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The Educational Review

A MONTHLY RECORD FOR INDIA

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AUGUST 1951

8

Value of Publicity and Propaganda in Social (Adult) Education

BY SRI T. N. RAO, B.A., L.T., (Govt.) Mobile Unit Officer, Anantapur.

PUBLICITY is an essential part of propaganda. To do propaganda without publicity is to play *Hamlet* without *Hamlet*. So publicity and propaganda are two sides of the same question, namely, the informative process by which we want to reach the masses and deliver our goods. It is one thing to have a message for the public, but to deliver that message effectively and well is quite another thing. Hence arise the technique of publicity and the art of propaganda.

Publicity is an attack on the attention of the public, and propaganda is only an informative drive. Unless publicity and propaganda go hand-in-hand, we cannot deliver our goods to the public in the best of all possible ways. Some people hate publicity, and think there is something rather vain-glorious or even indecent about it. The word "propaganda" too, has a bad name; but this is only because of its very value and importance. Propaganda is one of the forms of mass education and is particularly suitable for adults and for people who are illiterate, and publicity is the literature side of it. In fact, once people have passed the school-going age, by far the best way of teaching them new things is by means of well-organised publicity and propaganda. Some might argue that "good wine needs no bush". The value of education being well-known, this sort of trumpet-blowing is not necessary, but it should be remembered that in these days of economic struggle and

preoccupations, even 'good wine' needs loud advertisement. Well-organised publicity and propaganda greatly increases the work done by each rupee of Government money spent on Social (Adult) Education. Hence to neglect publicity and its counterpart, propaganda, will be a short-sighted policy. There is no doubt of that.

Now let us come to the technique of publicity and the art of propaganda to make our literacy and informative drives, efficient and complete. Publicity should necessarily be bold, colourful and attractive, while propaganda should be vigorous, resourceful and persuasive.

The first essential requisite in the uplift of masses in the educational sphere is to create the right spirit and set them thinking on right lines about several vital problems affecting their daily life. The publicist and propagandist should together strive for the production and growth of the educated mind among the masses having no literacy and education. Through extensive and intensive means, they should prepare the ground for spreading literacy among adult illiterates, and disseminate up-to-date knowledge of men and things. By their effective methods, they should also inculcate in the public a proper sense of the rights and duties of citizenship both as individuals and as making up the nation. The late Sir Sikhandar Hyat Khan, Premier of the (undivided) Punjab, said: "It is now recognised that environment

plays an important part in tuning up the human factor". So the propagandist and the publicist would do well to turn their spot-lights on individuals in particular relation to their environments during their worthy campaigns, so that the individual comes up in time with the rest of society. Again, in the words of Sir Horace Plunkett the great co-operator and rural pioneer, our publicity and propaganda should be directed particularly in rural areas towards "better agriculture, better business and better living", and all these because of better literacy and better education. The latest widening of adult franchise has opened new vistas of inculcating the responsibilities of individuals, and instilling in the minds of the public independence of thought and freedom of judgment, for the successful running of our democracy, and this also forms an essential part of our publicity and propaganda programmes.

I may now mention here some salient forms of the technique of publicity and the art of propaganda which we should make use of in our literacy campaigns.

- (1) Village guides, or trained social workers who will act as liaison officers between the Government Officials and the public in rural areas.
- (2) Broadcasts (Rural and Urban).
- (3) Magic lantern shows and cinemas (touring and permanent).
- (4) Dramas (amateur, village, professional and school).
- (5) Group-singing, glees and "melas":
- (6) Gramophone records.
- (7) The press and the newspapers.
- (8) Coloured pictures and posters and other printed material such as handbills, leaflets and pamphlets.
- (9) Books.
- (10) Exhibitions, shows, models and miniatures and display.
- (11) Competitions (sports and literacy, health etc.)
- (12) Week celebrations.
- (13) School programmes.
- (14) Model villages.

To the above items of publicity, the following forms of propaganda can be added.

- (1) Lectures (in simple language on all topics affecting daily life; agriculture, health, education etc.)
- (2) Talks (General and particular to groups or sections or class of people)
- (3) Public meetings
- (4) Cinemas (with sound and silent films, both instructional and entertaining)
- (5) Organising folk dances and *bhajana* and *kolattam* parties.
- (6) Door to door visits.
- (7) Meetings and prize distributions.
- (8) Celebrations of anniversaries, jubilees etc.
- (9) Variety Performances.
- (10) Tour-vans provided with vibrator and loud-speaker units.
- (11) Ballad-singing and recitals.
- (12) Street dramas and shadow-plays.

I have detailed above some salient forms of publicity and propaganda that will be of invaluable help in our literacy drives and Social (Adult) Education campaigns in its threefold aspects namely:

- (1) Education for literacy through adult education classes.
- (2) Education for culture through information and the library.
- (3) Education for efficiency and national safety through aids such as cinemas and magic-lantern shows.

One thing should be remembered; the illiterate individual should not be divorced from, or taken out of the setting of the society in which he lives, for purposes of educative activities or propaganda; but he should be taken along with his environment as a whole. Simply to confer literacy on him, as an individual, is to "lay a table with plates, spoons and forks, but without any food on it." If the object of literacy drives and adult education programmes is to make people possess a homogeneous culture, our publicity and propaganda should be so organised and adjusted that the money spent on these may bear quick and fruitful results.

Contact with Nature

BY SRI S. SIVARAMAN, M.A., L.T., Professor of English, Teachers' College,
Sri Ramakrishna Vidyalyaya P. O.

THINKING of education, who can help thinking of the *tapovanas* of ancient India, the old forest-hermitages wherein *guru* and *sishya* lived together in an environment of Nature? Many are the contributions that the modern sciences of psychology, sociology and pedagogy are making to education. But has not the past of our country valuable hints to offer us in the training of our children? Surely our past is not an inglorious one. Surely our nation is not beginning to write on a blank slate, so far as educational ideals and traditions are concerned.

Let us look on that picture of ancient India when the young ones were growing in wholesome communion with the brotherhoods of the vegetable, the animal, and the bird kingdoms, and on this picture of present-day India when boys and girls are condemned to rigorous imprisonment within the four walls of the choking class-rooms in the centres of crowded cities and towns, restless with their fret and fever. It is the thought of this saddening contrast that inspired the great genius, Rabindranath Tagore, to found his forest school at Santiniketan, which has now blossomed into a great international University. The poet-sage of Bengal has been followed by many an educationist in our country. As a consequence, there are now several educational institutions, the ideal of which is to bring devoted teachers and eager pupils together for a common life in the bosom of Mother Nature with her vast open earth, her grasses, plants, creepers, trees and flowers, her hills and streams, and her unshrouded blue sky.

Let us dispassionately and critically consider the educational values of contact with Nature. To begin with, there are inestimable physical advantages. It is proverbial that the peasant labouring in his open field in the pure fresh breeze and the moun-

taineer toiling in the bracing surroundings of rocks and rills, forests and foliage, are far healthier, stronger, and livelier than the dweller in the dust and smoke of towns. The physiological and hygienic reasons for this are not far to seek: the pure air, the constant exercise, the call for activity and movement cannot but leave their beneficial impress upon the physical frame of man.

Passing from the physical to the intellectual effects of contact with Nature, we cannot but be agreeably surprised at the usefulness of Nature in this respect. Firstly, Nature can furnish the pupils with living lessons in geography in contrast with the dead matter of hide-bound books. The children can learn many useful things of mountains, rivers, plains, lakes and seas, of the seasons, of climatic changes, of winds and rains and fogs, of the varieties and potentialities of soils and crops. If the geographical knowledge to be acquired is great, the scientific knowledge to be acquired is still greater. The various herbs, creepers, plants and trees can be studied from the botanical point of view. The beasts and birds and fishes can be studied in their natural setting and life from the zoological point of view. The physical and chemical transformations that are ever going on in Nature can be observed and discussed from the point of view of physics and chemistry. Incidentally, there will arise problems in mathematics concerning lengths, breadths, heights, volumes, and weights. The modern pedagogists lay very great emphasis on learning in an environment of realities as opposed to the old bookish method. Now, Nature, in her illimitable free school, offers the best opportunities for pupils to learn and really grow in knowledge, by providing stimuli and materials in real situations.

Far more valuable than the mental growth is the aesthetic and moral growth that can be gained in the midst of Nature. There is

on human being on earth, whose object is not to gain pleasure, happiness and joy. It must therefore be one of the objects of education to reveal to the young ones lasting sources of pleasure and joy in life. Of these sources, an appreciation of the beautiful is not the least, as acknowledged by all sound educationists. Now, the aesthetic taste can be cultivated by no other agency so efficiently as by Nature. The fulness of joy in the life of Sakuntala at Kanwa's hermitage as depicted by Kalidasa and as pointed out by Tagore, is an apt illustration to show the inexhaustible wealth of joy freely awaiting the prince and the peasant in the midst of Nature. Surely our children must be trained to take advantage of the 'economic' wealth of Nature in the matter of aesthetic pleasure, happiness and joy. As for the wholesome moral influence, the lives of the old *gurus* and students in ancient India and the lives and teachings of poets like Wordsworth in the west are monumental examples. Who can forget the immortal lines of Wordsworth, wherein he attributes all his unremembered acts of goodness to the influence of benign Nature?

Last, but not least, is the spiritual influence of Nature on man. The spirit of man has wandered through the dreadful wildernesses of two gigantic world-wars.

The spirit of man is struggling to the utmost to avoid a third war with more

destructive weapons almost capable of wiping off humanity from the fair face of the earth. Sorely does humanity need peace and tranquillity of spirit, turning the gaze from the shackling finite to the freedom-giving infinite. Where can man seek it except in nature, that still pristine manifestation of the Supreme Peace-giver? Should we not train our children to realise their destiny, in however small a measure, by bringing them face to face with the Infinite Peace, the Infinite Order, the Infinite Beauty, the Infinite Bliss and the Infinite Life, all of which are manifest in Nature? The waving flower plants of the field, Tagore says, are like the arms of the loving Mother-Earth calling to her children in glee. Should not our children see that and recognize that and respond to that? Our hoary forefathers came into contact with the Beyond and the Universal through Nature. What inspired our incomparable *Upanishads*, what enriched our ancestors with wealth of spirit in outward simplicity is calling our young ones, with its still small voice. The spirit of the universe, felt by Wordsworth, is waiting for us too.

It is for the teachers and the taught to respond to this ever-present call of Nature. Even if most of our schools are not located in the midst of Nature, is it not the teachers' privilege and duty to take out the pupils as often as possible through trips and camps to the life-giving world of Nature?

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THE EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

Solace for Mankind*

BY DR. R. N. DANDEKAR, Poona

IT has been very aptly observed by a great modern thinker that the 19th century marked the end of an epoch and that we, it is becoming increasingly evident, are at the beginning of another. The truth of this observation is nowhere more strikingly realised than in respect to the changing attitude of the people towards science and religion. It seems to have been the view of the 19th century that, through the aid of science, we were within reasonable distance of attaining a complete understanding of man and the universe. In all ages, men and women have been asking the traditional questions about universe, life, humanity, freedom, mind etc. Is this world, it is asked, for instance, an accidental conglomeration of atoms, or is it the result of definite design and plan on the part of an intelligent creator? What is the place of life in the scheme of things? Is humanity destined to more glorious and permanent achievements in the future than in the past, or is it doomed to failure and extinction? What is the motive force behind man's actions—his free will or the laws of an iron determinism? Is mind real or is it merely an insignificant emanation of matter?

From very early times, religion has claimed to have tackled these and similar other questions in an efficacious manner and to have supplied decisive answers to them. But the application of the methods of science, particularly those which were so marvellously developed in the last century, to the teachings of religion resulted in completely exposing the fallacies, contradictions, absurdities and imbecilities of the latter. The effect of the impact of natural sciences on theological beliefs became perfectly evident in the open attempts made by science in that century to dislodge religion from its high pedestal of long-enjoyed authority. Not only was religion shown to be wholly inade-

quate as a means for the discovery of truth but its influence was averred to be positively harmful to the progress of human civilization. It was charged with having smothered the spirit of inquiry in man and thus made him intellectually a slave. Karl Marx called religion the opium of the people. It promoted ideas, superstitions and practices of a crude and unrefined character. Contrary to its avowed aims, it became a tool in the hands of spiritual monopolists and was made to serve as a means to make the poor poorer, the rich richer and the slaves more servile. Not only this. History bears witness to the most alarming ways in which religious enthusiasm often displayed itself. Religion was made an affair of the state and thus became instrumental in engendering an abominable spirit of hatred and injustice. This led some of the crusaders against religion, like Morris Cohen, to assert that there is not a single revolting feature of human life that has not, at one time or another, been an intimate part of religion. Believers in religion were openly challenged to prove that any religion has ever been of any service to mankind.

Such vehement outbursts against religion, which generally characterise the 19th century, cannot be said to be wholly unjustified. For one thing, they represent the inevitable reaction against the tyranny which, in earlier ages, science had to suffer at the hands of religion. Do we, for instance, not know that Copernicus, the father of modern astronomy, who discovered that the earth was not stationary but had a daily revolution round the sun, had to delay the publication of this momentous discovery, until almost the moment of his death, because he feared violent opposition from ecclesiastics and theologians? Was not Darwin's *The*

* By kind permission of A. I. R. Bombay, this broadcast talk is here published

Origin of Species characterised by the world of religion as an escape of mephitic gas, as a bundle of infamous doctrines coming from hell and representing the fruit of the most abject passions? The development of even one of the most beneficent branches of science, namely, medicine, was consistently opposed by the intensely conservative spirit engendered by the teaching of religion.

We can understand the historical inevitability of the war which rationalists and freethinkers waged against religion. But in the exuberance of their enthusiasm for the dazzling discoveries made by science, these crusaders went to the other extreme. They claimed that science was bound to succeed where religion had so miserably failed. Scientific knowledge was advancing at a prodigious rate. Researches in physics, biology, and psychology were producing results of so fundamental a character that it appeared as though all the problems concerning man and the universe would vanish before science as mist before the morning sun. The eve of our century witnessed the passing of the gods. As a matter of fact, the rationalists of the 19th century denied the reality not only of gods, but of all concepts which did not fall in line with mechanistic causation, such as value, beauty or the feeling of moral obligation.

But a new era dawned with the beginning of this century. If the 19th century claimed that scientific progress was the panacea for all the ills of humanity, that it provided the only answer to all problems of man and the universe, we have realised, during the last fifty years, and that too, in an increasingly decisive manner, that all that science has taught us so far is nothing more than the extent of our own ignorance. Our experience has been that truth, like the horizon, recedes further away from man as he appears to go nearer to it through the aid of science. The present century, therefore, has inevitably produced, in thinking men and women, a sense of humility before the unknown and the unknowable—a sense which is indeed the mainspring of all true religion.

But perhaps more significant than this knowledge of our own ignorance and the consequent sense of humility was the fundamental change in the view regarding the tall claims made on behalf of the so-called scientific method and approach. It came to be recognized very distinctly that there were avenues for the exploration of the universe other than that of science. The imaginative conception of reality was no longer regarded as being limited by likeness to the things we can see or touch. This necessarily afforded room for wider views. Value, for instance, may be real, and so may be the objects of ethical, aesthetic and religious consciousness. The promptings of the moral and religious nature of man were no longer stigmatised as mere subjective illusions. As a matter of fact, some physicists began seriously to speak of another world behind the world which they studied. Paradoxical as it may sound, a deeper and more thorough study of natural sciences, particularly of physics and biology, led more and more to an idealistic view of things. Material phenomena are, according to Jeans and Eddington, but the effects of the way in which spiritual reality appears to us. The early decades of our century thus witnessed the noble efforts made effectively to bridge the 19th century gulf between science and religion. Not only this; but eminent scientists now began to appreciate the proper function of religion in man's eternal search after truth, as is evidenced by the immortal words of perhaps the greatest among them, Einstein, who said that our religious insight is the source and guide of our scientific insight.

The present century provided yet another occasion—indeed, two occasions, and very tragic to boot—which helped to revive the innate religious spirit in man, which the rapid scientific progress in the last

century had temporarily suppressed. These were the two world-wars. They, particularly the more recent one, opened the eyes of humanity to the atrocities which science can be made to perpetrate. Science, it was convincingly proved, can be as brutal and barbarous as religion is accused of

having once been. The atomic power, for instance, which is the most creditable creation of man, now threatens like the mythical Bhasmāsura, to annihilate its own creator, man. Science has given us the means either to exalt or degrade humanity; but it is only the religious spirit of man which can adequately determine to what ends those means should be used. The present generation, therefore, fully convinced as it is, of the efficacy of scientific methods and the beneficent potentialities of scientific discoveries, is anxiously looking back to the basic law of humanity, and is trying to devise a new science and a new religion, perhaps, a dynamic synthesis of science and religion, to teach us the art of living. It does not care for religion, which remains blind to—nay, which even abhors—scientific progress, nor for science, which despises the still small voice in man.

The present age is unstable and unsafe. We seem to be destined to witness great changes, great wars and widespread social upheavals. Old-fashioned religious faiths can no longer provide the much-needed solace to mankind. Religion with a dogma and an external ceremonial cannot now be expected effectively to control man's beliefs and actions. But let it be remembered that religion without a dogma is certainly a workable proposition; and we do need such a religion. It is indeed an urgent psychological need. For, the recent investigations, made by Jung and others, have proved that, with the decline of religious consciousness, the neuroses grow noticeably more frequent. Religion secures for man spiritual certainty, which lifts life above meaningless existence or dull despair. Without it man is constantly at war with himself.

But, in a sense, true religion must be regarded as a social need also. For, religion

attempts to establish harmony between the ego and the group. Other means also have been tried, in recent times, to achieve this end. Efforts are, for instance, made to socialize the individual either by standardizing all men and women and submerging their individuality in the deified state or by treating them as mere wheels in a huge economic machine. Such experiments are doomed to ultimate failure. For, they destroy the soul of man and transform society into a prison. It is only religion, which, while preserving the dignity and freedom both of the individual and the society, yet establishes a working harmony between the two.

To speak of religion, in these days, would be regarded as an absurd anachronism. Men and women have now long since grown weary of all established religions. But the present trends in human thought and action have again directed our attention to religion and have taught us to put our faith in its efficacy to offer courage and comfort to our ailing world which is torn by stress and strife. It should, however, be remembered that, to be so serviceable, that religion be a religion, which is neither a creed nor a code; which does not spurn science; which is truly spiritual and universal in character; which has the capacity effectively to counteract the bane of the modern times, namely, despair and frivolity, fanaticism and apostasy; and which, above all, is a religion of humanity. For us, Indians, at least, such a religion of humanity is not anything new. For, this "holy mystery", which the wise sage of the *Mahabharata*, declared, several centuries ago, has come down to us through the reverberating corridors of time: *na maanushaat sreshthataram hi kinchit*—"there is nothing nobler than humanity".

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THE EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

The Story of Examinations

BY SRI M. R. SAMPATKUMARAN, M.A. Madras.

IN 1122 B. C., a new era started in Chinese history: and it is claimed that even at that date there was in existence in China a system of competitive examinations for recruitment to public services. Even if this claim for the antiquity of the examination system seems somewhat exaggerated, it cannot be denied that the rudiments of the system could be found at least as early as the Han dynasty who ruled roughly from 200 B. C. to 200 A. D. The Tang Emperors later set the system on an organised basis about the 7th century A. D.

For over a thousand years before its abolition in 1903, the Chinese examination system preserved the pattern prescribed by the Tang Emperors. Candidates for public services were examined on certain classics, mostly ancient history and poetry and morals. They had to write essays in a prescribed form on set texts and poems on given themes. A typical theme for an essay set late in the 19th century is given by R. K. Douglas in *Society in China*: "Tzu Kung said to Confucius: 'Suppose there were a man of such unbounded beneficence and power that he was able to extend help to everyone of the people (who needed it), what would you say of him? Might he be called humane?' Confucius answered: 'Is humane the right word? Must not he be a holy man?'"

The system has had its critics, who have ridiculed the idea of filling up administrative posts by tests in poetry and textual exegesis. But Mr. Lin Yu Tang claims that these tests were somewhat like intelligence tests. And Mr. J. W. T. Mason in *The Creative East* urges: "The complicated examination system in the Chinese governmental machine is an aesthetic movement of giving rewards, not for utilitarian success in administration, but for refinements of mental sensitiveness as self-sufficient in themselves, having no fundamental relationship with practical progressive results."

The Chinese examination system is important in the history of education for having shown the possibilities of testing cultural attainments and exposed at the same time the defects of testing techniques.

Ancient India, and Greek and Roman antiquity did not establish any organised system of examinations, though they had elaborate educational systems. They all relied on the personal relations between the teachers and the taught. Students lived with teachers, and when the latter were satisfied that the pupils had acquired reasonable mastery over their subjects, their formal training ended without any examinations at all. There were great teachers, but no great schools. The *Samavartana* ceremony of our *brahmacharins* looks somewhat like an official recognition by society of their status as new-fledged graduates. Sometimes students would be taken to assemblies of learned men after the *Samavartana*, and there they might have to answer questions asked of them. In royal courts and *parishads* often bitter disputes went on to decide precedence between scholars, and some kind of examination must have been inevitable. When the Buddhists organised universities in India, they must have made use of testing techniques, though we do not know much about them. It is, however, known that students wishing to enter Nalanda had to take a stiff oral examination to qualify them. There were *dsara-panditas* at Vikramasila, who admitted or rejected prospective students. Kings of Bengal granted diplomas to successful students of Vikramasila at the end of their academic career. The university preserved portraits of its distinguished *alumni* to encourage future generations of students. Quite apart from all this, the scholar in ancient India had to keep his scholarship always at his finger-tips. For he might be challenged at any time for a *vakyartha*, and would not be given time even to consult his notes.

Modern examinations are derived from the examinations of European universities in the middle ages. The church, which controlled education at that time, was anxious that teachers of would-be clergymen should have orthodox views on matters of faith and general competence otherwise. So it began to license teachers, and this was the origin of the university degree, which at the beginning merely meant a license to teach. Bologna, the earliest European university, had a regular system for examining students as early as the 13th century. The university itself was organised like a teachers' guild. Corresponding to the apprentices, companions and masters of guilds, the university had scholars, bachelors (or pupil-teachers) and masters or doctors. Scholars first became bachelors and then rose to the status of doctors. The examination for the doctorate consisted of two parts. The student was given a passage in civil or canon law on the morning of the examination. He would then retire to his rooms to study the passage. Later in the day, he had to expound it before an assembly of doctors. Two doctors, specially appointed by the university, would question him. Other doctors were also free to put supplementary questions. The fitness of the student to receive the degree was then determined by a majority vote among the doctors present. The successful student then had to face a public ceremony after paying substantial fees to the university. He had to expound in public some point of law, chosen by himself, against criticisms from senior pupils in the university. If he succeeded here also, he got his degree. It will be noticed that the thesis or exposition offered by the student is like the masterpiece submitted by a journeyman to demonstrate his fitness to become a master.

Similar methods prevailed in most European universities for long. Written essay examinations became usual in Oxford and Cambridge only towards the end of the 18th century. Earlier graduates had been examined through 'disputations'. Even now, in France and Germany and other European countries, students are required to submit and defend theses for degrees and

not to answer set papers. Many other features of modern university procedure such as submission of certificates of previous study and of good conduct, the use of set text books, the division of the course into parts, placing students in an order of merit—all date back to the middle ages.

When examinations were regularised in the 19th century, the essay type of examination became the recognised model. Attacks on this began towards the end of the 19th century from the point of view of reliability. And then under the influence of the technique of measuring intelligence advocated by Binet at about the same time, a different type of examination was evolved by psychologists and statisticians, particularly of America. This type of examination came to be known as the objective or the new type.

ESSAY EXAMINATIONS:

In the course of the attack on the traditional essay examination, certain criteria were developed for evaluating tests. The most important among these are validity and reliability.

VALIDITY may be defined as the degree to which a test really measures what it claims to measure. This means that a valid test should efficiently test the pupil's knowledge of the subject in which he is tested and for which he has been prepared. Ruch and Stoddard suggest among other things that it should answer satisfactorily the following questions asked about it:

- (i) Does the test parallel good teaching practice?
- (ii) Does the test provide an adequate sampling of the important topics or divisions of the subject?
- (iii) Have the test items been checked to see:

(a) that no large percentage of items are failed or answered correctly by all the pupils, and (b) that the items show consistent increase in the percentage of successes with successive age or grade levels?

RELIABILITY is the extent to which the test does its measuring accurately. A test

is reliable, when every student, given the same test again or an equivalent form of it, will score the same marks. Usually, of course, the scores differ. But if they differ within small limits, the test has high reliability. The limits within which such scores tend to differ constitute the *probable error* of the score. Correlations between the marks earned by a group of pupils on two equivalent forms of a test are expressed in terms of *reliability co-efficients*. Reliability is affected by (i) the length of the test, (ii) the degree of objectivity in marking, (iii) the nature of the questions (whether or not they are definite, erratic etc.) and (iv) the nature of the subject itself.

Statistical studies of marking have led to the establishment of certain norms or patterns. If we have an infinite number of pupils and a scale of values also extending to infinity, it can be shown mathematically that there is a normal probability for continuous distributions. This is a bell-shaped curve with the majority of cases crowding at the mean and tailing off at either end. It has been found from experience that marks in examinations generally tend to such a curve in distribution.

From this, certain suggestions have been made for improving the marking in examinations. One is that the answer papers should be grouped into four or five bunches in a descending order of merit and that these bunches should each bear a definite percentage to the total number of papers. Prof. P. S. Naidu recommends that 6% of the total number should be in the highest rank, 22% in the second, 44% in the third, 22% in the fourth and 6% in the last. Others suggest that the distribution should be as follows: 10%, 20%, 40%, 20% and 10%. If it is found that in any examination this kind of distribution is not achieved, then the papers may be revalued until it is.

In order to increase reliability, it has been suggested that questions can be made specific instead of being left vague, as often at present. Vagaries in marking will be minimised if both the examiner and the examinee know what sort of answer to expect for the question. Reliability can

also be improved by getting every answer paper valued at least by two competent examiners. Prof. Edgeworth has declared: "The true or standard mark of any piece of work is the average of marks given by a large number of competent examiners equally proficient in the subject and instructed as to the purpose and character of the examination." The validity of an examination can be increased by a wise choice of the questions and a wider use of spot questions or passages. Every care must be taken to see that the pupils' knowledge is adequately sampled by the questions in the examination paper.

It has been found that the essay examination performs certain functions which cannot be done by other types of tests. It has no substitute when one tests for a student's ability in English composition or his competence for journalism. It puts to proof the student's ability "to see relationships, to make evaluations and summaries and to apply his knowledge in an organized, effective manner to new situations" (Prof. C. C. Ross). It is the only way in which a student's capacity for interpreting and evaluating can be adequately tested. It has also the distinct merit of encouraging desirable study procedures among students like making analytical outlines and summaries and seeking to discover relationships.

OBJECTIVE TESTS

The new type of tests, advocated by American psychologists and educationalists, is called objective on the ground that the marking there is not subject to subjective vagaries and variations. The questions are so constructed that the answers to them are definite. In fact, every question can have one answer and only one answer. This has led to attention being concentrated on questions with short, definite, specific answers. In practice, the questions belong to the 'what' type—not the 'how or 'why' type.

The questions in objective tests may be divided roughly into two classes from the point of view of form. They are either 'recall' questions or 'recognition' questions.

Recall questions may be either simple recall exercises or completion exercises. In

a simple recall question, the student is asked to give his answer in a word or a phrase. Information of all kinds can easily be asked for.

E. g.: What is the length of the diagonal of a rectangle, 4" long and 3" broad? When did Timur invade India? Who is the author of ROMEO AND JULIET?

Completion questions call upon the student to supply one or more key words left out of sentences dealing with the subject of the test. In their simplest form, they hardly differ from the recall questions. E. g.: Timur invaded India in But more complicated types are in use. E. g. (i) Nundcomer was sentenced to in by on a charge of (ii) According to Newton's first law of motion, bodies continue to be in a state of or of motion in a unless compelled by some to do otherwise.

Questions of this kind have the advantage that they eliminate guessing and sometimes offer a little initiative to the student. But they are used generally to recall merely isolated bits of information. When they attempt to do more, and if there are quite a few blanks to be filled up in the same item, the questions may very well become riddles.

The recognition type of questions can be subdivided into various classes. In the simplest type of recognition test, the student is asked to choose the correct answer to a question from among two given. The student has to indicate the response that indicates learning. Or he may be merely asked to state whether a given statement is true or false. The first is called the multiple-response test, and the second the alternate-response test. Examples of the two are given below:

E. G. A poem with symbolic characters is (1) a limerick (2) an epic (3) an allegory (4) a lyric (5) an elegy.

"Death tramples it to fragments" is an example of (1) irony (2) antithesis (4) personification (5) synecdoche.

One centimetre is approximately equal to 2.54 inches. True False.

The kick of a rifle, when fired, may be explained by Newton's third law of motion. True False.

Gandhiji laid stress on the value of violence. True False.

Other types of alternate-response tests call for the following answers: Yes-No, same-opposite, right-wrong, correct-incorrect, etc.

The greatest drawback of the alternate-response test is that it encourages guessing. Even wild guesses may help the student to score some correct answers. In order to minimise the effects of guessing, it is usual in such cases to apply a corrective by the use of the formula: $\text{Marks} = \text{Right} - \frac{\text{Wrongs}}{n-1}$ where n is the number of responses from which the correct response has to be selected.

The advantages of this type of tests are that they can be used to test the power of judgment, when alternative statements are made to present varying degrees of truth or plausibility. But in general the tests tend to be highly factual. If they are not factual, there is the danger that more than one answer may be correct. Again, much important subject matter cannot be put into the form of the alternate-response or multiple-response questions.

Some other forms of objective tests are given here. They all belong to the recognition type in general.

ANALOGIES TEST: Here the student is asked to exercise his sense of discrimination. E. g. Calcutta is to Bengal as—is to Assam. Tears are to the lachrymal glands as (1) saliva (2) bile (3) pancreatic juice (4) venous blood (5) gastric juice is to the stomach.

ANTONYMS TEST: The student is asked to recall or recognise antonyms. Vocabulary and logical power can be tested here.

BEST ANSWER TEST: This is a variation of the multiple-response test. It can test the student's power of discriminatory judgment.

E. g. The chief function of the white corpuscles is (a) the destruction of disease germs in the blood, (b) carrying of oxygen to the tissues, (c) carrying of food materials to the different parts of the body.

The Marathas lost the third battle of Panipat because (a) they were short of food, (b) they had an incompetent general, (c) they were overwhelmed by numbers.

CAUSE AND EFFECT TESTS: Here the student is asked to pick out effects and related causes from a jumbled assortment, or to recognise causes when effects are given or effects when causes are given. The test is very useful in the sciences.

DISARRANGED SENTENCE TESTS: This is the same as the old-fashioned puzzle of jumbled words. Sometimes, the student is asked not merely to rearrange the given words in the form of a sentence, but also to state whether the sentence is true or false.

IDENTIFICATION EXERCISES: These are very useful in testing familiarity with maps, charts or diagrams. They are also often used to test the ability to apply principles to concrete situations or to identify applications of such principles. The student may be asked for example to identify the menu which satisfies best the principles of dietetics he has been taught.

MATCHING EXERCISES: Here the student is asked to match related or associated statements or terms or names or dates from among two sets given to him. One set for example may contain the names of particular kings and another set a list of dates. The correct dates have to be matched with the correct kings. The exercises may be either on judgment or on facts. They may call for relating causes with effects or *vice versa*. There is room probably for some chance guessing in these tests also.

MIXED RELATIONS TESTS: In the commonest form of these tests, the student is asked to identify the intruder from among a class of related or analogous terms or ideas.

RE-ARRANGEMENT TESTS: Here the student is asked to understand and apply certain

symbols substituted for others according to a given code. For instance, he may be asked to translate some sentences into an artificial language according to a vocabulary and some rules given.

Certain tests, called narrative tests, are sometimes included within objective tests. They fall into three main classes - association, enumeration and judgment. In the association test, the student is asked to write a short note on a given theme. It is like the short notes question of the older type of examinations. The enumeration test merely calls for the enumeration of a number of facts - e. g., the causes of Pitt's India bill, the names of the several types of joints in the human body, elements or plants included in a particular class etc. The judgment test approaches closely to the traditional essay. Here the student is asked to state why some given statements in science or geography or history are true.

OLD VS NEW TESTS

A comparison of the two types of examinations reveals that the defects of each are the merits of the other. The old examination made an intensive sampling of the student's knowledge and tested his ability to organise and express his ideas and apply the principle he has learnt to concrete situations. But it suffers from vagaries in marking and inadequate sampling of the student's knowledge. The new type of tests are more objective in marking and make a more extensive sampling of the student's knowledge. But they tend to become highly factual, touch but lightly on understanding, judgment and ability to use knowledge, and avoid intangible outcomes like attitudes, appreciations, interests and ideals. Moreover, as pointed out by Crawford and Burnham, even the so-called objective tests are not wholly objective in operations, as individuals will always differ in reaction to the same materials. The problem of variability in response due to differences among persons tested still remain.

One essential difference between the two types of examinations lies in the fact that in the new tests the subject is analysed into

markable elements in the construction of the test, while in the old type of examination the examiner made the analysis while valuing the papers.

The controversy between the two types has been described by Burnham as "a guerilla conflict between subject matter experts with a limited grasp of testing methods and testing experts with a limited grasp of subject matter."

A wise combination of the two types of test will probably best evaluate the students.

Indian universities would do well, as Prof. P. S. Naidu suggests, to institute boards of examination audit to learn from their stock of experience and improve their systems of examination.

PROS & CONS OF EXAMINATIONS

Several have posed the question whether examinations of any kind are necessary. The objections to examinations are (1) that they destroy natural interests and compel teachers and students alike to concentrate on studies valuable merely from an examination point of view: (2) that they cause ready-made opinions to be thrust on students: (3) that questions are often unfair and that rote-memory tends to be tested more than anything else: (4) that too much stress is laid on written work: and (5) that students are subjected to unnecessary and harmful mental and nervous strain on account of the examinations and put through artificial mental gymnastics.

Such criticisms can be answered. The world cannot on get without tests, and it is

impossible to abolish them altogether. They may however be so designed as to avoid many of the charges now made against them. For instance, examinations need not necessarily destroy natural interests, and questions need not necessarily be unfair or erratic. Stress is laid on written work because on the whole it is more reliable than performance in an oral examination. There is however something to be said for doubtful cases being given the benefit of a *viva voce* test.

It is true that the student is taught ready-made opinions and asked to reproduce them at examinations. This is however a question which goes to the root of teaching and governing methods. The continuity of civilisation is built on transmission of accepted values, opinions and knowledge from generation to generation. Originality can make itself felt only after familiarity is acquired with traditional opinions and values. No educational system can afford to give up the imparting of tradition.

It is true again that students are subject to an unusual strain during examinations. But has that strain no beneficial effects? Does it not offer a stimulus to round off and codify the student's stock of knowledge and to mobilise it at a moment's notice? No better incentive to learning is known. "Learners improve rapidly," observe Ruch and Stoddard, "when their successes and failures are known to them at the time of practice. This principle, which may be termed the 'principle of learning with knowledge of results' is one of the most useful in promoting learning."

Kurnool Teachers' Guild

The annual conference of the Kurnool District Teachers' Guild took place on Saturday (4-8-51) at 3 P.M. in the Coles Memorial High School. Janab Md. Ismail, Divisional Inspector of Schools, Anantapur opened the conference while Sri D. N. Babu Rao, president of the Kurnool Dt. Teachers' Guild, presided over the proceedings in the unavoidable absence of Sri M. S. Koteswaran, Secretary of the All India Federation of Educational Associations, Hyderabad (Dn.) The president of the Guild, Sri D. N. Babu Rao, reviewed the progress made by the Guild during the year and exhorted the teachers to give unstinted co-operation to the Guild and the parent organisation at Madras.

Mr. H. Krishnamurthy, Secretary of the Guild, welcoming the delegates and other guests, spoke of the various problems agitating the educational world.

The Divisional Inspector of Schools, in his opening address, analysed the reorganised scheme of Secondary Education and explained with practical suggestions how Citizenship Training and Social Studies classes should be dealt with. Mr. H. Krishnamurthy, thanking the Divisional Inspector for his valuable address, requested him to strive his utmost to get the Government Training College located at Kurnool.

The presidential address of Sri M. S. Koteswaran was then read by Sri R. Narayanaswamy, Secretary, Hyderabad Teachers' Federation, Secunderabad, who was deputed for the purpose. In his address, Sri Koteswaran stressed on the need for strengthening the All India Federation of Educational Associations which was a national organisation.

A discussion on the new English syllabus and teaching of English in Secondary Schools was then initiated by Sri K. N. Pasupathi, Head-Master M. H. School, Kurnool. Sri V. S. Venkatanarayana of M. H. School, Kurnool, next discussed the

various aspects of the current syllabus and the draft English syllabus to come into force from 1953-54. Sri N. Sundaresaiyer of Coles High School, Kurnool and Sri K. Neelakanta Rao of C. M. H. S. Kurnool then spoke.

Then Sri P. Raju, assistant, C. M. H. S. Kurnool, spoke on the place of Scouting and Red Cross in schools. Sri K. Chinna-subba Rao, Asst. Head-Master, M. H. School, Kurnool, spoke on 'Visual Education.'

The following office-bearers were elected.

President: Sri K. N. Pasupathi, Head-Master, M. H. S. Kurnool.

Vice-Presidents: (1) Sri Y. Krishnayya, Head-Master, Bd. H. S. Gudur. (2) Sri C. Pulliah, 1st Asst. M. H. S. Nandyal.

Secretary: Sri H. Krishnamurthy, Asst. M. H. S. Kurnool.

Jt. Secretary: Sri G. Rajaratnam, Asst. C. M. H. S. Kurnool.

Treasurer: Sri M. Venkateswarulu, Asst. M. H. S. Kurnool.

The Conference urged upon the Government the immediate need to revise the salaries and allowances of teachers in view of the soaring prices of food-stuffs and to ensure that the status and emoluments of teachers employed in various grades of educational institutions maintained by Government, Local Bodies and Aided Managements were uniform throughout. The Government were requested to enhance the rates of Dearness Allowance to teachers so as to make them equal to the rates paid by the Central Government, and to pass orders enabling all teachers under all agencies to enjoy the benefit of house rent allowance.

The Conference suggested the formation of a separate Rayalaseema University to cater to the needs of the Rayalaseema Districts.

The Conference requested the Government to start a college of Physical Education at Kurnool as well as a Training College for teachers.

Educational Notes

By SRI T. N. S. RAGAVACHARIAR, B.A., Madras 16.

THE NOBEL PRIZES

It is indeed ironic that a fortune made from dynamite should provide the source for the most coveted prizes that are awarded in the field of intellectual endeavour; yet that is the origin of the story of the Nobel prizes.

Alfred Nobel, a Swede by birth, but an international in outlook, spent many years of his life in Russia and France and travelled extensively. An inventor without any scientific training, he discovered dynamite accidentally, and his discovery made him one of the richest munition magnates of the nineteenth century. But he seems genuinely to have hated war, and for a long time clung to the belief that the very destructive nature of sophisticated weapons of warfare such as high explosives was likely to put an end to war. In his will establishing the Nobel prizes, the prize for promotion of peace appears as the last! The first mentioned are those dearest to his heart—physics, chemistry, physiology and medicine; then comes the prize for literature and finally that for peace.

The awards are still governed by the terms of Nobel's will. The prizes for physics and for chemistry are awarded by the Royal Academy of Science, Stockholm, the prize for physiology and medicine by the Royal Karolinska Medico-Surgical Institute at Stockholm, and the prize for literature by the Stockholm Academy. Nominations and suggestions should be made by competent persons. The prizes are distributed with great ceremony every year on the 10th December, the anniversary of Nobel's death, the recipients being awarded besides the monetary prize a diploma and a gold medal. Ever since their inception in 1901, these prizes have been considered the highest distinction a scientist, writer or worker for peace can win. Five years after the death of Nobel when the foundation was finally established in 1900, its funds

amounted to 31 million kroner and to-day they stand much higher. Each prize has ranged in value, between 115,000 and 172,000 kroner, according to the year, making an average of £ 10,000; the value of the prizes epitomizes Nobel's belief that "too little help is no help at all."

The prizes have been awarded with complete disregard for national or political considerations and the recipients have all been men of outstanding merit in their field. This is particularly true of the prizes for science though on a few occasions the choice has been weighted by a somewhat too cautious conservatism. Planck had to wait for 18 years before his quantum theory was rewarded and Einstein got his Nobel prize not for his Relativity theory but for the relatively minor discovery of the law of photo-electric effect which he made years later.

The list of Nobel prizemen in science tells better than anything else could do, the magnificent story of the progress of science in the last 50 years. Between them Western Europe including Germany and Austria and the U. S. A., account for over 90 percent of the awards. Over the whole period of 50 years Germany easily tops the list, followed by England, the U. S. A. and France in that order. It also shows the very marked decline of France which in the past 20 years has gained only one prize. It shows above all the truly amazing rise of the U. S. A. which during the past 20 years has won more awards than any other nation and has taken Germany's place. Britain still holds the second place. India has had only one award for science and one for literature. The last few years have seen the appearance of new-comers in the Nobel list, a Japanese, an Argentinian, a Finn and a Portuguese. This may be an indication that other nations whose contributions have hitherto been insignificant may yet add a growing share to the sum total of scientific knowledge.

—from *Discovery* (Dec. 1950)

Editorial

WITH the advent of popular governments in India, mathematics has become highly unpopular. The Mathematics Education Ministries are without looking at it askance, as tears: unworthy of democratic patronage. In Madras a valiant attempt has been made to thrust it into the background. The frowns of the University alone have saved for it the present inconspicuous place in the curriculum. Algebra and geometry are now there only on sufferance. Similar changes are being made in other provinces. Calcutta, it is reported, is now seriously considering the question of dislodging mathematics from its important position in the scheme of high school studies.

The bias against mathematics may be traced to the rooted dislike of the populace for abstract thinking and hard thinking. But as it is one of the tools of knowledge, something has to be done to preserve it against the onslaughts of politicians and make it popular with the classes newly taking to education. One way of doing it would be to humanise the subject. Writing in the *Teachers' Journal*, Calcutta, Mr. S. K. De argues that the study of the history of mathematics will help to bring out this. A great deal can be done for instance to try to recapture the thrills of great discoveries. To the lover of pure mathematics, passing from arithmetic to algebra is like the discovery of a new continent to the explorer. The average student may be frightened about the abstractions of algebra. But his fear may be reduced and his interest increased, if he is told the story of Bertrand Russell's rapture on being introduced to algebra and geometry at the age of eleven.

"To get a perfect view of the subject", Mr. De writes, "we must analyse its processes and character based on province, aims, civilisation, individuality, world situation, etc. It is very interesting to study how the anthropological and political set-ups

of one country influence the discovery of one item of mathematical knowledge: how one incomplete theory finalises itself in the hands of suitable followers; how treatments of one principle vary with the native conditions and how mathematical principles are applied with profit in the interpretation of different sciences. These are not vulgar information—these make mathematics fuller and lively."

News from an American school suggests another way of humanising the subject. At Essex Fells, New Jersey, the schools are trying to teach children how the things they learn in the class can be applied to every day life. To the class rooms as visiting teachers come grocers, policemen, plumbers and other persons with specialised knowledge. By explaining in detail their work and the problems connected with it, they show the children how education can help them become better citizens. In this way, routine class-room work becomes more interesting. Arithmetic, we are told, suddenly becomes more meaningful when the representative of an electric light company teaches the children how to read meters, and how to estimate the monthly cost of electricity in their own homes.

Lovers of mathematics and teachers of science will do well to consider whether the historical and practical approaches to the subject will not make it palatable to the new order in India.

The Hon'ble Mr. K. Madhava Menon, Education Minister of Madras and Pro-Chancellor of the Madras University, addressed the new graduates of the University at a convocation on the 23rd of August. He preached to them essentially a gospel of selflessness and social service. He stressed also the value of maintaining high standards.

Sri Madhava Menon complained that after a hundred years of modern university education behind us, we had yet to build up a tradition for the wide and honest pursuit of arts and sciences for their own sake. He traced this to the selfishness of the graduates in preferring Government service to research. May we say that as a matter of fact the whole phenomenon is due to a system of education which has little or no reference to the social realities in India? Sri Madhava Menon wondered why a boy who studied, say, chemistry for some years, showing enthusiasm and energy and aptitude of more than average standard, should suddenly cease to have interest in it the day after he took his degree. But suppose he continued to feel interested in the subject. What could he do about it? There were no facilities for research in India for a long time: and even now our equipment for research is shoddy add third-rate. And outside academic study and research, there were no opportunities in the past, and there still are very few opportunities for applying the knowledge learnt in a University course in industry or trade.

Sri Madhava Menon stressed also the need for cultivating a social sense. This is no doubt an essential need. Compared with ancient India, modern India seems singularly lacking in it. Partly this is due to the liberal individualism of the 19th century which has disintegrated our family and social life. We are now in a period of transition, and the social sense finds little scope or encouragement for expression. Our people still have it, but our leaders have not been able to understand it or use it constructively.

Yet another essential need of the moment was stressed by Sri Madhava Menon. He advised the graduates to avoid the shoddy and strive only for the best. When there is such a clamour everywhere for lowering

standards in the name of democracy, it was a courageous assertion of the true principles of culture. As our Chief Justice, Sri P. V. Rajamannar, pointed out recently at the anniversary of Lady Sivaswamy Iyer Girls High School, Mylapore, Madras, there is nothing conflicting between intellectual aristocracy and democracy in politics.

Sri Madhava Menon's address was stimulating and thought-provoking, treating familiar problems in a new light.

Recently the High Court of Madras disposed of an application by a student of a local college, asking for an order directing the Principal to readmit him. The application was dismissed, but there was an important

observation, by way of an *obiter dictum*, in the judgement. It was suggested that the ends of justice would have been met in the case, if the Principal had accepted the apology tendered by the student and the assurance of good behaviour by his father and readmitted him. We have no intention of going into the merits of the case here, but we think it necessary to point out that these judicial observations should not be interpreted to mean that there should be relaxation in discipline. During the last ten years, discipline in our educational institutions has woefully deteriorated. The evil is not confined to colleges. From there it has percolated down to the lowest classes in schools. It is significant that, in spite of this severe handicap, teachers have been discharging their duties patiently and earnestly, and that there have been very few cases of expulsion of students. But the right of an educational institution or a body of teachers to choose who shall be taught by them and who not, is a fundamental right. Formally it is held in reserve, but it is the *ultima ratio* behind discipline.

Why do Students fail?

. OZA, M.A., B.T., Lecturer, T. D. Class, Dharmendrasinhji College, Rajkot.

[A SYNOPSIS OF THE FIRST ESSAY OF THE ESSAY
COMPETITION OF THE S. T. C. CLASS, 1949-50.]

was working as a Supervisor of the essay was guided by me. It was written in Gujarati by Shri N. B. A., S. T. C. I have made this in his kind permission.]

nine 'what knows' rather than

% students pass in a majority examinations in India. As the table shows, about 88% students according to the intellectual level of the students.

	0.2%
Physically handicapped	2 "
Children	10 "
Children	75.6 "
Children	10 "
Children	2 "
Physically bright children	0.2 "
	100

Examine the various causes of student failures and suggest some means to remove this evil. If a great number of children fail in a class, there is something wrong in the teaching of that class. If a great number of children fail in a class, there is something wrong with the system of the school. And if the failures are great in a country, the system is faulty.

and the greatest reason of failure is due to our examination systems. The present system is too narrow "to extravagant dimensions" their influence has been to dominate the whole system of education with the result that instruction is confined within the rigid framework of

prescribed courses, all forms of training which do not admit of being tested by written examinations are liable to be neglected, and both teachers and pupils are tempted to concentrate their energies not so much upon genuine study as upon the questions likely to be set by the examiners. They are neither valid nor complete. They are inadequate and unreliable, capricious and arbitrary. We should modernise the examination system. The objective tests—intelligence tests, tests for emotions, achievements tests—should replace the examination system as far as possible. The number of public examinations should decrease and a permanent accumulative card showing the student's regularity, aptitudes, interests, achievements etc. should move with him throughout his career.

The next great reason is the syllabuses. Our whole educational system is bookish. Education through creative and productive work as shown by Mahatmaji is the only solution for freeing ourselves from this bookish education.

One great reason of the failures of students is the various guides on the various subjects. These guides are second hand teachers. The writing and publication of such guides should be prohibited by law.

Schools in ancient India were never working from 11 a. m. to 5 p. m. These timings are imported from the western countries. They are not convenient to us even geographically. If we revert to the morning hours, it will be helpful to us.

The arrangement of time-tables is also one of the reasons of this huge failure. Can a student, inclined to sleep after dinner, study subjects like Sanskrit or Mathematics

at mid-day? Again, we come to where we were in the last paragraph.

One of the greatest reasons of the failures of students is the slack standard of promotion. Due to the various reasons shown above, the percentage at various stages has come to be very low. To stop the hubbub and agitation of the students and the public, the students are promoted from year to year—whether they are fit or unfit. The psychology of the students is perverted. They very well know that they are to be promoted even if they secure only 10% of the total marks. Slowly and steadily this system should be improved.

The present generation of teachers has also its share in the reasons of this failure of students. The attitude of teachers is also blameworthy. They work simply for pay. But the main reason here is their financial stress. "This is not the place to speak about the emoluments of teachers in secondary schools, but one has to note that the salaries are such as to attract only those who have failed to enter any other profession". The remedy for this is very clear in the above statement of the Radhakrishnan Commission.

There is a criticism against the Wardha scheme of education that there is no place for religious education in it. In reality that scheme contains religious education in its true sense. We can say that our present system of education is such that students do not learn even their duties and the consequences are all clear before us.

Another main reason of the failures is that the teachers and the guardians of the children do not know one another, and consequently work in opposite directions. This should be rectified.

The head-master of a school is the key of the school, and so a useful link in the educational system. To decrease the number of failures, the head-master should be properly selected. If he is an able hand, he will direct the cinema-minded (one of the reasons for failures) young generation to useful channels.

Let us wish that a day may soon come when this huge wastage in the form of failures may be stopped and battalions of young students will be used for the upliftment of society.

The Late Mr. K. R. Subbaroyar

BY SRI S. R. VENKATRAMAN, B. A., B. L., *Servants of India Society, Madras.*

On the 2nd of August, passed away, at the ripe old age of 85, at his residence at Coimbatore, Mr. K. R. Subbaroyar, the doyen among the educationists. Soon after graduation, he was employed for some time as a clerk in the Collectorate of Coimbatore, but very soon after, he joined his own alma mater, the Coimbatore College as a teacher in mathematics at the special invitation of his teacher, Mr. Viadyalingam Pillai, a well known lecturer in mathematics. After Mr. Pillai died, Mr. Subbaroyar handled the F. A. classes in mathematics, and proved himself to be a brilliant and capable teacher of that subject. His stu-

dents who are now scattered in their hundreds all over India, have learnt to love and respect him for his genuine interest in their welfare and as an able and outstanding teacher of brilliant parts and rare personal qualities.

He was a man of great integrity and high principles. He was never known to be late for his classes, and because of his correct conduct, he was able to maintain discipline among his students. When the Coimbatore College was taken over by Government, the services of Mr. Subbaroyar were also retained, and he was appointed as

the Headmaster of the High School attached to the College. He was a quick, clear and brilliant teacher of mathematics, who used to work sums on the blackboard with both hands, one hand writing the first step and the other writing the second step as the first step was being written. This device he adopted to make his boys alert and attentive. He was for some time an active member of the Indian Mathematical Association founded by the late Mr. Ramaswamy Iyer.

He was a keen co-operator having been intimately connected with the Coimbatore District Urban Bank and the Urban Stores from their very inception and having been for

some years an active office-bearer of both. As Secretary of the Veeraswamy Mudaliar's Elementary School, at Coimbatore, he was responsible for its efficient running and its present financial position. He was connected with it for well over half a century: and I remember how he used to visit the School religiously every Saturday and go round the classes, examining students and often-times taking classes himself. This made the teachers on the staff discharge their duties well and satisfactorily. Later in life, he took to the study of Sanskrit and became proficient in it to enable him to read our scriptures.

Let us have more teachers of his type and may his soul rest in peace.

News & Notes

GUILDS IN CONFERENCE

A Conference of Presidents and Secretaries of District Teachers' Guilds held under the auspices of the South India Teachers' Union on 11-8-51 requested the Government to raise the scales of pay of teachers. Mr. Natarajan presided.

Mr. T. P. Srinivasavaradhan said the scales of pay prescribed in 1947 were inadequate at present.

The dearth of teachers, he said, could be traced not only 'to the' rapid increase in the number of schools, but also to the unattractive scales of pay.

Mr. Natarajan said that the Teachers' Union had invited the Government's attention to the dissatisfaction among teachers. There was a steady deterioration in the quality of men drawn into the teachers' training colleges and schools.

The Conference passed a resolution requesting Government to sanction the following scales of pay:

COLLEGES: Principal Rs. 600—25—800; Professors Rs. 300—20—500; Lecturers Rs. 200—10—350; Demonstrators

Rs. 100—10—200; plus Rs. 20 allowance for Honours degree holders.

HIGH SCHOOLS: Headmasters Rs. 250—15—400; Grade A: B.T., B.Ed., or L.T., and specialist teachers with qualifications prescribed for teaching in High Schools, Rs. 100—10—300; Grade B: Secondary Grade trained teachers and others with qualifications prescribed for teaching Forms I to III in secondary schools or Standards VI to VIII in higher elementary Schools, Rs. 60—5—150; (an allowance of Rs. 10 to academic qualification, such as Intermediate passed candidates); Grade C: Higher trained teachers and others qualified to teach classes I to V in elementary schools, Rs. 50—2—90. The minimum basic pay of a teacher should be Rs. 50.

The Conference demanded that teachers' contribution to the Provident Fund should be raised to As. 2½ in the Rupee, and that the managements of schools and the Government should contribute Anna 1 and 3 pies in the Rupee.

The Conference wanted every teacher to be compelled to insure his or her life, the Provident Fund contribution to be used to pay the premia.

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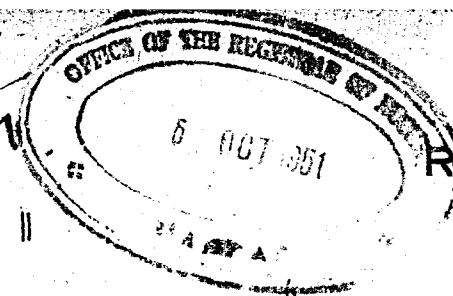
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My Pre-view of India's Library Personality

BY DR. S. R. RANGANATHAN, M. A., D.Litt., L. T., F.L.A., President, Indian Library Association, and Professor of Library Science, University of Delhi, Delhi.

I am very glad to hear that the Bansberia Public Library is celebrating its Diamond Jubilee this year. It is a matter of personal amusement that this library is one year senior to me. It is also a matter of profound satisfaction that the library, in which the thought of my late friend, Munindra Deb Roy Mahasaya, was so deeply centered, has been growing from strength to strength and that his junior contemporaries have maintained, and perhaps even improved upon, the tradition left behind by the Mahasaya.

Your invitation brought back to my mind the Library-march which the Mahasaya arranged during my first visit to Calcutta on our way back from the First All Asia Educational Conference held at Benares in December 1929, in which we had a fairly active Library Service Section. This library-march had Calcutta and Bansberia as its end points. After visiting each link in the chain of libraries connecting these two places, we arrived at Bansberia, where the people of the locality received us with an enthusiasm and kindness which had produced a lasting impression in my mind. I remember my being taken round the Palace of the Bansberia Raj. I remember the tender coconuts. I also remember the glow in the eyes of the Mahasaya as he was describing to me the history of the Bansberia Raj and of the Bansberia Public Library of which he was rightly proud.

Another citizen of Bansberia, who has been closely associated with the Mahasaya in developing the Bansberia Public Library and bringing it up to its present stature and usefulness, is fortunately still with us. Shri T. C. Dutta, though an engineer by profession, is a librarian in spirit. I think he has beat most of the men making their living in the library profession in India, in his unfailing attendance at all library conferences, in his intensive tour of the important libraries of India, and in the amount of thought, time and energy he has devoted to the stimulation of library service in general and the development of the Bengal Library Association in particular.

It is too early to paint the history of the modern library movement in India in an unbiased perspective. For, the library movement is only less than half a century old, although individual libraries may be celebrating centenaries and diamond jubilees. The Mahasaya seems to have clearly grasped the distinction between the provision of isolated libraries here and there and the development of a library movement. He had taken part in both these forms of library work in Bengal. The celebration of the Diamond Jubilee of the Bansberia Public Library is perhaps a reminder of his earliest interest in library activity of the first kind. The volumes of the proceedings of the legislature of Bengal bear ample evidence of his keen interest in library activity of the second kind. Some of his

co-legislators, and particularly the foreign ones who sat in the government bench, could not give due weight to the Mahasaya's persistence in upholding the demands of library movement, either because they had left their own country before they could have had concrete experience of the development of the library movement therein, or because they were unconsciously apprehensive of the possible ultimate result of the success of the library movement on the political and economic status of India.

The library movement is the establishment of a co-ordinated system of libraries within easy reach of every citizen, whether living in crowded cities or in sparsely inhabited rural areas, so as to provide facilities for the perpetual self-education of one and all. It has been estimated by me that we should have a Branch Library or a Travelling Library for every 25,000 people, according as they live in towns or villages. Our 5,72,923 hamlets and 79,235 villages will require for their library service 2,68,361 Delivery Stations served by 13,107 Travelling Libraries. The smaller towns with less than 50,000 people will have to be served by 4,053 Branch Libraries. These will constitute our rural library system. Convenience of service and co-ordination with most of the other services and activities of rural India will ask for the rural library system of the country as a whole to be made up of 321 co-ordinated district rural library systems. Each of these will have to be fed from a Rural Central Library of its own.

About 2,32,2100 of our people live in 154 cities—defining a city as a locality whose population exceeds 50,000. Each of the cities will require a City Central Library and the city library system of the country as a whole will require 790 Branch Libraries.

The Public Libraries, urban or rural, the Academic Libraries, the Business Libraries and every other kind of libraries in each constituent State should be tied up with a State Central Library, for co-ordination of service, centralisation of impersonal pre-natal technical treatment of books, and

helping the library finance go the longest way in the return it gives to society. We may require perhaps 24 such State Central Libraries. All the State Central Libraries should in their turn be tied up with the National Central Library to be established at Delhi as a stay-by central station for the storage and distribution of thought-energy to the people of India through the library grid described above.

To man this network of closely co-ordinated libraries, a vast technical staff of a lakh and twenty thousand persons will be necessary. To make people accept their service, they should be given the same status and salary as the technical manpower in other services like Engineering, Agriculture, Medicine, Education and Administration. It should also be insisted that they should have the necessary general and technical qualifications.

This would eventually imply recruitment of 4,000 trained librarians every year. This in its turn will require a co-ordinated system of training centres for library personnel, giving three months' courses for those in the lowest rung of the library cadre, one year's courses after a primary University degree for the majority of those employed in rural and urban central libraries, and two years' Master's Degree courses for those who should be heads of large library systems, culminating in an intensive research course in some branch of library science, leading to a Doctorate in Library Science for a small team of perhaps 60 persons who will have to be the leaders of the profession—the advance-guard who will carry the torch of research unremittingly and keep on sharpening the technique of library service so that it can reach easily and pleasurably to the very last man in the country.

It is this which will constitute the library movement. It means conceiving a library development plan spread over at least thirty years and implementing it through the stages laid in the plan, until the library movement puts on full steam in 1980 or so and attains a steady state.

The library movement in this sense cannot be promoted except through legislation. The Library Acts of the several States and of the Central Government should provide for the necessary finance. It is too late in the latter half of the twentieth century to turn our eyes to the good luck that fell to the share of Great Britain or the United States in the last century in the development of their own library movement. Modern tendencies in tax-pattern and distribution of wealth and the phenomenal extension of the functions of the State make accumulation of wealth in private hands almost impossible. Carnegies and Rockefellers will probably be no longer possible even in the countries which developed a few centuries ago and are now too conservative to change over to the modern economic set-up. Dependence on philanthropy of that kind for any public service—not merely for library service—is a fatal anachronism in a newly developing country like India.

A Library Act, which does not prescribe that the pace of library development should be set by the pace at which trained library personnel can be created in quality sufficient to be pioneers capable of raising above narrow selfish advancement and personal profit, and in quantity sufficient to allow of rejection of mere money-grubs, devoid of the missionary zeal so essential in pioneers—will do more harm to the cause than good. This is the sad lesson learnt by our first experience in library legislation.

Let us hope and pray that the statesmen and the planners at the head of affairs in our renaissance India will look far ahead,

will not be blinded by the passing problems which are magnified beyond measure by the illusion caused by perspective, will not be too obtuse to see through the machinations of wily adventurers and will not be actuated by political motives to satisfy their own personal urges for power, however detrimental to the country's ultimate good.

It is true that two hundred years of political dependence and exploitation by foreigners have incapacitated most of the present generation of adults from thinking in terms of the country, taking a long-range view to realise that words are not action, abstaining from dissipation in idleness and gossip and to exercise the will ever so necessary to achieve anything. But my hope is that the renaissance, which has been ushered in by thirty years of continuous selfless labour by that radiant personality whom we have now begun to call the Father of the Nation, is not going to fizzle out, but that it is going to step up the will-power, the morale, the public spirit, the capacity for sustained work, and the determination to achieve what is essential to the nation's good at least in the coming generation—the generation that is now in colleges and schools—and thereby make India blossom forth as one of the finest flowers in the world. If this hope of mine is to be realised, the first step to be taken is the building of the edifice of universal education whose foundation should be universal elementary education and whose superstructure should be universal library service through a nationwide library-grid. When this hope of mine is fulfilled, I have every belief that the library personality of India will be fully developed and be second to none in the world.

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THE EDUCATIONAL REVIEW.

Novel Teaching Methods In Australian Infants' School

BY MARJORIE THOMSON

NEW trends in education in Australia are reflected in a modern infants' training school at North Sydney, a harbourside suburb of Sydney, New South Wales.

This school, which is breaking new ground in many directions, has its own shopping centre, complete in almost every detail, with its fruit and vegetable shops, grocery store, sweets stall and haberdashery. The shops, with their attractive coloured awnings, "sell" merchandise made by the children themselves.

The school has been given the shopping centre so that a new approach can be made to the learning of arithmetic. The use of flannelgrams (picture sums), games of bobs and fishing, assist in removing much of the drudgery hitherto experienced by the young child in learning this complex subject.

Another feature of the school is the high degree of liaison and co-operation between parents and teachers. The tuck-shop, where nutritious Oslo lunches are prepared, is staffed by members of the Mothers' Club on a roster system.

The school is directed by Miss Dorothy Bull, the head-mistress, and administered by the New South Wales Government Education Department.

There the little adventurer discovers a fabulous new world where he finds letters and figures, works with jig-saws or can draw and paint word symbols to his heart's content. And the object, a simple practical introduction to spatial knowledge—ideas of shape, size and direction.

The North Sydney Infants' School, situated in a thickly populated area on the northern side of Sydney Harbour, was built in 1930, but has been modernised so that today it possesses up-to-date school-rooms and all the latest teaching aids.

The attractive school buildings are surrounded by tree-lined playgrounds, beautiful gardens and well-kept grounds. Brightly painted seats are set under the shady trees, and there is a sun terrace complete with small tables and colourful striped umbrellas, where each class spends an hour a day working in the sunshine.

Inside the school there are light, small tables and chairs specially built to prevent fatigue. The light dual desks and separate chairs have been made in five sizes to aid growing children's correct posture. Having their own small chairs gives the youngsters a feeling of individuality, and they can move them around without effort and easily stack them to make space for games.

All the big windows in the sunny classrooms have fresh muslin curtains, the small side tables are covered with gaily coloured cloths; pictures and illustrated verses adorn the walls, while flowers spill their bright colours from wall brackets and every corner.

For 9d a day the children receive neatly-packed individual lunch packets containing three large slices of buttered wholemeal bread spread with cheese, tomato, marmite, dates, egg or pineapple and a piece of fruit, perhaps a pear, an apple or an orange, depending on the season.

Members of the Mother's Club are as thrilled about the school as are the children. They have provided a radio and sound system, so that the lucky youngsters have music for their games or eurythmics, listen to planned music and special children's sessions broadcast by the Australian Broadcasting Commission, a semi-governmental authority similar to the British Broadcasting Corporation.

A staff of 14 teachers and five trainees teaches the 500 children, whose ages range from five to eight years. There are four

kindergarten classes for the five-year-olds, divided into easily manageable groups.

The approach to that old bogey, arithmetic, is novel and fascinating. There are flannelgrams, games of bobs, fishing and buying and selling, all directed towards practical and individual tuition. Flannelgrams are picture sums which teach the children to count with objects. For instance, the figure four is picked out of a box, and the youngster selects perhaps a set of flower-pots, bunny rabbits or stars, and one by one pins them on the flannelgraph until there are four.

Similarly with the fishing game. The children fish with magnetised rods and land the metal fish, which are pierced with holes, ranging from one to ten. They count the holes in each catch and quickly team up the number with the numeral-marked placards.

The older children, of six and seven, have their own shops. There, a seven-year-old works out in practical fashion a liquid measure problem. "How many half-pints are there in two quarts?" She goes to the milk-bar to find out, and discovers that four half-pints fill two one-pint bottles. At the grocer's, the goods are weighed with real weights on balance scales. All goods are wrapped and invoiced by the children.

The first hour of the school day is the developmental period. During this time, the kiddies do limbering-up and poetry-of-motion exercises, dance and join in part-singing. This is followed by a free period. After the mid-morning play break, when free milk is distributed, there is another directive period, followed by a free period, and so on during the day.

The programme is designed so that every directive period is followed by a free period to allow the children to assimilate and put into practice what they have learned.

In the directive period, the first-year tots fill in numerals or the letters of the alphabet, colour word symbols such as ripe red apples, bright flowers, gambolling animals or birds, compare or co-relate numbers or symbols with marked graphs. The object is to familiarise them with the outlines of letters and figures for future learning of the three R's. To this end all work is done from left to right, so that later on the children will automatically read or write from the left-hand side of a page.

A half-pint of milk is distributed free of charge by the New South Wales State Government to 160,000 children under 13 years attending public schools in the State. This project, which began in 1941, costs the State Government Rs. 19,00,000 a year. By the end of 1951, it is anticipated that all children under 13 years of age, whether attending State public schools, private schools, nurseries, kindergartens or creches, will receive a half-pint of milk a day free of cost.

This year the New South Wales State Government budgeted Rs. 15,00,00,000 for education, almost a third of the entire budget and more than half of the State revenue from taxation. The Minister for Education, Mr. R. J. Heffron, is pushing ahead with a far-sighted and ambitious programme of school building in the ever-growing metropolitan and country areas of New South Wales.

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THE EDUCATIONAL REVIEW

Reorganizing Primary Education—I. Basic Principles

By AUSTIN A. D'SOUZA, M. A., B. T., Dip Ed. (Lond.), A. I. E. (Lond), *Nainital*.

THE right to an education suited to his age, ability and aptitudes is the birth-right of every child in the world and the basis of true democracy. Most progressive countries have realized this fundamental truth, and provide free, compulsory education for all their young citizens from about the age of 5 or 6 to 14 or 16. With her new constitution, India moves into line with other educationally advanced countries in pledging herself to provide, as early as possible, for her millions of children free, universal, compulsory schooling between the ages of 5 and 14. The gigantic experiment of ninety million children attending school for the first time is about to begin, and indeed has begun in many Indian States which have made, more or less rapid progress in their ideal to provide a school place for every child in the area under their jurisdiction. The job has begun; it is essential that it is carried through on the right lines if it is to yield most fruit. India is a poor country, hence she must use her limited resources to the fullest possible advantage to ensure that the few years education she has guaranteed to all her children are of the very best quality available. In order to be so, it must be carefully and wisely planned, and founded on the latest and most reliable findings of educationists and psychologists who have not only exploded many old myths and traditions, but are giving a clear lead to educational reformers and planners all over the world.

Time was when, in most countries, children entered school at 5 or 6 in the "Babies Class" or kindergarten and, barring accidents, passed out 8 or 10 years later from Class 10. Largely under the influence of Continental educators like Froebel, Hebart and Montessori, some attempt was made in the kindergarten to cater for their special needs, but once they left its happy portals they had perforce to put away childish things

and get down in grim earnest to the dreary task of mastering the 3 R's, and assimilating larger and larger doses of facts, till they passed out of school 10 years later with bursting portmanteaus of facts, proudly clutching a School Leaving Certificate of some sort or another. Having framed this, the child and the parents felt he had "completed" his education, which was only too true, for he was generally incapable of being educated any further! Such "all age" schools are still all too common a feature of the educational scene in India.

When little was known about children who were treated as "little adults", and when compulsory schooling only extended till 12 or 13, such schools were probably the best in the circumstances and did their work as well as could be expected. They, however, suffered, and suffer, from several defects which have been thrown into prominence by the findings of modern psychology. These findings have established, beyond doubt, the fact that the child of 5 differs from the child of 9 or 10, and from the adolescent of 12 or 14, and that each of these ages has its own peculiar needs, which a good school must make provision for.

The physical and psychological development of the child is a slow and continuous process of maturation and development from the cradle to the grave, and to quote Sri Cyril Burt, "in the emotional as in the intellectual growth of children, there are no sudden leaps and abrupt transitions." But in this long thread of development, psychological research has differentiated certain fairly well marked stages—the nursery stage from 2-5, infancy from 5-7, childhood from 7-11, and adolescence from 11 onwards. The average All-Age School composed of a Primary Department, a Middle School and a Senior Department, tends to neglect the special needs of one or the other of these stages, or of all three.

The Infants and Juniors are generally the worst sufferers, for the Certificate Examination at the end of the senior stage looms large, and infant and junior stages tend to become forcing houses where the younger children are prematurely overdrilled and overdisciplined to prepare them for the all-important passing-out examination. Adolescents also tend to be neglected because their needs conflict to some extent with those of the younger children and mutual concessions have to be made. In short, the all age school, trying to be "three schools in one," succeeds in being a Jack-of-all-trades and master of none.

To cure this defect and to enable the primary school child at every stage of his development to obtain an education suited to his age, abilities and aptitudes, a reorganization of the educational system is imperative. "There is a tide which begins to rise in the veins of youth about the age of 11—the tide of adolescence," stated the famous Hadow Report in England which first recommended a "clean-cut" at the age of 11, and a separation of the Primary School from the Secondary School. All children, stated the report, should be automatically transferred to one of many types of Secondary Schools, planned specifically to meet the needs of adolescents. This partition has been largely carried out in many countries, and both the primary and secondary schools have benefitted immensely. The Primary School, freed from the shackles of the Certificate Examination, has been able to regard itself as more than a mere 'preparatory stage' for the Secondary School, and has set about shaping itself to fit the needs and interests of the Primary School child, and to developing a character and individuality of its own. School organization, curricula and methods have been revised and modified in the light of its new freedom and objectives, and new life has been injected into the dreary, monotonous round of the old Primary Department. The Primary School child is now recognized to be an individual in his own right, and a good Primary School aims to enable him to live a full and satisfying life, and attain the completest development possible for his age, ability and aptitudes.

The Primary Range generally stretches from 5 to 11 and is divided into two broad sub-stages—the Infant Stage from 5 to 7 and the Junior Stage from 7 to 11. There is no sharp division between these stages, nor must they be regarded as clear cut and distinct. There is much overlapping, and continuity and unity of spirit and atmosphere, curricula and methods are essential between them. But psychologists have pointed out marked differences between the 5-7 age group and the 7-11 age group, and it is generally considered advisable that the special needs, interests and impulses of infants and juniors should be kept clearly in view and met, either through separate Infant and Junior Schools or in the one Primary School, with two connected but distinct departments—an Infant Department and a Junior Department. The enthusiasm and practical results of advocates of the Nursery School have recently added a third sub-stage to the Primary Range of children of the 2-5 age group. Nursery School education, first confined to poor debilitated and "deprived" children, is now recognized as a necessary and integral part of the education of all children, and the Nursery School (its advocates are opposed to the idea of a Nursery Department) for the two-to-fives or the Nursery-Infant School for the two-to-sevens is now generally admitted to be an essential part of the education of all primary school children.

Primary Education, then, is a definite phase in a child's life with its own distinctive educational requirements and problems, and not a mere preparatory stage for the Senior or Secondary School. The Primary School child has his own unique needs and interests, which must not be subordinated to the needs and requirements of his later schooling and educational development. To meet these needs, the Primary School must have its own aims and objectives; and in the light of these it must choose its own curricula, develop its own methods, perfect its own technique and establish its own standards and canons of excellence. The objectives of a modern Primary School have been admirably summed up by H. G. Stead in his standard work, *Modern School Organi-*

zation: "The function of the Primary School (which is here taken to include the Nursery, Infant and Junior Schools) is to safeguard the physical development of the growing child, to stimulate and exercise his senses, to equip him with the fundamental techniques he will need in his later years, to provide such a field of activity for him, physical and mental, that he will come to the next stage of education so equipped, physically, mentally and in will power that he will be able to profit from it. This is not to say that the work of the Primary School is merely preparatory, for it is only in so far as the child lives completely during his primary school years that he will really be prepared for the Secondary School ones."

To achieve these aims, a good primary School must not merely be a place of compulsory instruction, but a community of young and old engaged in learning, individually and in cooperation, "at once a physical environment, a training ground of the mind, and a spiritual society."

A clear recognition of, and deep conviction about, this special function of the Primary School, and of the vital importance of the primary stage in the lifelong process of education, is fundamental to the future progress of primary education. "The most dangerous years are between birth and the age of ten," states Gesell, the great American child psychologist; children during these ages have their own peculiar physical and psychological needs and purposes, and the school or schools they attend during this period must be specially designed to satisfy these needs and fulfil these purposes. All reorganization of Primary Education, therefore, must proceed with this end in view—to enable it to meet most effectively and economically the special needs and interests of the primary school child at the various stages of his development. These stages are in our opinion, three—which we shall deal with in subsequent articles—the Nursery Stage from 2-5, the Infant Stage from 5-7, and the Junior Stage from 7-11. To meet the special needs of these stages, the writer personally favours separate and distinct Nursery School

for the age group 2-5, followed by a Primary School divided into two distinct but interconnected parts, an Infant School and a Junior School. While he, in keeping with the best child psychologists, differentiates separate stages in the education of the Primary School child, he does not for a moment advocate that these stages be kept in watertight compartments, or that they function in complete isolation. Such a plan would go to the other extreme from the "three in one", all-age school, and the remedy would be worse than the disease it sets out to cure. Education is a gradual and imperceptible progress from one "stage" to another, a continuous and uninterrupted process of development; the whole must never be lost sight of, in enthusiasm for the parts; there must be unity and continuity in aim, curricula and methods, and above all, one spirit and atmosphere pervading the various "stages" of Primary Education. Primary Education must, in short, be considered as a unity in diversity, transition from one stage to the next must be gradual, and the child must pass naturally and with the minimum of psychological upheaval from one to the other.

The details of reorganization required in the content and methods of education at the various stages of primary education are dealt with in the following articles. A few guiding principles may be indicated here which should underlie the whole process of change and re-shaping. The aim of Primary Education is not merely "mental discipline", but the development of the all-round character and personality of the child and the satisfaction of his immediate needs and interests. Hence, the curriculum must be determined by the sum of the needs and possibilities of the children attending school, and it should consist, to quote the Spens Report, "of activity and experience and not only of facts to be learnt and knowledge to be acquired". The narrow confine of the 3 R's must be broadened and humanized by practical and aesthetic activities and experiences, and the subjects themselves "should not be treated as independent entities, but as divisions within the field of knowledge whose boundaries move, and

should move, backwards and forwards." Methods must be made less formal and rigid; they should, as far as possible, begin from the experience, curiosity and awakening powers of the child, and give plenty of scope for "learning by doing" through projects, centres of interest and other 'activity methods.' Class teaching has a place in the Primary School, but it must be supplemented by more informal methods and by individual and group learning. And finally a more commonsense and rational approach should be made to the vexed question of Discipline, which in the Primary School should be based as much on the self-discipline of work and play, freely and joyously entered upon, as on social approval or punishments, though the personality of the teacher will continue to remain an important factor in the maintenance of a healthy tone and atmosphere in the class, and in the school as a whole. This new type of Primary Education demands a new type of teacher.

The Primary School is the base of the educational system, and the base must be secure, if the superstructure is to stand against the whips and scorns of time. To quote Prof. Saiyadain in his article on "Primary Education" in the Oxford University Press pamphlet on the Educational System in India: "The future of education cannot be better than its depressing past, unless we reconstruct the curriculum, methods and the whole atmosphere of the Primary School on which rests the entire educational superstructure. If the world of this school lacks life, reality, and the touch of imagination, nothing can guarantee the health of the educational system as a whole."

In the articles that follow, we shall attempt to lay down the main lines of organization that, we feel, should be adhered to, if the Primary School is to be a sound basis for any progressive and healthy Educational System.

How to improve the present system of Examinations

BY SRI R. S. GUPTA B. A., Ll. B. (Allahabad) Dip. Ed. (Bristol)
Govt. Intermediate College, Mussorie, (U. P.)

THE subject of examinations has always attracted the attention of educationists both in India and abroad. Critics of examinations have been constantly crying that all types of examinations should be abolished, as they are an enemy of the pupil, an obstacle to education and a presumptuous attempt to gauge the depths of ignorance and so on.

Should examinations be then abolished? An examination serves two purposes. One is to induce the student to study the subject concerned. The other is to test his attainments in that subject. The former is perhaps important. For months before it takes place, the examination acts as probably the most powerful incentive to students to work. Without the prospect of such a test, very few would ever become sufficiently

interested in their work to concentrate upon it. A point may arise here. Should an examination be organised on a voluntary basis, or should it be made compulsory for all pupils eligible under the conditions prescribed? In a voluntary test, there is no guarantee that all the ablest children of the age group will sit. The selection will depend largely on the interests and desires of the parents and on many other considerations not relevant to the fitness of the candidates. While it is true that in general a compulsory examination involves more labour, the facts show that the widening of the field in such an examination is real and results in the actual acceptance of education by many fit candidates who would not voluntarily have competed. Thus compulsory examinations appear to be the only

practical means of co-ordinating school education.

Yet I have no hesitation in saying that the traditional type of examination in India is a failure in both its purposes. It neither stimulates the students ahead of time to learn their subject well, to think, to criticise and to reflect; nor does it indicate at all adequately by its results the real achievements of the students. That examinations are not free from these and other recognisable defects, none would dispute, yet in the absence of a suitable alternative, the defects call for a remedy. The results of investigation from time to time have been re-assuring and substantial progress has been made in improving many of the examinations. That the problem has, from time to time, received the unremitting attention of the various Directors of Education and other examining bodies in the Uttar Pradesh, when account is taken of the essential difficulty of the task with which they were confronted and its comparative novelty, of the size of examinations and the rapidity with which they grew popular, is clearly evident from the measure of success which has already been achieved. Thus, while a good deal has been achieved in recent years, still there is much to be done in one direction or another, if we are to discriminate with a greater degree of accuracy between the fit and the less fit and if the chances of error and consequent injustice to individuals are to be reduced to a minimum. Hence the abolition of examinations is out of question, though their present defects need a careful study again.

As Sir Michael Sadler puts it: "We cannot abolish examinations; we can only amend them." The English Committee of Examinations in its report to the last International Conference, rightly pointed out, "Examinations as a test of efficiency are necessary. They are the only proofs of the progress of pupils." While the examination is a necessary evil, the main purpose of this article is to make suggestions for its improvement.

What is the position of written tests and home examinations in our schools and

colleges? In fact, in many institutions, no test examination is held, and in several it is a sham thing. The present written test examination appears to bear a family resemblance to the court procedure adopted by the Byzantine Emperors who, when they swung themselves into a seat in the air, had robust lions roaring at their sides to impress the barbarians who were received in audience. A written test was considered a part of progressive thought at one time when the oral examination was denounced as an arbitrary method which did more harm than good. But in modern times it is often stated as an objection that the system of written tests lays undue emphasis on memory and encourages students to memorise facts. Then in written examinations, class promotions are given and boys sent up for public examinations conducted by universities, Boards or other Examining Bodies without any testing of their fitness—every student who can pay his fees is sent up for examinations. The worst offenders in this matter are some large institutions with unmanageable roll-strength and a very easily manageable conscience. They do not weed out the unfit before sending the candidates for public examinations. Nothing can be more harmful to the true interests of our boys than this policy. It keeps the student in a fool's paradise year after year and leaves him to be rudely awakened, when it is too late, by the axe of the University examinations. It is so convenient: all the anger of the disappointed student or his father is directed against the Examining Body, while the mercenary school or college continues to pile up fees from the deluded students as abundantly as before.

If a boy is informed of his special defect very early in his school course, he can try to improve himself by doing extra work in that subject or book, and his people can keep a special watch on him by periodically noting his progress. Reform is easy at the initial stage before the boy's particular defect has been hardened into an incurable condition by years of neglect. But if, on the other hand, he is promoted to a higher class as a matter of course, the opportunity

of early reform is lost and the incentive to greater exertion is never kindled. Youth has a wonderful capacity for expansion and self-reform, if only we can make an appeal to it at the proper time and in the proper way and guide its efforts. Many schools and colleges do their best to kill this capacity, because they keep the boys in the dark about their own merits and demerits and never rouse them to superior exertions on a definite line under the teacher's eyes.

Is educational improvement possible, if class-exercises are not made a reality? What is the alternative to written tests? Written tests generally held in a subject once a month, should be entirely replaced by daily written work done by boys themselves both in and outside their class-room with the help of their teachers (who may only act as their guides) and then properly corrected by the teachers concerned and individual mistakes explained thoroughly to each boy and common mistakes discussed in the class-room. To foster a spirit of competition and efficiency, every boy's work should be judged and marked according to merit and ability, and the record of each boy's progress must be maintained and kept safely. Such a type of written work will afford an opportunity to judge exact knowledge, ordered presentation, precision of expression and, most important of all, the process of reasoning, all of which to my mind will go to the very root of mental development which is or which should be the object of education.

While I was in Soviet Russia in 1928, I learnt that the Soviet Government had abolished the written tests and replaced them by terminal reports and what may be called the cumulative valuation of the student's work. But they also had abolished the utilisation of the system of marks for estimating the knowledge and conduct of the pupils. I should like to give expression here to my firm belief that while written monthly tests may be announced, the written examination with quantitative marking remains, generally speaking, the only satisfactory method by which the knowledge, mental capacity and general

ability of a student can be tested. Of course, in experimental and other special schools, new systems and methods may be tried out, but no national system of education can be based on any but the written work, closed with a written examination at some stage or other. I might add that, in spite of the thunders of the early manifestoes against written tests and written examinations, our Soviet friends after 18 years of educational experience, came back even more rigorously to the old practice. The Decree on Academic Reform issued by the Soviet Government on the 4th September, 1935, contains the following pregnant sentence: "In the personal record there will be entered for the entire duration of his studies, the marks of the pupil for every quarter." But I may suggest the percentage of the total marks of a pupil for his daily written work in each subject done throughout the entire duration of his studies in any particular class. In this way the written work will be a deciding factor only of the general progress achieved, though, no doubt it will not serve the purpose of a standard or method of comparison.

Now with regard to question-papers, generally speaking, they appear to be of satisfactory length and well-arranged. But recently it has become a tendency that out of a given number of questions, the candidate is free to attempt any question, provided he makes up the prescribed total. All the questions carry equal marks in such a paper. The candidates here can afford to omit to prepare parts of the course or syllabus without great risk. Another form of choice is when any independent question in the paper may be offered as an option or a question, asking the candidate to write short notes on a specified number of topics, out of the many given. This form of choice is not harmful to a candidate for he dare not leave any part of the syllabus unprepared. In the third case of choice, while all other questions are optional, one question which often carries more marks than any other, is generally made compulsory. The obligatory question is introduced with the idea of compelling students to study that part or aspect of the course upon which the

question is framed. There is yet another case, wherein a number of independent but related topics or branches of study are prescribed for a paper and questions are usually set sectionwise. There are one or two or even more sections in the same paper. The candidate has to attempt some questions from each section. Within each section, he is generally free to select questions of his liking. This sectional method of offering choice is not different in principle from the method of unrestricted choice described in the beginning. In this case, instead of one paper, there are really two or more papers compressed into one. The total number of questions is reduced proportionately. These four forms are generally most popular, but many variations are imaginable and may be actually in use at some place or other.

Variation in the method and extent of choice given to students should not be dismissed at the whim of the examiners. For the element of choice is intimately connected with the standard of the examination. In examinations wherein the syllabus consists of a prescribed text-book, which must be known to all students and outside which the examiners may not go in selecting questions, a choice of questions will reduce the standard of the test. In examinations where all the students are taught under the same conditions, a choice is not at all necessary. If granted, it will leave students free to neglect parts of the subject and to follow their own bent. But when the syllabus of a subject is such that it leaves latitude for different teachers to treat the subject in quite different ways, a choice of questions is most necessary, unless the examination is to be unfair to certain institutions or students.

A choice of subjects within an examination, as in the High School Examination, serves the same purpose as a choice of questions within a subject. It gives schools or candidates freedom to follow different courses within a given general scheme such as the Group System. This kind of freedom of choice likewise is not granted without a corresponding loss in the definiteness of

the standard. For example, there are great difficulties in comparing the standard of work in the scientific group when Science or General Science is taken up by distinct students.

Thus, any form of choice, while having the advantage of not penalising those candidates who happen to have omitted from their course of study some particular portions, has the disadvantage that school children in Junior and Higher Secondary Schools, have often very little power of selecting the questions most suitable to them. In consequence, an element of choice enters in the results. Again, no choice is necessary where an examination is held on the work covered by a teacher or where the syllabus is a defined one, whether the questions are set by the candidates' own teacher or by an outside examiner. A choice is essential only, where the syllabus is not clearly defined or when pupils from several classes, such as Intermediate-passed graduates, postgraduates or M. A. passed candidates are taking the same examination or even to some extent when a syllabus happens to be stated in writing in some detail. The present divergent practices in the form and extent of choice offered to candidates has had a most detrimental effect on educational standards and policies. Educational authorities in general and moderators in particular are requested to improve the chaotic and baneful situation in regard to the element of choice in examination papers.

Again, the practice of allocating the number of marks to each question in a paper tends to mislead children, since the weakest are likely to select the highest-marked questions. Moreover, it is often found during the marking of papers that it would be desirable to change the allocation of marks originally suggested, and it is obviously improper to do so when the allocation has been stated on the paper.

Standards seem to vary much with each examiner. Some are strict, while others are lenient. Many examiners seem to be incapable of subordinating their personal

opinions to the vital need of securing uniformity. But in current practice a chief examiner's functions are co-ordination and standardisation of marking: that is, he should settle in consultation with his colleagues the details of the marking and the penalties for errors and later satisfy himself that his colleagues have maintained the standards laid down. But the scheme of marking is often drawn up before any examination answer-books have been read. This is unfortunate in two ways: first, there is great difficulty of predicting exactly what candidates will do about a given question or paper; and secondly, if this difficulty be overcome, there is always need for guidance on points which could not have been foreseen, as for example, an unexpected use of decimals or a special form of analysis and parsing which may be followed in a particular school. If the panel meets after each member has read and examined, say, fifty answer-books, an adequate list of instructions can be drawn up as a result of the discussion.

Psychologists and educationists have freely admitted that the evaluation of answers is far too much a matter of subjective estimate which may differ from person to person. Professor F. Y. Edgeworth, many years ago, found that the marks allotted independently by twenty-eight different examiners to a piece of Latin

prose varied from 45% to 100%. Messrs. Starch and Elliot in the U. S. A., and Langier and Weinberg in France, have found similar results. But one of the precautions against an involuntary departure from standard is to insist on the scoring of mistakes and the entry of such details on the answer-books as will show clearly how the total marks given to the question has been made up. This is in any case obviously necessary in areas where the candidates have choice of schools and books, for conditions as between school and school must be uniform. Such an arrangement, of course, implies central marking and control.

But as regards the vagaries of examiners, firstly as Professor McDougall suggests, an examination manual should be prepared for the guidance of examiners. The manual should set forth the points by which answers may be evaluated. It would make the examiner explicitly aware of the distinguishable qualities of a written paper that make for merit or high marks. Secondly, every answer-book, as in France and Italy, must be examined by at least two examiners, and cases of marked divergence should be decided by the Head Examiner. Thirdly, greatest importance must be placed on class-records and examinations within the school.

(To be Continued)

XXVI All India Educational Conference

SRI M. S. KOTISWARAN, *Secretary A. I. F. E. A.*, writes:

THE XXVI All India Educational Conference under the auspices of All India Federation of Educational Associations will be held at Bombay from 23rd to 26th October 1951 under the distinguished presidency of Acharya Narendra Deva, Vice-Chancellor, Lucknow University.

His Excellency Rajah Maharaj Singh, Governor of Bombay, has been approached to open the All India Educational Exhibition.

Shri B. G. Kher the Chief Minister of Bombay, will inaugurate the Conference.

Shri S. K. Patil, Mayor of Bombay, will deliver the Welcome Address of the Reception Committee.

It has been decided in the Council Meeting held on 13th July, 1951, that the Planning Committee Report adopted at Hyderabad should be the subject of symposium for the General Sessions and in the case of Sectional Conferences the relevant portions of the Report relating to the various sections should form the subjects of discussion.

A Programme Committee was appointed at the suggestion of the General Secretary,

with Prof. K. S. Vakil as the Chairman. The suggestions and resolutions received from the Sectional Secretaries and other members of the Affiliated Associations were handed over to the Committee. The Committee completed its work and it was received by the General Secretary on the 3rd instant. The detailed programme will be finalised to be handed over to the Reception Committee within a week.

The lists of Local Secretaries for the various sections have been received on the 6th inst. and the permanent Sectional Secretaries and Local Secretaries have been addressed, giving them the subjects of symposium, resolutions to be passed in their sections. They have been requested to prepare a review of the work done by the respective sections and give wide publicity to their sectional work and invite papers.

Concession secured as a result of the persistent efforts of the Federation last year has now become a permanent feature of our Conference. A concession of single fare double journey for all classes shall be available on production of a certificate issued by the General Secretary of the Reception Committee, XXVI All India Educational Conference, Robert Money School, Bombay 7. The concession is available only to those who attend the Conference without any travelling allowance from the Government.

A declaration to that effect that 'The Delegate is not in receipt of travelling allowance from the Government' is included in the certificate.

Affiliated Associations are requested to send their subscriptions directly to Shri A. P. Khatri, Post Box No. 52, Cawnpore. The names of their representatives may also be kindly sent to Shri A. P. Khatri who has been requested to prepare the list of the members of the Council for the next year. Copies of the names may be sent to the General Secretary of the Federation for his reference and record.

They are also requested to bring to the notice of the members of their State Orga-

nisations, the dates of the Conference and give wide publicity.

Sectional Secretaries are requested to get into touch with the Local Secretaries on receipt of information and draw up an interesting programme for their section. The Reception Committee has kindly agreed to print the detailed programme of the section, summaries of the papers and the Presidential Addresses and the background for the subjects of symposium. Presidents who have given their consent to preside, have been requested by the General Secretary to send their presidential address to the General Secretary of the Reception Committee. The whole work has to be completed at least at the end of September 1951, so that the Reception Committee might have sufficient time to get the programmes of all the sections, with summaries of papers, as it is being done in the Science Congress. Every delegate can get a copy of the book on his arrival to acquaint himself with the topics of discussion for various sections. An intensive work on the part of the Sectional Secretaries in this direction can now onwards enable the Federation to increase its efficiency and advance its progress.

Individual Members are requested to attend the conference and send their annual subscriptions to Mr. A. P. Khatri. A registration of membership has been opened this year and the Federation Office will work regularly during the time of the Conference to complete the membership register. Any omissions and incomplete information both on the part of the Office and individual members could be checked and straightened at the time of the Conference.

SILVER JUBILEE SOUVENIR VOLUME

Regarding the Souvenir Volume, our renewed efforts have not been altogether unsuccessful. There have been appreciable response both from Individual Members and Affiliated Associations. The Convener of the Souvenir Volume, Mr. S. Natarajan, informs the office that he has received the

reports from the Sectional Secretaries. The financial aspect of the publication is a matter for great concern as contributions received so far could not cover up the printing expenses. Dr. Jha, our President, has suggested that the Silver Jubilee could be celebrated in a fitting manner by convening an All Asian Educational Conference. It is hoped that by that time our financial resources also would have improved. Members of Affiliated Associations which have not sent their contributions are requested to send them soon to the Convener, Mr. S. Natarajan.

AMENDMENTS TO THE CONSTI- TUTION AND ORGANISATIONAL WORK

It was decided in the Council that the amendments and suggestions received should be circulated to the members sufficiently in advance so that members can come prepared for a thorough discussion. The establishment of a permanent headquarters, the appointment of full-timed workers, with necessary clerical and secretarial staff and equipment are the pressing needs of the hour. A dynamic central organisation has to be our main objective. The present set up in its very nature does not help the Federation. Hunger-strikes, victimisation, varied scales of pay are becoming more frequent. Decisions are made in Local and State Organisations without any reference to the Federation Headquarters, and when matters reach a critical stage they seek the intervention of the Federation. All that the Federation can do in such circumstances is nothing more than lending its moral support. It is therefore proposed to spend sufficient time for organisational work, and members are therefore requested to come fully prepared to stay for the entire period of the conference. It is proposed to take up this problem after the conference is over.

The Reception Committee has been making elaborate arrangements for boarding and lodging and excursions, apart from its keen interest in the academical parts of the Conference work. Members are requested

to write to the Reception Committee sufficiently in advance. Bombay with its commercial and industrial magnates is sure to make a new record in the annals of the conferences of the Federation.

The Planning Committee's Report will be available for Members at a nominal cost of annas eight at the time of the Conference.

Let us strive to perpetuate the memories of the founders of the Federation by establishing a Central National Organisation under the inspiring leadership and guidance of Dr. Jha.

Members who wish to contribute papers and participate in the discussions are requested to send their papers to the Local Secretaries of the various sections, whose names are given below with full addresses:

University Education:

Prof. J. C. Daruvala, M. A.,
6, Petit Road, Cumbala Hill,
Bombay-26.

Secondary Education:

Miss Margaret Benjamin, M. A., T. D.,
Principal, Alexandra Girls'
Institution, Wandby Road, Bombay-1.

Primary & Rural Education:

Mr. S. Bhivandkar, B. A., T. D.,
Office of Education Officer,
Municipal Corporation Hall,
Bombay-1.

Training of Teachers:

Miss A. B. H. J. Rustomjee,
169, Colaba Road, Bombay-5.

Vocational & Technical Education:

Shri S. S. Desnavi, B. Sc., B. T.,
Saboo Siddick Technical High School,
Shepherd Road, Byculla, Bombay-8.

Military Studies, Health & Physical Education:

Shri P. M. Joseph, Training Institute for
Physical Education, Kandivli, Bombay.

Adult Education:

Shri B. M. Kapadia, Bombay City
Social Education Committee,
Opp: General Post Office, Bombay-1.

Childhood & Home Education :

Mrs. Indira Renu, Tata Institute of Social Sciences, 105-109 Ghod Bunder Road, Andheri, Bombay.

Moral & Religious Education :

Rev. Fr. A. Solagran, S. J.
St. Xavier's College, Bombay-1.

Women's Education :

Mrs. U. Karnik,
Office of Education Officer,
Municipal Corporation Hall,
Bombay-1.

Examinations :

Dr. V. V. Kamat, Ph. D.,
The Indian Institute of Education,
11, Elphinstone Circle, Fort,
Bombay-1.

Internationalism & Peace :

Prof: Venkatarangaiya,
Professor of Politics,
University of Bombay, Fort,
Bombay-1.

Aborigines' Education : Dr. B. H. Mehta,
Tata Institute of Social Sciences,
105-109, Ghodbunder Road,
Andheri, Bombay.

Oriental Sections: Sanskrit, Persian & Arabic :

Shri D. D. Gadgil, B. A., B. T.,
New Era School, Hughes Road,
Bombay-7

Indian Public Schools :

Shri C. C. Desai, Hansraj Morarji
Public School, Andheri, Bombay
Suburbs.

—A. I. F. E. News

*Letter to the Editor***TUTORIAL CLASSES IN SCHOOLS**

Sir,

The educational world and the lay public will be astounded to read the recommendation of the State Advisory Board on Education to the Government to grant permission for the running of special tutorial classes for the benefit of failed S.S.L.C. pupils of a school by teachers of that school. The necessity for this recommendation is not clear. Recently, circulars were issued that failed S.S.L.C's should not seek readmission to schools. Running tutorial classes with their own staff is against the spirit of the G. O. on private tuitions which permits tuitions for only three pupils for every teacher. The minimum and the maximum hours of teaching work per week have been defined. Will the time used for the tutorial classes be included in the hours of work fixed for each teacher? Details should be worked out, regarding the hours of the tutorial classes and the remuneration to be paid to the teachers and to be absorbed by the school authorities for providing accommodation and equipment, and the grants-in-aid to be enhanced or decreased. Schools have been struggling hard to understand and work out the reorganised scheme of

education and the everchanging syllabuses and curricula. The D. P. I. is not well-advised to recommend a proposal of this kind; for it is definitely injurious to the interests of the sixth form pupils regularly studying in the school. I can understand the running of tutorial classes for the regular students of the school. But I fail to understand why special pains have to be taken by schools which have discharged them to take them back again in their tutorials in the morning and evening hours and what experiment lies in this coaching. I would earnestly appeal, in the interests of the sound education of the failed pupils of the schools whose main responsibility it is to coach up the regular pupils of the S.S.L.C. class, to reject this recommendation of the Advisory Board on Education. Effective education is available for the failed students in the Tutorials run by experienced educationists.

R. Srinivasa Iyengar

Principal,
Srinivasa Tutorial,

The Late Professor C. S. Srinivasachariar : A Memoir

It is with great regret that we have to record the death on 29th August last at Madras of Dewan Bahadur Professor C. S. Srinivasachariar, scholar, historian and educationist and for many years honorary editor of the *Educational Review*, at the age of 61 after a brief illness.

Born of a respected family in South Arcot District, Mr. Srinivasachariar had his education at the Pachaiappa's High School, Chidambaram, and subsequently at the Pachaiappa's College, Madras. His academic career was throughout brilliant.



Soon after his graduation in 1909, he joined the Department of History in Pachaiappa's College, Madras, where he served with distinction for twenty-two years. He handled classes in ancient, modern and Indian history as well as politics and economics. He soon made his mark not merely as a successful teacher, but also as an enthusiastic and industrious research worker.

He was a worthy successor to his uncle, Professor K. Ramanujachariar, in the chair of history in the College. He maintained the great reputation which the History Department of the College had acquired

under his uncle. Prof. T. K. Venkatraman, the present head of the Department, is one of his old students.

When the Annamalai University was started in 1931, Mr. Srinivasachariar was given the chair of history and politics there. He served the University till his retirement in 1946. During these fifteen or sixteen years he did a great deal of work not merely as a teacher, but also as a scholar interested in historical research and a wide variety of subjects. This was perhaps the most fruitful period in his long career. Though regular teaching claimed most of his time he still managed to find time for writing

numerous books and literally hundreds of articles not only on history and political science, but on many cognate subjects.

Mr. Srinivasachariar's services were also made available to many boards and committees in his own and other sister universities. His erudition and experience made him a valuable counsellor and committee man. All over the country universities and other learned bodies took advantage of his willing co-operation in organising courses of studies, choosing teachers and examining students.

Recognition came to him in several ways from the Government and the academic world. He was awarded the title of Rao Sahab in 1935, Rao Bahadur in 1942 and Dewan Bahadur in 1946. The Indian History Congress elected him Sectional President in 1931 and 1939, and General President in 1941. The Orientalists Conference elected him President of the history section in 1940. When the Deccan History Congress met for the first time in 1945, he was president of its modern history section. The French India History Society at Pondicherry elected him as an honorary life-member. He presided over the ninth Conference of the Madras Geographical Association in 1939. At the Tamil Festival at Coimbatore in 1950, he presided over the history section. He was connected with the *Journal of Indian History* from its early stages and was associate editor since 1931. He became a corresponding member of the Historical Records Commission in 1926 and was appointed an expert member in 1942. When a Regional Records Survey Committee was appointed for Madras State he was appropriately nominated its convener. He was a member of the Text Book Committee for nearly a quarter of a century and a member of the S. S. L. C. Board for some years. He was recently appointed a member of the Committee set up by the Government of India to compile a history of the Indian Freedom Movement.

Many Universities invited Professor Srinivasachariar to deliver lectures under their auspices. At the Madras University he delivered Sir Subrahmanya Iyer Lectures

in 1924, the Sankara Parvathi Lectures in 1935, and Sir William Meyer Lectures in 1949. He was a University Extension Lecturer as early as 1921 and delivered Honorary Readership Lectures from 1926 to 1932. He delivered many courses of special lectures in the Annamalai, Utkal and Osmania Universities. In 1950, he delivered the Annual Day Address of the Bhandarkar Research Institute, Poona, and in 1951 the Annual Day Address of the Bihar Research Society, Patna.

After his retirement from the Annamalai University in 1946, he was for three years Principal of the newly started Raja Doraisingam Memorial College at Sivaganga. Later, he was Principal of the Kancheepuram Pachaiappa's College during its first year. He continued to be associated with the Annamalai University in various capacities till his death.

Mr. Srinivasachariar's interests were not confined merely to historical studies and university work. Early in his career, he evinced active interest in co-operation. He was a founder-member, director and first secretary of the George Town Co-operative Credit Society, perhaps the largest of its kind in the state. He was also for some time a director of the Triplicane Urban Co-operative Society, the largest consumers' co-operative society in these parts and one of the most remarkable in the world.

Mr. Srinivasachariar was always a friend of the teaching profession in all its ranks. He was a member of the Madras Teachers' Guild for many years, and President of the South Arcot District Teachers' Guild for some time. It was his interest in needs of the teachers, as well as in the theory and practice of education and in educational administration that brought him into active relations with the *Educational Review*. In August 1941, he became Honorary Editor of the *Review*, succeeding Principal P. Seshadri in this office. In the columns of the *Review*, he surveyed the current problems of education till June 1950, when pressure on his time made it difficult for him to spare the necessary leisure for this work.

Professor Srinivasachariar was a great lover of books and collected a vast library. He was a veritable storehouse of historical information and little known facts. But his erudition sat lightly on him. A profound scholar of monumental industry, he possessed also that rare virtue, true humility of spirit. He was a man of simple tastes and a genial temperament. His death at the comparatively early age of 61 is a great loss to historical scholarship and leaves a big gap in the educational world.

We offer our heartfelt condolences to the members of the bereaved family.

CONDOLENCE FROM TIRUPPATTUR

At a meeting of the Teachers' Association, N. M. Board High School, Tiruppattur, Ramnad, held on 3-9-51 under the presidency of Sri A. Subramanya Pillai B.A., L.T. Head Master, the following resolution was unanimously passed.

"The association records its deep felt sorrow on the demise of Sri C. S. Srinivasachariar, M. A., veteran educationist and conveys its condolence to the editor, *Educational Review*, Madras."

Editorial

ON the evening of the 25th of this month H. E. the Governor of Madras unveiled the foundation tablet of the

A Historic centenary memorial buildings of the Hindu High School, Madras. This was

the first public function in connection with the centenary celebrations proposed to be held in February next. As His Excellency remarked in his short but well thought out speech, this was a historic moment in the life of a historic institution—historic in every sense of the word. The story of the Hindu High School is an epic of educational adventure, and will be duly reviewed in these columns when the centenary comes off. Meanwhile, it is enough to say that the tireless devotion of the late Rao Bahadur M. Singarachariar, cashier of the Bank of Madras by profession and the foster-father of the Hindu High School by choice, raised the school from insignificance to significance and helped to create for it a record, which as His Excellency pointed out, few schools in India can hope to rival. We wish the centenary plan of adding twentyfour rooms to the school buildings in three storeys at a cost of about Rs. 3,50,000 every success. We trust that the alumni and friends of the school will come forward in large numbers with generous donations for this worthy cause. We trust too that the members of the centenary committee and the school committee as

well, will seriously consider the question of raising the school to the status of a college—a dream dreamt over sixty years ago and then abandoned.

We have great pleasure in welcoming to the ranks of educational journalism in India *The Educator* a monthly published by Shri Educator: G. D. Rege, 42, Keluskar Road, Shivaji Park, Bombay

28. The editorial board, led by Prof. N. R. Phatak, includes Messrs. M. C. Vaidya, D. B. Sule, M. A. Upadhye, P. S. Redkar, D. D. Pandya and G. D. Rege, and represents college, secondary and primary school teachers. Defining their policy, the editorial board state: "With a view to raising the professional consciousness of the teachers and contributing to the solution of the educational problems in a concrete manner, we are launching the publication of *The Educator*. We hope that the urge strongly felt by the teaching fraternity all over the country to have a powerful medium of expression will be duly satisfied by *The Educator*."

This issue leads off with an interesting investigation into the plight of the Secondary School teachers in the state of Bombay by G. D. Rege and P. S. Redkar. Interesting figures are cited to show that the average trained teacher, with a family of six, needs not less than Rs. 350 per month to provide for his basic minimum

needs. The accepted scales of pay, it is pointed out, contemplate a maximum of Rs. 200 only. Similar figures for other provinces are necessary to help the teachers to fight their longdrawn fight for living wages. Another article throws much interesting light on the famous Kanakavali High School case by citing extracts from the report of the India Education Society running the School, Shri D. D. Pandya deals with 'Our Education and the English Language'. He suggests that English should be made an optional subject at all stages of education except in regard to science courses at the university. The struggles of the teaching fraternity the world over are collected together in an interesting feature. There is a symposium of news and views, and a correspondence section. We wish our new contemporary every success.

Professor D. S. Gordon, Mysore, has suggested in the columns

A New Examination Scheme: of the *South Indian Teacher* an interesting plan for reforming the examination system in India. His suggestion briefly is that examination questions should be selected from a list issued to the students at the commencement of the academic session. He points out that questions are not easier to answer under this scheme than under existing circumstances. He would supplement it by a paper in which students can answer with their text books near them.

Educational Notes

BY SRI T. N. S. RAGAVACHARI, B. A. Madras 16.

A NEW APPROACH TO SHAKESPEARE'S PLAYS: In an experimental course sponsored by the Institute of Arts and Sciences at Columbia University in New York, modern psychiatric techniques are applied in studying characters in nine Shakesperian plays: *Othello*, *Hamlet*, *Macbeth*, *Romeo & Juliet*, *A Midsummer Night's Dream*, *Antony & Cleopatra*, *Julius Caesar*, *King Lear* and *The Tempest*. The aim of the course, according to Dr. Russell Potter, Director of the Institute, is to utilize applied science to gain a "more sympathetic com-

Professor Gordon speaks with authority as a former Registrar of the Mysore University. It is doubtless true that many ticklish administrative problems are solved by this scheme, and he has a right to expect that what he says should get a patient hearing and consideration from educationists and not be rejected offhand as a counsel of despair.

Dr. G. M. D. Sufi incisively analyses the causes of 'murderous indiscipline' among students in Indiscipline: the *Education of Pakistan*.

"The reasons for the growth of indiscipline among students," he says "are traceable to—(i) the enlistment of students by politicians in the struggle for independence, (ii) slackness of parental control, (iii) yielding by the authorities to all the demands of the students and (iv) participation of students in politics." Among the measures that he suggests for remedying the situation are the adoption of a stern policy of prompt disciplinary action till the atmosphere noticeably changes for the better, the canalisation of the zeal of students in new directions by awarding them prizes for good conduct, warning off political agitators from corrupting the minds of students and raising of the dignity and status of the teacher. Measures of this kind and many more are needed, if the rapidly deteriorating discipline in our schools and colleges is not to lead to a national disaster of the first magnitude.

prehension" of some of Shakespeare's greater character studies. Five renowned psychiatrists, all of them Shakespearean scholars, are cooperating with Dr. Maurice Valency, Professor of English Literature, at Columbia in conducting the course. Dr. Daniel E. Schneider, one of the psychiatrists, emphasizes that the course does not seek to psycho-analyse any particular character in the play. "Rather," he says, "we will try to judge the relationship of one character to another, to achieve an understanding of the entire outline of the play".

It is his considered opinion that much of modern psycho-analysis derives some its roots from the great poets and dramatists of the world. He believes "Shakespeare was perhaps the greatest of them all". (*British Medical Journal*, 16—12—1950).

[Note by abstractor:—A similar research into the sublime and majestic characters in Kalidasa's dramas by Indian scholars will amply repay the time and energy spent on it.]

FILMS & FILMSTRIPS IN FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION: Produced in collaboration with UNESCO, four new educational pamphlets of Film Centre Ltd., discuss the role of films and filmstrips in Fundamental Education. The first "The film and fundamental education," shows that the full development must depend to a large extent on Government aid. The finance and resources involved are considerable particularly for production. But whatever the contribution made by Governments, a very large measure of initiative still lies with non-official organisations. In many areas, where the population is scattered, mobile units alone can be effective for some time to come. Cooperative effort is needed to enable several individual organisations, to get the benefit of the film service. Film Councils have been developed in Canada and U. S. A.; these Councils bring together local bodies of all kinds—youth clubs, women's institutes, trade unions, industrial firms, farmers' groups, adult education centres and others for a common purpose to promote the educational use of the film. Popular initiative and use of cooperative methods are the keys to success. The second pamphlet describes the most suitable apparatus for the projection of films and filmstrips in fundamental education. The third and fourth deal with the choice and care of films and filmstrips in Fundamental Education. (*World Educational News*, March 1951).

FERTILITY AND INTELLIGENCE: The fifth volume of the *Papers of the Royal Commission on Population* issued late last year, contains the data which were present-

ed by able and competent authorities about the relation between Intelligence and Fertility. A reference is also made in this report to the detailed survey carried out in 1947—48 by the special committee of the Scottish Council for Research in Education, which found a noticeable rise in the average intelligence quotient (I. Q.).

Fertility is different in the different social groups and it also varies within a given social group. The highly intelligent within the population are less fertile than the average, and those of very low intelligence are even less fertile, but here again there is a disagreement about the degree and extent of the difference. The main points made by the vast majority of the individual authorities who presented memoranda to the Royal Commission were that the negative correlation found between the I. Q.'s of children and the size of the families to which they belong must necessarily mean that a progressive decline in natural intelligence is proceeding, that the magnitude of this decline, estimated either directly or indirectly is of the order of $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 3 points per generation; that the differences in "Intelligence" between social classes are far less than are the differences within a particular class; and finally that much more evidence of the same kind is needed before final judgement can be given.

The possibility of a decline in the natural intelligence is thus still a matter for argument. The intelligence of the future population cannot be assessed from the results of "Intelligence Tests" carried out on children now within it. It is generally conceded that about three-fourths of the attribute measured by these Intelligence Tests is closely associated with the genetic endowment of the individual. What is not, however, yet known is the relative value to the individual adult of this $\frac{3}{4}$ portion of his total Intelligence compared with the $\frac{1}{4}$ portion which is subject to the influence of improving standards of living, of education and of experience generally. (*Papers of Royal Commission on Population Vol. 5, 1950*, H. M.'s Stationery Office, London).

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