

J2
Ton2, MASE.
N42.48.2
143489.

597
REGD. NO.M. 272
VOL. XLVIII, NO. 2 ||

|| FEBRUARY 1942



PRINCIPAL CONTENTS

I BECAME A TEACHER. BY PRINCIPAL
P. SESHADRI, M.A., M.B.E.,

DRAMA IN EDUCATION. BY MRS. R. L.
DEVONSHIRE.

MATHEMATICAL STUDY & RESEARCH. BY
DR. R. VAIDYANATHASWAMY.

REGIONAL METHOD OF STUDY IN GEOGRAPHY .
BY SRI V. TYAGARAJAN, B.A., J. IV

Hon. Editor : Rao Sahib Sri C. S. SRINIVASACHARI, M.A.

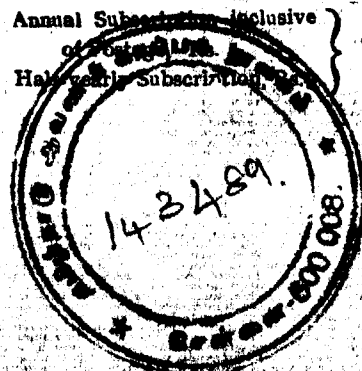
CONTENTS

	PAGE
I Became a Teacher. By Principal P. Seshadri, M.A., M. B. E., Ajmere	... 45
The Theatre in India—Its place in the University Drama in Education. By Mrs. P. E. Richards, Banoorie, Punjab	... 49
The Cairo Arab Museum. By Mrs. R. L. Devonshire	... 58
Is Listening-in Worth While? By Sri D. Purushotham, Chittoor	... 60
History of the English Bible. By Sri T. P. Amarsinghe	... 63
Mathematical Study & Research. By Dr. R. Vaidyanathaswamy, University of Madras	... 68
Regional Method of Study in Geography. By Sri V. Tyagarajan, B.A., L.T., Madras	... 75
Our Contemporaries	79
Book Reviews	... 82
Notes	85

Annual Subscription, inclusive
of postage, \$1.00.
Half-yearly Subscription, 50c.

MADRAS
SRINIVASA VARADACHARI & CO.
[All Rights Reserved.]

Foreign Subscription inclusive
of Postage Rs. 6-8-0.



OUR POPULAR HIGH SCHOOL HISTORY BOOKS

A SCHOOL HISTORY OF INDIA, by the late M. S. Rs. A. P. Ramaswami Aiyangar, for Forms IV, V and VI, (5th edition)		1	12	0
TAMIL EDITION OF A SCHOOL HISTORY OF INDIA, translated by M. S. Sundareswara Aiyar		1	12	0
SPECIAL TRAVANCORE PORTION OF A SCHOOL HISTORY OF INDIA, from 1707 to the present time	0	12	0	
A HISTORY OF TRAVANCORE, by S. Ramanath Aiyar	0	12	0	

GEOGRAPHY

OUTLINES OF A GEOGRAPHY OF THE WORLD, for Forms IV, V and VI, by G. Srinivasa Aiyar, B.A., L.T.				
Part I. The Southern Continents and North America	0	12	0	
Part II. Eurasia and the World in General		0	12	0

OUR POPULAR HIGH SCHOOL SCIENCE BOOKS

ELEMENTARY SCIENCE—NATURAL SCIENCE, PHYSICS and CHEMISTRY, by K. C. Ramaswami Aiyar, V. N. Viswanatha Aiyar, and P. A. Narayana Aiyar, for Forms V and VI (English)	...	1	12	0
MALAYALAM EDITION OF THE ABOVE translated by C. S. Venkataraman, B.A., L.T. PHYSICS & CHEMISTRY	1	4	0	
NATURAL SCIENCE		1	0	0
MALAYALAM SCIENCE FOR FORM IV, General Editor P. A. Narayana Aiyar	...	0	8	0
ELEMENTARY PHYSICS, by the late P. Lakshminarasu Naidu		1	4	0
ELEMENTARY CHEMISTRY, by the same author		0	12	0

SRINIVASA VARADACHARI & CO.
PUBLISHERS, 2/16, MOUNT ROAD, MADRAS

OUR POPULAR MATHEMATICS BOOKS

FOR HIGH SCHOOL CLASSES

	Rs.	A.	P.
A COURSE OF GENERAL MATHEMATICS, by V. Raghunatha Aiyar, B.A., L.T., for Forms IV, V & VI (English)	2	0	0
TAMIL EDITION OF THE ABOVE, by the same author.	1	4	0
A MANUAL OF ARITHMETIC, by the Late S. Radhakrishna Aiyar, B.A., for Forms IV, V & VI ...	2	0	0
ELEMENTARY MATHEMATICS, by the late Rao Bahadur P. V. Seshu Aiyar and V. Venkatasubbayya, Part II for Forms IV, V & VI ...	2	0	0
PROBLEMS IN ARITHMETIC, by the late S. Srinivasa Aiyar ...	1	4	0
ELEMENTS OF ALGEBRA, popularly known as the <i>Three Authors' Algebra</i> , revised by N. Panchapagesa Aiyar, for Forms V & VI ...	2	0	0
PREPARATORY ALGEBRA, by V. Raghunatha Aiyar.	2	0	0
A NEW GEOMETRY FOR HIGH SCHOOLS, by A. A. Krishnaswami Aiyangar, M.A., L.T., for Forms V and VI ...	2	8	0

MIDDLE SCHOOL CLASSES

ELEMENTARY MATHEMATICS, by the late Rao Bahadur P. V. Seshu Aiyar and V. Venkatasubbayya, (English) Part I for Forms I, II and III ...	2	0	0
TAMIL EDITION OF THE ABOVE, translated by S. Sivaraman, B.A., L.T. Part I for Form I, As. 12; Part II for Form II, As. 10; Part III for Form III, As. 12.			
TELUGU EDITION OF THE SAME, translated by A. Jayaram Row and S. Krishna Row Part I for Form I, As. 12; Part II for Form II, As. 10; Part III for Form III, As. 12			
A TEXT-BOOK OF ARITHMETIC FOR LOWER SECONDARY OR MIDDLE SCHOOLS (English), by the late S. Radhakrishna Aiyar and K. Vaidyanathaswami Aiyar			
Part I for Form I, As. 12; Part II for Forms II and III, As. 12			
EXERCISES IN ELEMENTARY MATHEMATICS for Training and Middle Schools, by M. D. Gopalachari, B.A., L.T.			

Tamil edition, As. 12; Telugu edition, As. 12

SRINIVASA VARADACHARI & CO., 2/16, MOUNT ROAD, MADRAS.



OUR POPULAR COMMERCIAL BOOKS

BOOK-KEEPING & ACCOUNTS, by the late Rao Sahib S. Vaidyanatha Aiyar, latest Revised 8th edition ('40).	Rs.	A.	P.
COMMERCIAL PRACTICE (Revised), by the same author	3	8	0
TEXT-BOOK OF TYPEWRITING, by the same author.	3	8	0
INTERMEDIATE BOOK-KEEPING, by K. Subramania Aiyar	3	0	0
ELEMENTS OF BOOK-KEEPING, by the same author.	1	8	0
BOOK-KEEPING FOR BEGINNERS, by T. V. Subramania Aiyar ...	2	0	0
COMMERCIAL CORRESPONDENCE, by the same author ...	1	8	0
COMMERCIAL ARITHMETIC, by the same author	1	4	0
GRADUATED EXERCISES IN TYPEWRITING, by the same author ...	1	8	0

TAMIL PUBLICATIONS

RAJA RAJA CHOLA I, by the late P. V. Jagadisa Aiyar.	0	8	0
BHOJA CHARITRAM, by K. S. Ramaswami Sastriar ...	0	10	0
KALIDASAN, by the same author ...	0	12	0
MANU CHARITRAM, by R. Rangachariar ...	0	10	0
NANDANAR CHARITRAM, by T. G. Aravamuda Aiyangar ...	0	10	0
RAGHUVAMSA, CANTOS I TO VI, by the late M. Natesa Sastriar ...	0	12	0
RAGHUVAMSA, CANTOS VII TO XII, by the same author	0	12	0
AS YE SOW SO YE REAP ...	0	10	0
A TEXT-BOOK OF TAMIL COMPOSITION, by G. Damodara Mudaliar ...	0	12	0

SRINIVASA VARADACHARI & CO.

PUBLISHERS, 2/16, MOUNT ROAD, MADRAS

D. D. Hindlekar, the famous wicket-keeper in All-India cricket today, says:

"I have found from experience that a cup of hot tea has always served me well as a stimulant after a day's

strenuous wicket-keeping. It is a fine refresher."



TEA for Stamina



Read our new Sports Brochure entitled "*Tea for Stamina*" and see why the leading sportsmen of India recommend tea for endurance and stamina during and after games. Please cut out this coupon and send it, together with your name, address and occupation to the Commissioner for India, Indian Tea Market Expansion Board, P. O. Box No. 2172, Calcutta who will send you free of charge a copy of the Brochure.

INSERTED BY THE INDIAN TEA MARKET EXPANSION BOARD

IK 177

The Educational Review

A MONTHLY RECORD FOR INDIA

VOL. XLVIII

FEBRUARY 1942

No. 2

I BECAME A TEACHER*

BY PRINCIPAL P. SESHADRI, M.A., M. B. E. *Ajmere.*

THE choice of a career is a serious problem to many young people, particularly in these days of over-crowded professions, but when I took my degree about thirty-five years ago, at the early age of nineteen, the question presented no serious difficulties to me. I had made up my mind, even as student at College, to be a Professor and if possible, a principal, and had worked up, by specialised reading in my subject and similar means, to achieve such a consummation. I considered myself already dedicated to the teaching profession and nothing would make me swerve from the resolve. Having done well at University examinations and won several medals and prizes, my friends and relations were anxious that I should enter some lucrative profession or other. The lure of the legal profession was there with all its prizes, of distinction and material rewards. Success at some competitive examination was also possible, opening out attractive prospects in Government service. But I set myself

definitely against any such temptation and wished to be a teacher, to the dismay of my well-meaning friends! They could apparently understand a person being driven to the teaching profession, when others had failed him, but not one choosing it so deliberately and almost so fool-hardily, in their opinion, as I did. I got what I wanted and I was taken on to the teaching staff of my College, curiously enough, the very next day after the convocation held for conferring Degrees. I have been in the profession now for more than three decades and I have found a sense of joy and happiness in it which I should like to convey, at least in some measure, to the teachers who are now listening to me.

It is difficult to analyse clearly the reasons responsible for this choice, especially at this distance of time, but I may confess that the love of books and reading was apparently the dominant reason. If one was fond of books and anxious to pursue scholarship, where was the profession more suited

*Radio talk from the Delhi A. I. R. station published by the courtesy of the Broadcasting Authorities.
XLVIII—7

to the purpose than that of teaching? You lived, moved and had your very being in the world of books. At least in colleges, routine did not seem a great burden, or so I thought and I settled down to work with a feeling almost of triumph. In spite of annoyances, pin-pricks and even serious ups and downs, this had been the basis of my happiness. With the extensive private library I have since built up for myself, I feel that I cannot be dislodged easily from this world of joy and romance. It is perhaps the secret of my zest in life and cheerful outlook on the world.

It was not long, before the second aim of my professional life took strong possession of me. Contact with hundreds of young people, every day at College, was exercising its fascination and I seemed to find great satisfaction in endeavouring to make their minds more enlightened and lives brighter winning their esteem and affection. There are few joys in the world comparable to witnessing beaming young men crowding round you, gratitude and affection obvious on their faces for the new worlds you have opened out before their vision. I have always felt very highly inspired by the well-known Hindu legend, of the student who was cursed by his master's daughter, being crossed in love, on the eve of his leaving the *ashram* after the completion of his studies: the curse was that he should not be able to benefit by the learning he had acquired, but as he declared proudly, he would make it live in others! The large number of students I have had in various parts of India, some of whom have done extremely well in life, as Minis-

ters of States, leading Advocates, Principals of colleges and public leaders are a source of great happiness. Such examples are visible demonstrations of a teacher's handiwork, highly satisfying to his sense of effectiveness.

A later aim which has stood by me strongly in recent years has been the desire to advance the status of the teaching profession and enhance its efficiency, so that it can take its due place in our national life. For years, I have tried to organise the profession in India, so as to secure for it the conditions of service and material emoluments so necessary for the efficient discharge of its duties. If I have pleaded for better conditions of service, it is even more, in the interests of educational advancement of the country itself than in the interests of individual members. As President of the All-India Teachers' Federation, I have gone round the country rousing teachers to a sense of their responsibilities and urging them to higher standards of efficiency, culture and character.

It is not the purpose of this talk to attempt to recruit members for the teaching profession, but I may perhaps invite attention to some of its attractions, nobody being more conscious, at the same time, of its many handicaps than myself. It is a life of learned leisure, particularly in colleges, though the popular notion that professors are lucky because of the many holidays and the comparatively small number of hours of work is entirely wrong. A successful professor's work consists largely of his preparation for lectures and his efforts at keeping himself up-to-date in

his subject. It is also a mistake to imagine the average schoolmaster is under no such obligation, as there is no stage of educational work in which scholarship does not tell, methods of teaching requiring as much cogitation as the study of the subject itself. But one whose ambition is to be a student all his life and drain the cup of knowledge to its very lees, has better opportunities in the profession, than in any other. It is also his privilege, to pursue a peaceful vocation which is not usually subject to excitements and upheavals and the even tenor of his life need not to be disturbed, unless he chooses deliberately to involve himself in trouble. It is a life free from temptations and capable of guaranteeing conditions conducive to the highest integrity and character. If a profession has to be judged by the test of service to humanity, there are very few which can compare with it. The task of shaping the younger generation to noble ends, to ensure a great future for the country is one which ought to evoke the highest impulses of patriotic service. It is true that the material rewards of the profession are notoriously poor, almost all over the world, though conditions are better in such countries as Britain and the United States of America. But after all, it is common experience that money does not necessarily secure happiness and the ideal must be a profession which gives ample opportunities of service and an occupation congenial to one's own tastes. The teacher must feel proud of his destiny, as the custodian of his people's culture, the moulder of the younger generation and the real hope of his country's future.

It is difficult to speak on such a personal subject as this, without seeming some what egoistic, but I am happy when I realise, that in the words of the poet, I have wrought "upon the plan that pleased my boyish thought." And any success I might have achieved in the profession should be attributed largely to definite principles I have always had in view and endeavoured to practise to the best of my ability. I have often spoken of what I have called the Five Lamps of teaching, the principles which ought to guide our profession. First is the Lamp of Knowledge the desire for scholarship and the acquisition of all the information on one's own subject. Next is the Lamp of Love, as the work of the teacher requires intense affection and sympathy and the most intimate personal interest in the growth of the students entrusted to his charge. There is, again the Lamp of Joy it being necessary that all instruction should be imparted in an atmosphere of cheerfulness, if it is to achieve any success. The Lamp of Truth is the principle that the teacher should be an embodiment of the highest character possible and be a real model of honour and good conduct to his pupils, besides being an exponent of intellectual subjects. I have also been guided by what I may call the Lamp of Sacrifice which has taught me, that the teaching profession is one which may demand one of the highest kinds of sacrifice, the obliteration of one's own personality for the growth of other lives we have endeavoured to build up.

If I have not done badly myself, even as far as material rewards go, according to

Indian standards, it distresses me beyond measure to realise that a large number of my profession in this country work under conditions of service, calculated to ensure neither ordinary physical comfort for themselves, nor suitable opportunities for the advancement of their children. Such an extensive and fundamental profession as that of teaching should not however have to rely on the sense of sacrifice, on the part of those who wish to enter it, but must guarantee prospects of contentment and happiness in service. Though my endeavours in this direction have been rewarded by the affection and confidence imposed in me by the members of my profession all over the country, who have repeatedly elected me President of the Teacher's Federation for the last fifteen years, I have been oppressed by the inadequacy of the benefits obtained to the profession.

As was only to be expected, there have been disappointments which have, sometimes, imposed a severe strain on my faith. Administrative routine, as Principal, has sometimes gravely interfered with the pursuit of scholarship. While the younger generation has, on the whole, responded with affection and gratitude, there have been occasions, when their loyalty seemed to be directed to leaders outside their own world, who have only exploited their innocence and immature enthusiasm. It has sometimes seemed really difficult to

work for the building up of ability, character and good citizenship without effective co-operation on the part of our young men and the homes from which they come. The shortcomings of some of the members of my own profession have filled me with inexpressible regret, having noticed lamentable fallings off, from high standards of conduct and sense of duty to the younger generation entrusted to their charge. The absence of the adequate recognition of the multifarious educational needs of our country, by some of our public leaders, has also been another disappointment.

But taken all in all I have found in my work as a teacher a happiness and satisfaction which I cherish as a great fortune in life. As far as the profession is concerned, I can say with the poet, without any breach of modesty:

I have not paid the world.

The evil and the insolent courtesy.

Of offering it my baseness as a gift.

I can also say, in conclusion, that if I started life again, with all the experience of these years, and a knowledge of the profession's handicaps and limitations, I would again become a teacher, without the least hesitation. Nothing would please me more, than that these experiences of mine may serve, at least in some little measure, to brighten the path and hearten the spirit of my brethren in the great profession, to which I have the honour to belong!

THE THEATRE IN INDIA—ITS PLACE IN THE UNIVERSITY DRAMA IN EDUCATION

By MRS. P. E. RICHARDS, BANOORIE, Punjab

IN December of the year 1923, I witnessed a French Nativity Play at the Hall School, Weybridge, in the southern part of England. Before the curtains were parted, the Principal of the school, addressing us, said that the play had been evolved by members of the staff out of a collection of old French carols. The making of the play had entailed painstaking research and many visits to the British Museum. She asked for silence until the end—no applause. What we were going to see was not a theatrical performance but a piece of school work. These last words were spoken with a depth of feeling that amounted to passion. The play that followed was pure beauty. I do not hesitate to say that it was the most exquisite presentation that I had until then seen upon any stage. The children of the stage chorus, boys and girls, were clothed in black eurythmic uniform tunics, with bare arms, legs and feet. Those only who had parts to play were dressed in costume simple in the extreme, but faultlessly contrived. The stage setting and the front curtain were made of unadorned hessian. The lighting was well thought out. Briefly, the theme was this. Joseph and Mary, arrived at night in a fitfully lit street asking for shelter, but finding no hospitable roof they took asylum in a manger. To them came birds, flowers and beasts, offering homage to the infant Jesus. The chorus in their short black tunics represented in turn birds, flowers and beasts; on each occasion

bearing in their hands brightly coloured symbols—cut-out cardboard flower, bird, or head of animal. These symbols were stage properties that the children, under instruction, had themselves fashioned. Their movements were eurythmic, and full of acquired but unstudied grace. The scenes which followed of The Shepherds, The Angels and the Wise Men, were contrived with austere simplicity and great imagination. The final adoration scene grouped around the Holy Family, thrown into relief, as it were, by the circular forward line of black garbed chorus was perfect in colour and composition. I do not mind confessing that I was moved to tears by the exquisite beauty and innocence of it all. I spoke with the Principal before I left, and she told me that she would not allow more than three performances, as after that the children would tend to become mechanical in their parts and the bloom would be rubbed off. "They may forget some things they learn here," she said, "but this they will never forget." I discovered afterwards that the children made a book of the play. They wrote it, illuminated it, and illustrated it; printing it themselves by the process of lithography, and they also bound it. Thus—drama, art and craft, entered implicitly into their school activities. This is a true education—a drawing out of faculty. A play, and a book of the play, is an annual occurrence at the Hall School, Weybridge—a piece of school work; in which eurythmics,

language, music, singing, diction, art and craft, enter—all separate school subjects woven into a whole.

I have given a particular instance of what is being done in one enlightened school which is fortunate in having a Principal who is also a dramatic genius. Instances of such activity could be multiplied for many schools are realising the value of the Drama as an educative, creative, and incidentally, a disciplining factor. No one who has undertaken a school play or taken part in one but realizes the very stiff discipline it is, and the team work that is necessary to see it through. It is, in fact, character-forming as well as being cultural in its effects, and it gives practical scope for many of the subjects in the school curriculum.

PLAY IN COLLEGES

Plays in colleges have not the same relation to the college curriculum that school plays have to theirs, except in the case of the study of dramatic literature. In Indian colleges this literature consists mainly of plays by William Shakespeare, prescribed as English Literature. These plays are often performed in our colleges and no doubt the students are helped thereby to get a fuller grasp of the play than they possibly could from expositions in the classroom, however clear and learned. But let not colleges imagine that because they perform plays by Shakespeare and perform them well that Drama has found its way into their midst. What the authorities have permitted, and wisely permitted, is a theatrical performance of a play by a great playwright, with educative intent,

and cultural effect. The Drama is a subject in itself, and it is for the inclusion of the Drama as a subject of study and research in educational institutions that the new age is clamouring; not for theatricals. A theatrical performance is a display on the boards of a stage, attempting dramatic illusions for the entertainment of an audience. Some colleges openly go in for theatricals, which have no connection whatever with any subject studied, nor with intent to lift the theatre from its fallen position. Popular plays, performed in a popular manner in colleges justly come in for a good deal of criticism and censure from—shall we say?—the high brow. Low brow and high brow are quite convenient terms, and as long as they are not used satirically and with derision are legitimate. High-brow and low-brow are actualities and each performs according to measurement. In colleges we expect the high-brow to be in the ascendant. When a college produces a play by Shakespeare in a theatrical manner, it does not mean that the play is a piece of college work as the Nativity Play at Weybridge was a piece of school work. Arts and crafts have no place in the Halls of Learning that compose a University, so if the play is to be produced with art and craft it must be produced by an expert—an artist of the theatre. If art and craft can be dispensed with and a play of Shakespeare be given as a reading or a recital without any attempt at dramatic illusion, then it might very well become a piece of college work. It must be remembered, however, that in India there are no opportunities of seeing

Shakespeare acted, and therefore college performances are practically a necessity for students who have to study his plays.

For some years (1911-15,) the Dyal Singh College of Lahore was the scene of consistent dramatic activity. One of the plays of Shakespeare, prescribed for the University courses, was every year theatrically produced early in the session by students selected from the whole college. At the end of the session a lesser dramatic event took place in which only non-examinees were permitted to perform. I have called the second event a lesser one because it was not done on so grand a scale and it was not Shakespeare, but from the point of view of the development of Indian Drama it was more important. In April of 1912, "Spreading the News" by Lady Gregory, was performed with intent to stimulate original play-writing. A play-writing competition had been inaugurated for a one act play dealing with an Indian subject and written in a vernacular. Eventually the prize-play formed the bill of the 'lesser' dramatic event of the college year. In time a College Satire was added to the 'lesser' event, and very good fun it was. It also became customary to perform a prologue in Urdu (before Shakespearean plays as well) in which the Goddess Saraswathi appeared. The traditional characters of the Saraswathi prologue are a Swami, a Student, a Flower-seller, and the Goddess herself. The scene represents a street in Lahore; the Swami, Old India; the Student, New India. The Swami is on his way to do puja at the shrine of the Goddess and the Student is

on his way to the Dyal Singh College play. A clash of ideals follows the meeting of Swami and student. Eventually they patch up their disagreement at the feet of Saraswathi having realized that though they differ in their methods they both are paying her homage in their own way. This is the convention of the Saraswathi Prologue as played by the Dyal Singh College. It admits of much variation.

The result of the play-writing competition was satisfactory. "Karamat," the first prize-play, had the distinction of being banned by the Censor, in the person of the Principal, as, being very modern in tendency it was feared that orthodox Hindu sentiment might be offended. The subject was the clash between scientific and superstitious methods in the treatment of disease. The writer of the play is now a D. Sc. and holds a high University post in the Punjab. Dr. S. S. Bhatnager. The second play to win the prize was "Dulham," dealing with the subject of child marriage by Ishwar Chandra Nanda—now a Professor of English Literature in I. E. S. This play was a gem. Prof. Nanda continues to write plays and a year or two ago sent "Subhadra," a three-act play, to the Punjab Text-book committee and won the literary prize of the year, thereby creating a precedent for it was the first time that the prize had been awarded for a play. The following year the prize was won by Raj Indrolal Sahani, for "Dina Ki Barat," a play criticising wanton extravagance at marriages. This play won glowing tributes.

In November 1913, a pukka amphitheatre and open-air stage were built at the Dyal Singh College on the occasion of the Production of "Coriolanus." The two preceding plays, "A Midsummer Nights Dream" and "As you like it," had been played under trees on the flat with the evidence raised upon temporary tiers of seats. For performances the amphitheatre and stage are surrounded by Kanats and overspread with Shamisnad. Recently, for the production of "A Merchant of Venice" was built upon the stage of the amphitrea, and the Dyal Singh College now boasts of what is very like a Greek Theatre.

In 1915, circumstances arose which led to the formation of an independent inter-collegiate society which was named after the Goddess Saraswati. Three performances were given under the new auspices: "A Midsummer Nights Dream" under the joint auspices of the Punjab University and the Saraswati Society, in celebration of the Shakespeare Tercentenary Festival in April 1916 a triple bill in which Lady Gregory's "Spreading the News" was revived, and also "Dulham" and "Dima Ki Bara". Then followed a production of "Sati," an original mythological play, by the founder of the Society. It was not practicable to continue the production of plays without the support of a particular college or the University, for though the Society had become inter-collegiate it was in independent undertaking. The Saraswati Annual was then inaugurated, a magazine dealing mainly with the art of the Theatre, and specially with the development of the Theatre in India. In 1920, the founder of the Society left India, having offered it to the University of

the Punjab as a going concern. The syndicate accepted it, and formed a Trust of three; Mr. A. C. Woolner, Dean of the University; Lala Kanawar Sain, then principal of the Law college now Chief Justice in the State of Kashmir, and Dr. F. D. Lucas, Principal of the Forman College. A subsidy was granted, the play-writing competition was continued, and Annual was published. The University of the Punjab, in fact, accepted responsibility for the Saraswati Society and all that it stood for. This is a step in the direction of the coming together of University and the Drama.

CONTROVERSY IN "THE MASK."

A pretty controversy upon the subject of University and the Drama has arisen in the pages of the *Mask*, that remarkable Quarterly of the Art of the Theatre, inspired by the genius of Ellen Terry's son, Edward Gordon Craig. In the April issue of the present year Prof. Allardyce Nicoll pleads for the inclusion of the Drama as a subject of study and research of the University. The main purport of his article is that the Universities might be creating the audiences of the future. "The Drama of every period and of every land," he writes "depends ultimately upon the audience. it was a great audience which produced Aeschylus and Sophocles; it was a great audience which produced Shakespeare.....to help in the preparation of this intellectual and imaginative heaven among the audience of the future I take to be the first great task of the University..... Let the artist come into the University, and let him take his place in the developing of

that cultural side of academic work which, after all, is its chief task." That theatricals are not drama was implicit in Mr. Nicoll's mind when he wrote that it was useless for college dramatic societies to ring the changes on popular plays and modern farces "but where attempts are made to perform hitherto unproduced works, or to revive forgotten masterpieces of the past, the service done to the theatre may be invaluable." But this is not all. The University may do a thing "unique and peculiar to itself; it may provide the materials upon which principles of the drama can be based." It appears that Mr. Nicoll himself is engaged with some twenty students in the preparation of a Dictionary of the Drama.

In another issue of the *Mask* (July) a letter appears over the signature of C. G. Smith questioning the inclusion of the Drama as a subject. He asks, "How much stage betters a place of learning?" and attempts to answer the question. It would appear that Yale University has received a gift of 1,030,000 dollars for the building of a theatre, and Prof. Baker, a distinguished dramatic enthusiast, who has been teaching at Harvard for twenty years has been transferred to Yale, evidently to carry on his work in the new theatre. In his letter Mr. Smith throws light upon that which lies behind the transfer. He tells us, what we all know, that it is in the nature of theatricals to inundate when it can, and further, that such an inundation was doing harm to the University of Harvard. Consequently Prof. Baker had been thwarted on all sides and not allowed to swamp the University

Theatricals—hence the transfer. "Yale, then" writes Mr. Smith, "comes in for a one million dollar gift to urge forward what Harvard had come to learn was best to curb." Then he makes the following assertion: "Theatricals are not Drama." That is evident, but it is a good thing to have it firmly stated. "If you could turn out, fabricate artists of the Theatre by the dozen as assuredly as you can turn out educated men—men who will later on become doctors, engineers, barristers, historians, architects, and musicians, all would be much happier. But it is a miserable fact that at present there are no worth while laws of Theatricals, and so, strictly speaking, no one can be taught since there is nothing to teach". Mr. Smith sees the day coming when "boat—racing will be no longer a sport but will have a new college built for the study of it in Oxford, Yale and Cambridge, and a while later on the pretty game, having become an art or a science, will be played on a table; rivers will be no longer necessary to it.....No...keep your theatricals to your Theatre; let the Theatre be a little world to itself. We like it best that way; it thrives best so." Mr. Smith rather begs the question by the preoccupation with the theatrical, to the exclusion of the Drama, but he makes a very good point when he implies that Theatricals are sport. As such, they surely are desirable in colleges—in moderation.

In the editorial Notes of the same issue of the *Mask* occur the following lines under the heading of "Drama and Theatre" "When we read of Universities and Colleges including the study of the drama

in their curriculum we fancy we understand the drift of the idea. But when we read of these same seats of learning undertaking the practice of the Theatre, we are puzzled. For we see no use in any but craftsmen becoming skilled in Theatre game."

THEATRICALS—A LEGITIMATE FORM OF COLLEGE SPORT.

All colleges have their athletic clubs and their debating societies providing healthy physical and mental exercise—physical and mental sport. Debating is a sport no less than the driving of a ball in a particular direction in the field. The game is on the mental plane, but it is a game nevertheless. There is no question about the desirability of physical exercise and athletic sport. There is no question either about the necessity of clear thinking, and the development of the faculty of expression by public speaking. "Think clearly" is the motto of debaters, and they get a good deal of amusement and fun out their contests. But a man is more than body and brain. He is also heart. How about the feeling part of him, the emotional? "Feel rightly" is the motto of the actor. One of the great values of the acted play is that it "sensitizes feeling." But quite apart from the psychological effect of the play, it is an emotional outlet and as such is as healthy and needful as the physical and mental outlet of the sports field and the debating club. Moreover, the acted play has a humanising effect upon every person concerned with it both behind and before the curtain. Neither a football match nor a public debate has the same power of removing

barriers between man and man, individual and collective. There is a happy feeling of relief in the air when a play is toward. In this atmosphere of relief men are drawn closer to gether, and though the drawing together may not appear to be lasting it will have made its indelible impression upon their personalities. Mr. Smith asks, "How much stage betters a place of learning?" The reply surely is (stage meaning theatricals): No more than is necessary for a frolic at the end of a session. That is, as a sports event. Drama is quite another thing, the amount of Drama that would better an academic institution being unlimited.

After all, men can be roughly divided into three types, corresponding to body, brain, and heart, and their separate dominance over the individual. The physical type becomes the doer, the man of action. He will naturally gravitate to the sports field and during his college days at least, he will be an athlete. The intellectual type becomes the thinker, the philosopher, the professional man. He will shine at debates. The emotional type possesses a temperament that will make him lover, idealist, or artist. It may also make him a scamp. He will be in his element in the dramatic club and he it is who would become a student of the drama. He may no more take to the dramatic profession than the student of literature. They will have had some enhancement of faculty peculiar to their particular types.

The emotional type is inclined to get his feelings out of hand and run wild if not harnessed and guided into right channels. Thwarted suppressed, and unguided they

may lead to dissipation and vice; and yet, the emotional is the characteristic nature of creative artists, and lovers of humanity. Art in some form is necessary as healthy outlet for these natures, it purifies their emotions, and gives them an objective. The Drama is the most suitable form of art for colleges. Obviously academic institutions cannot be turned into art schools. Special training for music and painting, and for arts and crafts, should be given to children in schools, and those who have exceptional talent, if they wish to specialise, would go to art schools or to musical academies, or they could place themselves under special private instruction. But the Drama is a branch of literature and in practice includes all the arts; therefore it should be included in an Arts College curriculum, and theatricals should be recognized as sport, and as a healthy exercise and outlet for those who, possessing artistic tendency, would in various manifestations give of their own particular talent for the success of the play, to the joyful relief of every member of the institution.

After the performance of a play at the Dyal Singh College, the Principal of another college in Lahore was heard to remark: "I should not like my students to do it as well." He was afraid of theatrical inundation, I suppose. But this inundation is less likely to occur when the thing is done well, because nothing can be done well without the overcoming of difficulties by painstaking labour and concentration. To fling a play on to the boards without due concentration and forethought will no more do in a college than to allow collegiate sporting

events to be an ineffective scramble lacking training and skill. In colleges, the intellectual element takes care of itself, and much stress is laid upon the necessity of physical culture as a healthy corrective of overmuch book study. But the emotional element is completely ignored until some scandal occurs in the college and the authorities are helpless in face of terrific force that they knew existed, but for which college life provides no outlet. Recognition and acceptance of man's emotional nature, and art as a purifying and directing medium of that nature will lead to the recognition and acceptance of the Drama as a subject and theatricals as a sport in academic institutions. Limit the theatric element but give the Drama full play.

LABORATORY NOT THEATRE.

The drama would not manifest itself in display. It would not need a laboratory for constant private experiment but rather a theatre for occasional public performance. There need be no audience and no performance, merely a group of students conducting researches, making experiments, and giving demonstrations. At no time would these workshop demonstrations take the form of entertainment, though of course, they would influence the theatricals at the end of the college year. The art of play-writing would form an important branch of endeavour and the group of Drama students would in the natural course of events provide original college plays and produce possible actors. The turning out of actors is not so certain. Actors are born, not made, though a certain amount of training will enable a new actor, to get through a part

creditably. I prefer to think of the actors as raw material for the students of the Drama, selected from among the ordinary college students for artistic temperament.

The actor should be concerned with more than his own relation to the whole and for this we need from him implicit obedience to the producer, who, if he is worth his salt, will not only welcome the actor's original contribution in talent, imagination, and personality; he will draw them out; but where the whole is concerned, implicit obedience is imperative. The actor should allow himself, to a certain extent, to be a human puppet in the hands of the showman provided of course that the showman knows what he is about, and he is most likely to know if he has made conscientious study and experiment. It is a disadvantage to an actor to have too many ideas about production. Once the actor becomes producer, he more or less loses his power of acting. At any rate the actor producer is an impossibility; he can do justice neither to himself nor to the play.

In the laboratory, model stages would be made and used for scenic and lighting experiments. A full sized stage furnished with lighting apparatus would be needed for demonstrations. This stage would also be the scene of play readings for students of dramatic literature. Every play studied should be vocally interpreted at organized readings at which instruction would be

given of the speaking of English. Every play studied should also be seen either by semi-costume recitals or by theatricals production. Practised readings and recitals of plays should be looked upon as Shakespeare periods and attendance compulsory. The theatrical would be strictly avoided at the costume recitals. I would suggest a conventional dramatic uniform, or vestment, with appropriate accessories, sartorial and featural, such as crown, cloaks, beards, wigs, and so on.

A dramatic library, combining reading and reference room, would of course be attached to the laboratory. Research work in connection with the history of the theatre would be undertaken; old plays and folk songs, belonging to the province, would be collected; rules for the art of the theatre would be classified. I understand that India has what the rest of the world seems to lack, rules for the art of acting. It would be interesting to have a summary of these rules and to attempt to put them into practice in suitable plays. It might mean the development of an entirely new form of dramatic art, peculiar to India, so that the Indian stage might become as typical of India as the Japanese of Japan. At present the Indian stage appears to be, neither Indian nor European, but a mixture of both, and not the best of either.

MAKE YOUR SELECTION

from the following four series of English Class Readers.
They are in many respects the best of their kind.

1. MARTIN'S NEW STUDY READERS.
Primer, As. 5; Reader I, As. 7; Reader II, As. 9; Reader III, As. 12;
Reader IV, As. 14; Reader V, Re. 1.
2. MARTIN'S ACTIVE ENGLISH READERS.
Pre-Primer, As. 1; Primer, As. 5-6; Reader I, As. 8; Reader II, As. 11;
Reader III, As. 14; Reader IV, Re. 1-2-0; Reader V, Re. 1-4-0.
3. WREN'S NEW INDIAN CLASS READERS.
Primer, As. 5; Reader I, As. 6; Reader II, As. 7; Reader III, As. 10;
Reader IV, As. 12.
4. WREN'S INDIAN CLASS READERS.
Primer, As. 6; Reader I, As. 7; Reader II, As. 10; Reader III, As. 14;
Reader IV, Re. 1-2-0; Reader V, Re. 1-6-0.

THESE READERS ARE

- § carefully graded;
- § varied and interesting in subject-matter;
- § suitable in all respects for our boys;
- § and fully illustrated with artistic illustrations.

 All the above books have been approved for class use by the Madras Educational Department.

K. & J. COOPER—PUBLISHERS—BOMBAY, 4

Sole Selling-Agents for the Madras Presidency:

**Messrs. Christian Literature Society for India,
Park Town, Madras.**

THE CAIRO ARAB MUSEUM

BY MRS. R. L. DEVONSHIRE.

UNTIL a comparatively recent period only a few Orientalists were aware that the Museum of Antiquities was not the only museum in Cairo. But with the increasing vogue of Islamic art the charming little museum at Bab-el-Khalq has come into its own, and it even happens that specialists come to Egypt on purpose to study the beautiful specimens it contains—objects not only precious on account of their striking beauty, but, because of their great historical interest.

Founded about 1880 in order to house pieces discovered in mosques, in ruined private houses, etc., where they were exposed to the cupidity of intelligent European collectors and dealers, and to the carelessness of ignorant keepers, the Arab Museum acquired added importance about 1911. For it was the excavations on the ruined site of Fostat, the early Arab capital town of Egypt, that yielded incalculable numbers of fragments of ceramics, documents of primary value in the history of that branch of art. The diversity of designs is endless; they include inscriptions, arabesques, geometrical forms, highly conventionalised animals, Persian-looking human figures, Christian subjects in Byzantine style, etc., and have been classified and dated by experts according to their ornament and to the technique of their manufacture. Many of them are clever copies of foreign work, Mesopotamian, Persian, Chinese, and the study of historical events finds justification for these extraneous influences.

During the Mameluke period there was an abundant production of a coarse pottery with inscriptions and heraldic badges, of which innumerable fragments remain, but hardly any complete pieces.

A very attractive series, found at Fostat in great numbers, is composed of clay filters, inserted by the potters in the neck of porous waters jars to keep out the dirt; the water which oozes out through the porous clay can then be said to be doubly filtered. These open-work filters display the utmost variety in their designs, and many are so beautiful that they would form worthy patterns for lace workers. To the ordinary visitor the most fascinating room in the Museum is that which contains the incomparable gilt and enamelled glass mosque lamps, of which only about 150 exist in the whole world, more than half that number being exhibited in Cairo. A black and white photograph entirely fails to give an idea of the wonderful colour harmony of these lamps. The glass is not of very good quality; it is thick, full of bubbles, and either quite colourless or a faint greenish or honey-coloured tint. But the enamel with which the ornament is laid on is of the richest colours, chiefly of a deep blue obtained by pounding lapis lazuli into a powder. The designs are for the most part made up of inscriptions in the majestic Arabic characters, enriched by graceful arabesques and flowerets, artistic touches of gold adding to the effect. The inscriptions have enabled Arabic scholars to date these

THE CAIRO ARAB MUSEUM

59

accurately: they were all produced in Syria, according to the latest accepted theory—during the comparatively short period extending from the end of the thirteenth to the early part of the fifteenth centuries.

Several visits are necessary if it is desired to make a real acquaintance with the treasures housed in the Arab Museum; but if only one is possible, the silver-inlaid brasswork and the carved woodwork must not be overlooked. The metalwork is still practised by Cairo craftsmen, though rarely with the same perfection as in Mameluke times.

The carved woodwork, in a country where timber is scarce, generally consists

of small panels put together without nails, but dovetailed and mortised, a system already used in very early times and very satisfactory in a climate whose dryness tends to crack or warp large boards. The Museum contains some world-renowned panels of the greatest beauty, showing hunting and revelry scenes in Persian style, found on the site of a Fatimite palace.

It is impossible to explore this delightful Museum without being deeply impressed by the artistic skill of Egyptian craftsmen of the Middle Ages, a skill which in many cases endures to this day wherever their traditional arts are concerned, as opposed to tawdry Western copies.

NO SCHOOLBOY SHOULD BE
WITHOUT A COPY OF

MARTIN'S
A DICTIONARY
OF
ENGLISH USAGE

Pages 181. Second Edition. Price, Re. 1.
First Edition 10-1-42. Second Edition 23-2-42.

K. & J. COOPER—EDUCATIONAL PUBLISHERS—BOMBAY, 4

Sole Selling Agents for the Madras Presidency:

The Christian Literature Society for India, Park Town, Madras.

IS LISTENING-IN WORTH WHILE ?

By SRI D. PURUSHOTHAM, Chittoor.

APPEAL to the ear through the wireless and to the eye through the cinema should be fully tried, for preparing the pupils for a happy life, in this sorrowful planet. Some may be of opinion that we cannot educate the pupils by wireless and that the school educationist is not concerned with the masses but with the individuals. The teacher should know not only his class, but also every individual pupil. The contact with the pupil is more important than his contact with the subject. My impression agrees with them and I think that the radio talk is at present of more use to the teacher than to the pupils.

If pupils have to get the best out of a radio, they should not hear all, but hear only what they should hear. Even for this they have to cultivate the snake's ear.

To satisfy all is to satisfy none. So, we have to cater to the needs, tastes and requirements of the majority in general. The wish is not to load the memory with the thoughts of others, but to see that the ebb and flow of human misery is considerably minimised. We have to locate, diagnose and remedy the difficulties faced by the individuals. Some elevating sentiments and stimulating suggestions of the facts true to life and not theories, should be presented in clear and lucid language. The topics depend upon the range, variety, quality and quantity and that should be well within the child's comprehension. Let not liberty, in the selection of topics die bleeding.

He who does not wish to make a propaganda for his idea, is not worth having one. Even God requires some one to sound His bells. Herbart, in his *Psychology*, lays down the theory, that no new piece of information will stick in the boy's mind, unless it is tacked on to something he knows already. Sufficient examples are necessary, to enable the listener to understand well. The speakers should voice the past, translate the present and forecast the future. Even the pupils may be invited to give the names of six lessons they would choose, if left to themselves. Here are topics selected at random. viz., swing reading; travelling by a rocket; exploring the roof of the world; perforation of the earth; the psychology of sex; children of other lands; where Chittoor is and why Chittoor is; rural philosophy; social philosophy and other LINKED lectures, and thus open to the pupils new worlds of which they are not aware of. In brief, give the child not all he wants but what is good for him; not what all he seeks to know but what he ought to know, not what is exciting but what is important. Perhaps the text-book writer and other word painters of to-day become the broadcasting voice of tomorrow.

The present system of education does not end in school; but continues in the clubs, guilds, temples, theatres etc., So, the four and two committees of the Radio talks and the curriculum revising committees should

IS LISTENING-IN WORTH WHILE ?

61

carefully frame the syllabus so that the talks and the subjects taught in the classroom are correlated to each other. If not, the hard earned costly set may become a mere luxury or a white elephant or a window dressing to the school, concealing the vacuity and ugliness behind.

True broadcasting brings into the school, new personalities, strange voices and fresh ideas. There is wide difference of opinion regarding good and bad reception. It fails in the stability of the lesson, the rapidity with which it is delivered and the queer accent of the speaker. When it is perfect, good schools make better use of the wireless. Careful hearing will train the pupils to listen attentively and intelligently.

The language difficulties are formidable. There are something like 1500 languages all over the world. In India itself, we have 220 languages and 38 minor dialects. Sometimes the primary language becomes the secondary one and many times vice versa. For the present, the Provincial language (mother tongue); the National language (Hindi) and the international language (English) may be vehicles of thought. Like an instrument of many strings, a teacher has to pass from one language to another easily, quietly and successfully. In a country of 1/5 the population of the world with 8.5% literacy it is possible to make the best use of the wireless.

As far as English is concerned, Basic English, even in spite of all its defects, may be tried, till we have better conditions. It is a simplified form of English, with only 850

XLVIII-9

words, sufficient to cover in reading, spelling and writing for all from 7 years and upwards. It is the elimination of the rest and its substitution by operators which is the essence of basic English. We see the countless numbers of listeners gazing at the set or talking or even sleeping, because of the lack of interest. The few chosen speakers with their pet and telescopic ideas, flying in a higher plane do not attract their attention. A variety of talented speakers had better face the mike. The pupils are forced to be deaf by their verbal bullets, though they have sound ears. The speaker ought not to be a notes dictator.

A broadcast lesson ought to occupy 8 periods, namely that of preparation when only we know the lines of the subject broadcast in which the classes are given certain instructions regarding the lessons to follow; second period being that of the talk itself; and the third to be used by the teacher for questioning or for further explanations. How many institutions which have radio sets adopt this method now? If not find a better use of the set. The gist of the talks should be of their supplementary character. Without careful preparation, without follow up work, the talks would be of little value. The work of the teacher on the spot is supplementary to the wireless talk and the wireless talk supplement the work of the teacher. Anyday it does not take the place of the teacher. The wireless speaker needs the teacher, much more than the teacher needs the wireless speaker.

LIVE TEACHERS are brightly coloured pictorial aids, who can make the slower children liberally educated and not merely

cleverly instructed. Music may also find a place. Music is the speech of the angels. It is the fourth need of man. Music may be tried to teach History and Geography. Gramophone records may be played for marching, dancing, rhythmic expressions, singing and ear-training appreciation. But, let not the musicians mutilise the words and murder the meaning as is persistently done today.

To sum up, the classes are no longer mere parks but little paradises for the children. Make them have a wonderful nose for the news. In the first instance, a

school for the parents is more urgently needed than one for the children. Include wireless subject in the training school syllabus and provide for teacher already in service. Let there be suitable timing for these talks. The dumb-bell exercises for the mouth are heard by men from loin-cloth to a tailcoat, and so, let the talks ring in their ears and live in their memory. A good memory should be a wax to receive, marble to retain and accurate in recognition.

Talking is sowing, but listening is absorbing. Is listening in worth while?

MARTIN'S
GOOD ENGLISH
THROUGH SEATWORK
Book I, As. 4; Book II, As. 5; Book III, As. 7; Book IV, As. 7;

MARTIN'S
NEW STUDY SEAT AND DESK WORK
PRIMER, BOOKS I-V
By H. MARTIN, M.A. (OXON.), O.B.E.
Primer, As. 4; Book I, As. 5; Books II-V, As. 7 each.

YOU CAN ALWAYS RELY ON
"COOPER" PUBLICATIONS

K & J. COOPER—PUBLISHERS—BOMBAY, 4
Sole Selling-Agents for the Madras Presidency:
The Christian Literature Society for India, Park Town, Madras.

HISTORY OF THE ENGLISH BIBLE

BY SRI T. P. AMARASINGHE

ON October 6th 1536, William Tyndale, one of the greatest figures in the history of religion and the English Language was led out of the prison to which he had been condemned by order of the Emperor Charles V, tied to a stake and strangled, after which his body was burnt to ashes. The last prayer that escaped the lips of the dying man was: "Lord open the King of England's eyes." Scarcely a couple of years were to pass, and a strange event occurred. Four hundred years ago, the innumerable trials and tribulations which this faithful servant of God had borne so nobly were abundantly blessed, when a royal injunction was issued requiring a copy of the Great Bible to be set up in every parish church for public use. Contemporary chronicles reveal that this act of Henry VIII was not an unpopular one as some would have us believe. One chronicler paints a vivid picture of the crowds that gathered round the six copies which were set up in various parts of St. Paul's; listening to those who read aloud from them even to the disturbance of regular services. In two years less than seven editions were called for; and the number of bible readers grew by leaps and bounds even though a change in Henry's policy caused him to discourage Protestantism. The royal injunction of 1538 was far-reaching in its consequences not only because it marks another chapter in the long and inspiring story of the English Bible. As one of the greatest of living

historians, Prof. G. M. Trevelyan, points out: "The English Reformation, which had begun as a parliamentary attack on Church fees, and proceeded as a royal raid on Abbey lands, was at last to find its religious basis in the popular knowledge of the scriptures which had been the dream of Wycliffe. In this way it acquired the strength that resisted the Marian persecution, when cobblers, clothiers and poor women willingly offered themselves for a cause they at last understood."

The story of the English Bible needs must be told, if only because it is a stirring tale of high adventure, of unrelenting struggles against apparently insurmountable odds. The almost superhuman struggle to have the scriptures translated into the vernacular could be traced as far back as the time of Caedmon and Bede. But it was with John Wycliffe, the flower of Oxford learning of his day, that the movement took meaning and shape. Disturbed as he was by the deadness of religion in his day, he sought a remedy for England's grief and found what had hitherto been lacking, a theoretic basis for denying papal authority. On the rock of the Bible alone he grounded his arguments, as did Luther in Germany a century later, and so won for himself undying fame as the "Morning Star of the Reformation." Because of his profound reverence for the Bible, he was anxious to make people more fully acquainted with its

contents. He, therefore, inaugurated a translation of the Latin Vulgate into English. No sooner was this announced than the whole of official Medieval Christendom was up in arms. When we consider that even in times so far removed as our own day one great Christian community still persists in using the language of ancient Rome in their services, we can estimate the more fully the severity of the outcry against Wycliffe. Outlawed from the Church as a heretic, he clung tenaciously to his purpose and ere long with the help of his Oxford scholar and secretary, Purvey, he brought out the first full translation of the Bible in manuscript form—an admirable and scholarly piece of work. The first round in the struggle for the translation of the Bible into the language of the common man had been won. Wycliffe's work had far-reaching effects. Not only did it prepare the way for the Reformation. It exerted a great formative influence on the English Language. "The translation of the New Testament and his English Sermons are the foundation of English prose, the most noble body of literature that has arisen since classical times."

But all was not plain sailing for the English Bible. Wycliffe died a peaceful death at Lutterworth but the cause for which he stood was subjected to the most severe persecution immediately after. Bonfires were made out of the Lollard Bible, but Lollardism stood the test. The spirit that had inspired the Wycliffite martyrs remained to imbue the great William Tyndale, the true father of the English Bible. "The rulers of the Church be all

agreed to keep the world in darkness, to the intent that they may sit in the consciences of the people...to satisfy...their proud ambition...which thing only moved me to translate the New Testament," he wrote in his preface to the Pentateuch. Before he achieved his ambition, innumerable were the disappointments and trials he had to endure. Disregarding the Latin Vulgate, Tyndale decided to use the much older Greek Text of Erasmus which the New Learning had thrown up. Hounded out of England by the enemies of the Reformation, Tyndale had to flee to the continent to save his life. There at Hamburg he completed his translation of the New Testament, and in 1525 went to Cologne to have it printed secretly. His plans were, however, unearthed by his enemies and made known to the Emperor and to the English King. Nothing daunted, he fled to Worms. There after severe hardships he completed the printing. The first printed English Bible had seen the light of day. Yet another glorious chapter in the history of the Bible had begun. But alas for Tyndale, the work was suppressed in England and criticised most venomously by Archbishop Warham and Sir Thomas More. His old enemy Tunstall, Bishop of London, secured all the copies in Tyndale's possession and made bonfires of them at Cheapside and Oxford. Disappointments such as these might have broken the spirit of other men but for Tyndale they were spurs to fresh efforts. Hastening to the continent he translated the Old Testament and good scholar that he was undertook a full and deliberate revision

of the New Testament, striving especially after more exact correspondence with the Greek. With the appearance of this edition Tyndale's work was practically at an end. The battle was nearly won. But even as Nelson, he fell in the hour of victory. By a most shameful plot he was kidnapped and taken before the Emperor Charles who forced upon him the martyr's crown.

His friend and successor, Miles Coverdale, took up the threads of the struggle from where his greater colleague had been forced to leave. In the meanwhile Henry VIII had fallen foul of his erstwhile friend, the Pope. The chain of the opposition to the dissemination of the scriptures in the language of the man in the street had broken at its weakest link. Cranmer's dynamic influence secured for the English Bible permission to circulate freely. Coverdale was fain to make use of the great opportunity. He planned the publication of the Great Bible—a version based on Tyndale's translation. This was the first Bible to be formally authorized for public use; for, an injunction was issued by Thomas Cromwell requiring a copy to be set up in every parish church. Still the fight for the English Bible was not yet over. Mary's short-lived reign saw the war against the word of God in full swing. Smithfield saw not only bonfires of human bodies, but of Bibles too! It was however the darkest hour before the dawn. For "the spacious days of the great Elizabeth" marked the beginning of an era of unprecedented prosperity for the English Bible. Henceforth the historian of the English Bible has to record not bitter per-

secutions and martyrdoms but the equally thrilling if more romantic story of the work of scholars and translators to restore, as nearly as might be, the Greek Text to the form in which it was originally written by its authors.

The first period of revision and improvement which had gone on from the day the Great Bible came out of the press ended with the summoning of the Hampton Court Conference of 1604 and its outcome the Authorized Version of 1611—the noblest deed of James I. This version was the result of 86 years gestation, with Tyndale's work as supplemented by Coverdale, always at the base of it; and the result was final. Though revisions had been so frequent previously, no one proposed to revise the version of 1611 for two hundred and seventy years. Its remarkable success "may be attributed in part to the strong imprint given by the genius of Tyndale, in part to the good sense of the revisers in avoiding unnecessary and pedantic alterations; and in part to the ingrained aptitude for nobility of phrase characteristic of Tudor and Jacobean England." With the vast strides that printing made in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries, the Authorized Version found its way into the homes and hearts of the English people. Thus was Tyndale's noble dream realised.

The superior virtues of the Authorized Version notwithstanding, in the latter part of the nineteenth century it was thought necessary to make a Revised Version. Why? The advance of science and scholarship had thrown into visible relief several discrepancies in the Bible Text. The discovery

of the Codex Sinaiticus under the most exciting circumstances in the lonely monastery of St. Catherine at Mount Sinai, and the editing after numerous set-backs of the Codex Vaticanus assailed the supremacy of the much later Byzantine Text which was the basis of all English translations. So after years of labour the Commission of 1885 produced their Revised Version, which based as it was on the Greek Text prepared by Westcott and Hort, was far more impeccable, from the point of view of textual criticism, than the Authorized Version. But the Commission was responsible for one serious blunder. It made a multitude of small changes in obedience to a somewhat pedantic scholarship and refused to be governed by the instinctive sense of style which was the heritage of King James's translators. And it was so that the Revised Version never secured the confidence and love of the people; but this need not blind us to its real merits. To quote the words of Sir Frederic Kenyon: "Style apart, the Revised Version does give us a more accurate text, translated with a more fully informed scholarship; and if we want to be sure of the meaning of the Bible we must always keep an eye on it."

We cannot conclude the story of the English Bible with the Revised Version. It is still being written and will continue to be written as long as modern scholarship and science remains what it is. Even at this

moment if one would care to visit the deserted temples of the Holy Land and the regions around one would come across scholars conducting large scale excavations. Their labours are being rewarded in many finds. As late as 1930, a discovery was made which threw all others in the shade. This was the group of Papyri known as the Chester Beatty Biblical Papyri—a find which has without doubt made a new revision feasible. One thing, however, must be borne in mind with regard to these discoveries. They have in no way materially altered the main substance of the Bible. Indeed if it is only the substance that is required the Authorized Version can and does fill that need admirably. But the discoveries have served one very useful purpose. "Their general result is to strengthen the proof of the authenticity of the scriptures, and our conviction that we have in our hands, in substantial integrity, the veritable word of God." They have without doubt confirmed the truth expressed in Dryden's well-known lines:

"Whence, but from Heav'n, could men
unskilled in arts,

In several ages born, in several parts,
Weave such agreeing truths? or how, or
why

Should all conspire to cheat us with a lie?
Unask'd their pains, ungrateful their advice,
Starving their gain, and martyrdom their
price."

 Approved for class use for schools in the Madras Presidency. (Vide "Fort St. George Gazette," dated 30th April 1940.)

7 GRAMMAR BOOKS USED ALL OVER INDIA, BURMA & CEYLON

P. C. WREN'S GRAMMAR BOOKS

occupy the foremost place among textbooks of English Grammar.

1. THE SIMPLER PARTS OF SPEECH. Twenty-sixth Edition. Price, As. 8.
2. FIRST LESSONS IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR. Sixth Edition. Price, As. 6.
3. THE BEGINNER'S ENGLISH GRAMMAR. Seventh Edition. Price, As. 8.
4. A SIMPLE ENGLISH GRAMMAR ON MODERN LINES. Eleventh Edition. Price, As. 12.
5. ELEMENTARY GRAMMAR ON MODERN LINES. Sixteenth Edition. Price, Re. 1-2
6. A SHORTER ENGLISH GRAMMAR. Third Edition. Price, Re. 1-8.
7. HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH GRAMMAR. Fifteenth Edition. Price, Rs. 2.

 All the above books have been approved for class use as textbooks by the Bombay and Madras Educational Departments; some of them approved also by the other Educational Departments in India, Burma and Ceylon.

K. & J. COOPER—PUBLISHERS—BOMBAY, 4

Sole Selling-Agents for Madras Presidency;
The Christian Literature Society for India, Park Town, Madras

MATHEMATICAL STUDY & RESEARCH*

By Dr R. VAIDYANATHASWAMY, *University of Madras.*

It is with great pleasure that I acknowledge the warmth of the welcome which has been accorded to this Mathematical Conference. When I look back on the previous conferences of the Indian Mathematical Society, it seems to me that the present conference will prove to be memorable in many ways. In the first place, in contrast to the peaceful atmosphere of our mathematical deliberations in the past, we are meeting for the first time under the threat of impending war-conditions. The association between the tense exigency of the moment and the calm detachment of scientific thought is not perhaps so unnatural as it may appear at first sight; our temporal consciousness moves always between the two poles of the moment and the eternal, but these two poles even in their opposition seem to be linked in a mysterious kinship; for how else can we explain the fact that often in moments of intense stress, our minds get a sudden access of sensibility and becoming as it were, released from a prison, rise to a perception of universal things? We may recall that Archimedes, who with Newton and Gauss is reckoned among the three greatest mathematicians of the world, was in a state of concentration on a mathematical problem when the invaders of his city broke in upon him. Again, this conference is the first held by the Indian Mathematical Society in collaboration with a sister Mathematical Society; and this coopera-

tion for a common cause is a happy agency for the future advancement of mathematical research in this country. And lastly, this is the second time in succession that our Conference has been welcomed by a progressive University devoted to Muslim Culture—a culture that has made a respectable contribution to the early development of our Science.

The fact that our Conferences in the past have been enthusiastically received and welcomed by various Universities shows in truth, that, though Indian Universities are mainly engaged in the dissemination of knowledge, they are not blind to the fact that the primary function and justification of the University is research or the creation of new knowledge. It appears to me that the Universities in India are in a stage of transition at the present day. On the one hand, they are fettered by their past record of a mechanical reception of Western knowledge and its mechanical transmission. Now, when the ideal of vernacularisation of all teaching is in the air, they are showing signs of discomfort and are beginning to be seized by stirrings towards a more creative and a fuller intellectual life. While we look forward to a post-war India with a revised political status, it will not, I think, be any undue optimism, to hope that Higher Education in this country will come to its own, and the Indian Universities will begin to function as the centres of higher knowledge and research and intellectual leadership in the arts and sciences.

It will certainly prepare the way for this inevitable transformation, if we realise that college instruction cannot be separated from research except to its detriment and degradation. The syllabus in mathematics for a Degree Course, for instance, consists of a body of doctrines, together with the training for manipulating them in solving certain types of questions; these doctrines are advanced in text books and by teachers, as if they had no background and no connection with any large human interests, as if they had always existed in their own right, because they were absolutely true and final with that species of brutish finality which popular opinion finds it easier to attribute to mathematics, than to sciences which are partly or wholly experimental. But this is a totally distorted view of the matter. The doctrines in our mathematical syllabus represents the net gains of some two millenniums of intellectual effort of the human race; each particular idea or relationship was first manifested to an individual human intelligence after a long travail of seeking and the whole body of doctrine called Mathematics has been gathered and handed down as a precious relic, because of its inestimable value and significance for those ideals and for that fulfilment, for which the human race is striving through the ages. If this outlook towards mathematical truth cannot be instinctively communicated by the teacher to his pupils, then what the teacher performs is not the teaching of mathematics but its mechanisation and vulgarisation. And as a rule, the teacher will not be able to communicate this kind of feeling for mathematics, unless he has

himself gone through the great experience of mathematical discovery. To the Seeker after Truth, this cardinal experience of discovery is a turning point, and may well be termed a baptismal experience as it marks his birth into a world of deeper reality, the world of ideas. The experience of discovery is roughly the glimpsing of a new idea, by which the past knowledge is re-ordered and re-oriented, so as to exhibit hidden relationships and new and unsuspected values. So that there results a thorough transformation of outlook. A prosaic description of this kind does not really convey the sense and momentousness of this cardinal experience of the enlargement of human consciousness; for that one must hark back to the Vedic and Puranic symbolism. The Ushas of the Rig Veda, the Deity of the Dawn, is nothing else but this experience, and the glamour of this Deity, and the number of the hymns addressed to her and their fervid passion, show how deeply the Vedic Rishis had realised and experienced the recurrent enlargements of the aspiring evolving human consciousness. Similarly the glamorous figure of Lakshmi rising from the ocean of milk churned by the Devas and Asuras is the pre-eminent symbol of something absolutely new and original something fresh from the primordial mint of creation, rising in the human consciousness and miraculously transforming the whole outlook and revealing a new world of values. It is only that person who has experienced the great cosmic mystery of the rising of the original Lakshmi from the churned Ocean of Milk that can penetrate behind the

* Presidential address delivered at the Indian Mathematical Conference.

Symbolism of the cheap vulgarisations of the figure of Lakshmi, which can be bought in the bazaars; in a similar manner, it is only the teacher who has gone through the baptismal experience of mathematical discovery, that can convey to his pupils the inner significance of the text-book mathematical doctrines, relive with them the original glamour of their first discovery, their first revelation to a thrilled human mind, and communicate a feeling of their place value in the journey of the human race, the epic of Civilisation.

The Indian student or Indian teacher of the present wishing to undertake mathematical research, is confronted with the vast mathematical material which is the legacy of the 19th century. The 19th century has been well called the Golden Age of Mathematics, its achievements belittling that of all previous centuries taken together. The developments of this century in "Analysis" and "Function-Theory," in Algebra and Geometry, in Arithmetic and in Invariant-Theory in Mechanics, have so changed the face of Mathematics as to alter it beyond recognition and won for it a far-flung dominion. Indeed some of the things which are a result of the work of this century, and which we teach young pupils of the College classes belong to a conceptual level that would baffle the understanding of the mighty intellects of antiquity or of the Middle Ages. The basic ideas of the 19th century do form or should form part of the course in our Honours and post-graduate classes. The mathematical aspirant who wishes to push on to research, should of course discipline

himself thoroughly in the methods of great masters of the 19th century; this would not be difficult to accomplish in any particular topic, though the extent and refractory character of the material would make it difficult to do in several topics at once. The worker would then be naturally led on to extend the scope of these methods or to complete the solution of some problem by taking it up at the point where it had been left off. This would be the usual way which workers might be expected to take and do actually take both here and in other countries. But is this the right way? I think not. Let me explain why. Some young Indians, inspired and fascinated by Euclid's *Elements*, are enticed to further research and do succeed in finding ingenious proofs of difficult riders or in constructing elegant theories within the ambit of Euclid's method and view-point. Others, of a more skeptical and valorous disposition attempt a proof of the parallel postulate by the classical methods of Euclid; these are by no means cranks or irrational persons; for if you limit yourself to the view-point of Euclid, it is not at all certain that the parallel postulate could not be proved. Euclid, of course, guessed that it could not be, but it was only a guess, and he might have well been wrong. It was only in later times and from a wider point of view that it became possible to prove that the parallel postulate cannot be proved. My point is that in neither of these cases is there any really creative work, because there is no advance beyond the point of view of Euclid—the point of view of two milleniums ago. On the other hand what

the true nature of creative work in geometry should be is well demonstrated by the actual historical course of development. The transformation of Euclidean Geometry into Geometry as we think of it today was effected by the impact of some half-a-dozen new ideas in succession on the material of Euclidean Geometry. Each of these impacts irradiated the material and raised it to a higher plane of value and significance. The *Treatise on the Conic Sections* of the Greek Geometer Apollonius was not one of these impacts, because, though an extension and addition to Euclid's work, it was not a creative addition in the true sense, it belonged to the same value-level and the same significance-level as Euclid's *Elements*. These impacts may be easily enumerated; the first was Descartes' discovery of Algebraic Geometry, the second was the principle of continuity associated therewith, which brought in imaginary elements into geometry and the concept of n -dimensional geometry. The next was the discovery of non-Euclidean Geometry with the conviction of its reality. The next was the discovery of projective geometry with the importing of infinite elements. The next was the concept of group and invariant culminating in Kleint's grand generalisation of geometry as the invariant theory of a transformation group. The last was Gauss' discovery of differential geometry and Riemann's concept of curvature of a manifold. Each of these new ideas illuminates the subject matter in such a way that it might well be called a "DAWN" in accordance with the Vedic imagery; and this name is all the more appropriate because the illumination in each case has come in response to a seeking for light in order to

clear up some felt darkness in the subject. Thus in brief Euclid's conception of geometry and ours are separated by some half a dozen dawns.

This being the nature of creative research, the present day mathematical aspirant should seriously ask himself whether in dealing with the rich legacy of the 19th century, he is really bound to limit himself to its view point and method, whether there have not happened subsequent dawns, dawns of this century, the illumination of which has yet to play on the older material transforming it and raising it to its own level of value and significance. If there have been such dawns, the path of creative research lies most definitely in the fulfilment of the Time-Spirit by assimilating the older material to the newer light.

We have today arrived at a deeper insight into the nature of mathematical thought than was ever possible before. As the culmination of the researches in the analysis of mathematical reasoning initiated in the last century, we realise today that mathematics should be conceived as 'the class of all deductive systems' or as 'the analysis of structure.' This is no doubt a highly abstract view, but abstraction where mathematics is concerned, is not a flight from the concrete, but a temporary stepping back from the subject matter, in order to get it into clearer perspective and return upon it with greater power and insight. Looking back on the past, we may recognise that this intuition of the nature of mathematics has been always present from the earliest times as far back as Euclid, though in a germinal form without rising to self-awareness.

Another curious feature of this modern view of mathematics is the laying bare of the peculiar relation which holds between Mathematics and Logic—a relation not of one-sided dependence as was thought, but of two competitors in a race each of whom tries to outstrip the other. For, it turns out that logic—or rather, any particular level or system of logic—has a structure of its own and can be formalised and presented as a deductive system, in which the processes and reasonings depending on the actual content as opposed to the 'form' of the system belong to a deeper unformalised level of 'meta-logic.' This must necessarily turn out to be the case with a human mentality capable of deeper and ever deeper levels of reflection on its own processes.

The 'Structure' or 'Deductive System' of mathematics may be of a very general or even of an arbitrary character. But in practice, the purposive character of mathematical science brings in some limitations. Historically mathematics had the task of elucidating the problems of practical life. Its central and distinctive contribution in this regard is the concept of the 'real number', by which the sense world can be 'measured', and its manifold relations explained. This concept runs like a spinal cord through the whole of mathematics, furnishing a solid support to its abstract structures and a centre of reference to its boundless peregrinations. Indeed, when any general mathematical theory or result has to be brought home by an illustration or to be used or applied, we have to bring in the real number directly or indirectly. It will not be unnatural then to expect the typical mathematical structures to have a close bearing on the real number concept, to hover round it, as it were, or even to have been implicitly involved in its development.

The concept of the 'real number' has developed through four stages, the cardinal number, the natural number, the rational (or fractional number) and the real number,

and we do find mathematical structures typical of each of these stages of its evolution. The 'cardinal number' is the signless integer used in counting, and the addition of these cardinal numbers must be explained in terms of the union of sets without common elements. Thus the notion of cardinal number must be logically explained in terms of set-algebra. But the notion of set has a definite content, and is therefore 'concrete' and not 'abstract' according to the standards set by mathematics. To get at the formal characteristic of set-algebra, we observe that both set-union and set-intersection can be explained in terms of the relation of set-inclusion. Therefore the abstract mathematical structure revealed in set algebra and in the notion of cardinal number is the 'partially ordered set', namely a set of elements constituting the field of a binary-reflexive transitive relation formally analogous to set-inclusion. It is not surprising that the structural idea of the 'partially ordered set' includes logic also among its applications, in view of its close connection with the fundamental logical notion of 'set.'

The cardinal numbers are not closed for subtraction, and the impulse which conceives the 'natural numbers' or the set of positive, and negative integers, is clearly the impulse of 'completing the group.' Thus the structural idea which is manifested at the second stage of evolution is the idea of 'group.' The passage to the rational number is similarly effected by completing the multiplicative group of the natural numbers other than Zero; this brings forth the structural idea of 'field' which is or rather ought to be, the subject-matter of Algebra. In the final stage, the notion of real number is arrived at from the rational number by a *coup d'état* accepting an infinite process. According to Dodekind, the motivation in this process is to arrive at an analysis and a logical explanation of the geometrical intuition of 'Continuity.' The mathematical discipline which analyses and investigates the structure of the notion

of continuity is called 'Topology.' Accordingly the structural moment revealed in passage from the rational to the real number must be called the 'topological moment.' Thus corresponding to the four stages of evolution of the real number, we have four principal structure-types, the 'partially ordered set' and 'topology' at the extremes, and the intervening structural levels of 'group' and 'field' which are usually included under 'Algebra.' These are of course 'elementary' structure forms, and may be found mixed up together in the background of any actual piece of mathematical reasoning. In order to study these structures effectively, mathematics would also have to deal with generalised forms of a looser structure, as for instance 'semi-group' or 'ring.' Also, an infinite variety of secondary or derived structure-types may arise, based on these; as for instance in Geometry, where we have to deal with the

structure of sets of linear equations in a field. Thus, in fine, we have to ascribe a central position in mathematics, to the four structural moments revealed in the evolution of the real number, without prejudice to the fact that mathematics is concerned with deductive theories based on any system of postulates whatever.

Every discovery of new and far-reaching ideas must be followed up by a period in which their scope and applicability to the existing material is surveyed and worked out. Such work is necessary not only for an increased insight into the existing body of knowledge, but also for giving content to the new ideas and fixing their bearings. It is work in this direction that is called for at the present moment, and I feel strongly that Indian mathematicians and workers should orient themselves accordingly, so as not to be behind hand in doing their share.

Approved for class use for schools in the Madras Presidency. (Vide: "Fort St. George Gazette," dated 27th May 1941.)

PLANE GEOMETRY FOR SCHOOLS

BY G. V. BHAGWAT, M.A.

Professor of Mathematics, Karnatak College, Dharwar.

AUTHOR OF "TRIGONOMETRY FOR SCHOOLS" AND "A COURSE IN PLANE GEOMETRY" (FOR COLLEGES). JOINT-AUTHOR OF "ELEMENTS OF CALCULUS."

VOLUME I. PRACTICAL AND THEORETICAL. (For Standards IV & V).

Over 250 pages Fourth Edition. Price, Rs. 1-4.

VOLUME II. WITH ELEMENTS OF TRIGONOMETRY. (For Standards VI & VII).

Over 280 pages. Second Edition. Price, Rs. 1-8.

COMPLETE. (VOL. I & VOL. II BOUND TOGETHER IN CLOTH.) Price, Rs. 2-12.

OPINION.

"Plane Geometry (Vol. I)—Practical and Theoretical—is well produced and has much to recommend it and, in fact, the reviewer has welcomed and adopted it in his school. The book begins on right lines with a practical course designed to meet the needs of Standard IV, and paves the way to a correct appreciation of the fundamental concepts of Geometry. The practical course is followed by a theoretical course suitable for Standard V. Exercises that follow a theorem or a group of theorems are carefully chosen and they are not too many. Revision exercises are provided at the end of each part. Quite an admirable book...eminently suitable for the fourth and fifth standards of our schools."—*The Bombay Teachers' Journal* (July 1938).

As an experienced teachers of Mathematics, Prof. Bhagwat is well known throughout the Bombay Presidency.

K. & J. COOPER—PUBLISHERS—BOMBAY, 4

Sole Selling-Agents for the Madras Presidency.

The Christian Literature Society for India, Park Town, Madras

ENGLISH

Easy to Teach and Easy to Learn English Readers, By William McLean, M. B. E., M. A. (Hons.), B. L. (Glas). Registrar, University of Madras

From Premier onwards to Reader IV: Containing unique features in the Teaching of English. The Readers are designed in order to afford the maximum assistance to teachers as well as a logical basis for the learning of English correctly, rapidly and with ease by Indian Pupils.

A Text-book of English Grammar and Composition

By Ina Dean, B. A. (Hons.) Diploma in Pedagogy (London University) for High School Classes. Price Rs. 2-0-0

For Middle School Classes Book I Price Re. 0-6-0, Book II Re. 0-9-0 and Book III Re. 0-12-0

The New Readings in English Literature By K. Srinivasa Kini, B.A., L.T., Part I, Re. 0-14-0 Part II Re. 1-0-0

HISTORY

A Short History of England By Hilda Johnstone, M.A., D. Litt. for Forms V and VI Rs. 2-0-0 (English, Tamil and Telugu Editions.)

An Outline History of Great Britain By Hilda Johnstone, M.A. D. Litt. for Form IV (English, Tamil and Telugu Editions) Price Re. 0-12-0.

A Text Book of Indian History By Prof. C.S. Srinivasa Chariar, M.A. (English, Tamil and Telugu Edition) Rs. 1-12-0

A Short History of India By the same Author Re. 1-0-0

GEOGRAPHY

Descriptive Geography for Middle School Classes

By Prof. N. Subrahmanyam, M. A., L. T., F. R. G. S. in Tamil Book I As. 10.

Book II As. 12.

Book III As. 12.

(Telugu, and Malayalam Editions available.)

Descriptive Geography By N. Subrahmanyam and K. Ramamurthy for Classes IV and V (Tamil and Telugu Editions) Price Re. 0-8-0.

MATHEMATICS

A Text Book of Algebra By V. Venkatasubbayya, B. A., L. T., Price Rs. 2-4-0.

A Text Book of Arithmetic By S. Radhakrishna Aiyar and K. Vaidyanathaswami Aiyar. Revised by S. Rajam Aiyar, B.A., L.T. (Prepared in accordance with the latest Syllabus 1940)

Book I, Price Re. 0-10-0, Book II, Re. 0-12-0 and Book III, Re. 0-12-0.

HISTORY OF THE CITY OF MADRAS (written for the Tercentenary Celebration Committee, 1939) By Rao Saheb C. S. Srinivasa Chariar, M.A., Recommended by Government in their Endorsement No. 33198 B-1 E and P. H., dated 9th September, 1939 for all Schools and Colleges Price Rs. 3-0-0.

P. VARADACHARY & CO.,
8, Linga Chetty Street, George Town, Madras,

REGIONAL METHOD OF STUDY IN GEOGRAPHY*

THE teaching of Geography has had a chequered career and it is within the past few decades that the subject has begun to come into its own in the school.

One would be naturally inclined to know the changes in the method of teaching of the subject. For the explorers of the 15th and 16th centuries a knowledge of geography assumed a practical value; it became a factor in the art of navigation. This 'sailor geography' was non-scientific and consisted mainly of the topography of coast lines. During those centuries when trade was being adventured in the new lands beyond the seas, Geography teaching was regarded to some extent as vocational much as we teach handicraft to boys and cookery to girls. Such was the state of Geography teaching till the middle of the nineteenth century.

The rapid development of Science in the 19th. century led to a demand for the teaching of Science in Schools. It is hardly strange that among the subjects which the schools of science taught should emerge a hotch-potch of Geography, Geology, Physics, Chemistry and Astronomy, to which was given the name of Physiography. The emphasis was heavily on the scientific side. Geography was not likely to become an independent subject so long as it was associated in this rather haphazard way with Elementary Science. In 1886 the Royal Geographical Society issued a report on geographical instruction and this helped to stimulate interest in this subject and to bring about the establishment of a school of Geography at Oxford.

The subject is no longer a compendium of information to assist navigators; it is no longer an account of general science associated with natural phenomena. It appears as a subject with a human interest—the science of man on earth. The influence of natural factors on man's life is noted, though the reactions of man on nature are not forgotten; and this causal nexus is of the essence of the modern conception of Geography. In the widest terms we can perhaps say that the subject matter is the earth. It is not the zone of water or vapour that interests the child, but the earth in its widest aspect as the home of man. It is the human aspect that must always be kept to the forefront in the teaching of the subject. Unless such a criterion is set up there is a danger of making Geography a mere mosaic of the various sciences.

Although Geography is closely related to various other subjects, it stands by itself, with its own subject matter and its own view points. It is in fact human ecology—a study of the distribution and associations of mankind on earth, with all the inter-relations that this conception implies. In our desire to make Geography scientific and to encourage our pupils to link up cause and effect, we tend sometimes to emphasise the part which environment plays in human activity. This determinist attitude produces an erroneous notion that man is helpless and is conditioned by the environment. But the fact of the matter is that the geographical environment offers opportunities of which man may or may not avail himself; or that it presents obstacles which he may

*Summary of the lecture delivered to the students of Geography of the Teachers' College, Saidapet on 30-1-44.

or may not overcome. Often purely political or economic considerations decide those matters. Moreover the action of the geographical forces in any region is not necessarily constant: they may vary with the standard of knowledge and civilisation of the inhabitants, e. g., the development of Sind would have been impossible before the days of modern engineering. Though man has reacted to such a remarkable extent on his environment it should be borne in mind that he has not eliminated the physical controls; he commands Nature by obeying her, e. g., he can grow wheat but not tea in England.

Regional Concept: The regional concept received its first expression in France in the eighteenth century by Buache. Up to this time political divisions had always been accepted as the only basis for geographical description. But the modern regional Geography had its founder in Vidal de la Blache. According to him every region has its unique character to which contribute the features of the soil, atmosphere, plants and man; and the aim of description is to synthesise them and show the interlocking of all phenomena which comprise regional types. Roxly defines a natural region as an area throughout which a particular set of physical conditions prevails and a particular set of physical conditions will lead to a particular type of economic life.

It is obvious from the foregoing that attention was first directed to the smallest geographical units, defined on the basis of their structure and topography. But there exist larger regions, of various orders of magnitude, in the delimitation of which different factors of the physical environment must be adopted as criteria. In the

first decade of the present century two schemes were put forward for the division of the world into its component natural regions, on the basis of physical criteria, the first by A. J. Herbertson of Oxford, and the other by a German, A. Hettner. According to Herbertson a natural region should have a certain unity of configuration, climate, vegetation, etc.; the mapping of human conditions has less significance in indicating the natural geographical regions; and political divisions expressing more complex and comparatively unstable human conditions must be eliminated from any consideration of natural regions. Thus he prepared his classification of Major Natural Regions, which, in spite of criticisms, represents one of the most fruitful and constructive achievements in the development of modern Geography. Hittner differs from Herbertson in that, working down from largest regions, he first makes the natural distinction between land and water; the former is divided into continents and islands, the islands are again classified as oceanic and continental; and each continent is sub-divided on the basis of position, climate and structure. It differs from Herbertson's in that it takes the continents as the basis. Thus the world view together with the grouping of regions with similar environments is not obtained by Hettner's continental method.

During the last 35 years research on regional method has been grappling with two main problems. First, how far should the modification of physical environment be considered in the delimitation of regions; secondly, on what criteria must the delimitation of regions of varying orders be based and how shall they be grouped together. Unstead suggested in 1916 a synthetic

method of delimiting regions which would take into account both physical and human elements. The method proposed was to proceed synthetically by building up larger regions from smaller areas already delimited and characterised. Thus there is a general inclination to include human factors in regional delimitation. But it is difficult to combine all elements in a world classification since man and nature do not obey the same laws. Yet regions of all kinds have been suggested to show the distribution of various phenomena. The United States of America has been divided into physiographic regions by American geographers. Fleure, a British geographer, has made a valuable contribution to human geography in his concept of human regions, based on the main features of human life in response to similar natural conditions. In the sphere of economic geography agricultural regions of different orders have been worked out for each continent in the American periodical 'Economic Geography.' C. B. Fawcett has marked for England and Wales regions within which one great city dominates economic, social and administrative activities and such areas, it is claimed, should serve as a more rational basis for the reorganisation of administrative areas. Regions of a similar kind have been worked out for France. Some years ago De Preville prepared a map of regions of Africa based on community of social organisation and activities. While all these schemes of regions, showing the distribution of various phenomena are of importance, the essence of Geography is the explanatory description of human occupancy within the composite natural regions.

While the principles of the method are clearly defined, little work has been done on its detailed application. Herein lies the main future task of the geographer.

Advantages of the Regional Method: The regional method is one of the great revolutions in the teaching of Geography. The idea of the region as an entity—as an organism—facilitates understanding; and a region of a particular type appearing in different parts of the world simplifies learning. Unrelated facts are no longer to be memorised by brute force; the causal sequence weaves the whole structure. The method is therefore natural and scientific in character. Data are collected and the generalisation is made by inductive reasoning. In the collection of data and in representing them the pupils learn by doing. The regional method is a sort of summation and foundation; the physical facts of a region are synthesised and a composite picture is obtained, which forms the basis for the study of the human geography of the region. Thus what Epoch is in History, Region is in Geography. Cartographic and diagrammatic methods of study find ample application here—Preparation of distribution maps based on the data collected gives a sense of reality to the study of geography. The pupils evince great interest when maps, charts, pictures, source books, films, models are introduced as aids to learning. It should be borne in mind that all regions should be studied, lest a distorted view should be formed by the study of a few regions to the exclusion of others; but the amount of stress will vary according to the present-day importance of the regions. Such

a study lends itself to suitable comparisons of the regions, from which pupils begin to appreciate the different ways of life led by people in different parts of the world; thus they learn to be better citizens, free from prejudices.

But the laboratory for the regional method of learning is the Home Region; it is the yard measure for the study of the world. By personal observation, by the collection of data, the pupils build up geographical concepts for understanding conditions elsewhere. It is in the measure of his understanding of the principles and concepts of geography in the home region that the pupil will appreciate the geography

of the world. The study of the home region is educationally important as it brings a sense of realism in the mind of the pupil and leads him from the known to the unknown.

A word may be said about political geography. Frontiers are important things in the world of to-day and in the daily newspapers. Should the pupil remain ignorant of political frontiers, artificial as they are in the case of many countries? A proper way of approach would be that, while the regional method should dominate the school course, it needs to be supplemented by a certain amount of political geography, especially in the higher forms.

THE VISIBLE GUARANTEE OF INTRINSIC WORTH

P. C. WREN'S

PROGRESSIVE ENGLISH COMPOSITION

Pages 337.

Fifty-third Edition.

Price, Re. 1-8.

The new school-year is fast approaching; and, as you must safeguard the interests of your school as well as of your boys, CAN YOU AFFORD TO NEGLECT A BOOK OF SUCH VITAL IMPORTANCE?

K. & J. COOPER—PUBLISHERS—BOMBAY, 4

Sole Selling-Agents for the Madras Presidency:

The Christian Literature Society for India, Park Town, Madras.

OUR CONTEMPORARIES

Urdu as Medium of Instruction— Nizam Government's Reply to Criticisms (*Educational India*, February 1942)

THE Note says that the Government had for their object the displacement of a foreign language which was creating difficulties for pupils by way of diversion of interest and concentration on the study of the foreign medium itself. Urdu is admittedly the *lingua franca* of India and is the common language understood by the people in the Dominions. Further, if the use of Urdu is objected to where it happens not to be the mother-tongue, the force of the objection is multiplied tenfold in the case of the use of English. Besides being a widely understood language of India, Urdu has been adopted by some of the leading political bodies in language, differences being largely confined to the question of script. It is related to other Indian languages, both of the North and the South, and, as is signified by its very origin, it embodies the spirit of Hindu-Muslim unity. The progress has thus been along national lines and the adoption of Urdu as the language of the State makes it both desirable and necessary that those anxious to secure service in the State should be given every opportunity to master it.

Stating that it is not correct to say that Urdu as the medium of instruction in the secondary stage has adversely affected the progress of pupils whose mother-tongue is other than Urdu, the Note adds: "If any feeling exists of any possible inequality of burdens, the proper thing to urge is

proficiency in one of the other local languages as a requirement of at least some of the essential branches of service, and in the interests of the Administration itself, the question is now under active consideration of the Government as to what Departments proficiency in the local languages should be insisted on for future recruitment."

Mass Literacy Schools

(*The Progress of Education*, November and December 1941)

The Government of Bombay has approved a scheme for payment of supervision grant to associations running primary schools under the mass literacy scheme.

A primary school started under the scheme of mass literacy receives a maintenance grant at the rate of Rs. 4 per pupil in average attendance which may be increased to Rs. 6 in the case of girls and backward class children subject to a maximum of Rs. 200 in a year. The associations running primary schools under this scheme, however, get no extra grant towards overhead charges.

An association maintaining a large number of schools has to incur some overhead expenditure. For example it will have to maintain a supervisor to ensure effective supervision over its schools. It has also to spend some money on the upkeep of a central office. If the grants made by the associations and the Government for voluntary schools are to be utilised in a proper manner, the associations will have to see that their schools are adequately supervised, and

for this purpose they will have to employ qualified supervisors. They cannot do so at present without some Government help.

The Government has decided that the associations running approved voluntary primary schools, should, with effect from the current year, be paid grants on overhead charges at the rate of two-thirds of the actual overhead costs or 10 per cent. of the capitation grant earned by them, whichever is less, subject to the following conditions.

The following items of overhead costs will be admitted for Government grant:— Pay and allowance of the clerical and supervising staff; office contingency; stipends to teachers deputed for training; cost of refresher courses; travelling allowance to teachers; and pay and travelling allowance to relieving teachers.

Post-War World-Economy, India's Industrial Autarchy.

(From the Calcutta Review, December '41.)

Dr. B. K. Sarkar thus asks:—

What ought to be India's place in this system of decentralized Empire-finance and co-ordinated net-work of Imperial autarchies or self-sufficient units? Let us examine the present situation. During the three year period 1936-39 India had to depend annually for nearly 325,000 tons of iron and steel goods on imports from foreign countries. These goods comprised such essentials as steel bars, galvanized sheets, beams, hoops and strips, tubes, pipes, nails, tinned sheets, fishplates, rails and so forth.

For machinery and mill work India had to place orders with overseas countries to the tune of Rs. 197,200,000 in 1938-39.

The industrialization of India is bound to be halting and limping as long as the Indian people remains incapable of manufacturing tools, implements, and machineries of all classes in adequate proportions. During the present war the situation is not as bad in this field as during the war of 1914-18. The reports of business and bazaar specialists indicate that the output of Indian industry for war effort comprises many items in machinery, tool, and equipment.

In the textile machinery, oil crushing machinery, lathes, printing presses, electric installations and several other lines elementary beginnings have been made. For all practical purposes they are not really mentionable. The production of boilers, prime movers, paper mill machinery, sugar machinery, and so forth remains still a will-o-the-wisp of India's industrial ambition. Machines of quality are *ultima thules* in every line.

Another will-o-the-wisp is the production of motor vehicles of which nearly 13,000 cars and 10,300 omnibuses, vans, etc., were imported per year during 1936-39. To the same group belongs the manufacture of ships as well as of aeroplanes. Incidentally it may be observed that the first aeroplane has already been produced at Bangalore and the foundation of the first Indian modern shipbuilding yard laid at Vizag.

In chemicals India's dependence on foreign imports was to be measured by Rs. 30,500,000 in 1938-39. The lines covered sodium carbonate, caustic soda, acetic acid, citric acid, potassium compounds, zinc compounds, calcium compounds, bleaching

powder, copper sulphate, glycerine and so forth. In this sphere India's deficiencies ought not to remain as they are for any lengthy period. The industry of chemicals and drugs is waiting for a vigorous push.

Census of 1941. Population Figures.

By R. K. Trivedi, B.A., LL.B., Asst. Census Superintendent, Bhavnagar State. (From Modern Review, February 1942.) The following data should be of value to the teacher.

The total population of the vast Indian continent comprising both the British and Indian India, that is to say Provinces, States and Agencies, at sunrise on the 1st March 1941 numbered 385,800 thousand, of which 200,928 thousands were males and 187,872 thousands females, giving a net increase of 50,681 thousands or 15 per cent. The average annual increase during the past decennium is thus found to be 50,68,100. While the population of the Provinces has risen from 256,755 thousand to 295,827 thousand, that of the States and

Agencies from 81,367 thousand to 92,987 thousand. Their respective percentages of increase are noticed to be 15.2 and 14.3. In the total population of the country, British India claims 76 percent, States and Agencies 24 percent. Bengal seems to be the most populous of the provinces and appropriates 60.14 thousands or nearly one-fifth of the total population of British India. Next comes the United Provinces with 55,021 thousands followed by Madras with 49,342 thousand. From the point of numbers, Bombay is the smallest of all the major provinces and has a population of 20,858 thousand which is exceeded by Bihar and the Punjab whose respective populations have been returned to be 36,340 and 28,419 thousand. Among the States, Hyderabad heads the list with a population of 16,184 thousand followed by the group of Rajputana States with 13,670 thousand. Among the larger States, those that have a population of over 10 lacs and are separately mentioned are Baroda, Cochin, Gwalior, Kashmir, Mysore and Travancore,

"An anthology of exceptional merit."

A BOOK OF VERSE

COMPILED PRIMARILY
FOR INDIAN BOYS & GIRLS

BY SIR HENRY NEWBOLT, L.L.D., D. Litt.,
CHAIRMAN OF THE COMMITTEE ON THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH IN ENGLAND

FOURTH EDITION.

PRICE, AS. 10.

It contains 109 Poems, the work of 60 authors, about half of the pieces being copyright and the remainder drawn from the English classics. To any one familiar with English poetry of to-day the name of the editor—one of the greatest of living poets and critics—will be a guarantee of sound editorial work. The teacher who adopts this anthology as a class-book will feel grateful for being introduced to many new pieces of great interest and high poetical merit.

A book of poetical selections unique in several respects, and better adapted for Indian school-boys than any other school-anthology.

THE LOTUS BOOK OF ENGLISH VERSE

By PERCIVAL C. WREN, M.A., I.E.S.

ASSISTANT DIRECTOR OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION, BOMBAY

PAGES 280.

Fourteenth Edition.

PRICE, Rs. 1.

SPECIAL FEATURES

Contains pieces which possess the double virtue of simplicity and the capacity to appeal to Indian children.
Contains only such poems as are found to be healthy in tone, just in sentiment, elevating in thought, and beautiful in expression.
Contains an unusually large number of poems with oriental flavour.
Contains 169 pieces ranging from the easiest up to Gray's Elegy.

K. & J. COOPER—PUBLISHERS—BOMBAY, 4

Sole Selling Agents for the Madras Presidency:
The Christian Literature Society for India, Park Town, Madras.

BOOK REVIEWS

ALGEBRAIC SOLID GEOMETRY, BY S. L. GREEN PP. 132. 1941, CAMBRIDGE UNIVERSITY PRESS.

This is a small handy volume, giving an excellent treatment of three-dimensional analytical geometry, meeting the requirements of science and engineering students. The book has been based on considerable teaching experience, and is well written and provided with excellent examples. The scope of the book falls short of the requirement of Mathematics Honours students in Madras and other Indian universities; but it will prove useful for engineering and science students.

"AL-MINHAI" BEING THE EVOLUTION OF CURRICULUM IN THE MUSLIM EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS OF INDIA. BY G. M. D. SUFI, M.A., L.T., D. LITT. PRICE RS. 4 PP. 238. 1941—(SHAIKH MUHAMMAD ASHRAF, LAHORE)

We commend this book to all students of the evolution of educational curriculum as giving a great amount of information on the studies pursued in Muslim educational institutions in India in the past and also suggestions as to the proper shaping of curriculum in the coming Autonomous India. The title *Al-Minhaj* has been used for the book as it is the term used in Arabic-speaking countries to indicate the scope of the subject. The author who has had considerable and varied experience of work in the educational field goes back to schools in the period of the early Sultans of Delhi and to the Ghaznavids after the latter

shifted their court to Lahore and thus transplanted Muslim learning to Indian soil. The teaching in the colleges of Delhi in the 13th and 14th centuries comprehended Grammar, Literature, Logic, Islamic Law, Commentaries on the Quran, Tradition, Mysticism and Scholasticism (*i.e.* Religious Philosophy.) Incidentally he points out that Music was included by the famous Ibn Khallikan as one of the courses of Mathematics and we read that Euclid influenced his science among the Arabs. The concentric method of teaching was stressed by Ibn Khaldun and by Al-Ghazali; the licensing of teachers was known and the academic gown found its way from the court of Harun Al Rashid to European seats of learning.

Under the Mughals the curriculum was unduly prolix in the primary stage; Akbar complained that boys were detained for years in learning consonants and vowels. We are given an outline of what was normally the course of studies in higher learning in the reign of Aurangzeb. By the age of 15, the boy should have completed his secondary course of instruction and then the really earnest students should go abroad to Arabia to study Tradition.

The curriculum of Nizamu'd-din of Sihali (died 1748 A.D.) has received a wide currency. It was based upon the principle that one comprehensive book on each subject should be studied as a text. Music seems to have been a part of this curriculum. Women have played their part in the transmission of Tradition and many instances

are given in the book of the accomplishments of ladies of high families. Muslim learning decayed after the time of Aurangzeb. It was however revived by Warren Hastings who founded the Calcutta Madrassah in 1781, a history of which in brief is given in the chapter on Curriculum under British rule in India. From Adam's Report we find that the course of Persian instruction had a more comprehensive character and a more liberal tendency than that pursued in Bengali schools and that Persian teachers among whom were included a large proportion of Hindus were superior in intelligence to Bengali and Hindi teachers. But elementary Arabic schools were badly off. In the days of Mr. Adam Hindustani or Urdu was the current spoken language of the educated Muslims of India. But Urdu school books were wholly unknown. The following paragraph is worth noting by the historian: "The absence of Urdu schools for the Muslim population corresponding with the Bengali and Hindi schools for the Hindus, may explain, in some measure, the greater degradation and ignorance of the lower classes of Muslims when compared with the corresponding classes of the Hindu population, and the first step to their improvement must be to supply this defect."

In Persian Hindus and Muslims had almost the same command and used it even in their private correspondence and in the long established intelligencers of the native courts. Sir Sayyid Ahmad Khan, Maulvi

Shibli Numani and other leaders of the Muslim community in the last century were convinced that the traditional learning had outlived its time and should be radically reorganized. In 1865 there was prepared the draft of a scheme for the establishment of an Oriental University for Upper India. Its aim was to arrange for the selection and translation of standard English educational works into the vernacular, to systematize the study of oriental languages by proper treatises on the subject, to promote the study of Arabic, Sanskrit, Hindi, Arabic, Persian and Urdu. Five years later Lahore saw the birth of the Islamia college.

The book traces the history of the Oriental College, Lahore, the Dar-ul-Ulum of Deoband and the Aligarh Muslim University as also the Anjuman-i-Himayat-i-Islam of Lahore, the Nadwatul-Ulama, whose reforming seal is noticeable and the Usmania University, and the Jamia-i-Milliyah. Of the Aligarh University our author says that though the Aligarh man has developed a distinct personality, the University itself has yet to give proof of advancement of learning in Muslim History, Philosophy, Literature and Art.

Dr. Sufi condemns very strongly the use of a foreign medium of instruction and urges the full exploitation of the educative resources of the mother-tongue literature. He recommends also the standardisation of technical terms and feels that Hindustani in both Hindi and Urdu or perhaps in the

Roman script should be the ultimate strand for knitting the fabric of Indian life and he makes these healthy remarks on the subject: "It is the simplest and the most widely understood language of India, and has sprung from the fusion of Hindu and Muslim cultures. The tendency in saner sections is happily growing to reject needless use of big Sanskrit or Arabic words." Our author does not want to ignore English, but would recommend its retention on an optional basis and says that while it is essential as a second language in the secondary course, it should certainly be optional at the University stage. Economy

should demand co-education in the elementary stage; and Muslim opinion is certainly hostile to co-education in the secondary stage, though a certain latitude is possible in higher education and could be encouraged where women's colleges are not available.

Thus we find in this book a great quantity of useful matter as regards Muslim learning and education in the past and a number of suggestions concerning the reconstruction of education. In spite of a few small slips, the get-up is excellent and the style is easy and smooth.

MARTIN'S STORIES IN VERSE—OLD AND NEW

Book I. Price, As. 9.

Book II. Price, As. 10.

Book I contains 30 Story Poems of which 7 are copyright. Book II contains 25 Story Poems of which 9 are copyright. These books are the cheapest offered at the price, and contain by far the best and the most carefully graded collection of Stories in Verse.

They contain a large number of poems with Oriental flavour. Copious Notes, Questions, Exercises in Grammar and Composition, form a unique feature of these books. There are 8 full-page illustrations.

The appeal of Martin's STORIES IN VERSE does not lie merely in its cheapness. There are many other features that should appeal to the modern teacher.

STORY POEMS

SELECTED AND ARRANGED

BY PERCIVAL C. WREN, M.A. (Oxon.), I. E. S.,

AUTHOR OF "THE INDIAN TEACHER'S GUIDE", "INDIAN SCHOOL ORGANISATION," ETC.

FIFTEENTH EDITION.

PRICE, As. 14.

This book, one of the cheapest offered at the price, contains by far the best and the most comprehensive collection of STORIES IN VERSE (99).

The poems are all such as a school boy can read without much difficulty and which will really interest him.

K. & J. COOPER—PUBLISHERS—BOMBAY, 4

Sole Selling Agents for the Madras Presidency:

The Christian Literature Society for India, Park Town, Madras.

PUBLISHERS' NOTICE.

All literary contributions, books for review, newspapers, or magazines, sent in exchange, &c., should be addressed to the EDITOR, 2/16 MOUNT ROAD, MADRAS. Articles and communications intended for publication in the succeeding issue should, as far as possible, reach the Editor not later than the 10th of the month. The Editor solicits contributions on all subjects of educational interest. Stamps should accompany the MS, if the writer wishes it returned, in case of non-acceptance. The Editor can in no case hold himself responsible for accidental loss.

All remittances and communications regarding advertisements, &c., should be forwarded to the Publishers, THE EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, 2/16 Mount Road, Madras.

The Publishers request that Subscribers to the THE EDUCATIONAL REVIEW, who do not receive the REVIEW in time, will kindly bring the fact to their notice immediately.

EDITORIAL NOTES

THE publication of the Government Review on Education in India in 1937-38 by the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, though belated, is still welcome. The general features of educational activities in the period under review are first summarised. Two valuable reports were published during the year on important educational topics, viz. (1) The Report on Vocational Education in India by Messrs. Abbott and Wood, Members of the Board of Education in England; and (2) Dr. Zakir Husain's Report of the Committee appointed by the All-India National Educational Conference, Wardha and embodying the well-known Wardha scheme. Both these reports are very practical in their bearing and recommendation; and they were considered by the Central Advisory Board of Education at their third meeting in January 1938

XLVIII—11a

and referred to expert sub-committees. There were also appointed in the course of the year the Vernacular Education Committee and the Women's Education Committee to consider questions connected with their respective subjects.

Apart from these specific activities of the department we note that all the Provinces except a few minor ones recorded a total increase in their expenditure on education. There were only a few cases of breach of rules in the N. W. F. Province. In Bengal and Bihar there were cases of indiscipline and political disturbances noted, more in Bihar than in Bengal. The discipline in the University of Lucknow did not improve; and we also read of a deterioration of discipline even in schools of the U. P. Everywhere this deterioration was held to be due to the change in the spirit of the times and to the increasing tendency

among the students to take part in political demonstrations.

The Report draws attention to the question of unemployment among the educated; it holds that the most serious aspect of the problem does not lie so much in the actual number of students undergoing education in the Universities,—which is not disproportionate to the number of boys who are, or ought to be under-going instruction in the lower stages—but arises partly from an inadequate number of openings in a sufficiently wide range of employment, partly from a narrow concentration of objective in the direction of Government service and also partly from the presence in Universities of a large number of students who ought not to have been admitted at all.

The Report regretfully adds that the University authorities "have shown themselves curiously weak in guiding public opinion towards a proper conception of the real functions of the institutions for which they are provided." It says:—"It has even been argued that if a student could scrape through his Matriculation a University is under an obligation to find room for him irrespective of all other considerations." Still another matter that needs some attention is the laxity of examination results and everywhere the authorities of the provincial departments of public instruction bemoan the growing laxity of standards and we feel that a stiffening of the matriculation standard is the primary requisite for any improvement in under-graduate teaching. The divergences in examination standards

between one University and another are very great; nor are these negligible even between different Faculties of the same University.

It is a very regrettable feature that the Report reveals that in some provinces like Sind, Bihar, Delhi and even Bengal and the Central Provinces, vernacular middle schools are becoming increasingly unpopular and are being steadily converted into English middle schools. Perhaps this handicap may be counteracted by a more efficient teaching of English in the optional classes. The use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction in secondary classes has been slowly extending; and it is a matter for satisfaction that the Calcutta University tells us that the interest in lessons taught in the vernacular has become noticeable, answers to questions have become more assured and interrogations by the boys have become more intelligible. Increasing experience reveals the fact that the change-over to the mother tongue in as many subjects as possible should lead to a distinctly higher standard of attainment and a fuller comprehension all round.

Manual training and vocational training do not seem to have extended much. The Wood-Abbott Report on vocational education has given certain suggestions which are not however capable of immediate realisation and at this stage it may not perhaps be advisable to discourage the provision of such training in secondary schools as has been done by some.

The wastage among boys in the primary classes continues to be markedly

BOOKS ON COMPOSITION

MARTIN'S A PRIMER OF GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION

Second Edition. Price, As. 5.

FRASER'S PICTURE COMPOSITION

Book I, (Seventeenth Edition) and Book II, (Sixteenth Edition).
Price, each As. 5

WREN'S PROGRESSIVE ENGLISH COMPOSITION

Fifty-third Edition. Price, Re. 1-8

MARTIN'S A JUNIOR ENGLISH COURSE

Third Edition. Price, Re. 1-8

MARTIN'S A SIMPLE COURSE OF ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION

Second Edition. Price, Rs. 2.

WREN & MARTIN'S HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH COMPOSITION

Tenth Edition. Price, Rs. 2-4

WREN & MARTIN'S HIGH SCHOOL ENGLISH GRAMMAR AND COMPOSITION

Fifth Edition. Price, Rs. 3

K. & J. COOPER-PUBLISHERS-BOMBAY, 4

Sole Selling-Agents for the Madras Presidency:

The Christian Literature Society for India, Park Town, Madras.

large and one of the major causes of this is attributed to the large number of single teacher schools, particularly in rural areas. Again we read that compulsion is not producing the desired result of avoiding wastage and that voluntary areas are definitely better than compulsory areas in this respect. Not that any objection could be raised validly to the practice of compulsion because of this. But attention should be concentrated to the following necessary conditions that should accompany compulsion: "In the first place, the authorities responsible for enforcing compulsion must be in earnest; in the second place, they must have the necessary administrative machinery, which means an adequate staff of trained school-attendance officers; and in the third, the schools themselves must be made as efficient and attractive as possible so that those who enter their doors unwillingly may be converted into voluntary regular attenders."

The education of girls and women has been steadily growing. But the task ahead of local bodies in this particular is still very great. Co-education is commonest at the earliest stages. It demands for its success an adequate proportion of trained women as teachers on the staff, a fact which is forgotten by persons who speak very glibly on the lack of success of the system. The Punjab Government have given it as their opinion that in co-educational schools staffed by women alone or by a man and his wife or a near female relative, lies the real solution of the problem of education of village

girls. Madras has more provisions for the training of women teachers than any other province. The Girl-Guide movement is making progress and in Bihar it is clothed in a national garb, as is but proper.

The education of Muslims unfortunately shows a feature that is to be regretted, viz. that Muslims attach less importance to higher education in those areas where they form the majority than in those where they are in a minority. As regards the depressed classes there is still a large amount of unwillingness on the part of parents and teachers to return children as belonging to these classes. Separate schools for them are being given up as they have the stigma of inferiority and are usually inefficient owing to their lack of well-qualified teachers.

The education of defectives is being conducted on the usual lines. The adult literacy movement worked through night schools, village uplift committees and other agencies depends for its real success upon the people themselves and not so much upon the enthusiastic workers and the great danger is that the increased interest in adult education which has been manifested is not likely to produce commensurate results. Madras can certainly boast of a fine record in this respect as in the field of physical training for which the Y. M. C. A. College of physical education has done so much. It is essential that in girls schools proper attention should be paid to drill and physical training. It is a matter for further gratification to all that the scout movement is being given an Indian setting by the introduction of the Bratachara and Sevasamiti methods.



GRAMMAR TEXT BOOKS BY LLEWELYN TIPPING M.A.

Recommended in the Madras English Syllabus for Forms 1—3.

Recommended for Form I

FIRST STEPS IN ENGLISH GRAMMAR

Revised and Enlarged by

J. C. ROLLO, M.A.

Price Annas Six

The exercises have been revised throughout and additional exercises in Grammar & Composition, Story Composition and Picture Story Composition added, as suggested in the syllabus.

Recommended for Form II & III.

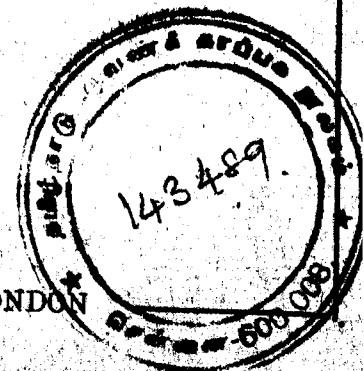
SIMPLIFIED ENGLISH GRMMAR

Price Rupee One.

MACMILLAN & CO., LTD.

(INCORPORATED IN ENGLAND)

MADRAS—BOMBAY—CALCUTTA—LONDON



REGD. NO. M.2.2

*Keep the Enemy away
from India
Contribute Again to the
Governor's War Fund
Buy More Defence Bonds
&
Savings Certificates
GIVE and LEND
FOR
VICTORY*

Printed by C. Krishnamoorthi at the Sri Ramakrishna Printing Works, 19-B, Woods Road,
and published by Srinivasa Varadachari & Co., 2/16 Mount Road, Madras.
Hon. Editor : Rao Sahib Sri C. S. Srinivasachari, M.A. Managing Proprietor : S. KANNAN.