619.* This is another Government order which is causing considerable hardship to a large body of teachers. This was issued at the end of October and the Union at once collected information from various Board and Municipal schools regarding the extent of immediate loss to teachers. A special meeting of the Union was convened on the 24th November 1934 over which Mr. C. Basudev, M.L.C., presided. Delegates from all parts of the presidency were present and a memorandum was prepared by the Union setting forth the hardship and injustice of the G. O. It was resolved to wait in deputation on the Hon'ble the Chief Minister, to press on him the necessity for keeping the G. O. in abeyance and for appointing a public committee to investigate and report on the question of standardisation of scales of salaries. The Hon'ble the Chief Minister was pleased to receive the Union deputation on the 27th February 1935. The deputation was led by Mr. C. Basudev, and it consisted of Messrs. S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer,

M. S. Sabhesan, Milton G. Kuolt, K. S. Chengalroya Iyer, A. Gurumurthi, G. Ganganna and M. S. Seshadri Acharya. The Minister gave a patient hearing and promised to consider the points raised and issue early orders granting as personal pay the excess of pay now drawn over that fixed by the G. O. He has also promised to go carefully into the question of the existing incumbents not being affected by the G. O. It is however necessary that the Union should press its request for the appointment of a representative committee to report on the question of standardisation of salaries in secondary schools.

(5) *Directory.* The Jubilee Year Book and Educational Directory of Madras which the Union undertook to publish to commemorate its Jubilee Year could not be got ready at the time of the Jubilee. It was published in September 1934. The directory contains the history of the Union and its affiliated bodies, a series of educational surveys for the period 1907-1932, a directory of schools giving the history and organization of many schools and a directory of the members of the Union. The publication has been well received and for the information of the members, the Board should like to refer to the opinions of "The Hindusthan Review" and the "Madras Mail" respectively. "The book is a 'Vade Mecum' on the subject of the progress of Education in the Madras presidency during the past 25 years and the South India Teachers' Union deserve to be congratulated on having brought out so useful and comprehensive a volume as the Jubilee Year Book and Educational Directory of Madras which is an accurate and compact work of reference." According to the "Madras Mail," "The Directory furnishes much useful information about educational institutions and the system of public instruction in South India and makes a faithful survey of the state of education in every district in this province. The story of many schools founded and maintained at great sacrifice should be a lasting inspiration to those engaged in the battle against illiteracy."

THE WORK OF THE DISTRICT GUILDS

It is gratifying to report that most of the guilds were active during the year. The Chingleput District Teachers' Guild and the Malabar District Teachers' Guild, however have not sent any report of work done during the year. An effort has been made to rouse the Chingleput Guild to activity and it is hoped that it will be crowned with success. All the District Guilds co-operated with the Union in the celebration of the Education week and in organising special meetings to protest against the G. O. 4619. In addition to the usual activities, the Madras Teachers' Guild organised an educational conference in April 1934 over which Mr. Erlam Smith, the then Director of Public Instruction presided. It also organised a series of Special lectures on Modern Tendencies in Education in March of this year. It is running very successfully a co-operative credit society, which is classified by the Department as an A 1 society. The South Arcot District Guild which was rather inactive for a time was revived and Messrs. C. S. Rangaswami Iyengar and V. Jayaraman, the President and Secretary respectively toured in the district in this connection. It is hoped that this enthusiasm will continue and the Guild will soon function as an efficient and vigorous organization. The Tanjore District Guild is maintaining its usual level of excellent work. This is its Silver Jubilee year and this has been celebrated at Tranquebar on Saturday the 6th April 1935. The works of the Pupil-Teacher Non-Credit Co-operative Society of the Municipal High School, Mayavaram is reported to be very good and the teachers of this school should be congratulated on the success of the society. The Trichinopoly District Teachers' Guild is an-

other vigorous member of the Union. It has organised a membership campaign on an extensive scale. It has 760 members distributed among eighteen associations. It submitted two memoranda to the Director of Public Instruction, one in respect of the working of the General Provident Fund and another in regard to the contract between teachers and managers. The Guild is organising extension lectures and is trying to co-ordinate the educational activities in the district. The Madura District Teachers' Guild considered at one of its meetings the interesting results of the New Methods of Teaching introduced at the suggestion of Mr. R. M. Savur, the District Educational Officer. It considered at another meeting Mr. Sunda's bill on the Service Safety Bill. A deputation of the Guild waited on the President, District Board, regarding the G. O. 4619 with favourable results. The Ramnad District Teachers' Guild has shown a good deal of enthusiasm and it held its conference on 9th March 1935 with Mr. N. S. Venkatarama Iyer in the chair. The Coimbatore District Teachers' Guild organised a refresher course for teachers in the Christmas week and a large number of teachers attended the course. The Salem District Teachers' Guild held its Tenth Educational Conference at Rasipuram with Mr. M. S. Sabhesan in the chair. The Chittoor District Teachers' Guild organised an educational conference in November last. Mr. Lakshminarayana Rao, M.A., L.T., District Educational Officer presided. Many papers on important educational topics were read. The North Arcot District Teachers' Guild, shows another year of useful activity. It has revised its rules providing for the affiliation of elementary school teachers' associations. It organised its half-yearly conference in February last when Prof. S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer addressed the members. The Anantapur District Teachers' Guild had the unique honour of arranging for the XXVI Provincial Educational Conference during the Christmas week of 1934. A detailed official report of the Conference has been published in time through the special exertions of Mr. Ranganatha Iyengar. The Kurnool District Teachers' Guild has the distinction of sending as its delegates to the conference a few lady members and they have taken a part in the discussions. Thus it will be seen that the year under review has been one of great activity. More has to be done and it is regrettable that the Guilds like Tinnevely, Chingleput, Malabar could point to no great activity. It is hoped that in the year to come all Guilds will arrange for a regular programme of work and strengthen the organization and profession.

THE TENTH CONFERENCE OF THE ALL-INDIA FEDERATION OF EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS

The Tenth Conference of the All-India Federation of Educational Associations was held at New Delhi during the Christmas week 1934. Sir Fazl-i-Hussain opened the conference which was presided over by Rao Bahadur Thakur Chain Singh, Senior Minister, Jodhpur State. Many important resolutions were passed at the conference and the council of the Federation has issued for the consideration of educational organisations two charters, one on the "Teachers' Charter for India" and the other "The Children's Charter". The former was published in the March issue of "The South Indian Teacher" and the children's charter will be published in the April issue. Affiliated associations are requested to consider these charters and send their criticism and suggestions to the office of the Union at an early date.

The Union was represented at the Conference by Messrs. T. P. Srinivasavaradan, B.A., L.T., Hindu High School, Triplicane, and H. Sundara Rao, M.A., L.T., Professor, Theosophical College, Madanapalli. A report of

the conference by Mr. T. P. Srinivasavaradan was published in the February issue of "The South Indian Teacher."

THE S. I. T. U. PROTECTION FUND

The report for 1934 shows a slow but steady increase in strength which rose from 738 to 764. The fund has been just now reorganised and its working placed on a sound basis. On account of the economic depression and the prevailing unsatisfactory service conditions, many teachers cannot think of making provision for their old age and for their dependents. The members of the Board of Management of the Fund and the members of the Working Committee of the S. I. T. U. visited a number of centres and did propaganda work on behalf of the fund. It is hoped that ere long teachers will realise the manifold blessings conferred by this institution and from the fund. The strength at the close of the year stood at 764 and the total number of units in force was 1171 and the amount receivable each month towards the benefit amount including the back fee was Rs. 1,316. Our deposits in Government securities and with bankers exceed to-day Rs. 80,000 and on 31-12-1934 the amount to the credit of the Benefit Fund was Rs. 57,000, the Profession Fund Rs. 1,859-9-6, the Reserve Fund Rs. 3,331-10-0 and the Working Fund, Rs. 390-8-11.

THE SOUTH INDIAN TEACHER

The Executive Board desires to thank the Journal Committee for carrying on the work of the journal during the year. It is glad that the Madras members of the Journal Committee found it possible to meet often and that the assistance of the mofussil members was freely availed of. The number of subscribers remained at about 500. A large increase in the number of subscribers in the current year will place the journal on an assured financial position and the work of the Journal Committee will become easy. It is hoped that the journal will receive at the hands of teachers and schools still more liberal measure of support. The question of publishing a Tamil monthly journal for the benefit of Elementary school Teachers is engaging the attention of the Working Committee and if started it may serve a real need.

CONCLUSION

The work done is certainly more satisfactory than in previous years, but more remains to be done. Our organization is still imperfect and our method of work is still ineffective. "BETTER ORGANISATION, BETTER WORK AND BETTER RESULTS," should be our slogan.

By order of the Executive Board,

M. S. SABHESAN,
Secretary.

THE SOUTH INDIA TEACHERS' UNION

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE OF THE
SOUTH INDIA TEACHERS' UNION

For the period 23-3-1934 to 31st March 1935.

Receipts	Rs. a. p.	Expenditure.	Rs. a. p.
Opening balance. (Defence Fund).	13 8 0	Printing.	66 3 0
Fixed Deposit.	500 0 0	Postage.	98 8 0
M.T.G.C.S. Cur. A/c.	243 15 6	Purchase of Book.	2 12 0
Stamps.	4 6 3	Salary.	60 0 0
	761 13 9	Vigilance committee.	10 0 0
		Rules Revision	
		Sub-Committee.	10 0 0
		Service conditions	
Subscriptions from Guilds.	411 8 0	bill.	21 10 0
Subscriptions from Associations.	31 4 0	Contingencies.	37 10 3
Subscriptions from Individuals.	9 0 0	Education Week.	158 6 0
Defence Fund.	2 10 0	Year Book A/c.	873 11 9
Silver Jubilee Fund.	54 0 0	Rent.	30 0 0
Year Book Account.	841 0 0	Bank commission.	1 10 0
Interest.	21 0 8	Travelling allowance.	124 12 6
Repayment of loan by S. I. Teacher	50 0 0	Suspence A/c.	21 0 0
Suspense account	50 8 0	Amount returned to D.H.H. Association.	4 0 0
Reception Committee of XXVI Provincial Educational Conference 50% of the		A.I.F.E.A. Subscription.	15 0 0
Delegation fees.	42 8 0	Loan to S.I.T. A/c.	500 0 0
		Closing balance.	
		Defence Fund.	13 8 0
		M.T.G.C.S. Cur. Account.*	223 5 8
		Stamps on hand.	3 3 3
Total.	2275 4 5	Total.	2275 4 5

*This includes a sum of Rs. 2-10-0 to be transferred to the Defence fund.

Examined and found correct.

Triplicane,
Dated 9-4-35.

(Sd.) T. S. VISWANATHAN, G.D.A., R.A.
Registered Accountant and Auditor.

STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE OF THE
SOUTH INDIAN TEACHER

From 1st January, 1934 to 31st December, 1934. (Audited Statement)

<i>Receipts.</i>	Rs. a. p.	<i>Expenditure.</i>	Rs. a. p.
<i>Opening balance.</i>			
With M.T.G.C.S.	56 4 5	Printing.	1358 0 0
With Secretary.	29 0 2	Postage.	296 8 0
With S.I.T.U.	11 0 0	Contingencies.	54 8 3
Stamps.	15 7 0	Secretary's conveyance.	53 8 0
	<u>111 11 7</u>	Petty cash or clerical conveyance.	35 8 0
		Honorarium.	100 0 0
Subscriptions.	1432 6 0	Salary.	352 8 0
Advertisements.	726 8 0	Sale A.c.	1 11 0
Sale of publications.	0 12 0	Lighting charges	17 0 0
Reprints.	30 8 0	Suspense Account.	7 13 0
Rent for Typewriter.	30 0 0	Commission on advertisements.	45 4 0
Grant from the Madras Teachers' Guild.	25 0 0		
Recovery of postage.	0 10 0	<i>Closing balance.</i>	
S.I.T.U. Allowance.	60 0 0	With M.T.G.C.S.	52 12 2
		With Secretary.	29 0 2
		Stamps.	13 7 0
Total.	<u>2417 7 7</u>	Total.	<u>2417 7 7</u>

Examined and found correct.

Triplicane,
11th Feb. 1935.

(Sd.) T. S. VISWANATHAN, G.D.A., R.A.,
Registered Accountant and Auditor.

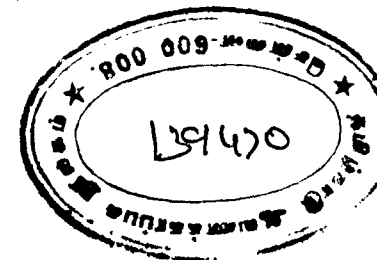
STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE IN CONNECTION
WITH EDUCATION WEEK
1934.

<i>Receipts.</i>	Rs. a. p.	<i>Expenditure.</i>	Rs. a. p.
Sale of Posters and Booklets.	197 8 0	Printing.	203 6 0
Advertisements.	38 0 0	Postage.	108 13 9
<i>Donations.</i>		Conveyance and contingencies.	11 2 3
Catholic Educational council of the Madras Presy.	10 0 0	Block.	3 0 0
Muhammadan Educational Association of S. India.	10 0 0	Amount transferred to Union Account.	34 0 0
Madras Library Association.	10 0 0	Amount to be transferred to Union account.	93 8 0
Madras Representative Christian council.	10 0 0		
Madras Teachers' Guild.	10 0 0		
Salem District Guild.	5 0 0		
Junior Red Cross Society.	5 0 0		
Advance from the Union Funds.	158 6 0		
Total.	<u>453 14 0</u>	Total.	<u>453 14 0</u>

Examined and found correct.

Triplicane,
Dated, 9-4-35.

(Sd.) T. S. VISWANATHAN, G.D.A., R.A.,
Registered Accountant and Auditor.



STATEMENT OF RECEIPTS AND EXPENDITURE IN CONNECTION
WITH THE SILVER JUBILEE SOUVENIR AND EDUCATIONAL
DIRECTORY OF MADRAS.

As on 31st March, 1934.

<i>Receipts.</i>	Rs. a. p.	<i>Expenditure.</i>	Rs. a. p.
By sale of Souvenir copies.	115 0 0	Printing.	1058 3 0
By advertisement in Souvenir.	87 8 0	Postage.	139 11 0
Charges for inserting Blocks.	167 0 0	Block.	129 8 0
By Advertisement in Jubilee Year Book and Educational Directory of Madras.	696 0 0	Contingencies.	20 6 6
By sale of Jubilee Year Book and Educational Directory including the payments made in advance.	560 0 0	Conveyance.	18 3 3
From S.I.T. account.	3 13 0	Ry. freight.	15 14 0
		Allowance in connection with editing, typing, etc.	79 8 0
		Commission on Advertisements.	30 0 0
		Interest.	4 11 9
		Balance to this account's credit.	107 1 3
		Cash with Secretary	26 2 3
Total.	1629 5 0	Total.	1629 5 0

Examined and found correct.

Triplicane,
Dated, 9-4-35.

(Sd.) T. S. VISWANATHAN, G.D.A., R.A.,
Registered Accountant and Auditor.

ERODE SUFFERERS' FUND

	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.
To opening balance.	17 4 0	By closing balance.	17 4 0
Total.	17 4 0	Total.	17 4 0

Examined and found correct.

Triplicane,
Dated, 9-4-35.

(Sd.) T. S. VISWANATHAN, G.D.A., R.A.,
Registered Accountant and Auditor.

DEFENCE FUND

	Rs. a. p.		Rs. a. p.
To opening balance.	13 8 0	By closing balance.	16 2 0
Receipts during the year.	2 10 0		
Total.	16 2 0	Total.	16 2 0

Examined and found correct.

Triplicane,
Dated, 9-4-35.

(Sd.) T. S. VISWANATHAN, G.D.A., R.A.,
Registered Accountant and Auditor.

APPENDIX (A)

No.	Name of the Guild.	No. of Assns.	Strength.
1.	The Anantapur District Teachers' Guild.	14	304
2.	The Kurnool District Teachers' Guild.	10	324
3.	The Madras Teachers' Guild.	..	600
4.	The Chingleput District Teachers' Guild	5	...
5.	The Chittoor District Teachers' Guild.	12	...
6.	The North Arcot District Teachers' Guild	17	...
7.	The South Arcot District Teachers' Guild.	6	...
8.	The Tanjore District Teachers' Guild.	24	511
9.	The Trichinopoly District Teachers' Guild.	18	760
10.	The Madura District Teachers' Guild.	12	332
11.	The Ramnad District Teachers' Guild.	16	198
12.	The Tinnevely District Teachers' Guild.	19	942
13.	The Malabar District Teachers' Guild.	..	...
14.	The Coimbatore District Teachers' Guild.	27	426
15.	The Salem District Teachers' Guild.	15	323

ASSOCIATIONS DIRECTLY AFFILIATED TO THE UNION

1.	Teachers' Association, Hindu Theological High School, Madras	41
2.	Teachers' Association, Chintadripet High School, Madras	27
3.	Teachers' Association, Board High School, Kandukur.	20
4.	Teachers' Association, Board High School, Yellamanchalli,	17
5.	Teachers' Association, Wardlaw High School, Bellary.	24
6.	Teachers' Association, Municipal High School, Bellary.	25
7.	Teachers' Association, Kodaikanal.	..
8.	Teachers' Association, Hadagalli.	8
9.	Teachers' Association, Board Middle School, Alur, Bellary.	8
10.	Teachers' Association, Taluk High School, Tenali.	32
11.	Teachers' Association, Municipal High School, Bimilipatam.	13
12.	Elementary Teachers' Association, Ayyangarkulam, Conjeevaram.	7
13.	Teachers' Association, R. K. Middle School, Alur, Nellore Dt.	8
14.	Teachers' Association, Board Middle School, Kampli.	8
15.	Teachers' Association, Board High School, Amalapuram.	38
16.	Teachers' Association, V. R. College School, Nellore	30

APPENDIX (B)

Office-bearers for 1934-1935.

1. *President.* M.R.Ry. S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer, Avl., M.A., Professor, Pachiappa's College, Madras.
2. *Secretary.* M.R.Ry. M. S. Sabhesan, Avl., M.A., Christian College, Madras.
3. *Joint-Secretary.* Rev. Milton G. Kuolt, M.Sc., Principal, M.E.L.I. M. High School, Ambur, N. A. District.
4. *Journal-Secretary.* M.R.Ry. S. Natarajan, Avl., B.A., L.T., St. Gabriel's High School, Madras.
5. *Treasurer.* M.R.Ry. T. P. Srinivasavaradan, Avl., B.A., L.T., Hindu High School, Triplicane, Madras.

The above five persons are also ex-officio members of the Working Committee and the Executive Board.

Ordinary members of the Working Committee elected from among the members of the Executive Board.

1. Mr. S. T. Ramanuja Iyengar, Trichy.
2. Mr. S. Srinivasan, Chittoor.
3. Mr. N. Kalyanarama Iyer, Tanjore.
4. Mr. K. S. Chengalroya Iyer, Salem.
5. Mr. E. H. Parameswaran, Tinnevely.

Representations on the Executive Board of the S. I. T. U. from District Guilds 1934-1935.

Ganjam.—

Mr. Narasingapahi, B.A., L.T., Headmaster, Board High School, Aska. Ganjam.

Vizagapatam.—Mr. V. Subramanyam, Headmaster, Board High School, Yellamanchalli.

Godavari East.—Mr. Vepa Appa Rao, R. Ch. High School, Pitapuram.

Godavari West.—Mr. Venkatrama Sastry, Board High School, Tanuku.

Kistna.—Mr. P. V. Gangaraju, S. R. High School, Challapalli.

Guntur.—Mr. T. Suryanarayanamurthi, Headmaster, Taluk High School, Tenali.

Nellore.—Mr. S. Krishna Rao, Headmaster, Board High School, Kandukur.

Cuddapah.—Mr. T. Raja Rao, Secretary, Educational Society, Kodur. Bellary.—

Anantapur.—S. Vaideeswara Iyer, B.A., L.T., Headmaster Municipal High School, Tadpatri.

Kurnool.—Mr. G. Shiva Rao, Municipal High School, Kurnool.

Madraas.—Mr. D. Thambuswami, Kellett High School, Tprilicane.

Chingleput.—

North Arcot.—Rev. Dr. John De Boer, Voorhees College, Vellore,

Chittoor.—Mr. S. Srinivasan, Theosophical College High School, Madanapalli.

Tanjore.—Mr. N. Kalyanarama Iyer, Sir S. High School, Tirukattupalli.

Trichinopoly.—Mr. S. T. Ramanuja Iyengar, 12, Ammalmandapam Extensions, Srirangam.

Madura.—Mr. V. Aravamuda Iyengar, 398, North Masi Street, Madura. Ramnad.—

Tinnevelly.—Mr. E. H. Parameswaran, Thirthapathi High School, Ambasamudram.

Coimbatore.—

Salem.—Mr. K. S. Chengalroya Iyer, Board High School, Krishnagiri.

South Arcot.—C. S. Rangasami Aiyengar, M. H. School Villupuram

Malabar.—

South Kanara.—

JOURNAL COMMITTEE.

Messrs. S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer.
M. S. Sabhesan.
A. S. Venkatraman.
G. Srinivasachary.
V. K. Sourirajan.
S. K. Subbaraman.
S. Natarajan. (Secretary)

UNION REPRESENTATIVES ON THE COUNCIL OF THE A. I. F. E. A.

Messrs. K. S. Chengalroya Iyer.
T. P. Srinivasavaradan.
E. H. Parameswaran.
S. Srinivasan.
M. S. Sabhesan.

VIGILANCE COMMITTEE.

Messrs. S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer.
M. S. Sabhesan.
V. Guruswami Sastrigal.
V. Saranatha Iyengar.
S. T. Ramanuja Iyengar, (Secretary).

APPENDIX C.—PROPAGANDA WORK.

Month. 1934.	Name of the Worker.	Places visited.
January.	Mr. S. Srinivasa Iyer.	Polur, Arni and Chengam.
March.	" M. S. Sabhesan.	Uravakonda (Anantapur Dt.).
	" M. S. Sabhesan.	Ambur and Vaniyambadi.
	" S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer.	South Arcot & Tanjore Dts.
	" S. Srinivasa Iyer.	Vaniyambadi and Ambur.
April	" S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer.	Malabar and South Kanara Districts.
	" M. K. Ramamurthi.	Villupuram and Chidambaram.
	" M. S. Sabhesan.	Villupuram and Chidambaram.
May.	" K. S. Chengalroya Iyer.	Tiruppur.
July.	" A. S. Venkatraman & M. K. Ramamurthi.	Puttur, Chandragiri and Tirupati.
	" V. Aravamuda Iyengar.	Dindigul.
August.	" S. T. Ramanuja Iyengar.	Bodinayakanur.
	" T. Ramanujachari.	Ambur.
September.	" S. T. Ramanuja Iyengar.	Tirukattupalli.
	" K. S. Chengalroya Iyer.	Ambur.
	" S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer and S. T. Ramanuja Iyengar.	Musiri, Karoor Lalgudi Ariyalur, and Odayarpalayam.
October.	" M. K. Ramamurthi.	Tiruvarur and Nannilam.
November.	" S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer.	Vellore.
	" S. Srinivasa Iyer.	Tiruvannamalai and Chengam.
December.	" S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer and M. K. Ramamurthi.	Madurantakam.
	" T. Ramanujachariar.	Anantapur District.
	" M. S. Sabhesan.	Salem and Rasipuram.
1935.		
January.	" M. K. Ramamurthi.	Anantapur Conference.
	" S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer and M. K. Ramamurthi.	Conjeevaram and Chingleput.
	" S. Srinivasa Iyer.	Arni and Wandiwash.
February.	" K. S. Chengalroya Iyer.	Ambur.
	" S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer.	Ambur.
March.	" S. Natarajan and M. K. Ramamurthi.	Nellore.
	" S. K. Yegnanarayana Iyer.	Madanapalli and Chittoor.
	" M. K. Ramamurthi.	Tiruppur, Gobichettipalayam, Coimbatore and Peelamedu.

shoulders every time, an additional burden, with the result they carry for months and years the burden of pain." This was an apt answer.

We then went round the hamlet to observe the surroundings of the village. It appeared so fine to walk on the green grassy plains and around some shady bowers here and there which the young boys appreciated and enjoyed. There were some tall trees under which was plenty of shade, a very suitable place for games, as one of them said, but on observation it was found that the place was misused being full of filth and dung. So the boys moved on to see where the villagers threw the dirt of the village. The heaps of dirt were not far off and were all scattered on either side of the road. Then there was a small discussion about the digging of big pits. One fellow quoted "This is the dirt that breeds the fly that sits on the eye and spoils the eye of the school boy bright."

We all gathered in an open place in the village and requested some villagers to gather. This was fairly a good gathering for a small village. The children one after another addressed on various topics they had previously come prepared. Some of them had to write essays and get them corrected by the teacher and then got them by heart. One boy spoke on rural indebtedness and another attempted to speak on village sanitation and yet another on the evils of unnecessary litigation. Some of those who were capable of speaking off hand forcibly pointed out the defects they had noted in the village and appealed to the villagers to reform and improve. Some of them gave up literary vernacular and began to address in the homely colloquial language which was found to be quite appealing to the masses.

After the speeches of boys we left the village. On the way the boys spoke to each other about what they saw and how best to help the villager in keeping the village hygienically sound. One or two sang some fine songs some of which were on health and on social service.

This was a day's work, why the work of some hours in a day. But such a time spent well will give the real training necessary for future citizens of India and for the reform of the rural parts. The Junior Red Cross in the rural areas would be a very effective organisation to help rural reconstruction about which the patriot, the reformer and the statesman are very particular and which alone can make India a prosperous country.

PUPIL-TEACHERS' SECTION

THE TEACHER AS THE BUILDER OF THE NATION.

BY

MR. K. V. R. KRISHNAN,
Secondary Grade, Pasumalai.

(A talk to the students of the Pasumalai Training school on their commencement day.)

In the history of the world, young men have always been the builders of nations and saviours of societies. They possess the potent forces which form the nucleus of a golden Era. 'Well, who are the persons that bring up such young men? Are they not teachers like us?

To-day our country, is being reconstructed, not by the paper resolutions of our councils and conferences but by the silent and deep resolve of some young energetic and enthusiastic teachers who have to be hailed as the builders of the nation and hence a serious responsibility devolves on our shoulders. India is a vast country with its teeming population, its conglomeration of races and religions, it is verily a sub-continent. Over 85% of the population of our country is in the villages. The percentage of literates in many countries in the west is 99, while that of ours is only 9. Of the 9% of the literate population, more than 8% of the people are in the cities. Therefore, friends, as national builders, the field of our future work is not in the few cities of our country, but in those villages where the people live under ill-ventilated roofs and in the most insanitary environment. The people are poverty stricken, clad scantily in dirty clothes, with no beds to lie on. Many have nothing to digest, not even good water to drink. The little amount, they earn by hard labour is spent in most cases on intoxicating drinks. Even the schools that are found in a few villages are not advantageously used by the village pupils for they are not efficiently conducted. What is the *chief cause* for such conditions in the villages of our country which was once the seat of industry, learning and culture?

A mountain of ignorance heavily sits upon them. The torch of education has never been sufficiently lit in their boundaries.

'Well. What can we as teachers do in remoulding the village life? The aim of rural elementary education is to furnish the children of the village community, an environment which shall stimulate the formation of ideals, habits and ways of thinking, feeling and acting that shall help them to live more abundant lives and to become forces in remoulding the village life. Teachers by their exemplary life in the midst of the village people and by securing their co-operation, can improve their personal cleanliness and the hygienic conditions of the village. The teacher should be a guide, friend, organiser, philosopher and an encyclopedia of knowledge. The teacher, by wise and tactful co-operation with the Government can cater to all the needs of a village such as, digging wells, introducing Panchayats, Co-operative Banks etc. The teachers' wife can help the poor women in many ways. By

shoulders every time, an additional burden, with the result they carry for months and years the burden of pain." This was an apt answer.

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making the schools as nation building centres and by connecting the activities of the school with the actual village life, the teacher can increase the efficiency and the usefulness of the school. Night schools should be opened for adults for true education of children cannot go very far, unless a more congenial atmosphere than at present, is created by increased literacy and educational interest among adults. Dramas, lectures on improved methods of agriculture, industry and hygiene with practical demonstrations are other important agencies which the village teacher has to call in, for his aid in his noble work of nation building. Religious instruction forms an essential element in shaping the character of the pupils, for character is an important factor that determines the success of one's life. "Seek the kingdom of God and its righteousness, all these things shall be added unto you."

Mahatma Gandhi the austere flower of self-renunciation, both by his precepts and by noble examples, is now leading us in this line of work.

Friends, vast political changes are ahead of us and our constitution is in the melting pot from which it is not possible to comprehend what will emerge. But believe me friends, no constitution can ever bring what we desire, unless we educate the masses to a sense of their duties and privileges and of their paramount importance in the social structure. Social reform has to precede political reform. Freedom cometh not by shouts and shows, nor by hate and violence, for freedom is of the spirit. It is to be attained rather than to be obtained. Therefore, awake my young friends and look to the foundations of society for therein is the flaw that has cracked the whole edifice. The village, the school and the teacher together form the tripod on which the social structure has to be erected. Therefore, friends, with a good will, fired by the spirit of love for your country, go to the villages for they need you and they welcome you. Root out the selfishness that repress our souls. Surrender yourselves to that service of love, by embracing sufferings for they discipline, purify and strengthen our hearts. They teach us sympathy and love and without love no one is truly happy. Happiness is not a passive experience. It is not merely a quest but a conquest. Difficulties, we will have, which we can overcome easily, if we have faith in God and courage.

Friends, you may think, 'how can a village teacher with a poor salary, not even sufficient to meet the bare necessities of life and who falls a first victim whenever a proposal for a cut in the salary is made, be expected to undertake the heavy task of building a nation? I tell you friends, the small wires of a bulb, hardly to be seen with naked eyes, when set in an electric current flashes forth its light to a mile. Then what will be the power of the light, when we set our hearts in the Mighty current of the Love of God?'

May God grant us the will to open our hearts so that His current of Love may illumine us and give us the strength to serve our country; for we are lighted in this glorious institution to lighten the villages, so that we may be worthy of being called the Nation Builders.

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Prepared by The All India Federation of Educational Associations.

Draft for Criticism and Circulation.

THE PREAMBLE.

WHEREAS THE ALL-INDIA FEDERATION OF EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS is convinced that the Indian Society and the Indian State (British and Indian) owe to the child the best that they have to give:

AND WHEREAS it is also convinced that the continuity of our Race and Culture and the realization of all our unfulfilled aspirations and ideals depend upon the child who is the future man:

THE ALL-INDIA FEDERATION OF EDUCATIONAL ASSOCIATIONS declare the following to be the birth-rights of every child born in any part of India and in any strata of society irrespective of caste, creed or colour: and enjoins upon the Society and the State to discharge the undermentioned duties towards the child:

THE CHARTER.

I. EVERY CHILD is a national asset of first class importance; and it is the duty of the State and the Society to widely diffuse the knowledge and practice of Eugenics and emphasise the parental responsibility of careful marriage and mating, so as to transmit the highest possible potentialities to their children. It is the foremost duty of parents, society and the state to provide for every child free and adequate means for its full and complete normal development—physical, mental and moral.

II. EVERY CHILD must be helped by all concerned to be born under proper hygienic conditions, and it is the duty of the State and the Society to see that such conditions are provided for every child, irrespective of caste, creed or colour and also irrespective of the economic or social status of the family in which the child is born.

III. EVERY CHILD'S mother must be provided with free and adequate succour during the pre-natal and post-natal periods so that the child may be born healthy and its growth may go on unhampered by adverse family circumstances.

IV. EVERY CHILD must be adequately nourished, clothed and must be provided with hygienic surroundings for dwelling, irrespective of the economic or social conditions of the family in which it is born.

V. CHILDREN that are orphans and the waifs must be properly sheltered, clothed and fed and must be provided with free and adequate means for their normal development—physical, mental and moral.

VI. EVERY sub-normal and defective CHILD must be given a special treatment for putting it on the path to normality, failing which it must at least be provided with full facilities to make its life endurable and easy.

VII. EVERY delinquent child must be reclaimed from the baneful effects of the bad homes bad company or bad surroundings and must be in all

possible ways enabled to shed off its delinquency and to return to normal life.

VIII. EVERY CHILD must be insured against sickness or accident.

IX. EVERY CHILD'S person must be regarded as sacred and inviolable in times of all kinds of disturbances and it should be the first to receive relief in times of all kinds of distress.

X. EVERY CHILD must be protected against all the inhibitions of fear as well as against every form of exploitation—physical, mental or moral.

XI. EVERY CHILD must be brought up on the principles of the dignity of labour and must be trained to earn its livelihood by fair means.

XII. EVERY CHILD must be afforded opportunities for the best and highest education it is capable of, i.e., the fullest development of all the child's power—intuitive, affective, cognitive and active to their highest capacity, and be set in the intelligent and creative relationship with his or her environment mundane or extra mundane.

XIII. EVERY CHILD must be initiated into the principles of Physiology and Hygiene, Aesthetics and Eternal Verities found in Nature and in Life.

XIV. EVERY CHILD must be given full opportunities to develop fearlessness, self-initiative and self-expression and power of forming independent judgment.

XV. EVERY CHILD must be brought up on the principles of unity that underlies all forms of life, so that it may develop respect for all forms of life.

XVI. EVERY CHILD must be brought up to have respect for the elders and to love all that is best in the various race-cultures and religions of its land.

XVII. EVERY CHILD must be brought up to have sympathy for the weak, the defective and the old and must be trained to help them.

XVIII. EVERY CHILD must be allowed to mix freely and on terms of equality with any other child of either sex, irrespective of caste, creed or colour.

XIX. EVERY CHILD has a right to be educated in its own mother-tongue at least during the Primary and Secondary stages.

GLEANINGS

THE NEW EDUCATION.

There are three main, definite and outstanding changes in modern educational practice. In the first place, we now see that we must educate the whole child, not just his mind, but his body and his spirit. This has inevitably brought about a widening of the curriculum; far more stress has been laid on physical development, on hygiene, fresh air, exercise; room has been found for drama and art and music, so that emotional avenues for self-expression are opened up. It is recognized that mental ability is not simply developed by learning by rote, but by following individual interests, by free discussions, by spontaneous activity, by co-operative endeavour. We have come to understand that each child has his own individual rhythm of growth, and that we must allow different children to develop at different rates, and hence that we must give plenty of opportunity for individual work.

Secondly, the subject matter of the curriculum should be linked with life. Even ordinary skills, reading, writing, arithmetic, should not be allowed to become dead matter; they should be charged with interest by being related to the actual needs and problems of everyday life. It is interesting to see, how this principle is applied alike in the curriculum of small rural schools in Italy and in the geography and number lessons of many of our own elementary schools.

But the biggest change of all is the change of attitude towards the children we teach. It is based on the new psychology which helps us to see each child as an individual whom we must respect, without striving to mould him to our pattern. It bids us seek the cause of abnormal behaviour rather than to punish it and use sympathy rather than force. And so the modern teacher has an exacting task; each child is a separate problem only to be understood after careful consideration of the child's environment, his parents and his home.

"NEW ERA" MARCH 1935.

THE PUBLISHERS' VIEW ON THE RECENT G. O. ON TEXT-BOOKS

A meeting of the publishers under the auspices of the Publishers and Booksellers Association of South India was held at the Y. M. C. A. at 5 p.m., on the 2nd instant under the presidency of Mr. V. C. Srinivasachariar, B.A., L.T., of the Oxford University Press. It was pointed out that the G. O. prohibiting the change of text books for five years was in no way beneficial to parents in the case of Elementary Schools and that the Headmasters and teachers of the secondary schools may well be trusted with the selection of text books. If there was misuse in a few cases of the discretion till now vested in headmasters and managements, it was no argument for such drastic action on the part of the Government; that publishers played an important part in the spread of education and their views ought not to be ignored in a matter vitally affecting them.

The following resolutions were unanimously passed:—

(1) That this meeting of publishers of Madras requests that the Government be pleased not to give effect to the G. O. (Law and Education) No. 471 of 11-3-35 regarding prescription of text books but keep it in abeyance until after the school year 1936-1937.

(2) That a deputation of the following gentlemen do wait on the Education Minister, Chief Minister, Deputy Secretary to the Government of Madras and the D. P. I.

Messrs. V. C. Srinivasachariar (Spokesman)

Rao Sahib C. Parthasarathy Naidu,

V. Venkateswara Sastrulu and Seven others.

Messrs. S. Viswanathan and P. Srinivasan were made Secretaries of this Deputation.

FROM OUR ASSOCIATIONS

EDUCATION AND NEW OUTLOOK

Prof. A. S. Vaidyanatha Iyer's address.

The valedictory address on the occasion of the school-day of the R. S. Puram Municipal Middle School, Coimbatore, was delivered on the 29th March '35 by Prof. A. S. Vydianatha Iyer, M.A., L.T., M. E. S. (Retired,) the theme being "Education and New Outlook." A. H. A. TODD, Esq., I.C.S., Collector of Coimbatore presided.

From ancient times the subject of education has been kept in the forefront in India. Education of the right sort was considered to be the foundation for true happiness. The respect for the teacher was so much that he was even raised almost to the rank of a deity. The Gurukula system of education was developed far and wide in the country. A well-known vedic prayer defined the ideals of education to be devotion to duty, a corporate life and the cultivation of love and goodwill.

In course of time the old order changed, and the modern system of education has come in its place. With regard to education one has to notice that no one system can be considered perfect. The merits and demerits of systems have to be carefully weighed and adjustments made so as to derive the best possible results. The Gurukula system provided the best machinery for a full and living contact between the teacher and the taught while at the present day the great merit of modern schools is the policy of open door of making education accessible to all classes of people. One great problem in modern education is how to combine the largest contact between the teacher and the taught with the policy of open door. Knowledge in recent times has become considerably widened and varied with the result that no one teacher, however clever, can provide fully for the needs of any set of boys. The result therefore has been that various arrangements are made in modern schools by way of Hostel, Tutorial System etc., to keep alive the contact between the teacher and the pupil.

At the present day, several problems have sprung up regarding the nature, content and scope of education. Government no less than people are becoming more and more alive to the need for changes in the Educational system. Emphasis is now rightly laid on education to serve the needs of the whole man—body, mind and soul. Again education is considered as preparation for life. According to this view under the stress of present day difficulties the utilitarian purpose of education is being emphasised and education is felt to require to be made more practical and to be invested with a bias—agricultural or industrial—according to local needs and conditions. Further while education should stimulate the highest development of the individual, it has also to prove to be of advantage in increasing the progress and happiness of the Society as a whole.

The importance of training in character can never be overestimated. A truly cultured man will put love for and service of society above all considerations of self. In the days to come, education is sure to loom more and more. Especially in India the need for sacrifice and service by bands of educated men is becoming more and more urgent and imperative. In spite of all the progress of education India continues to be in a most backward condition as regards the percentage of literacy. More than 90% of her population are still submerged in illiteracy and it behoves all educated men and lovers of the country to undertake the fight against illiteracy. Teachers can of course do some good in this direction by starting night schools with the help of the management, Local Bodies and Local Governments must in the years to come devote larger sums for expenditure on education. Reference was made in the Report of this school that Health Squads were formed in all classes. This is a very interesting experiment likely to prove very serviceable to the country when the students come of age having had such training. The expectation of average life in India is said to be 25 years while in progressive countries it is almost double. Insanitary conditions and disease are said to be rampant in several villages. Educated men can do noble service by undertaking the fight against disease, and insanitary conditions so as to make life more and more happy for India's large rural population.

THE TEACHERS' BOOKSHELF

Sri Rama Charitai.—A Tamil book of 80 pages with four pictures. Price annas six only. Can be had at No. 138, Brodies Road, Mylapore. Miss K. S. Samkari, the author, has written an excellent book. It fully deserves to be prescribed for study in schools. We are glad to learn that the Madras Text-book Committee have approved it for school use. We heartily commend it to every tamil home in India and elsewhere.

Sacred Thoughts. Price annas Three only. Culled from no less than thirty of the world's Masterminds and Mahatmas of all times, compiled and published by Ramana Dasa K. S. Seshagiri, 138, Brodies' Road Mylapore, Madras.

It has the credit of bringing to us gems from non-Indian Saints and seers as well as our own. Most of the essential common factors of all important religions are found compressed in this beautiful book of 12 chapters. It is commended to all teachers and pupils who wish to find the nucleus of a Universal religion.

Boys' Own Paper.—Judging from the first number, the "Boys' Own Paper", promises to be useful and interesting to school going pupils. We wish the magazine every success.

The Government Training School Magazine, Trichinopoly.—We welcome the move on the part of the school authorities to start a magazine to provide opportunities for the self expression of the pupil-teachers. The first number contains useful and instructive articles in English and Tamil.

The Bishop Heber School Magazine.—(Vol. XIV. No. 2).

We are glad to note that this magazine has been uniformly maintaining a commendable level of school journalism. The articles by the teachers are instructive, while those by the pupils are very entertaining.

The Bombay Teachers' Journal.—Edited by B. Arco, B.A., B.T., and published by C. A. Christio, Robert Monly School, Bombay 7.

We gladly welcome into the ranks of Educational periodicals "The Bombay Teachers' Journal", the official organ of the Bombay Teachers' Union. The opening number contains besides reports of the Union activities and accounts of education conferences, articles on interesting educational problems. It is neatly got up. We hope that the Journal would serve as a means of consolidating the teachers in the Bombay presidency and bring them under the banner of a 'Provincial Organisation' with a net work of district and taluk Associations of teachers.

We wish the journalistic enterprise of the Bombay Teachers' Union all success.

Modern India Story Books.—Book I. Folk Stories of the Nations by Corrie Fearon, B.Ed., Superintendent, Child Education Department, Teachers' College, Saidapet, Madras; Published by Messrs. Srinivasavaradachari & Co., Madras. Price 6 annas.

These stories, seven in number, are intended for young folks of this land to be read and enjoyed by them. All these folk-tales have been handed down from generation to generation by oral tradition. At the end of each story there are exercises and guidance for individual work.

But not one of these stories is Indian. They are from China, Ancient Egypt, North America, Ireland etc. India has always been the cradle of stories and tales and our stock has travelled far and wide as any student of Dunlop's History of Fiction and other works can find out for himself. It would have been better if stories which our children have heard from their own grandmothers be retold them in simple English and later on they may be introduced to the stories of other nations. We hope the learned author will give us more books in the series dealing with Indian stories.

S. K. Y.

King Henry IV.—Parts I and II, by William Shakespeare. Edited by M. A., Pink, in the Scholars' Library. Published by Messrs. Macmillan & Co., London Price 2sh. 6d.

We had the privilege of reviewing many books belonging to this beautiful series now made available to the reading public by Messrs. Macmillan & Co., and this is a very desirable addition to the same. We see that about 17 plays of Shakespeare have already been published in this series and we hope the remaining 15 also will be included. We specially commend the critical introduction about the artistic construction of the play and notes on the chief characters of the play. It is a good thing that both the Falstaffian plays are published together in one volume. We are thus enabled to see this sun in all its glory and his setting as well when his former boon companion Prince Hal, now King Henry V dismisses him with "I know thee not, old man; fall to thy prayers".

Other features of the series, i.e., helpful notes, suggestive questions based on the text and topics for essays are also to be found in this volume under review. It would form a useful addition to any library whether in schools, colleges or in homes.

S. K. Y.

The Critic. By R. B. Sheridan. Edited with Introduction and notes by Robert Herring, M.A., published by Messrs. Macmillan & Co., Ltd., London, 1935.

This is a welcome addition to the well-known "English Literature Series" published by the company and the editor is the same gentleman who has edited the same author's "School for Scandal" and "The Rivals" in this series. The plan adopted is the same. To begin with there is a brief biographical sketch of the author; it is followed by a section dealing with "Life in the eighteenth Century" without which the average student, especially in this country, will miss the background of the play. A critical appreciation of the play from the points of view of construction and characterisation is followed by descriptions of the stage before and after Sheridan, and also contemporaneous with him.

The notes given, though not exhaustive, are very helpful and we attach great importance to "help for further study" even more than to questions and subjects for essays which would be found very useful to students. An average undergraduate of our universities would find the book very useful.

S. K. Y.

Readings in English Literature: Parts I and II. Edited by K. Srinivasa Kini, B.A., L.T., Published by The Basel Mission Book and Tract Depository, Mangalore and Hubli, Part I price As. 12 and Part II price Rupee one. Part I pp. 152, Part II pp. 190. 7¼" by 5".

These are two well printed and elegantly bound volumes. The selections have been very carefully made. The aim of the editor has been set forth in the preface. "In the Bombay Presidency the use of readers with prose selections mostly from modern authors is insisted upon, while in a recent circular from the Madras S.S.L.C. Board simi-

lar observations are made. These two readers have been compiled in conformity with the above suggestions." In each book there are three sections. Section 1. Readings in Prose. Section 2. Selections from English Poetry. Section 3. Exercises in Written Composition.

To add to the usefulness of the books, explanatory notes, short questions on the subject matter, suggestive exercises in vocabulary work, and oral composition have been given. It would be an ideal class book for reading at school and would stimulate pupils to complete reading the books by themselves at home. We hope these readers will have the patronage they so richly deserve.

Ravi Varma: (a monograph). By K. P. Padmanabhan Thampy, B.A., Published by Kripin & Co., New Lodge, Chettikulanagara, Trivandrum. Price As. 8. 7" by 5". pp. 62.

The author has done a signal service to the cause of painting and fine art by bringing out the life, of one whose pictures are widely appreciated in the whole of South India. It may be a wonder to many to think that they can have no other mental image of the principal Gods and Goddesses than the ones that have been painted by Ravi Varma. The salient features of this highly born and cultured artist have been given in a simple style. Any one would be the wiser for reading this useful book, which has been dedicated to the Junior Maharane of Travancore.

The Complete English: Books I and II. By Alis Mamour. Published by Messrs. Macmillan & Co., Ltd., Book I, pp. 200. Price 2s. 3d.; and Book II, pp. 256. Price 2s. 6d. 7½" by 5¼". Illustrated.

'The Complete English' series is designed for children aged from 11 to 15 [in England] in order to meet their requirements in every branch of the subject. The books have been prepared in accordance with the latest Handbook of suggestions published by the Board of Education in England and suggestions on English in Senior Schools issued by the London County Council.

Each book contains 22 to 24 sets of work in prose or poetry. The inter-relation between history and literature is brought out by these selections and there is ample guidance for individual work.

These books can be read by our boys in the library hours and even small schools can do well to have some sets and encourage pupils of the high school classes to them since reading these books will give a thorough knowledge and enjoyment

Self-Help in English Composition: (specially written for Asiatic Students). By Anthony Desmond. Published by Messrs. Macmillan & Co., Ltd., 6¾" by 4¾", pp. 96. Price 1sh. 6d.

The aim of the book is to give the users a number of rules that will assist them in finding errors in English composition. The method by which the object sought to be attained is by giving a few rules and then to give a number of exercises. Section A deals with the use of different parts of speech and concord together with a full section on the errors in the use of certain common words. Section B deals with errors in Indirect narration. In section C, there are three sub-divisions. (a) Correction of 100 miscellaneous errors; (b) Correction of absurdities; (c) Correction of errors due to "Swank".

This will be a useful manual in the hands of teachers of English in our High School classes.

Practical Map Books: By S. J. B. Whybrow, B. Sc., F.R.G.S., Senior Geography Master at the Central Foundation Boys' School, London. Books 3, 4, 5 and 6. Book 3 Asia; Book 4. North and South America; Book 5. Africa and Book 6. Australia and New Zealand. Price 10d. each. 9¾" by 7¼". 32 pp. each. Publishers: Messrs. J. M. Dent & Sons, Ltd., Bedford Street, London.

The first two books of this valuable series have already been reviewed in these columns. The subsequent books maintain the same standard of excellence in the selection of matter, presentation of details, suggestion of questions, and drawing of maps. Teachers of geography will be richly rewarded by a study of this series as it will help them to set their own pupils the proper type of exercises in map reading, map filling, and map correlation. We heartily commend this series to all teachers of Geography and heads of educational institutions.

Observational Geography of the British Isles: By Robert Hatch and R. P. Puckering. Published by Messrs. Macmillan & Co., Ltd., Price Rs. 2-6-0. 7½" by 5¼". Pages 216.

This book is intended to cover the portion for the school certificate course and so it sets for us the details of knowledge required in our matriculation classes for India. As its name implies the book is full of suggestions for practical work—drawing of maps, graphs and other diagrams. The authors say with truth that 'just as the study of botany will be a failure without constant work with plants so will be a study of geography without organized observation of streams, cliffs, roads, farms and other parts of the subject matter of the science.' The book is divided into three sections. I. Physical pp. 1-74; II. Human activities 75-134; III. Regional 135-207. There is a full index. This is a very superior text book and will be a very useful addition to our school libraries.

Reading and Composition: A course for the qualifying class: By A. J. Merson, M.A., Published by Messrs. Macmillan & Co., London 7½" by 5¼" pp. 209. Price 2s. 6d.

When applied grammar is sought to be learned by our pupils, a book like the one under review will be a very useful volume in the hands of pupils. There are nineteen prose extracts of varied interest most of them copyright material from modern authors. Under each lesson there are exercises in reading, word study and composition. The exercises are carefully graded. Lesson No. 20 contains exercises in (a) Rapid and silent reading. (b) Reading and word study. (c) Composition. Lesson 21 contains lists for word study and spelling. This is a useful book and has been well got up.

India Reader: Compiled by the All Bengal Teachers' Association. Published by Macmillan & Co., Ltd.

The compilers have taken great care in the choice of prose passages and poems which are quite suitable to the IV form pupils. The selections are from reputed authors who have specially written for children. Brief notes and questions are appended. In writing notes, mere dictionary meanings may have been avoided; types of question may have been varied. We welcome the move on the part of our sister association in Bengal to accept such business propositions as the publication of this reader involves.

The Modern Elementary School Teachers' Guide: By Mr. V. P. Natesa Iyer, Dusi, via Conjeeveram, author and publisher.

The book is well-planned to satisfy the requirements of Elementary school teachers. Practical hints are given which would be of immense help to them in preparing statements to be submitted to the authorities. It is an invaluable guide to correspondence for the Elementary school teacher.

A Brief Survey of English History: Part III (1603-1714) in Telugu. By B. Subbiah, B.A., L.T., Published by V. Ramana & Co., Madras.

In writing this book the author claims to have kept in mind the dictum "young pupils want a good thick padding of details and explanations to make history look intelligible." The language of the book is simple and clear. But we must observe that the book lacks suitable illustrations and maps. The print is clear and bold but the paper used may have been better.

The P. S. High School Magazine No. I: March 1935, published by the Editorial Committee.

The Editorial Board deserves to be congratulated on the excellent first number they have recently brought out. The purpose of a school Magazine may be taken to be among other things (1) to give opportunities to the present students for self-expression, (2) to give to boys and their parents an account of the activities of the school, especially of the extra-curricular ones, and (3) to give facilities to the Old Boys of the school to keep themselves in touch with their successors. We are glad to see that all these aspects are well-borne in mind by the Editorial Board as the articles in the number under review testify. The enlightened members of the management have contributed their quota and besides all these there is an inspiring article on Gandhi by Mr. V. S. Sreenivasa Sastriar. The Tamil and Telugu sections deserve special mention.

We appreciate particularly the short but extremely well-written articles by the present students.

The best we can wish the Magazine is that it would be able to maintain the present high level of excellence (both in quantity and quality) throughout its course which we all pray to be long, uninterrupted and characterised by progress from stage to stage.

S. K. Y.

First Course in English Grammar: (In Diglott Form) Books I and II. By M. S. Subrahmanya Ayyar, B.Com.(Kath.), Assistant, St. Mary's High School, Dindigul. (With a foreword by Rev. Father Santhappan, S.J.)

The aim of the author of this series is 'to help the pupils to acquire a sound knowledge of English which might help them in speaking and writing correct English'. True to this aim, the author has laid aside all such portions as are peculiar and useless and as tend to confuse or puzzle the tender pupils. The treatment of the subject matter is very praiseworthy. Known examples are made to precede the rules and principles, and definitions have been avoided. The author has clearly understood the classroom difficulties in teaching English Grammar and has taken great pains to make the subject easy and interesting.

One valuable feature is the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction. This is sure to save much wastage of mental effort on the part of the taught and to make them interested in the study of grammar. The language itself is simple and idiomatic and the presentation is very clear. The Tamil equivalent 'தழுவு' for *qualify* used in connection with adjectives is not correct and might have been avoided, though many of the best teachers have been using it till now. (The translation for *Rama is short* (ராமன் குட்டை) on p. 34 of Book II is capable of conveying a sense quite different from what has been intended.

The exercises have been very carefully selected. They are modern, easy and purposeful. The books have been well thought out and well written and are attractively got up.

An Elementary Course of Mathematics: Arithmetic. By H. S. Hall, M.A., and F. H. Stevens, M.A., (pp. 1 to 98: Price 1sh. 3d.) Macmillan & Co., Ltd., Madras, 1934.

This small book can be used in schools where the Dalton Plan is worked out. It contains thirty lessons, each being a week's work. In each lesson are given some worked examples, notes and 'hints for solution'. The exercises have been carefully graded. The subject matter for the problems is from actual life. In addition to the portions taught in our high schools the book contains chapters on Cube Root, Foreign Coinage, Present Worth and Discount, Stocks and Shares.

T. S. R.

THE S. I. T. U. PROTECTION FUND.

List of names continued.

- 1172 Mr. R. Parthasarathy Iyengar, Asst., Hindu High School, Ambur.
- 1173 „ S. Raghupathi, Asst., E. R. High School, Trichinopoly.
- 1174 „ P. Pichaimuthu, Asst., Board Boys Ele. School, Satyamangalam.
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- 1185 „ M. S. Subramanian, Asst., Hindu Middle School, Viravanallur.
- 1186 „ K. Krishnan, Asst., Ornelles Middle School, Tuticorin.
- 1187 „ S. Subbiah Iyer, Asst., Ornelles Middle School, Tuticorin.

17th April 1935.
Triplicane.

Hon. Secretary.
M. K. RAMAMURTI,

EDITORIAL

AN EDUCATIONIST RETIRES

In July 1935 Mahamahopadhyaya S. Kuppuswami Sastriar Avl., Professor of Sanskrit and Comparative Philology in the Presidency College, Madras, will be laying down his office and retire after having occupied this exalted position for nearly twenty years. On the 13th of March the past and present students of the Professor, his friends and admirers gave him a farewell entertainment and after the tea-party addresses were presented to him in Sanskrit and in English. Sir P. S. Sivaswami Iyer, one of the oldest friends and patrons of the Professor, occupied the Chair in the unavoidable absence of Mr. Champion, the Director of Public Instruction, who was to have presided. Mr. Littlehails, the Vice-Chancellor of the University, who as the Principal of the Presidency College and later on as the Director of Public Instruction knew Mr. Sastriar very well, unveiled a portrait of the Professor presented to the Presidency College by his students, and Mr. Papworth, the present Principal, accepted it on behalf of the College. The portrait itself was a labour of love done skilfully by Mr. Sivaramamurti, B.A. (Hons.), a former student of the Professor who has been doing research work under his guidance on the subject of Indian Art. Mr. Sastriar made a suitable reply. He was in a mood of reminiscence and gave out some details of his life, which, but for that disclosure, people would have had no opportunity of knowing. We come to know how his love of Sanskrit was developed even when he was a child and how before he was four years old he could recite all the 500 verses of Mūka Panchasati, a collection of devotional lyrics in praise of the Divine Mother. He also informed the audience of his study of Vedānta in the orthodox style under a great scholar popularly known as Pazhamanery Swamigal. Having made up his mind to earn a decent livelihood by practising an independent profession, he chose Law and qualified himself for it; but fortunately he was spared that ordeal. The late Mr. V. Krishnaswami Iyer had just then started the Sanskrit College, Mylapore, now a well-known institution, and he was on the look out for a scholar who would combine in himself the profound learning characteristic of the Pandit, with the critical and historical estimate of authors, characteristic of modern western learning; and that ideal combination was found in Mr. Kuppuswami Sastriar. He devoted himself heart and soul for building up a high tradition in the newly started institution and his services were appreciated and when the Principalship of the Sanskrit College, Tiruvadi, fell vacant, he was appointed for that post. There also Mr. Sastriar continued his double process of study and teaching and equipped himself involuntarily for the post wherein he made his mark, namely, the professorship in the Presidency College. He continued to hold this place inspite of official pressure brought to bear upon him to accept principalship of mofussil colleges—Kumbakonam and Rajahmundry. When the Honours course in Sanskrit was started the Professor was responsible for drawing up the necessary syllabus and for actually running it so efficiently during the past twenty years in the Presidency College.

He not only did much research work of the highest quality himself, but, what is more important, he has trained ever so many youngmen to do research work and has built up a school of research in oriental literature and philosophy. "The Madras Journal of Oriental Research" was started to afford facilities for these young workers to give publicity to their work.

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The learned Sastriar has been a notable figure at all meetings of the Academic Council and the Senate. His mastery of *Mimamsa* has enabled him to win a unique position in the matter of interpretation of statutes, ordinances and regulations of the University so that his interpretations have always commanded the importance they deserve and the Vice-Chancellor and the members of the Syndicate would think twice before differing from him. He has taken up some times a stern and independent attitude, but always has been a champion of research and advancement of culture.

He was also the curator of the Oriental Manuscript Library, in which capacity he did meritorious service by collecting rare manuscripts, by arranging to have them well preserved, by providing facilities for original research by scholars and by publishing some rare works himself.

The Government have recognised the meretorious services rendered by him to the cause of Sanskrit first by promoting him to the Indian Educational Service and later on conferring upon him the coveted title of Mahamahopadhyaya. Many of his old students have won this title. The learned Head of the Kumbakonam Mutt has shown his gracious appreciation of the Professor's merits by conferring upon him the title of 'Vidya Vachaspati'. Though he retires from service, it is hoped, that he does not retire from active work in the field of Oriental Research. He occupies a unique position in that field and it is the wish of all who have had the privilege of knowing Mr. Sastriar that he would devote his full attention to the task of enriching Indological literature by his original contributions and learned editions of classics, for which task he is eminently fitted. Hitherto his official work has been responsible for the comparative paucity of his original productions.

We wish Mr. Sastriar many years of health and happiness and of intensive work in the field of study and publication.

THE MADRAS TEACHERS' GUILD

The authorities of the Madras Teachers' Guild deserve to be congratulated on the excellent course of lectures they recently arranged for the benefit of teachers in the city of Madras, a brief account of which has already appeared in the March number of the journal and the texts of two addresses one delivered by Mr. Kuolt of Ambur on the 'School and the Society' and the other, also a set of two lectures on 'The defective Child' by Mrs. Varughis are given in this number of the journal; and we hope to publish in the next number the two lectures by Prof. N. Kuppuswami Iyengar of Trivandrum on the 'Scientific method applied to examination results.'

It is within the experience of all of us that the teacher after leaving the training college has got a tendency, if he gets stuck up in a school for a long time, to fall into a groove and lose touch with the latest ideas upon the subject. It is very necessary for such teachers to have their ideas brushed up now and then, and nothing serves that purpose so efficiently as a refresher course of lectures on educational ideals and methods.

We earnestly hope that this excellent example set by the city guild will be followed by other guilds in the mofussil. Every guild can easily arrange to have a course of lectures on some arresting topic once a year or at least once in two years and if a guild cannot, with its limited resources in men and money, run an efficient course of lectures, it would do well to co-operate with

the guild of a neighbouring district and have their joint resources pooled and the lectures fixed in some central locality easily accessible to the teachers of both the districts. In important district headquarters like Trichinopoly and Madura, where we have training schools and also many higher academic institutions, there is sure to be a body of teachers rich in experience and having a first hand knowledge not only of the systems of education in this country but in many other countries as well, from which we have much to learn. The guilds in such places can, therefore, easily organise such courses, and we are quite sure the lead given by Madras would be taken up by mofussil guilds. We should be very glad to give due publicity in the pages of this journal to the courses of lectures that may be organised by guilds individually or in combination.

THE LAST MEETING OF THE SENATE.

The March meeting of the Senate is the budget meeting; the most important items of business transacted are passing the annual report and accounts of the previous year and the budget of the coming year. Over and above the usual interpellations by members and a number of reports and statements by the Syndicate regarding the actions taken on previous resolutions there were two interesting features of the last meeting; one was an animated discussion about the function of the University Students' Union and the other, a very large number of resolutions given notice of by members being ruled out of order by the Vice-Chancellor.

Regarding the second item, the Vice-Chancellor had sent out a note to all the Senate members regarding the mistakes they commit in the matter of drafting resolutions or amendments and on the second day he read out another list of common errors. The matter, however, has now been set right as the University office has agreed to help the members in properly drafting the resolutions and amendments if that help is sought in good time.

A good deal of the heat that characterised the discussions about the University Union was due to the fact that many members felt that it was a costly luxury, that it caters to the needs of a few tens of students only out of the thousands of undergraduate and post-graduate students of the University and that therefore it serves no useful function and might well be abolished.

Those who spoke in favour of the Union dwelt upon the remoteness of the present site and hoped that things would be very much better when the Union is shifted, as it is hoped, to the Marina when the new buildings now in course of construction are completed.

The most surprising part of the debate was when Dr. Hogg and Mr. Papworth, Principals of the Christian and Presidency Colleges respectively made it clear in their speeches that there was no need for such a Union, that boys are loyal more to their own colleges than to the abstraction called the University, that these had opposed the motion when first made about the starting of the Union and that it was not at all a matter of surprise that the institution was not flourishing. Dewan Bahadur A. Ramaswami Mudaliar struck the right note when he drew the attention of the house to the fact that the preamble of the University act of 1923 contemplated the development of the true University spirit by fostering co-operation among the colleges and between the colleges and the University. The way in which the responsible heads of colleges

spoke on the subject showed that their mentality was still the old mentality of pre-1923 period when the University was merely an examining body and the colleges alone were responsible for academic work.

It has been the opinion of many that the noble aims contemplated in the preamble of the act of 1923 i.e., to foster a spirit of comradeship between the alumni and staffs of the different colleges as being but organs of the single organism the University, is still a dream of visionaries and no practical step is being taken to achieve this end. Some three years back an attempt was made to elicit by means of a question the steps taken by the University in the matter of getting this object realised and the answer then given was that a committee consisting of heads of constituent colleges has been appointed to go into the question and that the report of the committee was awaited.

It is deplorable that each of the constituent colleges is thinking of itself only as a separate and independent entity almost in deadly rivalry with other colleges similarly situated and not as a part of a united whole with co-operation as the principle guiding its relationship with other colleges. If that true spirit of common aims and endeavours be fostered much of unhealthy rivalry among the city colleges can be avoided and a good deal of wastage due to duplication of work put a stop to. It is high time the University takes up the question of pooling all the resources available in men and money to do higher teaching which is the real function of the University instead of its being like another League of Nations to which the constituent units pay but a lip homage while they go on pursuing their own independent policies.

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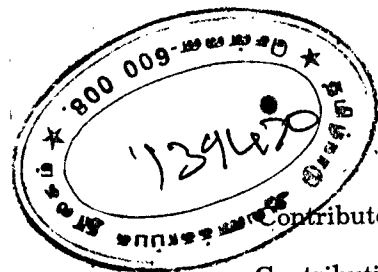
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