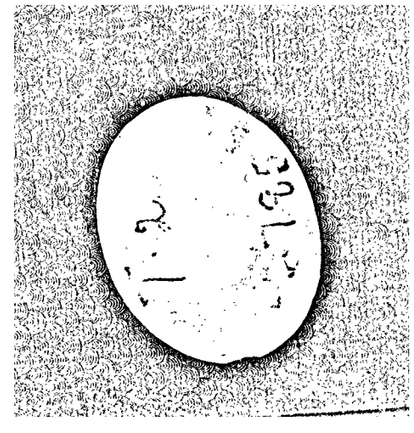


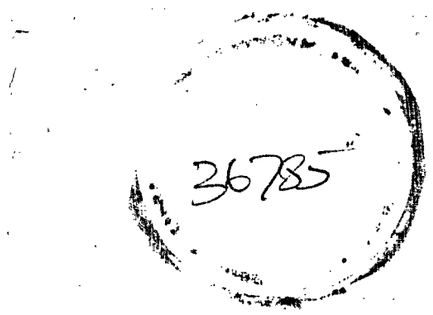
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REPORT OF THE INDIAN EDUCATION COMMISSION.

Appointed by the Resolution of the Government of India dated 3rd February 1882.

MADRAS RECORD OFFICE

CALCUTTA: PRINTED BY THE SUPERINTENDENT OF GOVERNMENT PRINTING, INDIA—1883.



CONTENTS.

	PAGE.
CHAPTER I.—INTRODUCTORY—	1
Appointment of the Commission	*ib.*
Reasons for the Enquiry	2
Main duty of the Commission	2—4
Instructions to the Commission	4
Subjects exempted from the Enquiry	4, 5
Method adopted by the Commission in conducting the Enquiry	5, 6
Brief Survey of the Evidence and Witnesses	6
„ „ of the Memorials	6, 7
„ „ of the Provincial Reports	7
Summary of the Materials obtained	*ib.*
Twelve chief divisions of the Enquiry	
CHAPTER II.—HISTORICAL REVIEW OF EDUCATION IN INDIA—	8
Education in Ancient India	8, 9
„ under British Rule	9—11
„ in Madras prior to 1854	11—15
„ in Bombay prior to 1854	15—17
„ in Bengal prior to 1854	17—20
„ in the North-Western Provinces prior to 1854	20, 21
„ in the Punjab prior to 1854	21, 22
„ in the Central Provinces prior to 1854	22
„ in other Provinces prior to 1854	22—25
„ in India subsequent to 1854; the Despatches of 1854 and 1859	25
Formation of the Education Department, 1855-56	25, 26
The Indian Universities	26—29
Educational Census of 1881	29—33
Education in Madras, 1855-56 to 1881-82	33—36
„ in Bombay, 1855-56 to 1881-82	36—40
„ in Bengal, 1855-56 to 1881-82	
„ in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, 1855-56 to 1881-82	40—46
„ in the Punjab, 1855-56 to 1881-82	44—46
„ in the Central Provinces, 1855-56 to 1881-82	47—49
„ in Assam, 1854 to 1882	49—51
„ in Coorg, 1857 to 1881-82	51, 52
„ in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, 1866 to 1881-82	52, 53
„ in Ajmir-Mhairwara, 1881-82	53, 54
CHAPTER III.—INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS—	
Survey of indigenous Education in India	55—58
High Class indigenous Schools in the different Provinces	59—62
Attitude of the Department towards such Schools	62, 63
Extent of elementary indigenous Schools	64, 65
System of indigenous School Instruction	65, 66
Elementary indigenous Schools in the different Provinces	66—72
Status of indigenous Schoolmasters	
Bazar Schools	
Recommendations regarding indigenous Schools	
CHAPTER IV.—PRIMARY EDUCATION—	
Public primary Schools	
Different classes of Public primary Schools	
Two theories of extending primary Education	

PAGE.

Table of Public primary Schools and Pupils . . . . . 85—87
Primary Education in Madras 88, 89
" " in Bombay . . . . . 89—92
" " in Bengal . . . . . 95—105
Educational results in Bengal, 1882 . . . . . 104, 105
Primary Education in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh . . 105—107
" " in the Punjab . . . . . 107—109
" " in the Central Provinces 109, 110
" " in Assam 110, 111
" " in Coorg 111
" " in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts . . 111, 112
Statistics of Primary Education for all India 112
Recommendations regarding systems of State primary Education . 112, 114
Methods of Registration of Attendance 114, 115
School Accommodation 115, 116
" Apparatus and Libraries 116, 117
Standards of Instruction and results of Examinations . . . 117, 118
Uniform standard of Examination for primary Schools . . . 119, 120
Different Provincial Standards in use . . . . . 120—124
The place of English in primary Schools 124, 125
Results of Examinations in primary Schools 125, 126
Recommendations as to Standards and Examinations . . . 126, 127
Physical Training 127
Moral " 127, 128
Religious teaching 128, 129
Training of Teachers . . . . . 129—132
Table of trained and untrained Teachers in primary Schools . . 133
" showing number of Training Schools for Vernacular Teachers in 1881-82 134
Normal Schools and Teachers in Madras 135
" " in Bombay 135, 136
" " in Bengal 136, 137
" " in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh 137, 138
" " in the Punjab 138
" " in the Central Provinces . . . 138, 139
" " in other Provinces 139, 140
Recommendations as to supply and position of Teachers . . . 140, 141
Fees and exemptions 141, 142
Scholarship system . . . . . 142—144
Prizes 144
Public Patronage . . . . . 144—146
Night Schools and school-hours 146, 147
Special attempts in backward Districts and for Special Classes . . 147, 148
Education of Aboriginal races 148, 149
Low castes and out-castes 149
Depressed races . . . . . *ib.*
Poor classes 149, 150
Brief notice of Female Schools 150, 151
Relation of Boards to primary Education 151
Boards, and Suggestions regarding them, for the different Provinces . 151—157
General Review of the Powers of Local Boards 157
Return of Municipal expenditure on primary Education in 1881-82 . 158
Recommendations regarding Ways and Means . . . . . 158—160
" " School Funds 160, 161
" " the Rights and Duties of Schoolmasters . 161—163
Recommendation regarding Legislation 163
Expenditure on Primary Education . . . . . 163—167
" " in 1870-71 and 1881-82 . 168, 169
Claims of primary Education upon Public Funds . . . . 169—171
" " on Provincial Revenues . . . 171, 172
Cost of Education in primary Schools 172, 173
Recommendations recapitulated . . . . . 174—176

'ER V.—SECONDARY EDUCATION—

Definition of the Term 177
Secondary Instruction in high Schools 177, 178

Col[illegible] Madras . . . . . [illegible]
" in Bombay . . . . . 261, [illegible]
Collegiate Education from 1857 to 1882 in the different Provinces . 262—265
The C[illegible]ing College, Lucknow 265, 266
The Oriental College at Lahore 266
The Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh . . . 266—268
Colleges maintained by Native Princes and Chiefs 268
Statistics of Collegiate Education from 1857 to 1871, and from 1871 to 1882 . . . . . 268, 269
The scope and character of Collegiate Instruction 269, 270
Duration of College Courses and Standards of Examination . 270, 271
Subjects for the M.A. Degree 272
Grades of Colleges and tuitional staff . . . . . *ib.*
Boarding Houses 272, 273
Oriental Colleges 273
Collegiate Education in 1882 in the various Provinces . . . 273—281
Fees in Colleges in the different Provinces . . . . . 281—283
Opinions of Witnesses regarding payment of Fees . . . 282—284
Arts College Scholarships 284
Scholarships in the different Provinces 285, 286
Social position of College Students . . . . . 286—288
Salaries of Professors in the various Provinces 288, 289
Summary 289, 290
College Libraries 290, 291
Laboratories and Apparatus for Instruction 291, 292
Statistics of Oriental Colleges . . . . . 292—294
Moral Training in Colleges 294, 295
Religious Teaching in Colleges 295
Physical Training 296, 297
The University Entrance Examination 297, 298
Objections to the Entrance Examination of the Calcutta University . 299, 300
Effect of Collegiate Instruction upon the enlightenment of the People 300, 301
Professions adopted by the Majority of educated Natives . . . 301—304
Recommendations 304
Extension of Collegiate Education 304, 305
Grants-in-aid 305
Professional staff and pensions 305, 306
Salaries 306
Subjects of study . . . . . *ib*
Admission to College lectures of Students who have not passed the Entrance Examination 306
Moral Teaching . . . . . 306—308
Fees 308, 309
The Amount which it is proposed to expend on Scholarships . . 309—311
Recommendations recapitulated . . . . . 311—313

HAPTER VII.—INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT—

Introductory 313
Constitution of the Education Department 313, 314
Conditions of Service of Graded Officers 314
Admission of Natives of India to the Graded Service . . . 314, 315
Subordinate Graded Service in Bengal and Bombay 315
Directing Staff of the Department 315, 316
Proposed Changes in the System of Control 316, 317
Character of the proposed Changes 317
Extension of the functions of the University 317, 318
Consulting Provincial Boards of Education . . . . . 318—320
Educational Conferences 320
Provision of other Educational facilities 320, 321
Relation of the Department to Schools in Competition . . . 321
Regulations in Force, and opinions of Witnesses 321, 322
Recommendation for definite Rules 322, 323
Policy in regard to Fees 323
Classification of Schools: Statistical Returns 323, 324
[illegible]pecting Staff of the Department 324, 325

Different classes of secondary Schools in the various Provinces . . 178—1
General Review of secondary Education 1
Secondary Education before 1854 . . . . . *ib.*
" " from 1854 to 1871 . . . . . 181, 184
" " from 1871 to 1882 182
" " in Madras . . . . . 182—184
" " in Bombay . . . . . 184—186
" " in Bengal . . . . . 186—188
" " in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh . 188, 189
" " in the Punjab 189, 190
" " in the Central Provinces 190
" " in Assam . . . . . *ib.*
" " in Coorg 190, 191
" " in Berar 191
Statistics of secondary Schools in 1870-71 and in 1881-82 . . 192—193
Changes of Classification between 1870-71 and 1881-82 . . 194, 195
Comparison of Schools and Pupils in 1870-71 and 1881-82 . . 195, 196
Relative Increase of departmental and other Schools . . 196—198
Girls' Schools in 1870-71 and 1881-82 . . . . . 198, 199
Spread of secondary Education through private effort . . 199—201
Expenditure on secondary Schools . . . . . 201—204
Different sources of Expenditure 205, 206
Annual cost of educating each Pupil 206
Initial Standards in secondary Schools . . . . . 206—208
The place of English and the Vernacular in secondary Schools . . 208, 209
Vernacular as the Medium of Instruction . . . . . 209—211
Schools exclusively Vernacular 211
Different aims of middle Schools 211, 212
Middle Schools independent of University Standards . . . 212, 213
Final Standards of middle Schools in the various Provinces . . 213—216
Summary of middle Schools 216, 217
Final Standards of high Schools in Madras, Bombay and Calcutta . 217, 218
Comparison of Standards in the different Universities . . 218, 219
Proposals for an alternative Standard in high Schools . . 219, 220
Recognition by Government of adopted Standards . . . 221, 222
Misconceptions regarding the term "High School" . . . 222, 223
Result of recognised Examinations 223, 224
The Matriculation Examination 225
The middle School Examination 225, 226
Examination of Girls 226
Race and creed of Pupils 226, 227
Languages studied in secondary Schools . . . . . 228—230
Text-books for secondary Schools 230
School Libraries . . . . . 230—232
School Accommodation, Apparatus and Furniture in the various Provinces 232—234
Registration of Attendance 234, 235
Training of Teachers 235, 236
Arrangements for training of Teachers in secondary Schools in the various Provinces . . . . . 236—238
Number of Teachers, trained and untrained, in secondary Schools . 239
Pay and prospects of Teachers in secondary Schools . . . 239—241
Means of improving the Position of Teachers in secondary Schools . 242
Fees in secondary Schools in the various Provinces . . . . 242—246
Recommendations as to Fees . . . . . 246—248
Scholarships in secondary Schools 248, 249
Scholarship Systems in different Provinces . . . . . 249—252
Recommendations as to Scholarships 252, 253
" as to Examinations 253, 254
" recapitulated 254, 255

APTER VI.—COLLEGIATE EDUCATION—

Review of the growth of Collegiate Education 256
The earlier Colleges and their Objects . . . . . *ib.*
Colleges in Bengal proper . . . . . 256—259
" in the North-Western Provinces of Bengal . . . 259—261

PAGE.

Work done by Inpecting Officers 326
Inspecting Agency in Madras 326, 327
" " in Bombay 327, 328
" " in Bengal 328, 329
" " in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh . . 329
" " in the Punjab 329, 330
" " in the Central Provinces 330
" " in the other Provinces . . . . . *ib.*
Inspection of Girls' Schools 331
Employment of Inspecting Officers at Head-quarters . . . *ib.*
Cost of Inspection and Control . . . . . 331—333
Increase of the Inspecting Staff 333
Organisation of the Inspecting Staff 333, 334
Enlistment of Voluntary Inspection 334, 335
System of Departmental Examinations in the various Provinces . . 335, 336
Limitation of Compulsory Examinations 336, 337
Examinations for the Public Service 337
Teaching Staff 337, 338
Text-books. Appointment of a Committee 338
Report of the Text-book Committee . . . . . 338—340
Resolution of the Government of India on the Report . . . 341, 342
Action taken in the different Provinces 342
Text-books in the different Provinces . . . . . 342—345
General Suggestions regarding Text-books 345, 346
Special Text-books for Village Schools 346, 347
Future Action with regard to Text-books 347, 348
Recapitulation of Recommendations . . . . . 348—350

CHAPTER VIII.—EXTERNAL RELATIONS OF THE DEPARTMENT TO INDIVIDUALS AND PUBLIC BODIES—

Introductory 351

SECTION 1.—*The Relation of the State to Non-Departmental Effort:*

Objects of the Despatch of 1854: The Grant-in-aid system . . 351, 352
Scope and Character of the Grant-in-aid system 352, 353
Supervision and Inspection 353
Formation of an Education Department 353, 354
Establishment of Universities; Scholarships; School Books . . 354
Training Schools 354, 355
Summary of the Relations of the State to Private effort . . . 355
Review of Progress in the Despatch of 1859 . . . . . *ib.*
Necessity of encouraging Private Effort: Limitations of the Policy of Withdrawal 355, 356
Limitation of State Expenditure in higher Schools 356, 357
Ultimate Objects of the Grant-in-aid System 357

SECTION 2.—*The Growth of Private Enterprise in Education:*

Introductory . . . . . 357—359
Private Effort in History and Statistics of Madras, from 1854 to 1881-82 359—364
" " in Bombay . . . . . 364—367
" " in Bengal . . . . . 367—370
" " in North-Western Provinces and Oudh . 370—372
" " in the Punjab . . . . . 372—375
" " in the Central Provinces . . . . 375—378
" " in Assam 378
" " in Coorg . . . . . *ib.*
" " in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts . *ib.*
General Financial Result 378, 379
Summary 379, 380

SECTION 3.—*The General view of the Education provided by Private Effort in 1881-82 and of the aid afforded to it:*

Introductory 380, 381
Attendance in Aided and Unaided Institutions 382, 383

PAGE.

Attendance in each class of Aided Institutions . . . . . 384—386
Expenditure under the Grant-in-aid Rules . . . . . 387—389
,, on each class of Aided Institutions 390, 391
Increase or Decrease of the aid given to Private Effort . . . . 391—397
Comparative Expense of Education in Aided and Departmental Institutions . . . . . 397—399
Amount of Self-Support by means of Fees in Aided and Departmental Institutions 399
The Energy sometimes shown by private Effort 399, 400
Summary 400, 401

SECTION 4.—*Systems of Grants-in-aid: Their Advantages and Disadvantages:*

Different Systems of Grants-in-aid 401
A perfect System unattainable . . . . . *ib.*
The Salary-grant System 401, 402
The Salary grant System: its Advantages, Disadvantages, Defects in its Rules: Summary . . . . . 402—405
The System of Payment by Results 405
The Results System: its Advantages, Disadvantages, Defects in its Rules: Summary . . . . . 405—410
The Combined Systems 410
The System of "Fixed Period" Grants . . . . . 410—411
The "Fixed Period" System: its Advantages, Disadvantages, Defects in its Rules: Summary . . . . . 411—413
The System of capitation Grants on the average monthly Attendance . 413
Special Grants . . . . . *ib.*
Systems of Grants-in-aid summarised 413, 414
Further Recommendations . . . . . 414—416

SECTION 5.—*Sufficiency or Insufficiency of the amount of aid at present afforded to Private Effort:*

Principles in determining the necessary Rate of Aid . . . . . 416—418
Application of the principle to existing facts 418
The General Result of the Enquiry . . . . . 418—420
Cautions in applying the Standard employed 420, 421
Sufficiency or Insufficiency of aid to Girls' Schools . . . . . 421—423

SECTION 6.—*Points suggested by the Evidence, Memorials and Provincial Reports as to the various systems of Aid and their Administration:*

Introductory 424
Evidence bearing on systems of Aid on the amounts obtainable; on Conditions of Aid; on Administration . . . . . 424—430
Complaint of want of sympathy in Administrations . . . . . 430—433
Conclusion 433

SECTION 7.—*Relations of private enterprise in Education with (a) the Department and (b) Competing private Institutions:*

Introductory 433, 434
The Origin of the Chief Complaint . . . . . 434—436
The various conditions of the Success of private Effort . . . . 436—441
Summary 441
Relations of private Enterprise to competing private Institutions . 441, 442

SECTION 8.—*Relations of private Effort with Local and Municipal Boards:*

Introductory 442
Boards as managers of Schools; as Distributors of Aid . . . . 442—444

SECTION 9.—*The future of Aided Education.*

Introductory 444
Need of increased Resources . . . . . *ib.*
Increased Resources from Fees 444, 445
Possible Increase of Fees in different classes of Institutions . . 445, 446
State Aid as an encouragement 446
Safeguards against premature or sudden withdrawal of Grants . . 446, 447
Difficulties in the way of providing Safeguards 447
General Principles bearing on the Safeguards needed . . . . *ib.*

PAGE.

The best practical Safeguard 447, 448
Importance of the co-operation of Managers 448
Means of increasing the Influence of Aided Education in certain localities 448, 449
Proposed extension of the above Recommendation 449, 450
Supplement to the last Recommendation 450
The future of Aided Education in other Special Localities . . . 450, 451

SECTION 10.—*The Withdrawal of the State from the direct Provision and Management of Education, especially of higher Education:*

Introductory 451
Opinions of Witnesses 451, 452
The Bearing of the Policy of Withdrawal on Missionary Education . 452, 453
Withdrawal in favour of Missionaries to be avoided 453, 454
The Position of Missionary Enterprise in Education 454
The limits of opposing views within the Commission 454, 455
Considerations in favour of Withdrawal: Saving to Public Funds; Summary of the Argument from Economy; Possibility of improvement in the Results of private Effort; Need of variety in the Type of Education; Encouragement to religious Instruction . . . 455—460
Considerations opposed to Withdrawal: The danger of a false impression being made on the public; Difficulty of maintaining Colleges of the highest Type by Native Effort; Influence of Government Institutions in keeping up the Standard of Education; The present state of popular Feeling . . . . . 460—462
Financial considerations affecting Withdrawal 462, 463
Withdrawal from Management not to include Withdrawal from Control 463
The difficulty of defining the best line of action . . . . . *ib.*
The course of discussion in the Commission 463, 464
General conclusion arrived at . . . . . 464—466
Practical agreement as to Subsidiary Recommendations . . . 466
Recommendations to take effect at the time of Transfer . . . . *ib.*
General Principles to regulate the Transfer of Schools . . . 466, 467
The Schools that should be first Transferred 467
General Principles to regulate the Transfer of Colleges . . . 467—469
Recommendations as to Colleges in Madras, in Bombay, in Bengal . 469, 470
Conclusion 470

SECTION 11.—*Indirect Aids which the State may afford to private Enterprise in Education:*

Introductory 470, 471
State Patronage of Educated Men 471, 472
Provision of varied Occupation for Educated Men 472, 473
Elevation of the Profession of Teaching 473, 474
Approval of private Effort to be clearly shown 474, 475
Establishment of Universities 475
Summary . . . . . *ib.*

SECTION 12.—*Recapitulation of Recommendations.* 475—479

CHAPTER IX.—EDUCATION OF CLASSES REQUIRING SPECIAL TREATMENT.

Introductory 480

SECTION 1.—*Native Chiefs and Noblemen:*

The Native Nobility . . . . . 480—483

SECTION 2.—*Muhammadans:*

Early Efforts in the Cause of Muhammadan Education 483
Reasons alleged by Muhammadans for holding aloof from the Education offered in Government Schools . . . . . *ib.*
Statistics in 1871-72 484
Suggestions made by Government of India to the Local Governments . *ib.*
Measures taken in Madras: Results . . . . . 484—486
,, ,, in Bombay: ,, ... 486—488
,, ,, in Bengal: ,, ... 488—491

Measures taken in North-Western Provinces: Results . . . 491, 492
Independent efforts made by the Muhammadans of the North-Western Provinces 492, 493
Measures taken in the Punjab, in Oudh, and in the other Provinces . 493—496
Memorials regarding Muhammadan Education . . . . . 496—498
Opinions of the Local Governments on the Memorial of the National Muhammadan Association 498
Replies from Bengal, with Memorandum on Memorials from Madras; from Bombay; from the North-Western Provinces and Oudh; from the Punjab; from the other Provinces . . . . . 498—505
Conclusions and Recommendations of the Commission . . . . 505—507
Application of Recommendations regarding Muhammadans to other Races 507

SECTION 3.—*The Aboriginal Races:*

The Aboriginal Tribes of India 507, 508
Their want of Education 508, 509
The difficulties attending the Education of Aborigines . . . 509, 510
Recommendations regarding the Provision of Schools . . . 510, 511
Recommendation as to Language . . . . . 511 — 513

SECTION 4.—*The Low Castes:*

Education of Low Castes 513, 514
The Difficulties 514, 515
Authoritative Decision on the Subject 515
Measures taken to meet the Difficulty 515, 516
Recommendations regarding Low Caste Children 516, 517

SECTION 5.—*Poorer Classes of Society:*

Education of the poor 517, 518
Recommendations recapitulated . . . . . 518 — 520

CHAPTER X.—FEMALE EDUCATION—

Introductory 521
Female Education in Ancient India 521, 522
" " Division of the subject 522
" " in Madras; in Bombay; in Bengal; in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh; in the Punjab; in the Central Provinces; in Assam; in Coorg; in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts . . . 522—529
Census Returns of Female Education for 1881 529
Female Education throughout India in 1882 530
Review of the Statement 531
Non-Departmental Agencies . . . . . *ib.*
Female Education; Municipalities and Local Boards 531, 532
Other Agencies 532
Mixed Schools for Boys and Girls 532, 533
Subjects of instruction for Girls, including Needle-work . . . 533, 534
Text-books for Girls 534
Instruction and Text-books . . . . . *ib.*
Agencies for Female Education other than Schools 534, 535
Zanana Missions 535
Secular Zenana Agencies 535, 536
Literature for the Zenana 536
Quality of the Instruction in Girls' Schools . . . . . *ib.*
Results of the Examinations in Girls' Schools, 1881-82 . . . . 536, 537
Review of Examination Results in Girls' Schools, 1881-82 . . 537, 538
Deficiency of Teachers for Girls' Schools 538
Male Teachers for Girls' Schools . . . . . *ib.*
Female Teachers for Girls' Schools 538, 539
Schoolmasters' wives as Teachers 539
Widows as Teachers 539, 540
Difficulties of Female Teachers 540
Training of Female Teachers . . . . . *ib.*
Female Education: Expenditure on, in 1881-82 . . . . . 540, 541
Different sources of Funds 542

CONTENTS.

APPENDICES A, B, C.—

Appendix A.—Resolution of the Government of India appointing Education Commission . . . . . .

Appendix B.—List of Witnesses who have given Evidence bef Commission . . . . . .

Appendix C.—List of Memorials received by the Commission .

STATISTICAL TABLES—

(See separate Index at their commencement) . .

REPORT

OF

THE EDUCATION COMMISSION.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

1. Appointment of the Commission.—On the 3rd February 1882, the Government of India appointed an Education Commission, with a view to enquiring into the working of the existing system of Public Instruction, and to the further extension of that system on a popular basis. The Commission consisted of the twenty-one members noted below* and a secretary. A certain number of members were selected from each of the Presidencies and Provinces, excepting Burma and Assam; and care was taken, in their selection, that they should fairly represent the various races and classes interested in Indian education.

2. Reasons for the Enquiry.—The instructions to the Commission were contained in the Resolution of the Governor General in Council dated the 3rd February 1882.† That document set forth the Court of Directors' Despatch of the 19th July 1854 as the basis of the educational policy of India. The Reso-

* *President :*

The Honourable W. W. HUNTER, B.A., LL.D., C.I.E. Member of the Viceroy's Legislative Council.

Members :

The Honourable SAYYID AHMAD, KHAN BAHADUR, C.S.I. (who afterwards withdrew and was succeeded by his son, MR. SAYYID MAHMUD).
The Honourable D. M. BARBOUR C.S., Secretary to the Government of India in the Financial Department.
The Revd. W. R. BLACKETT, M.A., Principal of the Church Mission Divinity College, Calcutta.
Mr. ANANDA MOHAN BOSE, B.A., Barrister-at-Law.
Mr. A. W. CROFT, M.A., Director of Public Instruction, Bengal.
Mr. K. DEIGHTON, B.A., Principal of the Agra College, North-Western Provinces.
Mr. J. T. FOWLER, Inspector of Schools, Madras.
Mr. A. P. HOWELL, M.A., C.S., Commissioner of Berar.
Mr. H. P. JACOB, Educational Inspector, Bombay.
Mr. W. LEE-WARNER, M.A., C.S., First Assistant-Collector, Satara, Bombay.
The Revd. W. MILLER, M.A., Principal of the Madras Christian College.
Mr. P. RANGANADA MUDALIAR, M.A., Professor of Mathematics, Presidency College, Madras.
The Honourable Babu BHUDEB MOOKERJEA C.I.E., Inspector of Schools, Bengal.
Mr. C. PEARSON, M.A., Inspector of Schools, Punjab.
The Honourable Maharaja Sir JOTENDRO MOHAN TAGORE, K.C.S.I., Member of the Viceroy's Legislative Council.
Mr. KASHINATH TRIMBUK TELANG, M.A., LL.B., Barrister-at-Law, Bombay.
Mr. G. E. WARD, C.S., Collector of Jaunpur, North-Western Provinces.
The Revd. A. JEAN, D.D. (S.J.), Rector of St. Joseph's College, Negapatam (now at Trichinopoly).
Mr. C. A. R. BROWNING, M.A., Inspector General of Education, Central Provinces.
HAJI GHULAM HASAN, Punjab.

Secretary :

Director of Public Instruction, Mysore and Coorg.

† printed *in extenso* as Appendix A to this Report and a very brief summary will ing paragraph

lution states that, while the Government acknowledged the masterly and comprehensive outline supplied by that Despatch, they deemed it of importance to review the progress made, and to enquire how far the superstructure corresponded with the original design. Such an enquiry was instituted by order of the Secretary of State for India in 1859, shortly after the controlling authority had passed from the East India Company to the Crown. But circumstances prevented the preparation of any complete or comprehensive report. Nearly a quarter of a century had since elapsed, and the Governor General in Council believed that the time had now come for instituting a further and more careful investigation into the existing system, and into the results attained by it, than had hitherto been attempted.*

3. The main Duty of the Commission.—In appointing a Commission for that purpose, His Excellency declared that its duty should be to enquire particularly into the manner in which effect had been given to the Despatch of 1854; and to suggest such methods as it might think desirable, with a view to more completely carrying out the policy therein laid down.† "The Gov-
"ernment of India," says the Resolution, "is firmly convinced of the soundness of
"that policy, and has no wish to depart from the principles upon which it is based."

4. Instructions to the Commission: Primary Education.—The Governor General in Council desired that the Commission, in enquiring how far these principles had been acted on, "should specially bear in mind the great im-
"portance which the Government attaches to the subject of Primary Education.
"The development of elementary education was one of the main objects contem-
"plated by the Despatch of 1854. Attention was specially directed in that
"Despatch to the question 'how useful and practical knowledge suited to every
"station in life, might be best conveyed to the great mass of the people, who are
"utterly incapable of obtaining any education worthy of the name by their
"own unaided efforts,' and it was desired that 'the active measures of Govern-
"ment should be more especially directed for the future to this object.'
"Although the matter was thus prominently and at the outset pressed upon the
"attention of the Indian Administrations, there can, His Excellency in Council
"believes, be very little doubt that, owing to a variety of circumstances, more
"progress has up to the present time been made in high and middle than in
"primary education. The Government of India is not disposed in any way to
"regret this advance. It would be altogether contrary to its policy to check or
"hinder in any degree the further progress of high or middle education. But
"the Government holds that the different branches of Public Instruction should,
"if possible, move forward together, and with more equal step than hitherto, and
"the principal object, therefore, of the enquiry of the Commission should be 'the
"present state of elementary education throughout the Empire, and the means
"by which this can everywhere be extended and improved.'"

5. Instructions to the Commission: Private Efforts and Grants-in-aid.—"While this is the main object to which the enquiries of the Commission
"should be directed, the Governor General in Council desires to impress upon it
"at the same time the fact that it is not possible for the Government to find
"funds sufficient to meet the full requirements of the country in the matter of
"primary education, if those requirements are to be judged by any European
"standard. The resources at the disposal of Government, whether Imperial,
"Provincial, or Local, are, and must long remain, extremely limited in
"and the result is, not only that progress must necessarily be gradu

* Resolution of the Government of India, dated 3rd February 1882, par.
† Resolution para. 6.

"if satisfactory progress is to be made at all, every available private agency must
"be called into action to relieve and assist the public funds in connection with
"every branch of Public Instruction. It was in view of 'the impossibility of
"Government alone doing all that must be done to provide adequate means for
"'the education of the Natives of India,' that the grant-in-aid system was
"elaborated and developed by the Despatch of 1854; and it is to the wider ex-
"tension of this system, especially in connection with high and middle education,
"that the Government looks to set free funds which may then be made applicable
"to the promotion of the education of the masses. 'The resources of the State
"ought,' as remarked by the Secretary of State in Despatch No. 13 of 25th
"April 1864, 'to be so applied as to assist those who cannot be expected to help
"themselves, and the richer classes of the people should gradually be induced
"to provide for their own education.'"*

6. Instructions to the Commission: Transfer of Schools to Native Management.—"In pursuance of this policy, it is the desire of Government to
"offer every encouragement to Native gentlemen to come forward and aid, even
"more extensively than heretofore, in the establishment of schools upon the grant-
"in-aid system: and His Excellency in Council is the more anxious to see this
"brought about, because, apart altogether from the consequent pecuniary relief
"to Government, it is chiefly in this way that the Native community will be able
"to secure that freedom and variety of education which is an essential condition
"in any sound and complete educational system. . . . The Government is
"ready therefore to do all that it can to foster such a spirit of independence and
"self-help. It is willing to hand over any of its own colleges or schools in suit-
"able cases, to bodies of Native gentlemen who will undertake to manage them
"satisfactorily as aided institutions; all that the Government will insist upon
"being that due provision is made for efficient management and extended use-
"fulness. . . . It is specially the wish of Government that municipal bodies
"should take a large and increasing share in the management of the public
"schools within the limits of their jurisdictions. The best way of securing this
"result should also be considered by the Commission."†

7. Instructions to the Commission: Rates of fees: Scholarships.—The Governor General in Council next called attention to the statement, not unfrequently made, that the wealthier classes in India do not at present pay enough for the education of their children. He laid down the principle that
"persons in good circumstances should pay the full cost of their children's edu-
"cation, or at any rate that no part of this should fall upon State funds. But
"in endeavouring to secure this result, care must be taken that no unnecessary
"obstacles are thrown in the way of the upward progress of really deserving
"students of the poorer classes."‡ The funds available for scholarships should be so distributed as to afford ample facilities for obtaining a good secondary education to a large number of youths in the secondary schools. The scholarships tenable during the University course need not be so liberal, but should still be sufficient to hold out a fair opportunity of obtaining an advanced education to the best of the pupils in the middle and high schools. But Government scholarships ought not in any way to be placed on an eleemosynary basis. They
"should always be given as distinct rewards for merit, tested and proved by
"competitive examinations."‡ While the State provision for scholarships was to be allotted exclusively by competition, the Governor General in Council pointed out that it "will leave a wide field open for the establishment of scholarships
"requiring local or other qualifications through the munificence of private indi-
"viduals or corporations."‡

* Resolution, paras. 8 and 9. † Resolution, paras. 10 and 11. ‡ Resolution, para. 12.

8. Instructions to the Commission: Indigenous Schools.—In connection with Primary Education, the Commission was directed to "particularly enquire as to the extent to which indigenous schools exist in different parts of the country, and are, or can be, utilised as a part of the educational system. The Government of India is disposed to advocate the making as much use as possible of such schools."* "The great object in the first instance is to get such schools established: their improvement and elevation to a higher standard being, though of great importance, an object of subsequent endeavour." . . "The Commission should advise as to how this can best be done, without attempting a too rapid advance, or throwing obstacles in the way of the extension of the area of instruction, especially in backward districts."†

9. Instructions to the Commission: Secondary Education.—With regard to Secondary Education, the Commission was directed to enquire "into the quality and character of the instruction at present imparted in schools of this class. The great majority of those who prosecute their studies beyond the primary stage will never go beyond the curriculum of the middle, or at furthest of the high schools. It is therefore of the utmost importance that the education they receive should be as thorough and sound as possible. There are grounds for doubting whether there is not, in some Provinces at any rate, much room for improvement in this respect. . . . It would be contrary to the policy of Government to adopt any measures that would have the appearance of restricting aided schools to the use of any particular class of text-books, or to interfere with the free choice of the managers in such matters. But it is desirable to know how far the general suggestions of the [Text-book] Committee have found acceptance in the different Provinces, and what is being done to carry them out in the case of both Government and aided instruction."‡

10. Instructions to the Commission: Inspection: Female Education.—The Commission was also to enquire into the present system of educational inspection, with a view to removing defects, introducing improvements, and securing the aid of a large amount of voluntary agency in the work of inspecting and examining schools. The important and difficult subject of female education was to receive special consideration, together with the best means of encouraging and extending it so far as the circumstances of the country permit.

11. Instructions to the Commission: Subjects exempted from its Enquiries.—While thus assigning a large area of enquiry to the Commission, the Governor General in Council exempted certain special branches of educational work from its investigations. These branches included the general working of the Indian Universities; technical instruction, whether medical, legal, or engineering; the education of Europeans and Eurasians. The Government of India also warned the Commission that in providing for the extension of primary schools, "the limitation imposed upon the action of Government by financial considerations must always be borne in mind."‖

12. Method adopted by the Commission in conducting the Enquiry.—The Education Commission assembled in Calcutta on the 10th of February 1882, and sat regularly until the 31st of March. Its deliberations during this session were chiefly directed to preparing a scheme, with a view to clearly ascertaining the state of education in each of the several Provinces of India. For this purpose, the representative members for each part of India were constituted a Provincial Committee. The Commission

* Resolution, para. 13. † Resolution, para. 15. ‡ Resolution, para. 17. ‖ Resolution, para. 15.

elaborated a detailed plan upon which the Provincial Committees were, during the ensuing eight months, to draw up a Report dealing with the past history, present condition, and future development of education in their respective Provinces. Before it separated, the majority of the Bengal witnesses were also examined by the Commission. At the end of March the first session of the Commission in Calcutta terminated, and the members returned to their own duties in the different Presidencies. The next eight months were devoted to the local collection of materials upon which the Commission might base its deliberations during the second session. These materials were of three kinds. First, the evidence of witnesses in each Presidency and Province; second, memorials submitted to the Commission by Associations, individuals, and public bodies throughout India; third, the Provincial Reports drawn up for the Commission by its members, arranged in Committees so as to represent the Provinces to which they respectively belonged. The Commission re-assembled in Calcutta on the 5th of December 1882, and continued its sittings during the following months. It at once appointed six sectional Committees, each of which was instructed to deal with the evidence, memorials, and Provincial Reports bearing on the subjects referred to it, and to prepare Recommendations for discussion by the Commission. Having fully deliberated on the materials before it, and agreed upon its Recommendations, the Commission concluded its collective labours on the 16th of March 1883. Before separating, the Commission placed on record its acknowledgment of the valuable services rendered to it in various ways by its Secretary, Mr. Lewis Rice. The Report was then drawn up by the President of the Commission and a representative Committee of five members,—namely, Mr. Croft (Bengal), Mr. Miller (Madras), Mr. Howell (Central Provinces), Mr. Lee-Warner (Bombay), Mr. Deighton (North-Western Provinces). Mr. Jacob was entrusted with the preparation of the Statistical Tables contained in the Report—a task which proved to be one of exceptional difficulty. The Commission had reduced the results of its enquiries to 222 specific Recommendations: of which 180 were passed unanimously, while the remaining 42 were carried by a majority. The Recommendations are to be accepted as the deliberate decisions of the Commission, and they form the basis of this Report. The Draft Report was circulated for approval to the members of the Commission in their respective Provinces.

13. Brief Survey of the Evidence.—The witnesses were chiefly selected by the Provincial Committees, with a view to representing the various educational interests in India; but a number of them consisted of gentlemen who spontaneously requested to be examined. The Commission prepared a series of questions covering the whole area of its enquiry, and forwarded a copy to each witness for consideration. While inviting answers to the particular questions thus circulated, the Commission did not confine the replies of the witnesses to those subjects, but welcomed the evidence of each witness on any educational matter in which he was interested, or with regard to which he had special knowledge. The number of witnesses thus examined was 193, and their evidence, taken as a whole, forms a unique exposition of the most trustworthy opinion in India regarding the instruction of the people. As the enquiries of the Commission were to a large extent directed to the working of the existing system, the Education Department was strongly represented among the witnesses of each Province. The institutions interested in the application of the grant-in-aid principle were numerously represented by Missionaries, both Protestant and Roman Catholic, by delegates selected by Native Educational Societies, and by the Head-masters of Native schools. Higher education was also represented by many gentlemen who, after a distinguished career in the Uni-

versities of Calcutta, Madras, or Bombay, are now actively engaged in Indian professional life. Indigenous and primary education was represented not only by a number of witnesses specially interested in the instruction of the lower classes, but also by Pandits and Maulavis of indigenous schools. The various races of India—Hindus, Muhammadans, Sikhs, Parsis,—were impartially heard. Particular care was taken that the educational wants of any class, such as the Muhammadans, who have fallen behind in the race of life under British Rule, should receive the fullest consideration. The number of witnesses was approximately fixed at an average of 30 to 40 for each Province; but this territorial standard was modified according to the local necessities of the different parts of India.

14. Local Examination of the Witnesses.—The examination of the 193 witnesses was conducted at convenient centres in the Provinces to which they respectively belonged. The President of the Commission made a tour round India, and held a session with the Provincial Committee in each of the main territorial divisions, for the purpose of hearing evidence. The cross-examination of the witnesses was conducted by the President and Provincial Committees at considerable length. The list of witnesses is given in Appendix B to this Report, and the number heard in each Province is summarised below.* The evidence thus collected throughout India, together with statements connected therewith, aggregates about three thousand printed pages.

15. Brief Survey of the Memorials.—The number of the memorials received by the Commission was 323. They came from every part of India, but were most numerous in the Punjab and North-Western Provinces, where the language to be used as the medium of instruction is still a question of keen interest among the people. Of the total number of 323 received throughout India, 140 were submitted by Educational Societies, Municipalities, public bodies, or individuals interested in school work; while 183 may be described as popular manifestoes purporting to be signed by 233,819 persons. The list of memorials is given in Appendix C to this Report, and the number received from each Province is summarised below.†

16. Brief Survey of the Provincial Reports.—Seven Reports were prepared by the Provincial Committees of the Commission for the territorial divisions of India which those Committees respectively represent.‡

* Number of witnesses heard in each Province—

Madras	33	witnesses.
Bombay	38	„
Bengal	31	„
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	28	„
Punjab	45	„
Central Provinces	18	„
TOTAL	193	

Several of the Bengal witnesses were heard by the Provincial Committee, presided over by its own Chairman.

† List of memorials received from each Province—

From Madras	22
„ Bombay	40
„ Bengal	13
„ North-Western Provinces and Oudh	145
„ Punjab	96
„ Rajputana	1
„ Miscellaneous	6
TOTAL	323

‡ Namely, for Madras, Bombay, Bengal, the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, the Punjab, the Central Provinces and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts. The Bengal Provincial Committee have also forwarded, for the consideration of the Commission, the Annual Educational Report for Assam, drawn up in the form suggested by the Commission, and prepared by Mr. J. Willson, Inspector of Schools. A Report on Education in Coorg was prepared by the Secretary to the Commission.

aken as a whole, they exhibit, on a uniform plan and in complete detail, the ast history, the present condition, and the future wants of education in each rovince of India. They aggregated over 1,100 pages, and have supplied much f the information on which the present Report is based. A copy of each is ubmitted to the Government with this Report.

17. Summary of the Materials obtained.—The materials collected by ie Commission from February to November 1882 consist, therefore, of the vidence of 193 witnesses examined at local centres throughout India; of 323 emorials, chiefly from Associations, or from sections of the public interested education; and of a special Report for each of the great territorial divisions India prepared by the Provincial Committee. The Commission re-assembled Calcutta on the 5th December 1882, to deliberate upon the mass of printed id manuscript documents thus obtained. It divided the questions before it ito six principal branches, as follows: (1) Indigenous and Primary Education; 2) Secondary and Collegiate Education; (3) the Internal Administration of ie Education Department, including the system of inspection and examinaons; (4) the External Relations of the Education Department, including rants-in-aid, and the withdrawal of Government in favour of native manageent of colleges and schools; (5) the Education of Special Classes of the ommunity requiring exceptional treatment; (6) Educational Legislation. A eries of proposals were drawn up on each of these subjects by the Committee ntrusted with its consideration. These proposals were then discussed and lopted, rejected, or modified by the Commission. The conclusions thus rived at were, as already stated, embodied in 222 specific Recommendations hich are to be accepted as the deliberate decisions of the Commission.

18. Twelve chief Divisions of the Enquiry—The Report will accordgly follow the classification indicated in the last paragraph, and treat the uestions referred to the Commission by the Government of India in the followg twelve Chapters:—

(*a*) Historical review of education in India; Chapter II.
(*b*) Indigenous education; Chapter III.
(*c*) Primary education; Chapter IV.
(*d*) Secondary education; Chapter V.
(*e*) Collegiate education; Chapter VI.
(*f*) Internal administration of the Department: control, inspection, examinations, text-books; Chapter VII.
(*g*) External relations of the Department to individuals and public bodies: grants-in-aid, private efforts; Chapter VIII.
(*h*) Education of classes requiring special treatment; Chiefs and nobles, the Muhammadans, the aborigines, low-castes, and the poor; Chapter IX.
(*i*) Female education; Chapter X.
(*j*) Educational Legislation; Chapter XI.
(*k*) Financial Summary; Chapter XII.
(*l*) Recommendations of the Commission; Chapter XIII.

CHAPTER II.

HISTORICAL REVIEW OF EDUCATION IN INDIA.

19. Education in Ancient India.—Since their first appearance in authentic history, the Indians have always enjoyed the reputation of being a learned people. Megasthenes, the Greek ambassador to the court of Chandra Gupta about 300 B.C., found a grave and polished society in which philosophy and science were successfully cultivated and held in honour. The rich stores of Sanskrit literature which have come down to the present age confirm this description. In the four stages prescribed for a Brahman's life, the first, including youth and early manhood, was that of the Brahmachari, or learner, and extended over many years. But the Brahmans confined their teaching of the Dharma-Shastras to their own and the other two "twice-born" castes, and made it penal to communicate any but elementary knowledge to the servile and mixed multitude. The Buddhist reformation placed religion and education on a more popular basis. The Chinese travellers and the Pali texts alike bear witness to this fact; and in the seventh century A.D., the vast monastery of Nalanda formed a seat of learning which recalls, by the numbers and the zeal of its students, the later Universities of mediæval Europe. After the Musulman conquest, the mosque became in India, as in other countries of Islam, a centre of instruction and of literary activity. Education alike among the Muhammadans and the Hindus is based upon religion, and was supported by endowments and bequests *in pios usus*. The East India Company found the four ancient methods of education still at work; in the instruction given by the Brahmans to their disciples; in the tols, or seats of Sanskrit learning; and in the maktabs and madrasas, or schools and colleges of the Muhammadans; and in the large number of humbler village schools which also existed. These village schools gave an elementary education to the trading classes and to the children of the petty landholders and well-to-do families among the cultivators.

20. Education under British Rule.—When the East India Company received charge of Bengal from the Delhi Emperor, it aimed only at discharging the duties fulfilled by the previous ruling power. It respected endowments made to educational institutions, and its earliest efforts were confined to the establishment of a Muhammadan and a Sanskrit college of the old types. But three influences were at work which forced it into new fields of educational activity. A knowledge of English became a means of livelihood to natives at the centres of Government, and a demand arose for English instruction in the Presidency towns. As the old exotic court-language, Persian, fell into disuse, and especially when it ceased to be the language of official life, the demand for education in the vernaculars which had superseded the foreign tongue made itself more widely felt. Meanwhile, a new influence in favour of popular education was being brought to bear upon the Indian Government by missionary and philanthropic bodies both in this country and in Europe. The old system, however, did not give place to the new without a struggle. For many years the medium and the character of the instruction to be given in Government Schools and Colleges were the subject of a vigorous controversy between the Anglicists and the Orientalists. The former party urged that all instruction of the higher kind should be given through the English

language, and should be in accordance with modern ideas. The latter, while admitting that what was then taught as science had no right to that title, wished to maintain the study of the Oriental classics in accordance with the methods indigenous to the country. Both parties broadly and prominently admitted the claims of the vernacular languages. Among the Orientalists were many distinguished of the officers of Government, and for some time their views prevailed in the General Committee of Public Instruction. But the minority gradually became more and more powerful; and when in 1835 the two parties were so evenly balanced that things had come to a dead-lock, it was Macaulay's advocacy of English education that turned the scale against the Orientalists. His famous Minute was immediately followed by a Resolution of the Governor-General, which plainly declared for English as against Oriental education. A few years later the Orientalists made several efforts to rescind this Resolution and to revert to the previous policy in favour of the classical languages of India. They received, however, no encouragement from the Government; and in 1839 Lord Auckland published a Minute which finally closed the controversy. The purport of this Minute was "that although English was to "be retained as the medium of the higher instruction in European literature, "philosophy, and science, the existing oriental institutions were to be kept up "in full efficiency, and were to receive the same encouragement as might be "given to the students at English institutions. Vernacular instruction was to "be combined with English, full choice being allowed to the pupils to attend "whichever tuition they might individually prefer."* Since that time education in India has proceeded upon the recognition of the value of English instruction, of the duty of the State to spread Western knowledge among its subjects, and of the valuable aid which missionary and philanthropic bodies can render in the task. In reviewing the progress of education we propose to consider, first, the early efforts of the East India Company and of private societies prior to 1854; secondly, the principles laid down for the guidance of the Departments in the Despatches of 1854 and 1859; and thirdly, the progress of education in each Province of India between 1854 and 1882. The condition of education in India in 1881-82 in every class of colleges and schools, the internal mechanism, as well as the external relations of the Departments, the question of legislation, and the financial administration of education will form the subjects of separate Chapters of this Report.

in Madras. This central institution supplied eventually the basis of the Madras High School; but the schools in the Districts languished, and in a few years were abolished as failures. By appointing other Boards and by instituting various examinations, Government made several subsequent endeavours to encourage a demand for a better education than the indigenous schools afforded. But up to 1854, the only attempt which proved to be a success was the Madras High School. Founded on the Central Madras Institution of 1826, it was opened as a high school in 1841, and for many years was conducted by Mr. E. B. Powell, afterwards Director of Public Instruction. The high school quickly gained the reputation which, under the name of the Presidency College, it has uniformly preserved. Two schools of a similar character were founded at Cuddalore and Rajamahendri, in 1853 and 1854 respectively. When, therefore, the Despatch of 1854 was written, these three institutions in which English was taught were the only result of the efforts which Government had made during twenty-eight years.

23. Madras: Private Effort, 1786 to 1854.—Meantime, other agencies had been at work. Schools for Eurasians had long flourished in Madras. One of them, the Military Orphan Asylum, founded in 1786, became widely known through the method of instruction borrowed from the indigenous system and first applied in it by Dr. Bell. In schools of this class, a few natives received a fair education. But the philanthropic spirit from which such institutions sprang, made its effects felt on the natives of the country more directly by another channel. As noticed in paragraph 96 of the Despatch of 1854, Southern India owes much of its educational progress to the efforts of missionary societies,—efforts early recognised by the Local Government. In 1790, the Society for the Promotion of Christian Knowledge opened a school for natives, which, after passing through many changes, still flourishes as St. Peter's College at Tanjore. The Government of Madras made grants to the Society for this institution, and for one or two others, with which the venerated name of Schwarz was connected. In Madras, therefore, missionary effort in education had obtained State aid, and thus established the claims of private effort to the recognition of the State, before the close of the eighteenth century. The Missionaries of the American Board opened a number of primary schools in the Madura District in

expanded rapidly in Tinnevelly and Tanjore. It is estimated that in 1854 about 30,000 boys were being educated in schools conducted by missionary societies, and about 3,000 were obtaining at least the elements of a liberal education in English.

It was not until 1842 that native effort began to work on the modern basis, by the opening of Pachaiyappa's Institution in Madras. The funds were derived from a charitable bequest of old standing, which by a decree of the Supreme Court was made available for educational purposes, and placed under a body of native gentlemen as trustees. The school at once took a high position, and has continued from its foundation until now to be the most distinguished example of native educational effort in the Presidency. In 1854, the institution in Madras and its branch schools, which the trustees had opened at the sacred cities of Conjeveram and Chidambaram, were giving a high class of education to about a thousand pupils.

24. Madras: Female Education, 1841 to 1854.—Female education had also made a certain amount of progress independently of the State, and chiefly under missionary management, before the publication of the Despatch of 1854. Boarding-schools were maintained from an early period by the Church of England Societies in Tinnevelly; but they were almost exclusively attended by the daughters of converts to Christianity. The first direct effort at educating Hindu girls of the higher castes was made at Madras in 1841 by the Missionaries of the Scottish Church. The attempt had to struggle against many obstacles; and in 1843, the school was still on so small a scale that only nine pupils were in regular attendance. The difficulties were, however, gradually overcome, and since 1843, the growth of female education among the Hindus, though not rapid has been uninterrupted. In 1845 the first girls' school, partly under native management, was opened in Madras. It has proved the precursor of many more; but even yet, female schools under any other than missionary management are few and small outside the Presidency town. In 1854, there were probably 7,000 girls at schools conducted by missionary societies; and although the bulk of these were Native Christians, there was also a considerable proportion of Hindus belonging to the higher castes. The nine pupils at the school of the Free Church of Scotland in 1843 had increased to about 700 in 1854.

25. Madras: General Summary.—Thus, when the Despatch of 1854 appeared, a good foundation for education had been laid. The three Government schools, although the number of their pupils was but small, were efficient and served as useful models. The natives, besides continuing to maintain their indigenous schools, had begun to demand education of a modern type. Missionary schools had also been set up in many Districts and encouraged by the State. While the Presidency town had kept the lead in many ways, education had been widely developed throughout the Province.

26. Bombay: Education prior to 1854.—The educational history of Bombay prior to 1854 is mainly a record of the work of missionary societies and of the Board of Education established in 1840. During the ascendancy of the Portuguese in Western India, their religious orders had organised a fairly complete system of education, which was developed until their expulsion by the Marathas. The orphanages and colleges established by the Franciscan and Jesuit orders were closed before the middle of the eighteenth century; but the parish schools of the Portuguese territories survived the wreck of the power under which they had grown up. When British rule established itself in the capital of the Deccan, a remarkable

influx of missionary enterprise took place. The religious societies of America, England, Scotland, and Ireland, vied with each other in an honourable rivalry to cover the newly-acquired territories with schools. The American Missionary Society opened a school for boys in Bombay in 1814; and ten years later, established the first school for native girls in Western India. Their most successful operations were conducted at Ahmadnagar in the Deccan, where they still maintain several schools. The Scottish Church, with the late Dr. Wilson as its honoured representative, worked chiefly in Bombay and the Konkan; the London Missionary Society selected Surat and other towns in Gujarat as its first field of labour. The operations of the Church Missionary Society were much wider. In addition to its central Anglo-Vernacular School at Bombay, established in memory of Robert Money, its Missionaries were engaged in the work of education in the Poona and Nasik Districts of the Deccan, at Thana and Bassein in the Konkan, and even in the distant Province of Sind. The Irish Presbyterian Missionary Society opened both English and Vernacular Schools in the Native States of Kathiawar, and took over charge of the Gujarat Schools from the London Missionary Society, which thenceforth devoted its attention to the southern parts of the Presidency. Thus, in every Province of the Bombay Presidency, missionary enterprise was at work. Its operations were not confined to elementary education, and they included schools for girls as well as for boys.

27. Bombay: Private Effort, 1815 to 1840.—In 1815, the Bombay Education Society, supported entirely by voluntary contributions, took upon itself the duty of educating the poor, not merely in the Presidency town, but in the adjoining Districts. In seven years, the Society found itself unequal to the discharge of the growing responsibilities which fell upon it. It therefore devoted its attention exclusively to European and Indo-European education, and left the task of providing for the instruction of the native population to a new association established in 1822, and called the Native School-book and School-society. The importance of the new Society was at once realised, and Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone became its first President. The whole field of operation was surveyed and a census taken of existing agencies. Arrangements were made to supply good school-books. The wants of the several Districts were ascertained. A line of policy was laid down, and assistance obtained from the State. Mr. Elphinstone's minute on the Society's Report will be found in the Report of the Bombay Provincial Committee; it discloses the wide aims of the Society and explains its success. Not merely in Bombay but in the three Divisions of the Presidency, outside Sind, the Society actively engaged in the work of organising and extending education. Its distinguished President won for himself the confidence of the native community, and when he retired in 1827, a fund, ultimately amounting to nearly Rs. 4,50,000, was raised to perpetuate his memory. Out of this fund was created the Presidency College of Bombay. The management of the College was vested in a Council of nine Trustees, subject to the general control of Government, and independent of the Native School Society. Owing to this dual management and to other causes, notwithstanding its liberal endowments the college did not at first prosper. In 1832, the Native School Society relinquished its executive connection with the District Schools in Gujarat, which were then placed under the Revenue Officers. The transfer proved, however, injurious to the extension of primary education. Both the primary schools in the Districts and the Presidency College bore witness to the failure of educational institutions entrusted to the management of Government unless directed by a special agency. These considerations led to the conclusion that it would be advisable to strengthen a body which had accomplished so much as the Native School Society, and at the same time to terminate an arrange-

which had injured primary education in the districts, and contributed to the failure of the Presidency College. A Board of Education was therefore created in 1840 consisting of six members, of whom three were appointed by the Native Education Society as its last act, and three by Government.

28. Bombay: Board of Education, 1840 to 1854.—The Board of education was the force which directed the movement of education in Bombay, before the State recognised its duty of organising a Department of Public Instruction. Its success was partly due to the impulse which the efforts of the Missionaries had given to education, and partly to the alleged poverty of the indigenous system in Western India. It has been noticed that the District Officers had failed to manage successfully the primary schools entrusted to their care. The creation of the Board was thus the natural outcome both of the growing demand for instruction and of the need of a central authority. The history of education in Bombay between 1840 and 1855 is the history of the Board thus created, and of the missionary societies which continued their independent work. Annual reports published by the Board bear testimony to the soundness of their policy and to their far-sighted views on education. The Board took over all the Native Education Society's Vernacular Schools in Bombay and in the rural Districts, as well as the Government Vernacular Schools throughout the Presidency. They assumed charge of the English schools, of the Poona Sanskrit College founded in 1821, of the Normal classes, and of the Elphinstone College. They divided the educational area of the Presidency into three divisions, each under a European Inspector; established School Committees, and stipendiary studentships; and undertook to open a vernacular school in every village containing 2,000 inhabitants, provided the people subscribed a certain share of the cost. They also enquired into the condition of indigenous schools, and ascertained that in 1842 there were 1,420 such schools attended by upwards of 30,000 scholars. As, however, the funds at their disposal were inadequate, and the general character of the indigenous schools seemed indifferent, the Board rendered them no aid, and preferred to carry out the policy bequeathed to them by Mr. Mountstuart Elphinstone. In 1843, Sir Erskine Perry became the President of the Board, and continued to hold that office until 1852. He was a strong advocate of English schools, and of leaving the education of the masses to the indirect influence of the downward filtration policy, holding that it was better to concentrate on the higher education of the few a grant which was inadequate to make any impression on the masses. But, at the same time, he was anxious to open higher education to the poor, and to encourage a thorough study of the vernacular *pari passu* with English. On his retirement, only 43 Vernacular schools had been added to the list of Board-schools, whilst the number of English schools and their attendance had been doubled. His special encouragement of higher education involved a deviation from the previous tendency of the educational movement in Bombay, and met with some opposition. But his policy stimulated private enterprise, and called forth public liberality. Nine private English schools were maintained by their promoters as a means of livelihood at the Presidency town; liberal endowments were created for the foundation of girls' schools in Ahmedabad; and the distant town of Dhulia subscribed Rs. 21,000 for a school fund. On Sir Erskine Perry's retirement from the direction of the Board, a reaction commenced in favour of primary education. Small grants-in-aid were for the first time offered to indigenous schools; appointments in the lower grades of the public service were thrown open to public competition; and the State subsidy for education was increased to Rs. 2,50,000. The Board now undertook to open a school in any village in the Presidency, on the condition that the inhabitants would engage to defray half the master's salary and to provide

a school-room and class-books. Thirty-five villages immediately applied for schools on these terms, and twenty-five of the demands were complied with. In the following year, 1854, the number of applications from one Division alone amounted to no fewer than 84. The number of English and Normal vernacular schools was also increased, and Sind now began to be provided for. A school for Hindus of the lowest castes was opened in this year at Ahmadnagar. The first school of this kind had been established in Poona a few years before, by a private person, and the Scottish Mission at Surat had opened similar schools in 1853. The public libraries aided by the Education Board amounted to 22; and during the year 46,000 copies of elementary school-books were printed for the book-depositories at Bombay and Poona.

29. Bombay: Female Education, 1824 to 1854.—It has been shown that the first attempt at educating Hindu girls in Madras was made by the Missionaries of the Scottish Church in 1841. To the American Missionary Society is due the credit of having opened the first native girls' school in Bombay in 1824. By the year 1829, no fewer than 400 female pupils were receiving instruction in their schools. In 1827, the Scottish Missionary Society had already attracted 300 girls to their schools, and in 1840, five schools for the daughters of the higher classes of Hindus were opened in the neighbourhood of Poona by the Society. The Church Missionary Society established their first female school in 1826; and thus the cause of female education was actively taken in hand by the missionary societies of Bombay, from the earliest commencement of their labours in the field of education. By 1851, native society had already given satisfactory proof of its independent interest in extending education to girls. In that year, an endowment fund of Rs. 20,000 was created by Mr. Maganbhai Karamchand, of Ahmedabad, for the foundation of two girls' schools in that city. The institutions have flourished without interruption, and still occupy a high position amongst the numerous schools for girls which have been established in the Division of Gujarat. In the same year, a native gentleman of Poona, Mr. Joti Govindrao Phule, opened a private school at Poona, which was long held in high repute. While the missionary societies, and a few native gentlemen of position, were thus engaged, a still more important stimulus to the cause of female education was supplied by Professor Patton of the Elphinstone College. He promoted the formation of a "Students' Literary and Scientific Society," which entirely supported in the city of Bombay nine vernacular free schools for girls attended by more than 650 pupils.

30. Bombay: General Summary.—When the Board of Education resigned office in May 1855, they were able to show that during their 15 years' administration the expenditure on education, together with the number of schools and scholars, had nearly trebled, while the quality of the instruction imparted had greatly improved. With the single exception of girls' schools which they left entirely to private enterprise, they had laid the foundations of a system of education which anticipated many of the principles of the Despatch of 1854. The way had been prepared for a University, by the establishment at Bombay and Poona of institutions for imparting instruction in Literature, Law, Medicine, and Civil Engineering. At all the District head-quarter stations in the Presidency, except Kaira, an English school had been established, as a model to excite and to encourage imitation. Vernacular schools controlled by the Board were springing up on all sides; while at the same time the indigenous schools were being inspected and encouraged. A very interesting feature of the last period of the Board's administration was the introduction of the system of primary schools administered by the State, but mainly supported by the people themselves. This system may be regarded as the germ from which the local fund schools that now exist were developed.

31. Bengal: Education prior to 1854.—A vigorous system of indigenous education has, at all times within historical memory, flourished in Bengal. Under the early Brahman civilisation, the instruction of the youth of the high castes formed a religious duty, and in the case of the Brahmans themselves the years devoted to learning were recognised as one of the four periods in the scheme of each man's life. When the English acquired the country, they found a number of scattered institutions, known as tols, devoted to Sanskrit instruction on the ancient methods; a number of learned Muhammadans, usually attached to noble families or to mosques, who were engaged in teaching the youth of that creed; and a number of village schools of a humbler sort, which gave practical, although an irregular, education to the lower orders. These three classes of institutions have been preserved in the educational system introduced by the British in Bengal. The old Sanskrit method may still be seen at work in the tols of Nadiya, while its modern counterpart flourishes in the Sanskrit College in Calcutta. Muhammadan learning on the orthodox basis is maintained by the Calcutta Madrasa or central Muhammadan college, and by 1,25 recognised Muhammadan schools or foundations, known as maktabs. The ancient village schools are now represented by upwards of 50,000 lower primary schools aided or inspected by the Education Department, and by upwards of 4,00 which have not yet been incorporated into the system. The re-organisation of public instruction upon a pre-existing basis has, from the first, characterised British educational efforts in Lower Bengal. In 1781, Warren Hastings, the first Governor General of India, established the Calcutta Madrasa as a seat of Muhammadan learning. The Permanent Settlement of 1793 recognised in perpetuity the rent-free grants of land enjoyed alike by the Sanskrit tols and the Muhammadan maktabs. In 1811, the Court of Directors entertained proposals for still further encouraging the ancient learning by two Sanskrit Colleges in Nadiya and Tirhut. But the discussions which shortly afterwards took place, both in England and India, with regard to the renewal of the Company's Charter in 1813, brought into prominence other views, and eventually gave a new direction to State education. The truth is, a demand had sprung up for a class of instruction different from that imparted by the ancient methods. The upper classes no longer desired merely a traditional knowledge of the Sastras or of the Koran. They wished to give their children an education which would enable them to make their way in life. In 1817, certain wealthy native citizens of Calcutta opened the Hindu College, for the education in English of children of the higher castes. The School Book Society, established in the same year, undertook the preparation of works, suitable for school classes, in English and the vernaculars. During the next sixteen years, a struggle went on between education in the ancient writings conducted upon the ancient methods, and education in modern branches of knowledge through the medium of the English language. An English education began to be recognised as an assured means of livelihood. In 1819, the School Society set on foot a project for establishing schools, both English and vernacular, all over the country, with its central organisation in Calcutta. Missionary effort also began to make itself felt. During the ten years from the renewal of the Charter in 1813, the fresh impulse given to education was really the result of private efforts, which were partly due to natives as in the case of the Calcutta Hindu College, and partly due to joint Associations of English and native gentlemen, or to missionary bodies as in the case of the Baptist Press at Serampur.

32. Bengal: The Committee of Public Instruction, 1823 to 1842.—The Charter of 1813 had provided a sum of Rs. 1,00,000 to be expended annually on education from the public revenues. In 1823, the Indian Government, under pressure of Parliamentary enquiries and non-official Societies, at length organised measures for giving effect to this provision of its Charter. It appointed a Committee of Public Instruction, consisting of distinguished public officers, for the control of education. The action of the Committee is thus described by one of our colleagues, Mr. Howell, in his Note on Education in India: "From its earliest constitution this Committee was guided by "two great principles, which became traditional, and had the most important "effect upon the progress of education. The first was an endeavour to win the "confidence of the educated and influential classes, by encouraging the learning "and literature that they respected, and by strictly avoiding any suspicion of "interference with religion. The second principle was that, as the funds at the "disposal of the Committee were quite inadequate for any purpose of general "education, the best application of them would be to high education, which was of "course out of the reach of the masses and only attainable by the few. From the "former principle sprung the controversy between the Anglicists and Orien-"talists, that grew in intensity during the first twelve years of the Committee's "existence and was only finally settled in 1839. From the latter principle, "founded on the view that schools must be Government institutions, and that re-"construction and not improvement was the business of the Committee, "resulted the policy which was long maintained." In 1824, the Committee established the Calcutta Sanskrit College, against the wishes of a numerous body of Native memorialists, with Raja Rammohan Roy at their head, who prayed that the college might be for English, and not for Sanskrit teaching. But under Lord William Bentinck, the cause of English education, as opposed to instruction exclusively in the ancient classical languages of India, rapidly gained ground. Under his auspices, Mr. Adam, about 1835, conducted a widespread enquiry into the then existing state of popular education. Mr. Adam estimated the number of village schools and patshalas at about 100,000 in Lower Bengal, and in one of the ablest Reports ever written in India, earnestly pleaded for the instruction of the people. No general effort was, however, made to assist or improve the indigenous schools until 1855. In 1835, a Government Resolution, inspired by Macaulay's condemnation of the old systems of oriental learning, decided the long controversy between the Orientalists and the Anglicists in favour of education through the medium of the English language. The freedom conferred in the same year upon the Press, the abolition of Persian as the language of the Courts in 1837, and the wider career and larger responsibilities accorded to native judicial officers by a series of Acts from 1836 to 1843, gave an impulse to education on the new basis. The sums placed at the disposal of the Committee of Public Instruction had risen from Rs. 1,00,000 in 1823 to Rs. 4,50,000 in 1805; and in 1839, the Committee found itself in a position to establish a system of substantial scholarships in English-teaching schools. It divided the country into nine educational circles, in each of which there was to be a central college, while every District within the circle was to be provided with a school teaching both English and the vernacular. In 1830, Dr. Alexander Duff, as Missionary of the Scottish Church, established in Calcutta the college now represented by the Free Church of Scotland's Institution and the General Assembly's Institution of the Church of Scotland.

33. Bengal: Council of Education, 1842-54.—In 1842-43, the old Committee of Public Instruction gave place to a more powerful body, known as the Council of Education. The Council directed its efforts chiefly, although

not exclusively, to higher instruction in English and the vernacular. It organised a fairly complete system of examinations, with scholarships, both vernacular and English, for distinguished students, and it endeavoured to provide that success at its examinations should practically lead to employment in the public service. While using its examinations as a means for raising the standard of education throughout Lower Bengal, the Council of Education did much to improve the character of the text-books, and to create a regularly trained staff of schoolmasters. After twelve years of unwearied activity, it had raised the number of institutions under its control from 28 in 1843 to 151 in 1855, and the number of pupils from 4,632 in 1843 to 13,163 in 1855. The number of teachers had, during the same time, multiplied from 191 to 455, while the annual expenditure by Government had only increased from Rs. 4,12,284 to Rs. 5,94,428. The Council of Education had secured a large measure of success alike in extending higher instruction, and in creating a general sense of the pecuniary value of a good education. But it made at this time no attempt to deal with the 100,000 indigenous village schools, which Mr. Adam's enquiries had disclosed in 1835. Before the Council gave place in 1855 to the Department of Public Instruction, it had, however, set up in different parts of the country vernacular schools to serve as models of instruction upon the modern basis. Lord Hardinge, between 1844 and 1848, sanctioned 101 such schools. The schools on the whole failed, their places being already occupied by the indigenous system; but those of them which survived long continued to bear the name of the Governor General by whom they were founded. A scheme for a University in Calcutta was under consideration when the Despatch of 1854 arrived, and the Council made over its functions to the new Department of Public Instruction.

34, North-Western Provinces: Education prior to 1854.—The first step taken by the British Government towards the education of the people in the North-Western Provinces, was the establishment of the Benares Sanskrit College in 1791. During the next half century, the management of education in the North-Western Provinces continued in the hands of the Government of India acting through its Committee of Public Instruction. In 1843, the control of funds was made over to the Local Government, and administered by Local Committees. Until this year, State education concerned itself chiefly with colleges, which in their earlier period were of an oriental character, but became gradually de-orientalised after the publication of Lord William Bentinck's Resolution in 1835.

35. North-Western Provinces: Government Measures, 1791 to 1854.—The Colleges established during the first period, from 1791 to 1843, were three in number; at Benares, Agra, and Delhi. The Benares College, partly on account of incompetent and dishonest management, and partly because the course of instruction was itself of little practical value, obtained no real success till about forty years after its foundation. But with the introduction of English, and under the skilful organisation of Dr. Ballantyne, rapid progress was made, and before 1854, the College had completely changed its character. In the place of obsolete studies negligently pursued, Dr. Ballantyne substituted a liberal education, somewhat similar in character to that prescribed by the Indian Universities of the present day. Discipline and regularity succeeded to confusion and misrule; a system of stipends, attracting but a scanty attendance of fastidious students, gave way to the general payment of fees. The numbers steadily increased, and although the College was no longer of an oriental type, Sanskrit literature became a real and fruitful study. Western science let in a light on what Eastern learning had left dark; Western methods were applied to

problems of language and to systems of jurisprudence. The Colleges at Agra and Delhi, founded between 1823 and 1825, had a quicker growth; partly because they took advantage of the experience gained at Benares, and partly because religious prejudices were less powerful than at that centre of Hinduism. They admitted Musalmans as well as Hindus, and prescribed a course of instruction more adapted to the practical requirements of modern life. As at Benares, the question of stipends for some time caused much difficulty. Long use had sanctioned the practice, and the ancient native seats of learning were almost exclusively charitable foundations. Of any sentiment involving a loss of self-respect in those gratuitously educated, Hindus and Musalmans were alike ignorant; as their religions consider it a pious duty to receive as well as to impart knowledge. For a time, therefore, they resisted the payment of fees, and against the withdrawal of stipends rebelled by desertion. Patience, however, on the part of the authorities, and a growing appreciation of the money value of English education, gradually reconciled the people to the new system. In 1854, the students in the three colleges numbered 976; but only a small proportion of them were in classes corresponding with those of the present colleges. A college then contained classes in which the alphabet was taught, under the same roof with classes reading Shakespeare, the Calculus, Smith's Wealth of Nations, and the Ramayana. Except that it contained forty or fifty more advanced students, and that its discipline was more perfect, it did not differ from the secondary schools which sprang up between 1820 and 1854 in the more important towns, such as Allahabad, Meerut, and Bareli. Of these schools there were eight in 1843 with an attendance roll of 1,007. But the establishment of many of them was premature, and in 1853-54, the eight had fallen to three, and the pupils to 779. Of the schools which survived, that at Bareli was afterwards raised, for a time, to the status of a College, while those at Ajmir and Sagar are represented by the high schools of the present day. Missionary enterprise had also been at work in this Province, and the Despatch found over 4,000 pupils in missionary schools of which the returns are forthcoming.

36. North-Western Provinces: Indigenous Education prior to 1854.—The English-teaching schools and colleges which have been described touched the merest fragment of the town population, and did not touch the rural classes at all. Until 1846, whatever instruction those classes received was conveyed in their own indigenous schools. Something more was required; and in 1846 the Local Government declared in the following terms the policy which they intended to pursue: "Landed property in these Provinces is found to be "very minutely subdivided, and the existing rights in the land are of many "different kinds. In prosecution of its duty the Government has made great "exertions to protect these rights by defining their nature and extent, and by devising a system for their complete registration. The efficiency of this system "depends on the ability of the people to comprehend it, and to take precautions "that whatever affects themselves is accurately shown in the registers. For this "purpose it is necessary that they should be able to read and write, and should "understand the elementary rules of arithmetic." Actuated by this benevolent policy, the authorities had various courses open to them. They might have laboured to improve and extend the indigenous system, or they might have exclusively set up superior schools of their own. Or, again, they might have combined the two systems. We have only to show the course which they did pursue and the reasons which induced them to choose that course. It would be out of place here to criticise the policy which they deliberately adopted, and perhaps at this distance of time it would be difficult to offer any decided opinion on the matter. It is, of course, possible that the enquiries instituted did not ascertain with complete accuracy the proportion of pupils

attending the indigenous schools. But in 1848 it was computed that out of 1,900,000 males of a school-going age, only 68,000 were receiving any instruction. With a few exceptions in which Sanskrit, Arabic, and Persian were intelligently taught, the schools were considered as hardly answering the Western idea of the word in a single respect. They were not permanent; for a teacher would, perhaps only for a few months, gather round him half a dozen pupils who after his death or flight might or might not find some one to take his place. They could hardly be said to have had any system at all. The subjects taught were considered almost useless for the object which the Government desired. A little reading, chiefly of sacred texts, a very little writing, and some elementary arithmetic comprised the usual course. Books were almost unknown. The teachers, as a rule illiterate, seemed to offer but little prospect of that rapid improvement which was required. The difficulties in the path of reform, however, lay not only nor chiefly in the character of the schools and the unfitness of their masters. Religious feelings and interested motives combined to excite and keep alive a dread of any interference from without. It seemed also clearly impossible, without great waste of money, to attempt any complete scheme of mass education, while the information at the disposal of Government was so imperfect. Eight Districts were therefore selected for experiment, and Mr. H. S. Reid was appointed Visitor-General, with an adequate staff of subordinates, to push forward more minute enquiries, to help by suggestions the schools already in existence, to encourage the establishment of others, to prepare suitable books, and to choose teachers for such schools as would accept them. At the same time a number of model schools were started and maintained by the Government at certain central points. In point of order and system they differed greatly from anything to which the rural classes had been accustomed. In their studies they looked to what was practically useful, one main object being to substitute the homely vernaculars for a foreign literature to which the more ambitious of the indigenous schools were so much addicted. The lines thus laid down in 1850 were closely followed for the next four or five years. It may be that the form of encouragement given to the indigenous schools was not the most suitable; but after a review of the progress made, the Local Government arrived at the conclusion that it was unsatisfactory, and gradually abandoned the original scheme for one in which the control of education should be more entirely in its hands. Supported by voluntary contributions of the landholders but managed by Government officers, the village schools, then organised, slowly displaced the indigenous maktab and pathsala, and at length became the only form of primary vernacular education which the Government cared to promote. Mr. Thomason was the first Lieutenant-Governor of the North-West who gave a permanent impulse to popular education. He instituted a series of enquiries with a view to persuading the people to set up schools for themselves, and laid the foundation of the existing system of education. The establishment of the tahsili or higher vernacular schools is thus described by a Resolution of the Government of the North-Western Provinces in 1850: "There "will be a Government village school at the head-quarters of every tahsildari "... which will be conducted by a schoolmaster, who will receive "from Rs. 10 to 20 per mensem, besides such fees as he may collect from his "scholars." The tahsili school taught reading and writing, accounts, and land mensuration on the native system, with geography, history, and geometry, through the medium of the vernacular. In 1854, the attendance at tahsili schools numbered 4,668, at the moderate State expenditure of Rs. 9,565. The halkabandi, or lower primary vernacular schools, which now number thousands in the North-Western Provinces, originated about 1851 in an experiment made by Mr. Alexander, Collector of Muttra. His plan was to choose a pargana,

and to ascertain how many children of a school-going age it contained, what revenue it paid, and what expense it could therefore bear. A cluster of four or five villages was then marked out, and the most central of the villages was fixed upon as the site of the school. The cost was levied by a voluntary rate in aid, which originally varied in the different Districts, but ultimately the zamindars agreed to contribute towards education at the rate of one per cent. on their land revenue. Mr. Alexander's idea was quickly taken up in other Districts. In 1853, Agra, Bareli, Etah, Etawah, Mainpuri, Muttra, and Shahjahanpur all had a certain number of halkabandi schools, and at the close of 1854 there were about 17,000 boys receiving education in them. The teacher's pay varied from Rs. 3 to 7, the average being about Rs. 4-10-0. Reading and writing with a little arithmetic, mensuration, and geography, were the subjects taught, and although more abstruse studies were subsequently included, it is doubtful whether such ambitious additions served a useful end.

37. North-Western Provinces: General Summary.—The results attained, chiefly by the system inaugurated by Mr. Thomason, prior to the establishment of the present Department of Public Instruction, are thus summarised from the report of the Provincial Committee for the North-Western Provinces. In 1854, the total number of schools, in the eight selected Districts, is stated to have been 3,770 with 49,037 scholars. This, however, includes 1,949 scholars at missionary schools, and excludes 1,525 at the Delhi and Benares Colleges and the Sagar and Ajmir High Schools. Of the 49,037 scholars, 6,588 owed their education to Government; 17,000 attended the primary schools supported by the zamindars; while upwards of 25,000 are put down to schools of the indigenous class. According to the best statistics now available, the total number of institutions in this Province in 1854 was 3,920 with nearly 53,000 pupils. The expenditure by Government was at this time about Rs. 2,25,000, of which Rs. 1,80,000 went to the colleges and high schools.

38. Punjab: Education prior to 1854.—The Punjab became a British Province only in 1849, and the difficult problems arising out of the annexation left little leisure for educational efforts, before the foundation of the present Department of Public Instruction on the basis of the Despatch of 1854. On assuming charge of the Province, however, the British Government had expressly declared its intention to take in hand the education of the masses. It found a three-fold indigenous system of instruction at work, consisting of Hindu village schools corresponding to those of the North-Western Provinces; Sikh schools, a large proportion of which taught in the Gurmukhi character the language of the Sikh Scriptures or Granth; and Muhammadan schools, usually conducted by the Mulla of the local mosque, and giving instruction of a strongly religious type. These indigenous institutions were left undisturbed, but during the interval between 1849 and 1854 the new Administration established only about a dozen schools in the Province. In the latter year, there were Government Anglo-vernacular schools at Amritsar, Rawal Pindi, and Gujarat. An attempt had also been made in places, especially in the Gujarat District, to introduce the village school system of the North-Western Provinces; encouragement was given to Missionary schools at Amritsar, Firozpur, Ludhiana, Ambala, Kangra, and Kotgarh, some of which had existed before the annexation of the Province. But the only conspicuous Government institution within the territories now known as the Punjab was the Delhi College; and Delhi was not included within the Province until 1858. As, however, this institution has been identified during the past quarter of a century with the Punjab, we may here briefly recapitulate its origin. In 1792, an Oriental College, supported by voluntary

contributions from Muhammadan gentlemen, was founded at Delhi for the study of Persian and Arabic, but owing to the reduced circumstances of the patrons the funds failed. In 1825 (as we have mentioned in connection with the North-Western Provinces), a Government college was opened at Delhi under the Committee of Public Instruction; and in 1829, it was endowed by a munificent bequest of Rs. 1,70,000 from the Nawab Itimad-ud-Daula, Prime Minister of the King of Oudh. The application of the endowment was the subject of much discussion; but it was finally resolved by the Committee that the Delhi College should be made an efficient institution for Muhammadan learning. This resolution was not, however, carried into effect, the Delhi College being, even in 1830, of the same type as that at Agra. The Delhi College always attracted a large preponderance of Hindus; and for some years the endowment has been applied to the support of a successful middle school, attended almost exclusively by the Muhammadans, and known as the Anglo-Arabic school. A school of Engineering, opened at Lahore prior to 1854, was soon afterwards abolished.

39. Central Provinces: Education prior to 1854.—In the Central Provinces the case was not very different. The East India Company acquired from the Marathas in 1817-18 the Northern Districts of these Provinces, long known as the Sagar and Narbada territories. Nagpur and the adjoining Districts, until their lapse to the British in 1853, belonged to the Raja of Berar, who in 1826 ruled over a territory considerably larger than England and Wales. The Maratha Government had done nothing for popular education in these territories. Each noble Hindu house had its own Brahman tutor; the few wealthy Muhammadan families and soldiers of fortune maintained maulavis to instruct their children; village schools of a humble type and in small numbers also existed. But neither the Maratha Government nor its subjects recognised any duty on the part of the State to educate the people. With the establishment of order by the British in the newly acquired Sagar and Narbada territories, philanthropists began their work, and at their own cost established schools after an English model. Such schools were opened in Sagar in 1827, and in 1830 the Government of India gave a grant for their support. Besides these schools at Sagar, others were also opened in the towns of Hoshangabad and Jabalpur. The school at Hoshangabad did not flourish and was closed in 1841. The Jabalpur school was made over in 1851 by its Managing Committee to the English Church Mission, by whom it has since been maintained with a grant-in-aid from 1862.

40. Central Provinces: Indigenous Schools.—In 1843, the Sagar and Narbada territories were transferred to the Government at Agra. Mr. Thomason made minute enquiries regarding the state of education previous to commencing that scheme of primary education with which his name will ever be associated. He found 48 Persian and Arabic schools, of which 20 were of less than one year's standing. Nine of the 48 so-called schools taught gratuitously, and the average number of scholars in each was less than nine. Besides these Persian schools there were 231 Hindi and Sanskrit schools, with an equally small attendance, in one-half of which schools gratuitous education was given. Mr. Thomason proposed to endow a school in every village of a certain size. For its maintenance, from 5 to 10 acres of land were to be set aside, and it was supposed that the schoolmaster, besides receiving the proceeds of this endowment, would receive fees in kind and money from his pupils. The scheme, however, was not sanctioned, and eventually the Court of Directors assented to the imposition of a one per cent. school cess.

41. Central Provinces: General Summary.—When, therefore, the

Department of Education commenced work in the Sagar and Narbada territories in 1854, it found a section of the people familiar with the idea of school instruction. In the southern portion of the Central Provinces, which lapsed to Government in 1853 on the death of Raghoji Bhonsla, the situation was altogether different. The Nagpur Government under the Bhonslas had given no direct support to education. In 1826, in their capital at Nagpur there were indeed 46 schools with 936 pupils; but in the country, education was confined chiefly to the Brahman caste. It was a rare thing to find a cultivator who could sign his name. There were no schools exclusively for Muhammadans. English education in Nagpur was solely supplied by the Missionaries of the Free Church of Scotland's Mission, who were liberally supported by contributions from England. Attempts had been made in 1842 by a German mission to establish schools for the Gonds, but were abandoned on the death of four of the missionaries. Education had made but little progress in the Central Provinces, when on the amalgamation of the Nagpur Districts with the Sagar and Narbada territories in 1862, the present Department was organised for the new Province thus created.

42. Other Provinces: Education prior to 1854.—Of the minor Provinces, the Haidarabad Assigned Districts were not made over to English administration until 1853, and Oudh became a British Province only in 1856. They do not therefore find a place in this part of the present Chapter. Assam formed part of Lower Bengal until its constitution into a Chief Commissionership in 1874. The little Province of Coorg, in Southern India, has, however, an educational history of its own. On its annexation to British India in 1834, three Anglo-vernacular schools were founded by Government; and in 1842, the Roman Catholics opened a school at Virajpet. In 1843, eleven Kanarese schools were also at work; and in the following year, the Rev. Mr. Moegling of the Basel Mission, the first Protestant Missionary in Coorg, offered to take charge of the existing schools, and to open superior ones if furnished with funds by Government. In 1855 he took charge of the Merkara English School, but the attendance fell off, and when the Department of Public Instruction was established in 1857 the state of Education in Coorg was described as very unsatisfactory.

43. Education in India subsequent to 1854: The Despatches of 1854 and 1859.—We have now traced the early efforts of the East India Company towards the education of the people. These efforts differed in regard both to the scale of operations and to the methods employed in the various Provinces. In 1854 the education of the whole people of India was definitely accepted as a State duty; and the Court of Directors laid down with fulness and precision the principles which were to guide the Indian Government in the performance of this great task. Their Despatch of 1854 still forms the Charter of Education in India, and after the East India Company itself had disappeared, its principles were confirmed by the Secretary of State in the Despatch of the 7th April 1859. The purport of these two documents may be thus summarised. The Despatch of 1854 commends to the special attention of the Government of India the improvement and far wider extension of education, both English and vernacular, and prescribes as the means for the attainment of these objects: (1) the constitution of a separate Department of the administration for education; (2) the institution of Universities at the Presidency towns; (3) the establishment of institutions for training teachers for all classes of schools; (4) the maintenance of the existing Government colleges and high schools and the increase of their number when necessary; (5) the establishment of new middle schools; (6) increased attention to vernacular

schools, indigenous or other, for elementary education; and (7) the introduction of a system of grants-in-aid. The attention of Government is specially directed to the importance of placing the means of acquiring useful and practical knowledge within reach of the great mass of the people. The English language is to be the medium of instruction in the higher branches, and the vernacular in the lower. English is to be taught wherever there is a demand for it, but it is not to be substituted for the vernacular languages of the country. The system of grants-in-aid is to be based on the principle of perfect religious neutrality. Aid is to be given (so far as the requirements of each particular District as compared with other Districts and the funds at the disposal of Government may render it possible) to all schools imparting a good secular education, provided they are under adequate local management and are subject to Government inspection, and provided that fees, however small, are charged in them. Grants are to be for specific objects, and their amount and continuance are to depend on the periodical reports of Government Inspectors. No Government colleges or schools are to be founded where a sufficient number of institutions exist capable, with the aid of Government, of meeting the local demand for education; but new schools and colleges are to be established and temporarily maintained where there is little or no prospect of adequate local effort being made to meet local requirements. The discontinuance of any general system of education entirely provided by Government is anticipated with the gradual advance of the system of grants-in-aid; but the progress of education is not to be checked in the slightest degree by the abandonment of a single school to probable decay. A comprehensive system of scholarships is to be instituted so as to connect lower schools with higher, and higher schools with colleges. Female education is to receive the frank and cordial support of Government. The principal officials in every District are required to aid in the extension of education; and in making appointments to posts in the service of Government, a person who has received a good education is to be preferred to one who has not. Even in lower situations, a man who can read and write is if equally eligible in other respects to be preferred to one who cannot.

The second great Despatch on education, that of 1859, reviews the progress made under the earlier Despatch, which it reiterates and confirms with a single exception as to the course to be adopted for promoting elementary education. While it records with satisfaction that the system of grants-in-aid has been freely accepted by private schools, both English and Anglo-vernacular, it notes that the native community have failed to co-operate with Government in promoting elementary vernacular education. The efforts of educational officers to obtain the necessary local support for the establishment of vernacular schools under the grant-in-aid system are, it points out, likely to create a prejudice against education, to render the Government unpopular, and even to compromise its dignity. The soliciting of contributions from the people is declared inexpedient, and strong doubts are expressed as to the suitability of the grant-in-aid system as hitherto in force for the supply of vernacular education to the masses of the population. Such vernacular instruction should, it is suggested, be provided by the direct instrumentality of the officers of Government, on the basis of some one of the plans already in operation for the improvement of indigenous schools, or by any modification of those plans which may suit the circumstances of different Provinces. The expediency of imposing a special rate on the land for the provision of elementary education is also commended to the careful consideration of the Government.

Other important Despatches have since been received from the Secretary of State, and have been examined by the Commission with a view to ascertain how far the action of the Department of Public Instruction in India is in

accordance with the orders received. But the Despatches of 1854 and 1859 stand out from all later documents as the fundamental Codes on which Indian education rests.

44. Despatches of 1854 and 1859 considered.—Such is a very brief outline of the main provisions of the orders upon which the educational policy of India during the last twenty-five years has been based, and by which it must in pursuance of our instructions be tested. We shall consider and expand those orders in full detail in the several Chapters of the Report in which each branch of education is treated. Meanwhile it may be said that the main feature of the Despatches cited, which most distinguishes them from all previous orders on the same subject, is contained in the annexed extract from the Despatch of 1854.

"It is well that every opportunity should have been given to those (the "higher) classes for the acquisition of a liberal European education, the effects "of which may be expected slowly to pervade the rest of their fellow-country-"men, and to raise, in the end, the educational tone of the whole country. We "are, therefore, far from underrating the importance, or the success, of the efforts "which have been made in this direction; but the higher classes are both able "and willing, in many cases, to bear a considerable part at least of the cost of "their education; and it is abundantly evident that in some parts of India no "artificial stimulus is any longer required in order to create a demand for such "an education as is conveyed in the Government Anglo-vernacular colleges. "We have, by the establishment and support of these colleges, pointed out the "manner in which a liberal education is to be obtained, and assisted them "to a very considerable extent from the public funds. In addition to this, we "are now prepared to give, by sanctioning the establishment of Universities, full "development to the highest course of education to which the natives of India, "or of any other country, can aspire; and besides, by the division of University "degrees and distinctions into different branches, the exertions of highly edu-"cated men will be directed to the studies which are necessary to success in the "various active professions of life. We shall, therefore, have done as much as "a Government can do to place the benefits of education plainly and practically "before the higher classes in India.

"Our attention should now be directed to a consideration if possible, still "more important, and one which has been hitherto, we are bound to admit, too "much neglected, namely, how useful and practical knowledge, suited to every "station in life, may be best conveyed to the great mass of the people, who are "utterly incapable of obtaining any education worthy of the name by their own "unaided efforts; and we desire to see the active measures of Government most "especially directed, for the future, to this object, for the attainment of which "we are ready to sanction a considerable increase of expenditure."

On the same subject the Despatch of 1859 declared that "if Government "shall have undertaken the responsibility of placing within the reach of the "general population the means of simple elementary education, those individuals "who require more than this may, as a general rule, be left to exert themselves "to procure it with or without the assistance of Government."

We do not here imply that education for the great mass of the people is the sole object of either Despatch. On the contrary, it is clear from the summary above given, and from the immediate context of the extracts just cited, that schools were to be started for "every condition of life," including schools of higher education intended for what may be called the higher classes. Still if any portion of the orders can be pronounced characteristic and distinctive, it is that portion which not only had never been enunciated before, but was opposed both to the earlier policy and to the reiterated views of the most influential educational agencies then in existence in India. It will be our duty to show how the policy of 1854 has been carried out in each Province; how it was affected by any previous bias or tendency; and by what progressive steps it has arrived at its present development. That policy has been expressly re-affirmed in the orders constituting the Commission, and its re-affirmation at this date is conclusive evidence of the soundness of Lord Dalhousie's appreciation of it when he declared that "it left nothing to be "desired, if indeed it does not authorise and direct that more should be done "than is within our present grasp." Few declarations of policy have been so comprehensive or have so well stood the searching test of time.

45. Formation of the Education Department in 1855-56.—On the publication of the Despatch of 1854, steps were taken to form an Education Department in each of the great territorial divisions of India as then constituted; and before the end of 1856, the new system was fairly at work. The formation of the separate Departments continued over a period of about 12 years, from 1854-55 in the larger Provinces to 1866-67 in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts. A Director of Public Instruction was appointed for each Province, with a staff of Inspectors and Deputy or Assistant Inspectors under him. This organisation of control and inspection remains substantially unchanged to the present day, with such modifications and additions as were required by the creation of new territorial divisions, or by the amalgamation of old ones. The Education Department in each Province acts directly under the orders of the Provincial Government, and has developed a system of working more or less distinctively its own. Everywhere it took over the Government or the Board institutions which had grown up under the earlier efforts of the East India Company. We have endeavoured to collect all the statistics* still available of educational institutions existing in India when the Department thus commenced its work. But the figures are not in every case to be relied upon. We shall briefly review the history of education in each Province under its separate heads of primary, secondary and collegiate. We shall summarise the progress made in developing the grant-in-aid system; and we shall conclude with a few general remarks on the policy pursued. We must, however, notice at the outset that throughout this Report British Burma is excluded from our notice. The omission of Ajmir from the statistical Tables and from subsequent Chapters will be presently explained. In addition to these omissions we are precluded by our instructions from dealing with the condition of education in those Native States of India which, unlike the Feudatory States of Bombay, either administer their own systems of public instruction, or else leave education entirely to private effort without any assistance from the State. Our Report is therefore concerned with nine Provinces of India, namely, Madras, Bombay, Bengal, the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, Assam, Coorg, and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, or as the last Province is usually called, Berar. When we speak of India, we refer to these nine Provinces only.

46. The Indian Universities, 1857-1882.—The Resolution appointing the Commission excludes the Universities from the scope of our enquiry; and we shall, both here and in Chapter VI, mention them only in their bearing upon collegiate and higher secondary education. The Despatch of 1854 prescribed the establishment of Universities, and in 1857 the three Universities of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay were incorporated by Acts of the Indian Legislature. The constitution of these bodies was modelled on that of the London University, with

* See General Tables 1*a* and 1*b* of the Statistical Tables at the end of this Report.

such modifications as were locally needed. The control of each University was vested in a Senate composed of a Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor and Fellows, the latter being in the first instance partially selected from the previously existing Councils and Boards of Education. The function of these Universities is that of examination, and not of instruction. The latter is conducted by the affiliated colleges and other institutions authorised to send up candidates for the University examinations. While the three elder Indian Universities have been successfully at work during a quarter of a century, a fourth University was established for the Punjab by an Act of the Indian Legislature in 1882. As the University was not established until after March 31st, 1882, the institution now known under that name is treated in this Report and its statistical Appendix as a college. The Punjab University was the result of a movement begun in 1864, and warmly supported by successive Lieutenant-Governors. Among its promoters Dr. Leitner holds a very prominent place. It is mainly an examining body, but exercises a variety of functions for the promotion of literature and education. Its distinguishing features are that it owes its origin to other than State efforts, and that it is designed to give special encouragement to oriental studies.

47. Educational Census of 1881.—Educational statistics are only intelligible in the light of statistics of area and population. The latter show th extent of the work to be done, and are the best guide to the progress of the futur on the basis of the progress in the past. With this view we include in the an nexed tabular Statement the area and population of the Provinces with which we are now concerned. It must be borne in mind that these figures comprise a vast variety of countries and races, differing very widely from each other in their nature, character, progress and stage of civilization; and that until these differences are fairly understood, only an imperfect conception can be formed of the full import of the educational statistics that follow. In any case, the magnitude of the scale on which education is attempted in India will be obvious to all. It must also be borne in mind that these educational statistics are derived from the Reports of the Census taken in February 1881 and are therefore much less recent than those given in our Report, from whic they differ for this and other reasons. The Census officers necessarily took a wider and more cursory survey than the officers of the Department. The forme were instructed to record not only the number of pupils in schools incorporate into the State system, but also those who were receiving instruction in indigenou or other schools in no way connected with the Department. But it is know that several errors have crept into the Census returns, which were collecte by a large and generally untrained agency of enumerators who, being unuse to the work, were liable to fall into mistakes. Moreover, the Census figure include Europeans and Eurasians, who are excluded from our returns In Madras, the Census figures include Native States with more than 300,00 persons; in Bengal, they include Kuch Behar, Hill Tipperah, and the Cho Nagpur Mahals, with more than 1,300,000 persons. Again, in Bombay a elsewhere it is known that a large percentage of children at school w returned not as "under instruction," but as "able to read and write." Assam it was thought that only those who had attended school on the day enumeration were to be entered as under instruction, and, as many sch were closed on that day, the Census returns give results far below th shown by the Department. In the Punjab the Deputy Superinten of Census thinks that wrong returns were intentionally made becau "native woman may be able to read, but it is not fitting that a res "able woman should be able to write,—that accomplishment being res "for women of light character." In other Provinces various reaso

assigned for the differences which exist between the departmental and the Census returns. With these reservations, we subjoin the following Table:—

EDUCATIONAL CENSUS OF INDIA IN 1881.

Exclusive of Feudatory or Native States attached to certain Provinces and of British Burma.

Province.	Area in square miles.	Male population: Total male population.	Male population: Under instruction.	Male population: Able to read and write, but not under instruction.	Proportion to total male population: Males under instruction.	Proportion to total male population: Males who can read and write, but are not under instruction.	Female population: Total female population.	Female population: Under instruction.	Female population: Able to read and write, but not under instruction.	Proportion to total female population: Females under instruction.	Proportion to total female population: Females who can read and write, but are not under instruction.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
adras . . .	141,001	15,421,043	519,823	1,535,790	1 in 30	1 in 10	15,749,588	39,104	94,571	1 in 403	1 in 166
ombay { British territory.*	124,122	8,497,718	271,469	672,895	1 „ 31	1 „ 12	7,956,696	18,460	32,648	1 „ 431	1 „ 244
ombay { Feudatory States.†	73,753	3,572,355	82,021	266,599	1 „ 43	1 „ 13	3,368,894	2,733	5,145	1 „ 1,232	1 „ 655
al . . .	193,198	34,625,591	1,009,999	1,991,583	1 „ 34	1 „ 17	34,911,270	35,760	61,449	1 „ 976	1 „ 568
-Western Provinces and Oudh—British tory.	106,111	22,912,556	299,225	1,033,458	1 „ 76	1 „ 22	21,195,313	9,771	21,590	1 „ 2,169	1 „ 981
b—British territory	106,632	10,210,053	157,623	482,129	1 „ 65	1 „ 21	8,640,384	6,101	8,407	1 „ 1,416	1 „ 1,028
al Provinces—Bri- territory.	84,445	4,959,435	76,849	157,023	1 „ 64	1 „ 25	4,879,356	3,171	4,187	1 „ 1,539	1 „ 1,165
. . .	46,341	2,503,703	33,376	79,644	1 „ 75	1 „ 31	2,377,723	1,068	1,786	1 „ 2,226	1 „ 1,331
. . .	1,583	100,439	4,268	8,839	1 „ 24	1 „ 11	77,863	431	356	1 „ 180	1 „ 219
rabad Assigned ricts.	17,711	1,380,492	27,347	57,827	1 „ 50	1 „ 24	1,292,181	356	789	1 „ 3,630	1 „ 1,638
. . .	2,711	248,844	5,697	24,486	1 „ 44	1 „ 10	211,878	245	963	1 „ 865	1 „ 220
TOTAL .	897,608	104,432,229	2,487,697	6,310,273	1 in 42	1 in 16	100,661,146	117,200	231,891	1 in 858	1 in 434

* Excluding Aden.

† Including three Native States which are not assisted by the Department.

Adding British Burma, which was excepted from the enquiries of the ommission, the totals for all India are as follows: Under instruction, males 620,913; females 145,523; total 2,766,436; able to read and write, but not ıder instruction, males 6,745,502; females 258,486; total 7,003,988. Comring these figures with those for the following year, which have been pplied to the Commission from the more accurate departmental returns of ıtive pupils only, we obtain the following results. Excluding Europeans and urasians and omitting notice of Ajmir, the Department was cognisant of 517,629 males and of 126,349 females at school in 1882; the Census officers certained that 2,487,697 males and 117,200 females, including Europeans d Eurasians and not omitting Ajmir, were under instruction in 1881. The tal expenditure on those branches of education with which our Report deals ording to Departmental returns for 1881-82, was Rs. 1,61,10,282 (nominally 611,028), of which Rs. 60,64,135 were contributed from Provincial revenues, 26,48,298 from local rates and cesses, Rs. 4,11,449 from Municipal funds, 37,86,006 from fees, and Rs. 32,00,394 from endowment and other sources. l details as to the methods and objects of this expenditure will be given in pter XII.

48. General Educational Results in 1881-82.—If we compare the es for 1882 with the best estimates available for 1855, the progress made g the 27 years has been very great. The highest total recorded for 1855, ing estimates for indigenous schools, is above 50,000 schools, with o scholars, for all India. This total includes 500,000 pupils estimated as

attending the indigenous schools of Bengal alone. In 1881-82 the departmental returns for all classes of institutions, including those for Europeans and Eurasians and for special instruction, show 112,632 schools and 2,665,636 pupils; or including Ajmir and British Burma 116,048 schools with 2,760,086 pupils: while the Census officers show that there were 2,520,143 pupils under instruction at the beginning of the calendar year 1881, in the British districts of India, exclusive of Burma; or 2,766,436, including British Burma. It should be remembered, however, that the returns for 1881-82 are far more complete and trustworthy than those for 1855. The number under instruction, together with those able to read and write but no longer under instruction, exceeds $9\frac{3}{4}$ millions for British India (including British Burma) out of a population of $208\frac{3}{4}$ millions. But if we compare the present state of education in India with the actual requirements of the people, the result is less satisfactory. It is difficult to estimate exactly what those requirements are. In European countries, it is usual to take the children of school-going age at one-sixth of the entire population, so that, in round numbers, one child should be at school for every six persons of the population. It would, however, be misleading to apply the same ratio to an oriental country, where the great bulk of the population, estimated at 65·5 of the whole, is agricultural. Moreover, the poverty of the countr must form an important consideration. Not only is the duration of the schoo going age necessarily shorter than in Europe, but, as a matter of fact, million of peasant families depend on the labour of their children in order to raise sufficient food to keep them alive during the year. The ratio of one child at school to each six persons of the population implies a standard of comfort and civilization unknown in India. Again, education in most European countries is compulsory by law; but having regard to the poverty and actual educational requirements of the great bulk of the population of India, the Commission declined even to enter into the question of a compulsory Education Act, which must at least be preceded by the provision of adequate school accommodation. We have adopted 15 per cent. as on the whole affording the best estimate of th children of school-going age. But whatever proportion may be adopted, it certain that a vast unoccupied area exists for further educational efforts, especiall in the direction of primary instruction. The average throughout British Ind (exclusive of British Burma) according to the Census of 1881 is one male und instruction to 42 of the whole male population, and one female to 858 of th whole female population. The great differences shown to exist in differer Provinces clearly prove the possibility of extension. Taking the departmenta returns for 1881-82 and comparing the pupils at school with the population school-going age, we find that Madras, the oldest of the great British Provinc shows a ratio of 17·78 for boys and of 1·48 for girls under instruction; whi Bombay heads the list with 22·91 and 1·59 per cent. for boys and girls respectivel The ratios in Bengal are respectively 20·82 and ·80 as against 8·25 and ·28 in t adjoining territories of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. In consideri the returns for the last-mentioned Provinces, which are the least satisfactory India, it must be borne in mind that Oudh was annexed in 1856, and if tak separately from the North-Western Provinces, to which it was attached in 18 the proportion for the latter would be improved. In the most recent addit to the Empire, the Central Provinces, the ratio for boys is 10·49 per cen the school-going population and ·44 for girls; while in Assam the ratios respectively 14·61 and ·46 per cent. For the nine Provinces of India which our Report deals, the average ratio which boys and girls under struction bear to the population of school-going age is 16·28 and ·84 res ively. The Punjab does not reach that average, showing 12·11 of the population of school-going age under instruction and ·72 of the female popu

89,700 children in schools recognised by the Department, and of these only a small fraction were in Government schools. As soon as the necessary funds were provided from local rates, the schools increased with regular and rapid progress, and in 1882 there were 360,643 children in primary schools maintained, aided, or inspected by the State. Of the schools thus incorporated into the State system only 8 per cent. were departmental schools, 51 per cent. were aided, and the rest were under inspection. It will thus be seen that in Madras preference has been given to private enterprise, and that the work of the Department has been one of adoption of existing institutions rather than one of direct creation by the instrumentality of Government. But great attention has been paid to training the teachers and to improving the method of the indigenous schools brought into the system. Training schools for male teachers have been systematically maintained. Although the provision of scholarsl to enable promising boys to proceed to secondary schools has been inadeq and the grants-in-aid have not in all cases been sufficiently liberal, st records of examination, as well as the increasing proportion of trained te prove that the results which have been obtained since 1868 are no numerically great but satisfactory in quality. The policy followed b Department has created as well as incorporated private schools; and ali according to the departmental returns, Madras follows closely upon Bomba Bengal in the proportion of its male population who are under instructi the schools recognised by the Department, while the Census returns show in the proportion of its population who are "instructed" it stands first an the Provinces. The proportion of local fund income now devoted to prin education is, however, less than was anticipated when Act IV of 1871 passed.

51. Madras: Secondary Education, 1855 to 1882.—In Madras Department found itself the heir to thirty years of educational effort, the res for the most part of missionary zeal. The Government schools of seconda education were only three in 1854-55,—the high school of Madras, and t Provincial schools of Rajamahendri and Cuddalore. Missionary schools of classes numbered about 700, and of these between 40 and 50 were what wo now be called secondary schools. The three schools established under t Pachaiyappa trust were also giving a high class education to about 1,oc pupils. On the formation of the Department in 1855-56, the Madras hig school, which had long been doing the work of a college, received the high title. Provincial schools, intended to be raised in future years to the sar rank, were established by the Department in four important towns; as wc also seven schools of the middle class giving instruction, more or less elemer ary, in English. The first grant-in-aid rules were published in 1855, every disposition was shown by the Department to give fair play to sch under private managers, which (as the official records of the time show) intended ultimately to supersede those managed directly by the Depart The result of action conducted in this liberal spirit was that, by 1870-' number of grant-in-aid institutions for secondary education had risen high and 523 middle schools (including one high and 90 middle sch girls). Together they educated 18,893 pupils, excluding the attendan primary classes. At the same date the departmental system showed 14 and 67 middle schools for boys, educating 3,233 pupils in all classes a the primary. The expenditure on departmental institutions of all grades from Rs. 95,704 in 1855-56 to Rs. 2,13,472 in 1870-71. The expenditu grants-in-aid rose within the same period from Rs. 11,105 to Rs. 3,(The standard of education advanced at a corresponding rate. Out of districts (exclusive of the Presidency), 13 had in 1870-71 been provide

schools; while 39 schools of the same class had also been private managers. Every District but one had its high school, ent or aided; and in three towns Government and aided le by side. The period from 1870-71 to 1881-82 is marked by nge of policy, the general character of which will be gathered the number of Government schools rose within this period hile that of aided schools fell from 527 to 271. The loss was e schools, chiefly for boys, receiving grants-in-aid. The num- e schools for girls also fell from 83 to 18, while the Depart- ished one high and three middle schools of the same class. eavy loss is no doubt to be explained by greater accuracy of the revision of the grant-in-aid rules contributed in no slight ult, by reducing the rates of aid to secondary schools and making ore stringent. The expenditure on grants-in-aid to secondary etween 1870-71 and 1881-82 from Rs. 2,37,000 to Rs. 77,000. e is due partly to the reclassification of a number of middle as ls, partly to the separation of the primary departments of middle corresponding separation of expenditure, and partly to the exclusion r date of schools for Europeans and Eurasians. The reductions, owever large, cannot therefore be precisely determined; but some indication their extent may be afforded by the fact that the number of unaided condary schools returned for 1881-82 was 334, with 4,929 pupils. The ex- enditure from public funds in 1881-82 on 23 high and 136 middle schools, anaged by the Department and educating in all 6,288 pupils, was Rs. 1,14,188; hile the expenditure from the same sources on 48 high and 223 middle chools receiving grants-in-aid and educating together 13,072 pupils, was Rs. 77,617.

52. Madras: Collegiate Education.—Though in the matter of coll cation this Province has since advanced with rapid strides, it wa 37 that it had any institutions which could properly be called c ere, therefore, collegiate education did not pass through the oriental hich in Bengal, Bombay, and the North-Western Provinces was prelimina e present development; and this circumstance was perhaps favourable ra an unfavourable to ultimate progress. For many years after the incorpora the University in 1857, students were allowed to appear for the higher ex inations without any certificate of having attended an affiliated institution. us the line between high schools and colleges was by no means sharply drawn. n institution which sent up candidates for the F. A. Examination one year ight send no others for several years afterwards. But so late as 1865 there were not more than five or six institutions that could properly rank as colleges; and the number of students attending them did not probably exceed 200. In 1871 the colleges, excluding one for Europeans and Eurasians, were eleven in number with about 420 students. Of these, 5 were departmental colleges and 6 under private managers. By 1882 the number of colleges had doubled, and the number of students nearly quadrupled. Of the 14 colleges under private managers, 11 received grants-in-aid, while 3 were unaided.

53. Madras: Female Education.—The total number of girls at schoo when the Department was formed was nearly 8,000, of whom the great portion were in missionary schools. The Despatch of 1854 led to increas efforts on the part of the State, which chiefly took the form of aiding priv enterprise as in the case of primary schools for boys. Still, departme agency was not entirely neglected. In 1870-71 more than 14,000 girls, includi

Estimate of the extent of Education† in Madras in the first Departmental year, 1855-56; and its subsequent growth.

Year	Nature of the Maintaining Agency	Arts Colleges, English and Oriental. No.	Arts Colleges, English and Oriental. Pupils.	Professional Schools, other than Normal Schools. No.	Professional Schools, other than Normal Schools. Pupils.	Secondary Schools. No.	Secondary Schools. Pupils.	Primary Schools. No.	Primary Schools. Pupils.	Indigenous Schools. No.	Indigenous Schools. Pupils.	Normal Schools and Classes. No.	Normal Schools and Classes. Pupils.	Total. No.	Total. Pupils.
1855-56	Departmental	1	302	5	491	11	1,631	83	2,093	...	...	1	21	101	4,538
	Aided and Inspected	...	...	...	...	25	2,101	...	...	...	...	...	...	25	2,101
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	30	3,687	1,112	32,843	12,498	161,687	...	...	13,640	198,217
	Total	1	302	5	491	66	7,419	1,195	34,936	12,498	161,687	1	21	13,765	204,856
1870-71	Departmental	5	288	4	527	81	3,233*a*	98	5,463*b*	...	...	9	1,118‡	197	10,629
	Aided and Inspected	6	130	...	...	563	18,893*a*	3,352	84,239*b*	*c*	*c*	7	791‡	3,928	104,053
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	*c*	*c*	...	...	12,624	149,003
	Total	11	418	4	527	644	22,126	3,450	89,702	...	...	16	1,909‡	16,749	263,685
1881-82	Departmental	11	780	*[9	629]	159	6,288*a*	1,263	46,975*b*	...	...	27	662	1,460	54,705
	Aided and Inspected	14	927	*[3	138]	605	18,001*a*	13,223	313,668*b*	...	...	6	294	13,848	332,890
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	2,828	54,064	...	...	2,828	54,064
	Total	25	1,707	*[12	767]	764	24,289	14,486	360,643	2,828	54,064	33	956	18,136	441,659

* Unattached professional schools, and not included in the grand total.
a. Excluding the pupils of attached primary schools.
b. Including ditto ditto.
c. Statistics included under Primary schools if aided, and if unaided included in total.
† European and Eurasian schools are excluded from the figures for 1881-82 and as far as possible for the two earlier years.
‡ Including the pupils of attached Practising schools.

56. Bombay: Education from 1855-56 to 1881-82.—The Department in Bombay succeeded to the labours of the Board of Education, and its first Director, Mr. C. Erskine, C.S., mapped out its future policy. The Directors who followed him have built up the present system upon the foundations which he laid. The missionary societies had already made some impression upon the people, and were educating nearly 7,000 pupils, of whom 900 were in secondary schools. These results, though not insignificant, were small in comparison with those recorded in Madras. Native enterprise was also taking a part in the work, but its efforts were represented by only 19 secondary and 84 primary schools in the whole Presidency. Indigenous schools were more numerous and were attended by about 70,500 pupils, but their method of instruction was declared to be very inefficient; and while in Madras there were 198,217 pupils outside the Department in its first year, there were in Bombay only 80,846 such pupils. The work which the Department set before itself, after a careful census, was one of creation rather than of incorporation.

57. Bombay: Primary Education.—Before the Department was created, the claims of the masses in Bombay had been admitted in more than theory; but owing to the belief that the indigenous schools were inadequate, the primary system in Bombay has been built up from the very first almost entirely on the departmental foundation and by the direct instrumentality of Government, in accordance with one of the principles recommended in the Despatch of 1859. At present less than 5 per cent. of the schools brought within the system are aided. The control and supervision of the schools are entrusted to local boards with school committees under them; but the Department exercises great influence through the Inspector, who is *ex-officio* a member of the boards. The numerous Native States, with a population of 6,728,950 persons, and covering more than a third of the whole area of the Presidency, have also voluntarily adopted the departmental system and placed their schools under the inspection of the educational officers. Local rates levied on the land were introduced into the British Districts in 1864; but were not placed on a legal

basis until 1865 in Sind, nor until 1869 in the rest of the Presidency. In 1871 there were 159,628 children in primary schools recognised by the State. In 1881-82 the numbers had risen to nearly 333,000; and the percentage of boys in primary schools to the total male population was then larger than in any other Province of India with which our Report deals, being slightly in excess of the proportion in Bengal when the primary departments of secondary schools in that Province are excluded. Particular attention is paid to the efficiency of primary schools, to the training of teachers, especially of schoolmistresses, and to the provision of good school accommodation and apparatus. On the other hand, the indigenous schools still remain almost entirely outside the pale of the Department, and the encouragement offered to private enterprise is inadequate. The proportion of public funds devoted to primary education is the largest* in India.

58. Bombay: Secondary Education.—The Department began its operations with 23 high and middle schools under its own control, including 7 in Native States, and with 7 aided and inspected schools under native management, educating together 3,578 pupils. There were also several missionary schools, to which the Local Government long hesitated to extend any help. By 1870-71 the number of Government schools had risen to 147, including 10 high schools, with 9,045 pupils excluding the primary classes. The grant-in-aid system was sanctioned in 1864, but not brought into operation until 1866. Under it missionary institutions were for the first time admitted to aid. The system was declared to be suitable only for schools of secondary instruction, and its application was mainly confined to institutions of that class. But the people at large manifested hardly any interest in its success; and in 1870-71, after it had been in operation seven years, there were no more than 23 aided secondary schools for natives of India, of which the majority were under missionary management. Between 1870-71 and 1881-82 the number of Government schools remained stationary at 147, but high schools of this class increased from 10 to 19; while aided secondary schools rose from 23 to 53. The state of the provincial finances in 1875 led to a temporary reduction, which has since been made good, in the allotment for result-grants. In 1870-71 there were 3 middle schools for girls receiving grants-in-aid; in 1881-82 the number had risen to 9. The expenditure from public funds in 1881-82 upon 147 Government schools (19 high and 128 middle), educating 11,170 pupils, was Rs. 2,19,657; the expenditure upon 53 aided schools (14 high and 39 middle) with 5,561 pupils was Rs. 59,642. There were also 66 unaided schools (15 high and 51 middle) educating 6,527 pupils, the majority of these being schools maintained by Native States.

59. Bombay: Collegiate Education.—The two first grade Arts colleges at Bombay and Poona were affiliated to the University in 1860, a third in 1861, and three more between 1869 and 1881. In 1881-82 three of the colleges were Government, two were aided, and one was an unaided college in the Kohlapur State. Between 1860-61 and 1870-71, 244 students had passed the F.A., 116 the B.A., and 28 the M.A. examinations. During the next eleven years the successful candidates at these three stages were respectively 709, 340, and 34.

60. Bombay: Female Education.—The Despatch of 1854 found the ground partially occupied by missionary bodies, and to some extent in Poona and in Ahmedabad by native effort. In the city of Bombay the natives had already organised a number of girls' schools which were independent of Government. The number of girls at schools known to the Department in 1854

* See General Table 3*d* at the end of the Report.

was rather more than 4,000, or about half the number at that time in Madras. The statistics for 1870-71 showed 9,190 pupils in girls' schools, chiefly departmental institutions. From that date the Bombay Government adopted a more systematic and liberal policy towards female education. In 1881-82, there were nearly 27,000 girls in schools recognised by the State; and the percentage of the female population in schools known to the Department, though small, was higher than in any other Province of India. The great bulk of the pupils were attending either Government schools in British territory or schools of a similar character in Native States. No secondary school for girls was maintained by the Department, but there were 555 pupils in the aided schools of this class. On the other hand, the Department maintained two female Normal schools. In no other Province is a larger assignment made from public funds to female education, but greater encouragement of private enterprise is still required.

61. Bombay: Grants-in-aid.—Bombay is one of the Provinces in which it was important that private effort should be induced, at the outset, to co-operate with the State, and where it might have been expected to do so. Though the number of institutions under private management which existed in 1854 was far less considerable than the number of those which then existed either in Madras or in Bengal, still there were in that year about 230 schools with 14,000 pupils under missionary and other private managers. The indigenous schools, though much less numerous than in Madras, were estimated at 2,300 with 70,500 pupils. In this condition of affairs, the Department began to supply the educational wants of the population by originating schools under departmental management instead of incorporating the existing schools and stimulating the development of private enterprise. Until 1863 no steps had been taken to elicit private effort, and even then the rules proposed were not acceptable to missionary and other school managers. In 1865 a more liberal scheme for grants-in-aid was introduced. But in the meanwhile the departmental system had become so completely established in public favour, that private enterprise was placed under difficulties and found the most suitable ground already occupied. In Chapter VIII we shall consider the advantages and disadvantages of the grant-in-aid system which prevails in Bombay of payments by results. It is only necessary to observe here that, notwithstanding the difficulties referred to and the temporary check given in 1876, private enterprise has proved its vitality and done good service especially in higher education. In 1881-82 about 27 per cent. of the native pupils attending colleges and secondary schools were in aided institutions, to which the aid given from public funds was 19 per cent. of the net cost to the State of the corresponding departmental institutions. There is therefore every reason to hope that private enterprise, especially under native agencies, will be largely developed, if liberal aid is given and more systematic encouragement afforded.

62. Bombay: General Summary.—The following tabular Statement exhibits the progress of education from the first year of departmental effort down to 1881-82. It shows, in marked contrast to Madras, the small vitality of extra-departmental institutions; but it also shows a large development and improvement of primary education, and steady progress in higher education. The increase of primary scholars was checked by the famine in 1877-79, but the losses were soon recovered, and the progress of earlier years was resumed. The Bombay educational system is in full accordance with the instructions contained in the Despatches so far as regards the large proportion of funds assigned and the attention devoted to primary education. Complaints have, however, been justly made that an excessive share of the Provincial assignment has been given to schools in towns, to the

disadvantage of the payers of the rural cess. But although the whole primary system for male as well as for female education is well organised, it rests too exclusively on the direct instrumentality of Government. We have elsewhere recommended that the indigenous schools should be incorporated into the system, as was proposed by the first Director. Secondary education is economically and efficiently managed, although the number of schools is small as compared with the number of scholars. But the principles of the grant-in-aid system have not received full attention, and in this respect the Department took at the outset a direction which was not that indicated by the Despatch of 1854.

Estimate of the extent of Education in Bombay in the first departmental year, 1855-56; and its subsequent growth.

Nature of the Maintaining Agency.		Arts Colleges, English and Oriental.		Professional Schools, other than Normal Schools.		Secondary Schools.		Primary Schools.		Indigenous Schools.		Normal Schools.		Total.	
		No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
1855-56	Departmental.	2	103	7	311	23	3,183	220	17,669a	...	...	5	76	257	21,342
	Aided and Inspected.	...	...	...	...	7	395	36	2,342	...	...	...	...	43	2,737
	Extra-Departmental.	...	...	...	...	12	2,022	176	9,425	2,387	70,514	...	...	2,575	81,061
	Total	2	103	7	311	42	5,600	432	29,436	2,387	70,514	5	76	2,875	106,040
1870-71	Departmental.	3	250	4	399	147	9,045b	2,307	129,653c	...	...	9	490	2,470	139,837
	Aided and Inspected.	2	47	2	213	62	6,482b	431	29,975c	5	455	...	...	502	36,772
	Extra-Departmental.	...	...	...	...	...	Schools, 240	Pupils, 12,184	...	2,922	77,000	...	...	3,162	89,184
	Total	5	297	6	612	...	3,187	187,339	...	2,927	77,055	9	490	6,134	265,793
1881-82	Departmental.	3	311	*[11 27	1,061] 17 †(1,001)	147	11,170	3,811	243,959	...	...	6	433	3,994	255,890
	Aided and Inspected.	3	164	[4	360]	109	9,373	1,454	85,181	73	3,548	3	120	1,642	98,386
	Extra-Departmental.	...	...	...	...	10	2,715	6	2,000	4,012	78,755	...	...	4,028	83,470
	Total	6	475	*[15 27	1,421] 17 †(1,001)	266	23,258	5,271	331,140	4,085	82,303	9	553	9,664	437,746

* The numbers enclosed in square brackets are for unattached institutions and are not included in the grand total of this table.

† These pupils attended primary or secondary schools, as well as technical institutions, and are included in the totals of the former class of schools only

a. Including attached middle schools.

b. Excluding the pupils in attached primary schools.

c. Including ditto ditto ditto.

63. Bengal: Education from 1854-55 to 1881-82.—The Department received charge from the Council of Education of 151 institutions with 13,163 pupils, of whom all except 3,279 were attending colleges and secondary schools. The field was, however, largely occupied by native and missionary institutions, which then received no assistance from the State. It was believed that there were half a million of children in Bengal and Assam attending indigenous schools, besides some in primary schools of a better class and others attending primary classes in secondary schools. The Local Government did not for some years fulfil its duty towards primary education; but when at last in 1872 the diffusion of education among the masses was actively taken up, the vast net-work of indigenous schools supplied the basis on which the Department worked.

64. Bengal: Primary Education.—In Bengal there had always existed a very large number of indigenous schools. In 1835 Mr. Adam suggested a definite plan of encouraging these institutions, which were even then estimated at

100,000; but for many years after little practical effect was given to his recommendations. As soon as the Department was constituted, it introduced in 1856 the "circle system," which had for its immediate aim the improvement of the indigenous schools and masters, under the direction of a competent Pandit who taught the highest classes in a group of three or four schools. By this means 172 schools had in 1860-61 been brought under improvement. It was then felt that the means adopted were inadequate to the great task, and in 1862 the "Normal school system" was substituted. A full account of this and other systems will be given in Chapter IV; and it is unnecessary here to do more than to state that in 1870-71 some 2,000 village schools, with an average attendance of 28 pupils in each, had been taken in hand and supplied with trained teachers. In 1868 the Government of India had addressed the Governments of Bengal and Madras on the subject of extending primary education and imposing a local rate on the land. But while the Bengal Government accepted the first suggestion, it has not yet adopted the second; and Bengal is now the only Province in which no local rate for education exists. In 1872, however, Sir George Campbell determined to adopt vigorous measures for extending primary education; and under the operation of the decentralisation scheme introduced by Lord Mayo in 1870, he was enabled to allot a liberal grant for that purpose. In 1875 part of Sir George Campbell's scheme was modified, and the extensive provision of training schools which he had made was reduced to small proportions. From the same date grants to indigenous schools began to be distributed under the system of payment by results originally set on foot by Mr. H. L. Harrison in the Midnapur District. The chief characteristics of the Bengal policy have been the wide interest taken in the indigenous schools, and the incorporation of the largest possible number of them within the departmental system; the determination to keep the standard of instruction from advancing too rapidly beyond the traditional methods of indigenous education; and the gradual improvement of the schools by central examinations and by the removal of inefficient teachers. Its defects have been the inadequacy of the aid rendered; the want of funds which in other Provinces are provided by local rates; the general abandonment of training schools or other means of securing a continuous supply of improved teachers; and the insufficiency of the inspecting staff for so vast a network of educational agencies. But the numerical results have been remarkable. In 1870-71, excluding the primary classes of secondary schools, there were only 68,500 pupils in primary schools recognised by the Department, while in 1881-82 there were nearly 900,000. The Department has won the confidence of the indigenous schools, and there is yet an outer circle of them awaiting incorporation into the State system. Still the proportion of public funds—including in that term Provincial, Local, and Municipal funds—which is spent on primary education is by far the lowest in any Province of India; being 13 per cent. less than in the Punjab, and 27 per cent. below Bombay. It must, however, be remembered that this comparison is affected by the absence, as above explained, of any local educational cess in Bengal. With additional means the Department will be enabled fully to carry out its policy of improving the system of primary education; and the indigenous schools are so numerous that the extention of the system will offer no practical difficulties.

65. Bengal: Secondary Education.—The secondary schools which the Department, at its first constitution in January 1855, received from the Council of Education were 47 Anglo-vernacular and 26 vernacular schools. As a means of extending education of this class, the grant-in-aid system was accepted with alacrity by the people of Bengal. A small grant of Rs. 30,000 was at first assigned for aiding private institutions; and in little more than a year

the whole of it was taken up by 79 Anglo-vernacular and 140 vernacular schools of all classes. At the very outset, therefore, the aided system had outstripped the departmental system in the field of secondary education. In 1863 the number of aided secondary schools had risen to 172 Anglo-vernacular and 251 middle vernacular schools; the departmental schools at the same date being 46 Anglo-vernacular and 175 middle vernacular. Steady progress continued to be made; and by 1871 the requirements of the people for secondary schools had come to be very fairly met. The secondary schools maintained by the Department were at that date 53 high English, 8 middle English, and 209 middle vernacular, educating together 22,552 pupils, at a cost to Government of Rs. 2,79,450; the aided system included 80 high English, 551 middle English, and 769 middle vernacular schools, educating in all 68,593 pupils, at a cost to Government of Rs. 3,30,687. Assam was separated from Bengal in 1874, carrying with it 125 secondary schools, Government and aided, with 6,779 pupils. In subsequent years the progress of secondary education was affected by the temporary reduction of the grant-in-aid assignment first in 1871, and again in 1876 owing to famine and other causes; by the measures taken to prevent the multiplication of inefficient schools; and by the reconstitution of all middle schools on a vernacular basis. The result of these operations was the transfer of many middle English schools to the vernacular class, and the withdrawal of grants from others which had failed to justify the aid afforded them. The comparative progress of the Government and the aided system of secondary education between 1870-71 and 1881-82 will be seen from the following statistics, regard being paid to the separation of Assam, and to the exclusion of European schools from the returns of 1881-82. The secondary schools maintained by the Department decreased from 270 in 1870-71 to 245 in 1881-82; while their pupils increased from 22,552 to 26,910. The expenditure on them from public funds also decreased from Rs. 2,89,486 to Rs. 2,53,640. Aided secondary schools decreased from 1,400 to 1,370; their pupils increased from 68,593 to 83,949; while the expenditure on them from public funds fell from Rs. 3,30,687 to Rs. 2,98,506. The total recorded increase in the secondary system of education between 1871 and 1882 is from 1,670 schools with 91,145 pupils to 1,891 schools with 139,198 pupils; unaided schools being however excluded from the figures of the former and included in those of the latter year. The increase has been effected with a reduction in the expenditure from public funds from Rs. 6,20,173 to Rs. 5,54,819. It must, however, be remembered that the secondary schools in Bengal and Assam included at the later as at the earlier date full primary departments, and that a large proportion of the pupils returned for 1881-82 under secondary, would in other Provinces be included under primary education.

66. Bengal: Collegiate Education.—The English Arts colleges in 1854-55 were 11 in number, *viz.*, 5 Government and 6 private colleges. In the former there were 192 students; in the latter the number is unknown. By 1862-63 the Government colleges had increased to 8 with 579 students, the private colleges to 7. In 1870-71 the colleges of both kinds were 18 in number. In 1881-82 they were 21, excluding Madrasas, with about 2,740 students, of whom about half were in the Government colleges. The number of students, who in 1881-82 passed the F.A., B.A., and M.A. examinations were respectively 287, 91, and 26, of which totals the Government colleges claimed 171, 59, and 22; the aided and unaided colleges 116, 32, and 4. The Calcutta Madrasa, the earliest of the Indian colleges, still represents in a modified form the older oriental colleges, and there are 4 other institutions at District centres in which a similar education is given in Arabic literature; while the Sanskrit College of Calcutta teaches to a high standard in Sanskrit.

67. Bengal: Female Education.—Before the Despatch of 1854 was received in India, the Bethune Girls' School in Calcutta, managed by a committee and intended for the education of girls of the higher classes of society, had obtained considerable reputation. In 1854 there were about 1,000 girls under instruction in schools known to the Department. Sixteen years later there were 274 girls' schools receiving aid, with nearly 6,000 pupils. Since 1870-71 some progress has been made, but Bengal is still far behind the Western and Southern Presidencies in the proportion of girls at school to its female population. Less than 3 per cent. of its public educational funds are devoted to female education. Bengal maintains no Government Normal school, but it assists two institutions under private management, attended by 41 pupils. On the other hand, there are more than 1,000 girls in secondary schools (including 840 in primary classes), of whom 300 are in Government institutions. More than half the total number of girls at school are in primary mixed schools. In the Bethune school and in one of the aided institutions there are 9 matriculated students reading for University degrees. The total number of girls at schools known to the Department exceeds 41,000, while the female population of Bengal is 35 millions.

68. Bengal: Grants-in-aid.—The large application of the grant-in-aid system to indigenous schools in Bengal has already been explained. In secondary instruction the Government has liberally aided popular effort from the first, and with one temporary exception, in 1871, has continued to manifest an unfailing interest in its maintenance. By 1870-71, 631 aided schools were providing secondary instruction through the medium of English, as against 61 English secondary schools directly managed by the Department; while there were 769 middle vernacular aided schools against 209 in the hands of the Department. There were thus 1,400 secondary schools maintained by aided private effort, and only 270 provided by the Department directly. By 1881-82 the separation of Assam had reduced the number of both aided and departmental secondary schools, but the relative proportion of the two classes was practically unchanged. There were then 1,370 aided secondary schools and 245 departmental secondary schools, while the unaided secondary schools, which are also under private managers and may be regarded as an indirect result of the grant-in-aid system, numbered 276. The pupils in schools maintained by private effort were about four-fifths of the entire number attending schools for secondary instruction in the Province. With regard to primary instruction the indigenous schools have been brought in vast numbers into connection with the Department, but the many important questions arising out of this application of the system of grants-in-aid will be fully discussed in Chapter IV. In collegiate education much less has been done than in secondary education. The aided colleges of the Province are not half so numerous as in Madras, and their number has not increased for many years. No college indeed has come into existence in Bengal under the grant-in-aid rules. The colleges under native management are confined, with a single exception, to Calcutta, and are all unaided. There has been no withdrawal of departmental institutions; but aided effort has been so fostered at all stages below the highest, that by far the largest proportion of the means of education is now provided and managed by the people for themselves with only aid and supervision from the State.

69. Bengal: General Summary.—The following Statement exhibits the progress of education in Bengal; but it must be remembered that in the first year, as well as in 1870-71, the figures for Assam are included. It must also be noted that for the sake of uniformity the primary departments of secondary schools are shown as primary schools. The most striking feature in the Table is

the contrast between the unaided schools, chiefly primary, in 1870-71 and in 1881-82. Of the total estimated number of pupils in the Province in 1870-71, namely, 878,401, it was believed that more than 700,000 were in schools outside the departmental system. But in 1881-82, the great bulk of unaided institutions for primary instruction had been incorporated into the general system. The main characteristic of educational progress in Bengal is its ready acceptance of the grant-in-aid principle, which in no other Province of India has received so great a development in all stages of education below collegiate. Within the last decade primary education recognised by the State has advanced with extraordinary rapidity. Much, however, remains to be done before the improvement in its quality corresponds with its numerical advance. The provision of trained teachers is inadequate; and although the Provincial grant to education is larger than in any other Province, still the absence of local rates prevents the Department from affording such pecuniary aid to primary schools as is given in other Provinces. The rapid extension of responsibilities has outstripped the capacity of the Inspectors to exercise adequate supervision over the indigenous schools. The proportion of public funds spent upon higher education, and especially upon departmental colleges, is much larger than in any other Province of India.

Estimate of the extent of Education in Bengal and Assam at the beginning of the first departmental year, 1854-55; and its subsequent growth.

Nature of the Maintaining Agency.		Arts Colleges, English and Oriental.		Professional Schools other than Normal Schools.		Secondary Schools.		Primary Schools.		Indigenous Schools.		Normal Schools and Classes.		Total.	
		No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
1854	Departmental	8	921	1	110	73	8,853(a)	69	3,279	...	...	...	...	151	13,163
	Aided and Inpected	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Extra Departmental	6	?	...	...	22	6,054(a)	199	8,514	25,000	500,000	...	...	25,227	514,568
	Total	14	921	1	110	95	14,907	268	11,793	25,000	500,000	...	...	25,378	527,731
1870-71	Departmental	13	1,153	14	1,377	270	10,956(b)	317	13,213(a)	...	...	28	1,344	642	28,053
	Aided and Inspected	5	394	...	...	1,400	25,185(b)	4,007	113,275(a)	...	...	12	397	5,424	140,251
	Extra-Departmental	2	24	...	...	...	...	357	9,077(a)	35,000	700,000	5	96	35,364	710,097
	Total	20	1,571	14	1,377	1,670	37,151	4,681	136,465	35,000	700,000	45	1,837	41,430	878,401
1881-82 †	Departmental	18	2,394	*[19	1,146]	245	8,990(b)	273	18,836(a)	...	...	10	672	552	30,892
	Aided and Inspected	9	1,433	*[3	262]	1,646	35,390(b)	53,396	973,871(a)	...	...	6	376	55,957	1,011,570
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	4,283	57,305	...	...	4,283	57,305
	Total	27	3,827	*[22	1,408]	1,891	44,380	53,669	992,707	4,283	57,305	22	1,048	59,892	1,099,767

(a) Including the pupils in attached primary schools.
(b) Excluding ditto ditto ditto.

* The numbers enclosed in square brackets relate to unattached institutions, and are not included in the grand totals of this table.
† In 1881-82 the figures for Assam are excluded.

70. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Education from 1854-55 to 1881-82.—The Education Department in the North-Western Provinces found the system of tahsili and halkabandi schools, described in Chapter IV, in vigorous operation. These schools gradually took the place of the indigenous institutions, and thus supplied the basis for a system of primary instruction through direct Government agency. The halkabandi schools, commenced in 1851-52, had proved their usefulness in certain Districts before the creation of the Department in 1855, and their success determined the future policy in regard to primary education in the North-Western Provinces. That policy was to found departmental primary schools of a better class, rather than to develope indigenous or private institutions. At the end of its first year, the Education Department of the North-Western Provinces found itself in charge

of 897 Government schools of all classes, with 23,688 pupils. Outside these directly departmental institutions, there were said to be about 3,000 schools, with about 29,000 pupils, unaided and uninspected. The result of the first sixteen years of departmental organisation was very largely to increase the number of Government schools, but to do little for the encouragement of aided education. This tendency was still more marked by the end of the next decade, when the pupils in aided institutions had fallen to 19,310, and those in extra-departmental schools had increased to 68,305. But it must be observed that in no Province of India have changes of classification exercised a more disturbing effect upon the statistics; and the annual Reports on Public Instruction present such varieties of treatment and such inconsistencies between the figures given in different parts of the same Report, that we have found great difficulty in tracing the progress of the educational history of the Province.

71. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Primary Education.—The North-Western Provinces were the pioneers of the policy of extending primary education amongst the masses, and of providing adequate funds by means of local rates. Mr. Thomason's efforts had received the warm approval of the Court of Directors prior to 1854. His system was to encourage indigenous schools by careful inspection, and to provide model schools at the head-quarters of each tahsil. His successors developed the system of the halkabandi schools, and abandoned the indigenous agency in favour of the direct instrumentality of the Department. In 1870-71 there were more than 153,000 children at primary schools, of whom all but about 5,000 were in departmental institutions. In 1881-82, the numbers had risen to more than 213,000, of whom about 16,000 were in aided and inspected schools. Of the primary schools recognised by the State 95 per cent. were departmental; and there were some 7,120 elementary indigenous schools which received no encouragement or assistance from the State. The Government schools are described as being in their own sphere efficient, and they receive more than half the total amount expended from public funds on education in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. But the Government schools prove attractive to only one class of the community; and with those members of the lower classes of rural society who are both able to spare the services of their children and anxious to give them instruction, the indigenous schools are said to be more popular. The further extension of primary instruction seems to depend on the adoption of the measures which Mr. Thomason suggested, and on the systematic encouragement of indigenous schools. Although the Government of these Provinces was the first to recognise the claims of primary education, yet the percentage of primary pupils in schools recognised by the Department to the whole male population is only ·89 per cent. In no other Province of India is the proportion so low. Efforts are therefore clearly needed to place primary education on a wider basis; and the recognition of the indigenous schools, which, despite the competition of the halkabandi schools, have never lost their hold on the people, appears to offer a better prospect of success than exclusive reliance upon departmental institutions.

72. The North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Secondary Education.—In 1854-55 the means of secondary education in the North-Western Provinces were provided by the schools at Bareli, Sagar, and Ajmir, in addition to the school departments of the colleges at Benares, Agra, and Delhi. For some years no addition was made to the number of secondary schools. Additional schools were indeed established; but in the large majority little more than elementary instruction in English was given. In Oudh the Education Department was created in 1864, when there were in existence 10 zila schools. In 1870-71 the Government schools for secondary education

in the two Provinces comprised 20 high and 35 middle English schools, besides 273 tahsili schools, in which instruction to a fairly high standard was given in the vernacular exclusively. A Government high school was not set up at the head-quarters of each District, because in many cases there already existed a school which was thought adequate to the needs of the locality. There were at this time 182 English schools for boys and 26 for girls, receiving grants-in-aid. The original grant-in-aid rules of 1858 were modified in a more liberal sense in 1864; and by 1871 the amount awarded in grants to aided schools had reached Rs. 1,80,000. But the majority of these secondary schools were under missionary bodies, and there was comparatively little native enterprise. In 1881-82, the departmental system included 25 high and 42 middle schools teaching English, and 455 middle vernacular schools; the latter class now including about 200 halkabandi schools, in which some of the pupils had reached the middle standard. In all they educated 6,489 pupils, at a cost to public funds of Rs. 2,25,548. Aided schools educated 2,686 pupils, at a cost of Rs. 53,442 to public funds. The number of unaided secondary schools of this class was quite insignificant.

73. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Collegiate Education.—Of the 4 colleges which existed in these Provinces at the formation of the Education Department, one, that at Delhi, perished in the Mutiny, and when it was re-established in 1864 it had passed under the Punjab Government. The 3 remaining were affiliated to the Calcutta University shortly after its incorporation; and between 1861-62 and 1870-71 they passed 96 candidates at the F.A., 26 at the B.A., and 5 at the M.A. examinations. Besides the Government colleges, there were 5 aided English colleges, from which, during the same period, 24 candidates had been successful at the F.A., and 3 at the B.A. examinations. Between 1871-72 and 1881-82, the Government and aided colleges varied from 6 to 10; at the end of each of these years there were 9. The total number of students at the end of the period in Government, aided and unaided colleges, excluding oriental departments, was 349; and during the ten years the successful candidates at the University examinations were in the F.A. 365, in the B.A. 130, and in the M.A. 33.

74. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Female Education.—The efforts of Government officers were from an early date directed to the extension of female education. In 1854-55 there were less than 400 girls at school, and these were all attending missionary institutions. The Mutiny swept away most of the schools which existed before 1857, and the history of female education commenced afresh in 1859. By 1870-71 more than 12,000 girls had been collected in the various institutions, aided or supported by the Department. Three years later the number had increased to 16,500, and then a change of policy interrupted further progress. In 1882 there were about 9,000 girls at school, of whom more than 5,000 were in aided primary schools. In no other Province of India, except Coorg, is the proportion of girls in schools recognised by the Department to the female population and the expenditure so small. But there are 3 aided Normal schools, and it is believed that the indigenous schools which are outside the Department have some girls among their pupils.

75. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Grants-in-aid.—In this Province the grant-in-aid system has met with small success. A good beginning was made; and for some years after 1858, when rules which school managers considered fair, were put in force, it seemed as if private effort would take a highly important place in the work of education. Subsequently its development began to be checked; and from 1871-72, after making all allowance for

the fact that several schools classed as aided in 1870-71 were really under departmental management, the tendency has on the whole been steadily downward. There has indeed been a considerable increase in the number of students attending aided colleges, and some increase in the number of pupils attending aided primary schools; but at the same time there has been a considerable loss in aided schools of secondary instruction. Still such grants as are given are more liberal in amount than in Madras, Bombay, or Bengal.

76. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: General Summary.—The following Statement exhibits the progress of education from the first year of departmental effort to 1881-82. It shows that the indigenous schools have increased, notwithstanding the competition of the Government schools and the absence of encouragement or assistance. It must be observed that tahsili, and halkabandi schools of the higher order, which in 1870-71 were classed exclusively as primary schools, are in 1881-82 shown as secondary, while their primary departments appear as primary schools. As already remarked, changes of classification have rendered it difficult to trace the progress of education in this Province. But notwithstanding the attention given to primary education and the money spent on it, the Government schools have shown but little of that expansion which is to be seen in other Provinces; while the claims of the indigenous schools, so fully recognised by Mr. Thomason, have not received the attention they deserve. Finally, private enterprise has not received due encouragement at any stage.

Estimate of the extent of Education in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh in the first departmental year, 1854-55; and its subsequent growth.

Nature of the Maintaining Agency.		Arts Colleges, English and Oriental.		Professional Schools other than Normal Schools.		Secondary Schools.		Primary Schools.		Indigenous Schools.		Normal Schools and Classes.		Total.	
		No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
1854-55	Departmental	4	1,920a	...	...	62	4,668	832	17,000	...	...	1	100	897	23,688
	Aided and Inspected	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	—	...	...	...	...
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	13	1,029	74	3,235	2,936	25,000	...	...	3,023	29,264
	Total	4	1,920	...	...	75	5,697	904	20,235	2,936	25,000	1	100	3,920	52,952
1870-71	Departmental	3*	76	2	310	88	11,481b	4,307	†148,126c	...	...	9	427	4,409	160,420
	Aided	6	1,454‡	...	...	208	16,947b	143	5,126c	...	...	4	90	361	23,617
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	Schools. 232		Pupils. 3,550		5,172	58,837	...	...	5,404	62,387
	Total	9	1,530	2	310	4,978		185,230		5,172	58,837	13	517	10,174	246,424
1881-82	Departmental	4	599d	§[1	39]	522	6,489c	5,561	197,060b	...	...	18	306	6,105	204,454
	Aided and Inspected	5	307d	§[4	183]	71	2,736c	284	16,178b	...	...	3	89	363	19,310
	Extra-Departmental	....	...	...	...	...	...	...	—	7,127	68,305	...	...	7,127	68,305
	Total	9	906	§[5	222]	593	9,225	5,845	213,238	7,127	68,305	21	395	13,595	292,069

(a) Including pupils in Delhi College and in attached high and middle schools.
(b) Including the pupils in attached primary schools.
(c) Excluding ditto ditto ditto.
(d) Ditto ditto collegiate schools.
* Excluding the Ajmir College with 4 pupils.
† Including secondary classes of tahsili schools, but excluding 37 schools in Ajmir with 1,116 pupils.
‡ Including the pupils of attached collegiate schools.
§ The numbers in square brackets relate to unattached institutions, and are not included in the grand totals of this table.

77. The Punjab: Education from 1856-57 to 1881-82.—No Province of India entered upon the task of diffusing education of the modern type under greater difficulties or with less assistance from private enterprise than the Punjab. It is impossible now to state what number of pupils received instruction in the first year of the Department's history; but it is known that there were only 3 secondary schools and 579 primary schools maintained by Government. The schools maintained by Missionaries were also comparatively few. Indigenous schools existed in very large numbers; but their course of instruction was mainly religious, though it is probable that, as at present, the elements of secular instruction were given in some of them. There were few or no schools of a modern type maintained by native managers. In 1865-66, according to the Report of our Provincial Committee, the number of schools connected with the Department had risen to 2,968 with 102,418 pupils; but during the next five years a large number were closed as being inefficient, and in 1870-71 there were 1,915 schools with 84,816 pupils, of whom 24,556 were in aided schools. At the end of 1881-82, the number of departmental and aided schools was 2,061, with 109,476 pupils. But although this increase had taken place in the departmental schools, it was small as compared with the progress in other parts of India.

78. The Punjab: Primary Education.—In its earlier years, the Punjab Government accepted the policy of encouraging the education of the masses. The "downward filtration" theory never gained any ascendancy in this part of India. But the Province had difficulties of its own. It was not annexed to the British crown until 1849. The language which was adopted in the Courts of law, and which of late has become almost exclusively the medium of instruction in schools for boys, is not the principal vernacular of the people. There are three large sections of the population, Muhammadans, Hindus, and Sikhs, each with a system of indigenous education so distinct as to require separate treatment, and each claiming with more or less reason to represent the nationality of the Punjab. Following the example of the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab Government soon abandoned attempts to aid the existing indigenous schools, and enlisting the most promising of the teachers as Government servants took their schools under the management of the Department. In the Central and Western Districts of the Punjab the departmental schools were founded upon the basis of the Persian maktab. In the Cis-Sutlej Districts, a large proportion of the schools attended by Hindus at first used the Hindi dialect and character, but of late years its use has been discouraged. Whatever may have been the advantage of this change, one result has certainly been that the vernacular of the schools is not that with which educated persons of the humbler classes are acquainted. In 1859, according to the Report of our Provincial Committee, the number of primary schools for boys recognised by the State was 2,171, and though most of these hardly differed from the indigenous schools which had existed from time immemorial, it is significant that in 1871 the number had fallen to 1755. In that year there were some 69,500 children in the primary schools recognised by the State. In 1881-82 the numbers had only increased to 102,867. The Hindus and Sikhs attended these schools in larger proportion than the Muhammadans, although the medium of instruction might seem to favour the latter. The percentage of male children in primary schools is only slightly higher than in the North-Western Provinces, being ·91 per cent. The evidence before the Commission shews that the departmental system of village schools is not generally appreciated by the masses, nor does it offer any reasonable hope of accomplishing the task which the Punjab Government accepted in 1854.

79. The Punjab: Secondary Education.—Up to 1861 there were in this

Province comparatively few students learning English. But within the next five years fuller encouragement was given to education of this character. The formation of English classes in vernacular schools was assisted by liberal grants, and the belief was widely spread that a knowledge of that language would lead to Government employment. In 1866 the number of pupils studying English was about 13,000. In the five following years greater encouragement was given to vernacular instruction; and the premature learning of English was discouraged. In 1870-71 there were 4 high and 97 middle schools under departmental control with 9,404 pupils. At the same date there were 10 high and 37 middle schools, with 5,408 pupils, receiving grants-in-aid. In the following period, up to 1881-82, the development of secondary education was stimulated by the promise of Government to reserve appointments for those who had passed through the prescribed course of study. In 1881-82 the departmental schools for secondary instruction were 10 high and 53 middle schools giving education in English, and one high and 125 middle schools in which the course was purely vernacular. These together educated 4,974 pupils at a cost to public funds of Rs. 1,99,043. The aided system included 12 high and 22 middle English schools for boys and one middle school for girls, in which 994 students were educated at a cost to public funds of Rs. 31,569.

80. The Punjab: Collegiate Education.—The Delhi College ceased to exist in 1857, and the building was occupied by troops for many years afterwards. In 1864 Government Colleges were established at Lahore and Delhi. The two colleges continued to exist till 1877, when the college classes of the former were closed, in order that the staff of the latter might be strengthened without further expenditure. In addition to these colleges there was from 1865 to 1869 an aided college maintained at Lahore by the American Mission. Between its affiliation to the Calcutta University in 1864 and its closing in 1877, the Delhi College passed 61 candidates at the F.A., 18 at the B.A., and 4 at the M.A. examinations. During the eighteen years of its existence the Lahore College has passed 84, 25, and 7 candidates at the same examinations. The Punjab Oriental College, founded in 1870, differs from other oriental colleges in endeavouring to impart instruction in the higher branches of European knowledge and science through the medium of the vernaculars, while at the same time cultivating the oriental classical languages.

81. The Punjab: Female Education.—In the year following the creation of the Department, there were only 300 girls returned as under instruction in schools recognised by the State. Sir R. Montgomery actively interested himself in the cause, and by 1865-66 the number had risen to nearly 20,000 girls in departmental or other schools. Five years later the numbers had fallen to less than 12,000, and in 1881-82 they were still further reduced to less than 9,500. Of these 5,350 girls were attending aided primary institutions. Many of the best of the existing schools are under the management of Missionaries or Zanana agencies. The cost, however, is not inconsiderable, and nearly 4½ per cent. of public educational funds are spent on these results, which are very small compared either with the population or with the expenditure involved.

82. The Punjab: Grants-in-aid.—It can hardly be said that the scheme for eliciting private educational enterprise has as yet been tried in the Punjab. Speaking broadly, the only managers who have come forward under the grant-in-aid system are the Missionaries. The rates of aid seem generally liberal; but when only a single class of those interested in education has been induced to co-operate with the State, it is not surprising that private effort has hitherto played a very subordinate part in providing the means of education for the Province.

Still, in 1881-82 there were 35 aided secondary schools with 994 pupils, and 278 aided primary schools with 14,616 pupils. These formed an important addition to the educational system, since aided effort was thus educating about 15 per cent. of the whole number under instruction; but it should be noticed that in 1881-82 private agency was supplying a smaller proportion of the entire amount of education in the Province than it supplied eleven years before. Old schools are aided on a liberal scale, but applications for new or increased grants are rejected on the ground of want of funds.

83. The Punjab: General Summary.—The following tabular Statement shows the progress of departmental effort from the formation of the Department in 1856-57. There is no Province of India in which the Commission has found so much controversy as in the Punjab. The differences of opinion which prevail are reflected in the evidence and memorials received by us, as well as in the statement attached to the Report of our Provincial Committee. We are far from underrating the special difficulties which surround the questions of the choice of a vernacular language, the course of studies best suited for the various classes of the population, the encouragement of indigenous schools which are strongly religious, or the relations of the University and of Local Boards to the primary and secondary schools. But our enquiries lead us to the conclusion that primary education has not received the development contemplated by the Despatch; that the indigenous schools have been neglected; and that the education of the masses has not received that support from provincial revenues which has been given in other Provinces of India under the orders of 1871. In secondary education the grant-in-aid system has been little more than introduced, and an inadequate provision of funds has checked the growth of aided schools and discouraged native private effort. There has, it is true, been a large increase of expenditure upon departmental schools, but there has been no such proportionate increase in the number of scholars.

Estimate of the extent of Education in the Punjab in the first departmental year, 1856-57; and its subsequent growth.

Nature of the Maintaining Agency.		Arts Colleges, English and Oriental.		Professional Schools other than Normal Schools.		Secondary Schools.		Primary Schools.		Indigenous Schools, c		Normal Schools and Classes.		Total.	
		No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
1856-57	Departmental	...	...	1	?	3	?	579	?	...	...	...	...	583	13,304
	Aided and Inspected	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	3	178	11	523	5,024	30,196	...	...	5,038	30,897
	Total	...	...	1	?	6	178	590	523	5,024	30,196	...	....	5,621	44,201
1870-71	Departmental	2	102	...	...	101	9,404a	1,254	50,547b	...	...	3	207	1,360	60,260
	Aided	...	...	...	...	47	5,468a	490	18,507b	11	443	7	198	555	24,556
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	70	3,641a	...	...	4,133	50,511	7	71	4,210	54,223
	Total	2	102	...	...	218	18,453	1,744	69,054	4,144	50,954	17	476	6,125	139,039
1881-82	Departmenta	1	103	* [4	168]	189	4,974b	1,549	88,251a	...	...	4	247	1,743	93,578
	Aided	1	122	* [2	41]	35	994b	278	14,616a	...	...	4	169	318	15,901
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6,362	86,023	...	...	6,362	86,023
	Total	2	225	* [6	309]	224	5,968	1,827	102,867	6,362	86,023	8	416	8,423	195,499

* The figures in square brackets relate to unattached institutions, and are not included in the grand totals of this table.
(a) Including the pupils in attached primary schools.
(b) Excluding ditto ditto ditto.
(c) The numbers of indigenous schools are rough estimates only.

84. The Central Provinces: Education from 1862-63 to 1881-82.—The Education Department in these Provinces was created in 1862. From the first it adopted the principle of founding no Government schools where private enterprise either existed or could be created. But the institutions founded by private enterprise were very few. There were seven missionary secondary schools, and the number of indigenous schools was probably less than 700. By various means the Department has succeeded in inducing private agencies to open primary schools, but the largest results have been due to direct departmental effort. The progress made was considerable up to 1870-71; since that date the pupils in Government schools have only slightly increased, while those in aided schools have decreased in a larger proportion.

85. Central Provinces: Primary Education.—The Central Provinces Administration found the task of diffusing elementary education beset with difficulties. The bulk of the population are Hindus and aborigines, to the latter of whom education is practically unknown. The Department from the first neglected no agency which could assist in the work of primary education. Local rates supplied the bulk of the funds and efforts were made to encourage the economical agency of private enterprise. But the indigenous schools were even fewer and more inefficient than in Bombay, and the position of school-master was not sought after. In 1870-71 the Department had succeeded in attracting to the primary schools about 76,400 children, of whom 41,400 were in departmental institutions. In 1881-82, the total number in primary schools recognised by the State had only risen to 77,737. The departmental institutions had increased, and formed 66 per cent. of the whole number within the State system. There are few or no indigenous schools outside that system, for the few institutions which do not receive aid are under inspection. Much therefore remains to be done, as the proportion of boys in primary schools to the male population is only 1·5 per cent. But if the numerical results are disappointing, the efficiency of the primary schools is generally satisfactory, and in no other Province of India is the supply of trained teachers relatively so large. The aboriginal races are, however, still without instruction, and in the absence of private enterprise the direct instrumentality of Government may need to be more largely employed. The proportion of public funds spent on primary education is liberal, but the funds themselves are still very inadequate for the task of extending elementary education in so difficult a field.

86. Central Provinces: Secondary Education.—On the formation of the Department in 1862, the only provision for secondary education was supplied by the high school at Jabalpur, and by 3 unaided middle schools. By 1870-71 another high school and 44 Government middle schools had also been established. From its first constitution, the Department had offered aid to efficient Anglo-vernacular schools; and in 1870-71 there were 2 high and 8 middle English schools receiving grants-in-aid. By 1881-82 the Government schools had been reduced to 1 high school and 38 middle, in which 2,100 boys were educated at a cost of Rs. 58,947. The aided system had increased to 4 high and 10 middle schools, receiving altogether Rs. 14,116 from public funds, and educating 671 pupils. There are no unaided secondary schools.

87. Central Provinces: Collegiate Education.—In these Provinces there is only one Government college, that at Jabalpur. Though affiliated to the Calcutta University up to the B.A. standard, it has not as yet had a staff sufficiently strong to prepare candidates for that examination. Its students, therefore, after passing the F.A. examination, have hitherto joined one or other of the colleges of Bombay or the North-Western Provinces, when wishing to pro-

ceed to the higher University degrees. The total number on the rolls in 1881-82 in the Jabalpur College was 65, and during the twelve years between 1870-71 and 1881-82 it passed 90 candidates out of 149 at the F.A. examination. Besides the Government college an aided college has been established at Nagpur by the Mission of the Free Church of Scotland since the close of the year 1881-82.

88. Central Provinces: Female Education.—Early efforts were made to overcome the great difficulties incidental to female education in the Central Provinces. In 1870-71 there were nearly 4,500 girls attending departmental institutions, and about 230 in aided or inspected schools. There were also 3 Normal schools for female teachers. But in the course of the next decade there was a general falling off. In 1881-82, there were only some 3,200 pupils in schools of all classes, and but one Normal school with 17 pupils, which, although it is a well-managed institution, cannot suffice for the wants of the whole Central Provinces.

89. Central Provinces: Grants-in-aid.—The late formation of the Department, which did not commence operations until 1862, gave an opportunity for profiting by the experience gained elsewhere, and there is no Province in which the principles laid down in the Despatch of 1854 have been more fully acted on within a limited sphere. The success of eliciting private effort has not indeed been proportionate to the endeavour, but this may be accounted for by the extremely backward condition of the Province when educational efforts were begun, and the consequently small number of persons willing and able to co-operate with the State. There is, however, reason to hope that if the present policy be continued, aided effort will in due time take the place in the educational system of the Province which the Despatch of 1854 desired it to hold in every Province. The Department has largely confined its direct efforts to primary education, and no departmental institutions of an advanced character have been set up where there has been a reasonable prospect that private effort could with liberal aid be made adequate to local wants. Of the five high schools of the Province only one is departmental. Of the entire number of pupils under instruction, 19,457, or about 24 per cent., were in 1881-82 in aided institutions.

90. Central Provinces: General Summary.—The following Table exhibits the growth of education in the Central Provinces between 1862-63 and 1881-82. In estimating the modest results which it exhibits, it is necessary to bear in mind the weakness of private enterprise, the poverty of the administration, and the backward state of society. The schools are comparatively few, but their condition is satisfactory, and the endeavours made to promote the development of aided institutions deserve favourable notice.

Estimate of the extent of Education in the Central Provinces in the first departmental year 1862-63; and its subsequent growth.

Nature of the Maintaining Agency.		Arts Colleges, English and Oriental.		Professional Schools, other than Normal Schools.		Secondary Schools.		Primary Schools.		Indigenous Schools.		Normal Schools.		Total.	
		No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
1862-63	Departmental	...	...	...	...	9	1,235a	409	11,054	...	...	9	190	427	12,87
	Aided and Inspected	...	...	...	...	7	1,063a	...	...	b735	7,811	...	...	742	8,87
	Extra-Departmental	Returns not available.													
	Total	...	...	...	...	16	2,298	409	11,054	735	7,811	9	190	1,169	21,35

(a) Including the pupils in attached primary schools.
(b) The Provincial Committee regards this number as an exaggerated estimate.

Estimate of the extent of Education in the Central Provinces in the first departmental year, 1862-63; and its subsequent growth—(contd.)

Nature of the Maintaining Agency.		Arts Colleges, English and Oriental.		Professional Schools, other than Normal Schools.		Secondary Schools.		Primary Schools.		Indigenous Schools.		Normal Schools.		Total.	
		No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
1870-71	Departmental	...	...	...	...	46	5,347a	795	41,404b	...	...	7	242	848	46,993
	Aided and Inspected	...	...	...	...	10	1,411a	1,091	34,995b	...	...	...	...	1,101	36,406
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	...	..	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Total	...	...	...	...	56	6,758	1,886	76,399	...	...	7	242	1,949	83,399
1881-82	Departmental	1	65	24	450	39	2,101a	894	55,745a	...	...	4	188	962	58,549
	Aided and Inspected	...	...	[1*	24]	14	671a	454	21,992a	...	...	...	...	468	22,663
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Total	1	65	24 [1*	450 24]	53	2,772	1,348	77,737	...	...	4	188	1,430	81,212

(a) Including the pupils in attached primary schools.
(b) Excluding ditto ditto ditto.
* The figures in square brackets relate to unattached technical schools, and are not included in the grand totals of this table.

91. Assam: Education from 1854 to 1882.—The educational statistics of Assam were included in those of Bengal up to the year 1874, when the separation of the two Provinces took place. From that date Assam has developed its own system more on the general lines laid down by Sir George Campbell than on those of his successor, Sir R. Temple. The Province consists of three divisions,—the Surma Valley, comprising the Districts of Sylhet and Cachar; the Brahmaputra Valley, containing about half the area and half the population of the entire Province; and the Hill Tracts, which include the wild and sparsely populated Garo, Khasi, Jaintia, and Naga Hills. The chief languages are Assamese, Bengali, and Cachari; but there is also a great variety of hill dialects. In the Surma Valley, schools have flourished from a very early period and are under regular inspection notwithstanding the difficulties in the way of communication especially during the rainy season. Here the indigenous schools, Hindu and Muhammadan, have been largely improved on the Bengal pathsala system, which is said to have been eminently successful in the development of primary education—the Sylhet primary schools being the best in the Province. In the Brahmaputra Valley, where there is much recent reclamation from jungle throughout the older Districts constituted on the Bengal regulation model, indigenous schools hardly existed at all, and the Department found a fresh field for its operations. The Hill Tracts are specially mentioned in the Despatch of 1854, as one of the Districts where education is most indebted to missionary agency; and the administration of the grants-in-aid in those tracts is still in the hands of the different missionary bodies. In these tracts also, owing to the persevering efforts of missionary agency, female education has been more successful than elsewhere in Assam, and the girls' schools have to some extent been provided with trained female teachers who are natives of the country. The net result of all the agencies at work was shewn in 1881-82 to be, in the schools recognised by the Department, 46,750 children, of whom 38,182 were in primary and 331 in Normal schools.

92. Assam: Primary Education.—After 1874, the Province persevered in the policy laid down by Sir George Campbell, and maintained its own method of encouraging indigenous schools. This method resembles that of Bengal in

being built entirely upon private agency, which is as far as possible that of the indigenous schools. But its later development is in marked contrast with that which Sir George Campbell's policy received at the hands of his successors. In the first place, the necessity for training schools has been steadily kept in view. The Inspector of Schools reports to the Commission that "it is much "better not to start a primary school at all than to start one with a bad teacher "who brings discredit on our system. Until a much larger supply of qualified "teachers is available the progress of primary education must be slow." In the second place, the grants given to aided schools are very liberal, and the Inspector writes that "the system of granting aid by payments for results has never been "tried in Assam Proper, and except under a modified form would, I believe, result "in closing a great many of the bad and struggling primary schools." Lastly, the sanction which the Secretary of State gave in 1870 to the introduction of a local rate for educational purposes in Bengal was given the force of law in 1879, and primary education is now, under Regulation III of that year, wholly supplied by local rates. Great attention is paid to the improvement of schools; and the extension of primary education is only limited by the funds available for the payment of liberal grants to schoolmasters and for the maintenance of training schools for teachers. In 1881-82 the children attending the primary schools recognised by the State formed the same proportion of the male population at school as in the Central Provinces. But unlike the Central Provinces, there is in Assam an outer circle of indigenous schools gradually qualifying for State assistance, and these contain nearly 10,000 children. The percentage alike of public funds and of provincial educational funds devoted to primary education is, however, small.

93. Assam: Secondary Education.—Assam, when separated from Bengal, carried with it 9 high and 116 middle schools, English and vernacular, with 6,779 pupils. A number of middle vernacular schools which had not proved successful were reduced to the lower vernacular stage, with greater promise of efficiency. In 1881-82 the total number of secondary schools had accordingly fallen to 92, but the pupils had increased to 8,177, including the pupils of attached primary departments. The Government system included 9 high, 2 middle English, and 18 middle vernacular schools, educating 3,403 pupils at a cost of Rs. 39,827 to the Government; while under the grant-in-aid rules there were 1 high, 28 middle English, and 25 middle vernacular schools, educating 4,085 pupils at a cost of Rs. 18,833. There were also 1 high and 8 middle schools which received no grants-in-aid.

94. Assam: Female Education: Special Classes.—Female education has since the separation of Assam from Bengal received considerable attention, and in 1881-82 there were nearly 1,700 girls at schools known to the Department. There is, however, no Normal school for female teachers, though a class for women is attached to the Cherra Punji Normal School. All the institutions for girls are primary schools, which are liberally aided. In Assam the education of the large aboriginal population is receiving attention. In the Khasi and Jaintia Hills a gratuitous education is given to the children of aborigines, and it is partly paid for by mission funds and partly by the State.

95. Assam: Grants-in-aid.—In Assam encouragement has steadily been given to private enterprise, though, at present, except in the case of primary schools, little progress has been made; but, as already noticed, the rates of aid to primary schools are far more liberal in Assam than in the Lower Provinces.

96. Assam: General Summary.—The following Table affords a sufficient summary of the facts which have been stated above. The statistics of education for 1870-71, cannot be obtained, as the records of many Districts have been destroyed by fire.

Education in Assam in 1881-82.

Nature of the Maintaining Agency.		Professional Schools, other than Normal Schools.		Secondary Schools.		Primary Schools.		Indigenous Schools.		Normal Schools.		Total.	
		No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
1881-82.	Departmental	1	60	29	3,403[a]	7	187[b]	...	...	6	220	43	3,870
	Aided and Inspected	[c][1]	[12]	63	4,774[a]	1,344	37,995	[b] ...	...	3	111	1,410	42,880
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	...	...	497	9,733	...	...	497	9,733
	Total	1 [c][1]	60 [12]	92	8,177	1,351	38,182	497	9,733	9	331	1,950	56,483

(a) Including the Primary Departments of Secondary Schools.
(b) Excluding ditto ditto ditto.
(c) The figures in square brackets relate to unattached technical schools, and are not included in the grand totals of this table.

97. Coorg: Education from 1857 to 1881-1882.—Prior to 1870-71 the returns of some of the educational institutions in Coorg were included in those for Mysore. In that year, there were 1,601 pupils in schools known to the Department, of whom only 108 were in aided primary schools. The Government institutions consisted of one secondary school with 60 pupils and 32 primary schools. In 1881-82, the secondary Government schools had increased to two with 157 pupils, and the primary schools were 57 with 2,978 pupils. The Department provided or assisted in providing education for 3,233 children in schools of all classes and stages. There were only three aided primary schools and 41 indigenous schools receiving no aid from the State.

98. Coorg: Primary Education.—Primary education in Coorg during the seventeen years down to 1860 was represented by 20 village schools maintained by Government, on a monthly allowance to each master of Rs. 2-8. As an educational agency their value was proportionately small. In 1860 it was resolved to put the masters under training, and to give those who qualified Rs. 7 a month. The scheme was carried out in 1864. In 1870-71 there were 1,541 children at primary schools, of whom about 108 were in aided schools. The departmental agency has since that date been exclusively developed, and in 1881-82, there were nearly 3,100 children in primary schools, of whom not 100 were in aided institutions. The indigenous schools have about 500 pupils, but they receive no assistance from the State. A local rate was introduced in 1871, and to it is attributed the improvement which has been made in the quality of the schools as well as their increase in numbers. Three per cent. of the male population are at school, which is the highest proportion recorded in any of the Provinces with which our Report deals. A few girls attend the village schools for boys. There is also a school at Virajpet established by the nuns for native converts.

99. Coorg: Secondary Education.—The Merkara Government School was established on the formation of the Department in 1857, and was placed under the charge of the Basel Mission. This was the only secondary school existing in Coorg in 1870-71, when it had 60 pupils. In 1881-82 the high and

middle departments of this school instructed 157 pupils at an annual cost to the State of Rs. 7,518. There were no secondary schools under private managers.

100. Coorg: General Summary.—The following Table exhibits the growth of education in Coorg since the statistics of its educational history were separated from those of Mysore. Beyond the evidence which these statistics furnish in regard to the little aid rendered to private enterprise, the Table calls for no remark.

Growth of Education in Coorg between 1870-71 and 1881-82.

	Nature of the Maintaining Agency.	Secondary Schools.		Primary Schools.		Indigenous Schools.		Normal Schools.		Total.	
		No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
1870-71	Departmental	1	60	32	1,433	...	...	1	?	34	1,493
	Aided	...	...	3	108	...	..	...	...	3	108
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	.....
	Total	1	60	35	1,541	...	...	1	?	37	1,601
1881-82	Departmental	2	157	57	2,978	...	...	1	7	60	3,142
	Aided	...	...	3	91	...	...	...	...	3	91
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	..	41	470	...	...	41	470
	Total	2	157	60	3,069	41	470	1	7	104	3,703

101. Haidarabad Assigned Districts: Education from 1866 to 1881-1882.—The position of this Province, which is generally known as Berar, is exceptionally favourable to the extension of primary education. The population is prosperous and wealthy, consisting of 90 per cent. Hindus, and the rest Muhammadans and aborigines. The Education Department was organised in 1866, and its main object was declared to be the extension of elementary education. In pursuance of this object a cess of one per cent. on the land-revenue was introduced in 1868, and its proceeds were devoted to the multiplication of cess schools entirely under departmental management. Indigenous schools were few in number and inferior in quality, but an attempt has been made since 1870-71 to bring them within the departmental system. The present Berar system of primary instruction is the result of these two modes of action, no other development of the grant-in-aid agency for vernacular instruction having been found practicable. In 1881-82 the pupils in departmental primary schools had increased to nearly 28,000, and there were about 7,000 pupils in schools either aided or inspected by the Department. The defects of the system are the absence of any attempt to educate the aborigines; the want of any adequate educational machinery such as school committees and Local Boards; the very marked insufficiency of properly-trained teachers who are natives of the Province; and the absence of aided institutions other than the indigenous schools.

102. Haidarabad Assigned Districts: Secondary Education.—In 1866 two English schools at Akola and Amraoti were raised to the status of high schools. The bulk of their cost is paid by Government, and a large number of their pupils come from other Provinces. There were also in that year 23 English schools of the middle standard. In 1871 the middle schools had risen to 44, and they subsequently increased to 52; but it was found that their number was in excess of the requirements of the people, and 30 were reduced to the primary class. In 1881-82 the two high schools contained 61 pupils; while in the middle schools, now 29, the number of pupils was 972. The cost of all these schools to the State was Rs. 53,197. There were no schools under private management.

103. Haidarabad Assigned Districts: Female Education.—Although liberal funds are available, female education in Berar has been a failure. The Department has relied upon the earlier views expressed by the Government of India, in which a gradual and cautious development was advocated. In 1871 there were 671 girls at schools known to the Department, and in 1881-82 there were only 269 attending Government institutions and 99 in aided institutions. There is no Normal school or class in the Province, and when the state of female education in the adjoining division of the Bombay Presidency is considered, its failure here seems to be due to indifference to the subject. The proportion of the female population at school is only one-half of the proportion at school in the Central Provinces, where the difficulties of finance and administration are far greater.

104. Haidarabad Assigned Districts: General Summary.—The following Statement exhibits the growth of education in these districts since the formation of the Department in 1866. We have summarised the chief features of the Berar system in paragraph 101.

Estimate of the extent of Education in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts in the first departmental year 1866-67; and its subsequent growth.

	Nature of the Maintaining Agency.	Secondary Schools.		Primary Schools.		Indigenous Schools.		Normal Schools.		Total.	
		No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.	No.	Pupils.
1866-67	Departmental	25	2,202[a]	122	4,442[b]	...	...	...	...	147	6,644
	Aided	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	100	2,000	...	...	100	2,000
	Total	25	2,202	122	4,442	100	2,000	...	...	247	8,644
1870-71	Departmental	46	3,846[a]	297	10,223[b]	...	...	1	64	344	14,133
	Aided	...	...	...	...	110	2,308	...	...	110	2,308
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Total	46	3,846	297	10,223	110	2,308	1	64	454	16,441
1881-82	Departmental	31	1,033[b]	467	27,844[a]	...	...	1	79	499	28,956
	Aided and Inspected	...	...	416	6,884	...	...	...	...	416	6,884
	Extra-Departmental	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
	Total	31	1,033	883	34,728	...	...	1	79	915	35,840

(a) Including the pupils in attached primary schools.
(b) Excluding the pupils in attached primary schools.

105. Education in Ajmir-Mhairwara.—These territories form a Chief-Commissionership under the Foreign Department, the Governor General's Agent for Rajputana being *ex-officio* Chief Commissioner of Ajmir. We regret that the Commission has not been able to visit this outlying Province of British territory. From the Ajmir-Mhairwara Administration Report for 1881-82, we

find that on the 31st March 1882, there were, including the Ajmir Government College, 130 educational institutions at work, with an attendance of 5,400 pupils. In many respects, as in its tahsili and halkabandi schools, the system of education in Ajmir rests on the same basis as in the North-Western Provinces, to which it was formerly attached. Education has made steady progress in Ajmir-Mhairwara; the number of pupils in Government institutions having more than trebled during the past decade from 1,049 in 1871-72 to 3,391 in 1881-82. The progress, so far as the Department is concerned, has, however, been made almost exclusively by direct Government agency. Only two mission schools, with 238 pupils, receive grants-in-aid, while the returns shew 57 unaided mission schools with 2,009 pupils in 1881-82. The Ajmir College will be again mentioned in Chapter VI; and an account of the Mayo College, founded for sons of nobles in memory of the Earl of Mayo, will be found in Chapter IX of this Report. We regret that we have not been able to include the figures for Ajmir in our statistical Tables, but, where possible, the information available has been included in foot-notes to the Tables. All totals, therefore, in those Statements are subject to an addition of 73 Government and aided schools with 3,391 pupils, and of 57 unaided mission schools with 2,009 pupils; or a total of 130 schools with 5,400 pupils for Ajmir-Mhairwara.

CHAPTER III.

INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS.

106. Survey of indigenous Education in India.—The Despatch of the Court of Directors in 1854 recognised the fact that "throughout all ages learned "Hindus and Muhammadans have devoted themselves to teaching with little "other remuneration than a bare subsistence." It drew prominent attention to the necessity of fostering in every Province of India the indigenous schools which, it was believed, had existed from time immemorial; and which might by wise encouragement, such as had been given by Mr. Thomason in the North-Western Provinces, be made capable of imparting correct elementary knowledge to the masses of the people. The Despatch of 1859, whilst noticing the obvious fact that no general scheme of popular education could be framed which would be suitable to all parts of India, re-affirmed the necessity of making the greatest possible use of existing schools, and of the masters to whom, however inefficient as teachers, the people had been accustomed to look up with respect. ut it expressed a doubt whether the grant-in-aid system, as up to that time in force, was suited to the supply of vernacular education, and suggested that the means of elementary education should be provided by the direct instrumentality of the officers of Government; either according to some one of the plans in operation in Bengal and the North-Western Provinces, which were based upon or recognised the importance of encouraging the indigenous schools; or by any modifications of those schemes which might commend themselves to the Local Governments. Without attempting any elaborate examination of the different religious classes which make up the 254 millions of India, it may be generally affirmed that the indigenous system of education is confined to the Hindus, Muhammadans, and Sikhs. The aboriginal population, numbering, according to the classification adopted in the last census, nearly 6½ millions, are sunk in ignorance, and (excepting in rare instances such as the Kamptis) what education they have received they owe entirely to missionary enterprise, or to schools established by the British Government. They have no system of their own, and experience has proved that the indigenous schools are incapable of providing for the education of these backward races. The Buddhist population, numbering 3½ millions, is almost entirely confined to Burma, where the history of education under British rule is mainly a narrative of the improvement of the indigenous monastic schools. These schools have succeeded in giving instruction to almost every male and female in the country, but further reference to them is unnecessary, since Burma is excluded from the Commission's enquiries. The Christian population of India, numbering 1,862,600, owes its education chiefly to missionary or other disinterested effort aided by State-grants; but its system is conducted on English principles, and is therefore excluded from a review of indigenous education. The Parsi community, which only numbers 85,400, has won its position in Indian society not only by its commercial enterprise, but also by its recognition of the value of education. This community is, however, chiefly confined to the Bombay Presidency, and it is has borrowed largely in regard to education from European models. It will be noticed when we consider the state of education in that Province. The Hindu community, whose system demands chief attention, numbers 188 millions. The Muhammadans number 50 millions, of whom more

than 23 millions are found in Bengal and Assam, and 11½ millions in the Punjab. The Sikh population numbers 1,850,000, of whom more than 1,700,000 are to be found in the Punjab. These three classes of the community, aggregating nearly 240 millions, form 95 per cent. of the entire population of India outside Burma; and it is with their indigenous system of education, so far as it has not been incorporated into the scheme of public instruction organised by the State, that the present Chapter deals.

107. General Uniformity of the indigenous System.—The diversities of race, character, and history, which have so variously affected the material and moral condition of the nine Provinces with which our Report is concerned, have stamped their educational systems with less variety than might have been expected. A general uniformity of character may be traced throughout the Empire in the several indigenous schools of the Hindus and Muhammadans. The educational organisation is not different, but only less complete and successful, in some parts of India than in others. Where the Government was strong enough to preserve order and maintain the public peace, every large Hindu village possessed a school of its own, and the foundation of a system of national education had, long previous to British rule, been laid by the spontaneous efforts of Hindu and Muhammadan society. Thus in Bengal it is believed that the sustained exertions of the Department of Public Instruction have contributed but little addition to the network of primary schools, which h existed from time immemorial; and there still remains an outer circle indigenous institutions not greatly inferior to those which have already been absorbed into the State system of primary instruction. On the other hand, it has been contended that the vast armies of banditti, which pillaged the villages of the Deccan and Central India, made the social history of that part of the Empire one long narrative of invasion and anarchy; and that the schoolmaster's occupation shared the fate which overtook other peaceful arts and industries. In 1858, according to a census taken by the Educational officers under the orders of Government, no less than 90 per cent. of the villages in the Bombay Presidency were found to be without any indigenous schools whatsoever. Accordingly, the task imposed upon the Department in Bombay was one of creation rather than of adoption, and the poverty of the indigenous system in Western India afforded a marked contrast to its variety and richness in Bengal. Forty years ago, according to an estimate made by the revenue officers, there were only 1,421 indigenous schools in Bombay. There are now 5,338 primary institutions under departmental supervision, and 3,954 indigenous primary unaided schools. Still, Hinduism has preserved with considerable uniformity its distinctive features, notwithstanding the vicissitudes that Hindus have encountered in the various Provinces of India. In short, a Bengal pathsala is only another type of similar institutions in Madras or Bombay. The Muhammadans have also preserved their system intact; and although they are distributed in very small communities outside the three Provinces of Bengal, the Punjab, and the North-Western Provinces, a mosque-school, or maktab, in Sind differs little from one in Behar. Finally, as regards the Gurmukhi schools of the Sikhs, it has already been observed that the bulk of these democratic protestants against prevailing creeds are concentrated in the Punjab, where their institutions are naturally moulded in one form. But in the Bombay Presidency, chiefly in Sind, and in the Deccan Haidarabad, small colonies of Sikhs are to be found, who have carried with them their indigenous system, and have jealously preserved the special character of their schools.

108. Distinctive Features of the indigenous Systems.—We define an indigenous school as an educational institution established or conducted by

natives of India on native methods. Such institutions are either of an advanced character or purely elementary. The elementary are further divided into the village school and the bazar school. The high class institutions have remained, for the most part, outside the influence of the educational system; the elementary have been largely utilised in building up the departmental system of primary education. Those which have been thus absorbed have altered their method and character more or less according to the pains and the systematic attention bestowed upon them by departmental officers. Their example has indirectly affected others which have remained outside the circle of State supervision. In this part of our Report we are dealing exclusively with those indigenous schools which have not been absorbed or adopted by the Department. Those which have been so incorporated will be considered in the Chapter on primary instruction. With this explanation, it may be accepted as a general rule that some religious character attaches to all indigenous schools of the old type that teach the classical languages of the East, as well as to a large number of ordinary vernacular village-schools. The vernacular indigenous schools which have sprung up in Bombay in response to the demand for primary education stimulated by the departmental, or cess, schools, as well as the ordinary pathsala of Bengal, of which a great numbe are conducted and taught by Kayasths, are essentially secular. But the indigenous schools of the Muhammadans and Sikhs in all parts of Ind of the Hindus in some Provinces, are more or less religious in character. in the special artizan-schools opened in Madras religious books are taugh The religious element is, however, more marked in the high class school, whether it be the Hindu tol or the Muhammadan madrasa, than in the elementary school. It is, again, more marked in the Muhammadan elementary maktab, or the Sikh Gurmukhi school, than in the pathsala or elementary school of the Hindu village community. The distinctive principle of Hindu social life—caste—has stamped its impress on all Hindu educational institutions. The higher schools are practically closed against all but Brahmans, and the Brahman scholars are treated as the children of their master. In the primary schools all Hindu classes that are admitted to a defined position in the village community receive instruction in reading, writing, and arithmetic; while the elements of a liberal education, though not entirely wanting, are confined to the acquisition of those versified Puranic legends which preserve and maintain the religious character of Hindu society in every grade of life. The principles of the Sikh faith were inconsistent with such monopoly of instruction. The instruction given in all classes of Hindu indigenous schools is so far practical that the Brahmans and other high or literary castes are ta t the subjects which will qualify them either for the service of their religion or for their future civil position. The lower classes obtain such an instruction in elementary subjects of practical utility as is designed to qualify them for their several occupations in life, and serves also to protect them against unfair dealing. In particular, the study of mental arithmetic is carried to a high pitch of excellence. Where there are no separate bazar schools, pupils belonging to the trading classes are exercised in native accounts and book-keeping, and in some Provinces they are taught the use of the peculiar character which their fathers have adopted from time immemorial. The Muhammadan schools, on the other hand, give little attention to practical instruction. They teach the Koran, but neglect arithmetic. While their religious character is more universally marked than that of Hindu schools, the paternal relation between master and scholar, so strongly felt in Hindu tols, is much less noticeable. These general remarks will be further illustrated in the more detailed mination of the various classes of indigenous institutions which follows.

It has already been noticed that the advanced indigenous schools have been least influenced by the Department. Their condition will be first examined; and the enquiry will then proceed to a general survey of the elementary indigenous schools of India which have not yet been incorporated into the State system, and which will be considered under the two divisions of the ordinary elementary village schools and the special bazar schools.

109. High class indigenous Schools: Their religious character.—The Punjab provincial Report contains little notice of the Sikh schools, though we have received a good deal of evidence on the subject from the witnesses of that Province. The literature of Gurmukhi—the character in which were written the words that flowed from "the mouth of the guru" Nanak—is said to be rich in manuscripts on science and religion, but there is no account before the Commission of any advanced Gurmukhi schools. Our review of high class indigenous schools or colleges is, therefore, confined to the Hindu tols and to the Muhammadan Arabic or Persian schools. The theocratic principle, which lies at the root of Asiatic civilisation, necessarily moulded the character of the high schools in which the upper classes of Hindu and Muhammadan society educated their children. Amongst the Hindus, higher education was regarded in theory as the right and duty of the twice-born castes. In practice the pupils as well as the teachers belong almost exclusively to the Brahman caste. The relation between teacher and pupil is much more paternal in the Hindu than in the Muhammadan college. The Hindu law enjoined it as a religious duty on the Brahman that he should teach; and, in order that his undivided attention might be devoted to education, the sacred obligation of making provision for his temporal wants was imposed both on the sovereign and on the community. The Bengal tols are often liberally endowed, and on the occasion of Hindu festivals presents are given to their masters and pupils. As a consequence, the teacher is bound to make a free gift of his learning, and not merely is he prohibited from charging fees for his tuition, but he is expected to give free board and lodging to his pupils, and as a rule, at least in Bengal, he does so. Under a system in which the pupils were not only taught but maintained, the relation of the master to his pupil became almost paternal. The Hindu law enjoined on the scholar not only obedience, but a veneration for his teacher. Religious endowments were a meritorious act, and, as noticed in the Despatch of 1854, "munificent bequests have not unfrequently been made for the permanent endowment of educational institutions." It can readily be understood how this system produced a public sentiment which has not yet been effaced by the widely different aims and policy of the Despatch of 1854. So far from a grant for education involving any notion of discredit, its provision was regarded as a sacred obligation on the State.

In the case of the Muhammadan madrasa the personal attachment between the teacher and his pupils is not so marked. This difference may be attributed to the distinct characteristics of the two religious systems. The Brahman commands more personal veneration than the Maulavi. The diverse character of Hindu and Muhammadan endowments reflects the distinction. A Muhammadan educational endowment, whether of landed or other property, is made in favour of some institution founded by a pious Maulavi; whereas the Hindu endowment, though it carries with it the solemn obligation of teaching, is made in favour of a great Pandit and his personal heirs. The Muhammadan pupil, who is educated or even supported by the endowment does not feel personally bound to his teacher in the same way as the Hindu pupil does to his spiritual guide from whom he derives both instruction

maintenance. The character of the instruction, however, in both institutions, whether Hindu or Muhammadan, is essentially, though not exclusively, religious, as will appear from a detailed survey of high indigenous institutions in the various Provinces of India.

110. Madras: High indigenous Schools.—From the evidence bearing on the subject of Muhammadan education in Madras, and from the absence of any mention of them in the Provincial Report, it may be assumed that there are no Muhammadan colleges or schools of the higher class in the Southern Presidency. Out of a population exceeding 31 millions, there are not two millions of Muhammadans, and their indigenous schools are of a very elementary character. But the Report of our Provincial Committee gives some account of the Hindu advanced indigenous institutions. In every large town containing Brahman residents, and in every Hindu *mattam*, or monastery, instruction through Sanskrit in the Vedas, Upanishads, the Indian system of logic and philosophy, the grammar of Panini, rhetoric, the Hindu epic poems and dramas, and Hindu law, has been given from the earliest period. In Tamil, also, the high priests of the *mattams* are accustomed to give lectures in the classical works, both literary and ethical, of the Madura Sangam or college, and in the system of the Saiva religion. An association in Madras has undertaken the patronage of some of these schools, and besides supporting two Sanskrit high schools, gives annual rewards to the Pandits and pupils after an examination. The trustees of Pachaiyappa's charities also support a small Sanskrit class at Chillambaram. Thus, in the Madras Presidency, a few Sanskrit schools have received the recognition of prominent bodies, although none of them appear to have either solicited or obtained aid from the Department of Public Instruction.

111. Bombay: High indigenous Schools.—In Bombay there are 48 Hindu Vedashalas and Sanskrit schools; 6 Muhammadan madrasas for youths of the Borah classes—converts from Hinduism to the Muhammadan religion; and 4 Parsi high schools for the sons of Parsi priests. The Hindu schools are exclusively attended by Brahmans. The Veda schools are purely religious, and are held either in the verandah of the guru's house or in the temple. Instruction is given gratuitously. The Sanskrit schools are partly secular, and the teachers take no fees. Some years ago a small allowance was made to some of these schools from the Dakshina Fund, which is administered by the Education Department. The Muhammadan madrasas are supported by subscriptions from the well-to-do Borahs, but one at least of them is not unwilling to receive State aid. The 4 Parsi high class schools, of which 3 are in Bombay, are well-endowed. The methods and subjects of instruction given in these several schools are fully described at page 71 of the Provincial Report. It is sufficient to mention that the main object of the Veda schools is to teach Brahmans to recite mantras, and to fit them for the exercise of sacerdotal functions. The teaching of the Muhammadan schools is chiefly directed to the interpretation of the Koran, but Arabic grammar is incidentally taught. In the Parsi schools the writings of Zoroaster are taught in the original Zend, and in the later Pehlvi and Pazend versions. Instruction is also given in Persian, Sanskrit, and English. In the Hindu Sanskrit schools, grammar, logic, medicine, and philosophy are also taught; while the partly secular Muhammadan schools of a high order teach reading, writing, and notation in Persian and in Hindustani or Arabic-Sindhi. From this account it may be gathered that, while an object common to all these schools in a greater or less degree is to impart religious instruction, the Parsi schools teach a somewhat advanced course; and that the Sanskrit institutions educate Brahman boys in

some higher subjects which, although of little practical utility, if judged by European standards, are still partly secular. The Muhammadan schools, however, teach little beside the Koran. The Arabic college of Surat, founded in 1809 by the Borah community, had become famous in 1824, when it was attended by 125 students, of whom many were boarders from distant Districts. But secular studies formed only a nominal part of the course; and the institution having failed to keep abreast of modern wants has now fallen into decay.

112. Bengal: High indigenous Schools.—The Muhammadan population of Bengal exceeds 21½ millions. The Calcutta Madrasa is maintained from provincial revenues, and five other madrasas, teaching to the same high standard, are supported from the income of the Mohsin Endowment Fund. In Behar, and in the south-western Districts of Bengal and Orissa, large and successful institutions of the same general character, founded by private liberality, are not uncommon. But in the rest of Bengal the unaided institutions of this order are generally neither numerous nor well attended. One of them, situated at Sitapur, with three teachers attached to it, has only 21 students on the rolls. On the other hand, there are no fewer than 1,010 Hindu high class tols which educate 7,680 pupils. The medium of instruction is Sanskrit, and the subjects taught are grammar, synonyms, poetry, rhetoric, astronomy, and to a less extent logic, philosophy, law, and medicine. The master is a Brahman, except in the schools of medicine which are taught by Vaidyas. It is said that the popularity of the tols has declined with the growing neglect of Sanskrit. But except in the Punjab, where the Lahore Oriental College has endeavoured to cope with the difficulty, Bengal, alone of the Provinces of India, has attempted to counteract the natural decline of higher indigenous education. For many years the tols of Nuddea have received a grant from Government of Rs. 100 a month. In another direction assistance of a different character has been given. It was the practice of the tol Pandits to confer titles on their most proficient pupils. Recently the Bengal Department has instituted examinations and conferred such titles, with a view to stimulating the vitality of the Sanskrit schools. The popularity of the experiment is attested, according to the report of the Director, not only by the number of candidates, but by the enthusiasm that the scheme has aroused among the leaders of the Hindu community. In the four years during which the examinations have been held, 232 candidates, chiefly Brahmans, have presented themselves from tols in Bengal and other Provinces, and 110 have passed. The industry of the candidates and of their teachers has been stimulated by the liberality of men of wealth and influence in Bengal. Last year twenty prizes of the value of Rs. 1,100 were awarded from private endowments created since these examinations were instituted in 1878, in addition to prizes to the value of Rs. 450 given by Government. The branches in which the successful candidates passed will throw some light on the subjects of study in those schools. Of the 110 who passed, 46 took up literature, 37 law, and 27 various branches of Darsana or philosophy. An association of Pandits has also been formed at Dacca, with the similar object of bestowing titles after examination on the pupils of tols in Eastern Bengal. It receives a grant from Government of Rs. 500.

113. The North-Western Provinces and Oudh: High indigenous Schools.—In the Provincial Report for the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, the Muhammadan high class schools are noticed at length. It is there pointed out that the first object of education amongst the Muhammadans is religion, and the second culture. An intimate knowledge of the language in which the Koran is written and of the commentaries upon it is first acquired. Some acquaintance with Persian is gained in studying Arabic, and thus the literature

of these two languages is opened to the Muhammadan student. He may select for himself any subject which he fancies, whether history, literature, grammar, logic, or law. The following testimony of the Honourable Sayyid Ahmad, Khan Bahadur, may be quoted in favour of the efficiency of these schools in the North-Western Provinces: "They have mainly contributed "to the preservation and maintenance of oriental literature and science in "this country. Even at the present time those who have acquired any "degree of fame for proficiency in oriental science and literature will be "found to owe their celebrity to these schools." The Hindu Sanskrit schools of which nearly one-half are in the city of Benares, are in character similar to those which exist in Bengal. It is estimated that there are in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh 235 advanced Hindu schools with 4,100 scholars, and 180 advanced Muhammadan schools, with 2,571 scholars. The distinction between these two classes of schools, is marked by the fact that, whereas nearly half of the Muhammadan scholars pay fees, 82 per cent. of the Hindu scholars contribute nothing to the cost of their education. So far, however, as their relations to the Department are concerned, both classes of schools are entirely independent, and their system has not been influenced in any way by the action of the British Government.

114. Punjab: High indigenous Schools.—The Muhammadan population of the Punjab exceeds in numbers all other classes of the community. Their advanced indigenous schools are popular and numerous. The charitable character of the Muhammadan Arabic schools is illustrated by the circumstance that itinerant students go from place to place begging a living, and often acquire a respectable amount of scholarship in indigenous schools. The system of instruction pursued in a Persian school is admitted to be fairly efficient, and students who attend for a sufficient time obtain a considerable knowledge of Persian literature. In caligraphy and accurate scholarship they are said to be superior to the boys trained in the Government schools. The popularity of these Persian schools is attested by the fact that Hindus attend them in large numbers. The Sanskrit schools are similar to those found in other parts of India. Most of the pupils are studying for religious orders, and they are educated gratuitously. Very full accounts of the indigenous system in the Punjab are contained in the evidence of the witnesses who appeared before the Commission. The higher Hindu schools teach rhetoric, logic, philosophy, and grammar, whilst the Muhammadan madrasas give a complete course of instruction in the Arabic grammar and literature, law, logic, and theology. The information given in the annual Reports of the Department is acknowledged to be very incomplete. There are, however, grounds for supposing that the Muhammadan advanced institutions in the Punjab are not fewer or less efficient than in the neighbouring North-Western Provinces. None of them are aided or recognised by the Department; but it is one of the main functions of the Punjab University to encourage indigenous learning, and it has attempted to do this by maintaining an Oriental College at Lahore, and by liberally rewarding proficiency in Arabic, Sanskrit, and the literature of the Sikhs.

115. Other Provinces: High indigenous Schools.—It is not probable that any indigenous schools of an advanced order have escaped notice in the other Provinces of India, excluding Burma. For Assam 83 tols are returned, but they are stated by the local authorities to be of an elementary character. In the Central Provinces there were in 1861, when the Administration was constituted, a few indifferent madrasas and Sanskrit schools. But the constant political disorders, to which these and the adjoining Haidarabad Districts were in old times subject, must have checked education, and the omission

om the reports of any mention of high indigenous schools is easily understood.

116. High indigenous Schools: Summary.—The history of the Arabic college of Surat proves that, even in an outlying District, far removed from the centres of Muhammadan influence, it was possible for an indigenous Muhammadan college to retain a high reputation and attract students. The decline of such institutions is not wholly due to the exclusion of sound secular instruction from their course. The Muhammadans still deeply prize the classical education which is given in their special madrasas. They recognise the importance of religious training, and value that cultivation of the minds and manners of their children which results from an acquaintance with Arabic and Persian literature. They undoubtedly feel that the practical utility of such an education has been undermined by the circumstance that English has taken the place of Muhammadan law, and that the Persian language has been displaced by English. But the vitality of the religion of Islam and the tastes of the cultivated classes which profess it, have not been weakened; and the indigenous system of education, which gave practical expression to the sentiments of the community, is as much cherished in the hearts of the upper classes of Muhammadan society as ever. If their system exhibits signs of decay, that result is due as much, if not more, to the widespread poverty and comparative collapse of their society, as to any appreciation of the fact that the rising generation must adapt themselves to the altered circumstances of modern life. With the Hindus, however, the decline of their higher institutions is due in a great measure to the natural quickness and practical instincts of the Brahmans, who have realised the altered circumstances which surround them, and have voluntarily abandoned a classical education for one more suited to modern conditions of success. The tols are deserted because the college Professor's lectures have become the road to advancement. In short, the unprogressive character of higher indigenous education in India is simply the result of natural laws.

117. Attitude of the Department towards such Schools.—This consideration, which suggests the difficulty of protecting archaic institutions against processes of natural decay, has undoubtedly influenced the Department in generally holding aloof from higher indigenous schools. The principle of religious neutrality, accepted by the State, has also in most Provinces interposed difficulties in the way of assisting schools which are there sometimes exclusively religious. The exigencies of finance have added further arguments in favour of a policy of inactivity. The educational funds in each Province are already unequal to the task imposed upon them. Madrasas and tols represent higher and classical education—an education which is now commonly regarded as having less claim upon the funds of the State than education of a more elementary or a more practical character. In these days new wants have arisen, and the State has endeavoured to meet them by establishing a new order of colleges and high schools, and by encouraging the growth of English education among all classes of the community. It has been shown that only in Bengal and the Punjab has any public attempt been made to recognise and encourage Sanskrit schools by a monthly subsidy, by the offer of prizes, and by the introduction of title examinations or by other means. The success of the experiment of title examinations recently introduced in Bengal has not yet been so thoroughly established as to justify us in recommending the system for general adoption. We are, however, agreed in recommending *that all indigenous schools, whether high or low, should be recognised and encouraged, if they serve any purpose of secular education whatsoever.* This condition of aid is necessitated alike by the policy of religious neutrality, and by financial considerations. In what

form encouragement should be rendered is a question which cannot be so easily determined. The managers of madrasas and tols in Bombay and Bengal view with different feelings the prospect of subjecting their schools to inspection. The disintegrating results of English civilisation have operated with different degrees of force upon native society in the various Provinces of India. We can, therefore, only recommend *that the best practicable method of encouraging indigenous schools of a high order, which desire recognition, be ascertained by the local Education Department in communication with the Maulavis and Pandits and others interested in the subject;* and it is possible that the Universities may be willing to co-operate with the officers of the Department in considering the question. The testimony of the Honourable Sayyid Ahmad, Khan Bahadur, has already been quoted in favour of the high culture which is given in the Muhammadan madrasas. The Sanskrit tols are also the only institutions left in which the study of Sanskrit literature and philosophy is cultivated according to the old traditional method. The Bombay Provincial Committee* have suggested measures for rescuing the classical study of Sanskrit from decay, and their proposals involve the liberal co-operation of native society. The best remedy which financial considerations will admit can be determined only by the local authorities; and we do not think that any detailed suggestions on our part would be useful or desirable. The question is complicated not merely by general considerations of the relative value of a modern and a classical education, but also by local circumstances which can only be ascertained and appreciated by the provincial authorities.

118. Extent of Elementary indigenous Schools.—The annexed Table shows the number of elementary indigenous schools known to the Department, which have not yet been incorporated into the departmental systems of the various Provinces of India.

Name of Province.	Elementary Schools.		Other Indigenous Schools.		Total.	
	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.	Number of schools.	Number of scholars.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Madras	2,828	54,064	...	...	2,828	54,064
Bombay	3,954	78,205	58	550	4,012	78,755
Bengal	3,265	49,238	1,018	8,067	4,283	57,305
North-Western Provinces and Oudh.	6,712	61,634	415	6,671	7,127	68,305
Punjab	...	...	...	...	6,362†	86,023†
Central Provinces	[83]	[3,148]	...	...	[83]	[3,148]‡
Assam	497	9,733	...	...	497	9,733
Coorg	41	470	...	...	41	470
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	[207]	[2,672]	...	...	[207]	[2,672]‡
Total for India	17,297	253,344	1,491	15,288	25,150	354,655

According to this statement, there are now 253,344 scholars in indigenous elementary schools which lie outside the influence of the Department. The statistics supplied from the Punjab are defective; but assuming that there are 00 pupils in elementary schools in that Province, there would be nearly 00 pupils in such schools in the three Provinces of Bombay, the North-rn Provinces, and the Punjab, who remain unaffected by the operations

age 146 of the Bombay Provincial Report.

hese statistics are admitted to be incomplete. [A return received since the above was written and passed ommission, shows 13,109 indigenous schools, with 135,384 pupils, in the Punjab.]

e numbers in square brackets relate to unaided indigenous schools *under inspection*, and are therefore included les of statistics for Primary schools.

of the Despatch of 1854. It can readily be understood that indigenous schools have not offered any uniform basis on which the Department could build. Owing to the strong religious tendency of the maktabs and the Gurmukhi schools, they have less readily lent themselves to the influence of the Departments than the Hindu schools. The pathsalas have accordingly been largely incorporated into the State systems, while the Muhammadan and Sikh schools have remained outside them. In Bengal it is upon the elementary indigenous schools that the entire system of primary education has been almost exclusively built, and under that head, therefore, the character and progress of these adopted schools will be considered. In Madras, and in the Central Provinces, the indigenous agency has been very largely employed. In Bombay, on the other hand, the preference has been given to departmental, or cess, schools, which have been created by Government in consequence of the alleged poverty and inefficiency of the indigenous system. In the North-Western Provinces and in the Punjab, where the Muhammadan and Sikh schools are most numerous, little notice has been taken of the indigenous schools. The number of unaided schools in these last Provinces is therefore larger in proportion to the number of public primary schools than elsewhere.

119. Democratic character of elementary indigenous Schools.—There is a certain degree of family likeness between elementary indigenous schools, whether Hindu or Muhammadan, throughout the country. For the present we reserve notice of the bazar schools which are found in many Provinces of India. These schools are in some respects institutions of a special kind and differ from the ordinary indigenous village-school. They are regarded by some as secessions from the pathsala on the part of the trading communities, who required something better suited to their needs than the regular course of instruction given in the village-school. To the ordinary indigenous school of an elementary type a partially religious character frequently attaches. This is universally the case with the maktabs of the Muhammadans and with the Gurmukhi schools of the Sikhs. But in the ordinary Hindu pathsala religious instruction may or may not find a place. In the indigenous schools of Bengal, many of which are taught by Kayasths, no religious instruction is given, but in Western and Southern India a short prayer or the recitation of sacred verses often forms part of the school course. Still, even where religion is taught in Hindu elementary schools, secular subjects are the chief part of the course. The prominent feature of these schools is their democratic character. The Hindu system, so jealous of the rights of the sacerdotal class, did not forget the interests of the whole village community. All except outcasts, and the lower castes whose touch was pollution, were admitted to the pathsala. With the admission of non-Brahman castes in large numbers to the school the instruction necessarily ceased to be free. While, therefore, education in the high school or tol was gratuitous, the master of the village school was supported by fees from his pupils, who paid either in cash or kind, or in bo[illegible]. But the national sentiment in favour of gratuitous education was not wholly absent even from the Hindu elementary school. Generally speaking, a wealthy Hindu, who supported a school for his own children, permitted his poorer neighbours to send their sons for gratuitous instruction. Occasionally village teachers would admit poor children without charge. The relations between parents and master were thoroughly friendly, and the latter was admitted to the houses of the former on terms of perfect confidence. The character of instruction given was extremely elementary, as will be shown below.

The Muhammadan elementary maktab was naturally even more democratic than the Hindu school, and excluded no class of the Muhammadan

munity. It was at the same time essentially religious. "Government and religion are twins," is a common saying of the Muhammadans; and their schools for the masses are hardly less religious than their madrasas. This religious tendency has stood in the way of the incorporation of maktabs into the departmental system. Their course of instruction in secular subjects is very limited. Arithmetic, grammar, and geography are almost neglected. Another disadvantage under which Muhammadan elementary schools have laboured has been their neglect of the vernacular. Urdu and a little Persian are exclusively taught, even where the community have adopted, as they have in Bengal proper and in the Gujarathi Districts of Bombay and elsewhere, the vernacular language of the Hindus.

The Sikh school is pre-eminently democratic. All Sikhs are equal, and no class is excluded from the Gurmukhi school. The language of the Granth, or scriptures taught in the Sikh school, though regarded as vernacular, is an antiquated dialect, and quite unintelligible to the children who recite it. In the Western Districts of the Punjab, Hindus of the trading classes have very generally adopted the moral and spiritual teaching of the Sikhs without their rites and customs.

120. The System of indigenous School Instruction.—The comparative efficiency of indigenous and departmental schools varies in different parts of India; nor are the fees charged and the status of the unaided elementary schoolmaster more uniform. These matters will be considered when we examine in greater detail the indigenous schools found to exist in each Province. But the following description of a Hindu indigenous school, which has preserved its character intact, in spite of the various educational agencies at work around it, is taken from one* of the Provincial Reports, and is generally true in essential particulars of all elementary indigenous schools: "The ordinary "daily routine of a Hindu indigenous school is nearly the same in all parts "of the Presidency. Each morning at about 6 o'clock the Pantoji, who "is in some cases a Brahman and the priest of many of the families whose "children attend the school, goes round the village and collects his pupils. "This process usually occupies some time. At one house, the pupil has to be "persuaded to come to school; at another, the parents have some special instruc-"tions to give the master regarding the refractoriness of their son; at a third, "he is asked to administer chastisement on the spot. As soon as he has collected "a sufficient number of his pupils, he takes them to the school. For the first "half [illegible] a Bhupali, or invocation to the Sun, Saraswati, Ganpati, or some "other [illegible], is chanted by the whole school. After this the boys who can "write [illegible] the letters of their *kittas*, or copy-slips, with a dry pen, the object "of th[illegible]ise being to give free play to the fingers and wrist, and to accustom "them [illegible]sweep of the letters. When the tracing-lesson is over, the boys "begin [illegible]e copies; and the youngest children, who have been hitherto "merely [illegible]g on, are taken in hand either by the master's son or by one of "the [illegible] pupils. The master himself generally confines his attention to one "or two of the oldest pupils and to those whose instruction he has stipulated to "finish within a given time. All the pupils are seated in one small room or "verandah, and the confusion of sounds, which arises from three or four sets "of boys reading and shouting out their tables all at the same moment, almost "baffles description."

The following extracts from the Bengal Provincial Report will suffice to show the character of the instruction given in the indigenous schools of Bengal: "Generally speaking, the subjects of indigenous pathsala instruction

* Page 73, Bombay Provincial Report.

"are writing, reading, arithmetic and accounts, zamindari papers and letter-
"writing, together with versified Puranic tales, and in Behar versified heroic
"legends as well. The direct teaching of the children is conducted by monitors
"or pupil-teachers, and compact divisions of classes are not made." . . . .
"On entering a pathsala, a boy writes the letters of the alphabet with a piece
"of chalk on the ground, repeating the names of the letters as he writes them.
"After the letters have been thus learnt, palm-leaves are used as materials for
"writing on with pen and ink, the first attempt being only to ink off the letters
"as they are traced by the guru with a pointed iron stylus. The pupils go on
"with the palm-leaves till they learn to write the compound letters, committing
"to memory at this stage the multiplication-table and various fractional tables,
"and being constantly practised one after another in the several tables of money,
"weights and measures. Every evening before the pathsala breaks up, all the
"children stand together and repeat the tables simultaneously in chorus, or
"sometimes they follow a monitor's lead. From 'palm-leaf' promotion is
"given to the 'plantain-leaf,' in which native arithmetic is taught. In most of
"the pathsalas slates, and in Behar *taktis* or boards, are also being used. The
"scholar is now at liberty to take up paper. He is taught letter-writing,
"zamindari and mahajani accounts, forms of documents, and the versified
"Puranic tales, and lastly a little Sanskrit grammar and *abhidhan*. The age at
"which it is customary for pupils to enter pathsalas is five years, on some
"auspicious day fixed by the priest. The stay of the pupils at school is about
"five or six years, comprising two full stages of instruction." In maktabs
the pupils learn by rote parts of the Koran and other religious books; they
also read a little Persian and Urdu, and in a few cases learn to write Persian.
There is the same shouting and confusion in teaching a class of Muhammadan
boys as are found in the Hindu school, and these form part of the peculiar
charm which parents appreciate in the indigenous system.

121. Madras: Elementary indigenous Schools.—In his "Note on Edu-
"cation in British India prior to 1854 and in 1870-71," Mr. Howell remarked on
the absence of any statistics of indigenous schools from the Madras report. But
prior to Act IV of 1871, the Local Funds Act of Madras, the encouragement
and assistance of indigenous elementary schools had been actively commenced.
After 1871 the fuller prosecution of the task became the first charge upon
the funds created by statute. It must not be forgotten, however, that in
Madras a vast educational machinery of European missionary societies had
long been acting upon native society and affording a model to indigenous
institutions. In 1871 there were 1,129 mission vernacular schools for boys in
that Presidency. The efforts of a single Department consisting of a few
European Inspectors were necessarily small in comparison with a force
as the numerous societies of Madras were able to exert. The indigenous
schools of Madras exhibited under these influences an alacrity in accepting advice
and accepting improvements which has been wanting in most other of India.
The Department working through the local boards soon induced indigenous
schoolmasters to accept inspection on condition of receiving grants on the result-
system, or on the combined system of salary and result-grants. A steady
improvement was effected in their method and subjects of instruction. Reading-
books were freely introduced; exclusive reliance upon memory yielded to a
more sensible system of explanation and learning with intelligence; mental
arithmetic and the elaborate multiplication tables were not superseded, but
were supplemented by the method of working out arithmetical sums on the
slate; even history and geography were gradually accepted as part of the school
course. Without anticipating the account which will be given of the improved
indigenous schools in the next Chapter, it may be observed that in 1881-82 there

were 1,263 Government or board primary schools in Madras, as against 7,414 aided and 5,809 inspected institutions of the same class. The duty of aiding indigenous schools is entrusted to the boards, who are thus able to compare their efficiency with that of their own schools; and it is the rule of the boards not to establish fresh schools of their own where there are any suitable indigenous schools willing to receive aid and supervision. It is estimated that about 8,500 indigenous schools have been brought under the organised system; and the 2,828 schools, which still lie outside the circle of State supervision, are expected in due course of time to become qualified for grants-in-aid. Meanwhile, although they do not receive aid, they are largely affected by the example of their neighbours and by the influence of the Department. In short, the indigenous machinery of elementary education is in Madras working as a highly important part of the whole educational machinery of the Province, and the signal success achieved there in developing the indigenous schools has suggested most of our Recommendations for improving and aiding such schools throughout India.

122. Bombay: Elementary indigenous Schools.—In Bombay there are 3,954 elementary indigenous schools with 78,205 pupils, which still lie outside the State system, but 19,720 of these pupils are in the Native States, whose educational machinery is supervised by the Department. There are only 73 such institutions receiving aid from the State, while the board schools for boys alone number 3,630. The exclusion of so large a number of indigenous schools from the State system, when similar institutions form an important part of the Madras system, demands some explanation. Partly owing to the disorganisation of the country for many years before the establishment of British rule, and partly because the secular school had never taken root in the village-system as it had in Bengal, it was considered necessary by the Government, when it entered upon its task of educating the masses, to create new schools rather than to work upon the basis of improving the indigenous schools. There is evidence that the Board of Education twice in the course of their administration, in 1842 and 1847, seriously considered and abandoned the notion of working upon the indigenous system. In 1847 they found that the total number of indigenous schools of all sorts in the Presidency was only 1,751; and even at a still later date 90 per cent. of the villages had no school at all. In 1852 they introduced the system of offering small grants-in-aid to indigenous schools. In 1855, in 1863, and again in 1875, a census was taken, and a steady growth in the number of indigenous primary schools was recorded. In the last of the three years just mentioned there were 3,330 such schools teaching nearly 79,000 pupils.

The most important step in the direction of assisting these schools was taken by Mr. Peile in 1870. He assimilated the standard of instruction in the two lowest classes of the cess-school to the indigenous school course, the immediate effect of which was to place the indigenous schools in organic relation with the Department as ancillary institutions, and to ensure their stability. The indigenous schoolmaster has gradually accepted the position, and has in some measure responded by extending his course along the lines of the departmental system. Mr. Peile also framed special rules for assisting indigenous schools, which will be noticed in Chapter VIII. It is clear, therefore, that the backwardness of the indigenous schools in Bombay, and their practical exclusion from the State system, have not been due to any want of information or to the indifference of the Department. The subject of their claims has been revived several times since 1854, and in no Province of India has more accurate information regarding their condition been obtained. Their isolation has been due to the competition and success of the cess schools. The Local Government at the outset considered the indigenous schools not merely inefficient, but wholly insufficient.

As soon as it created its own schools, it appeared that the poverty of the native schools, and not the opposition of the masses to education, was the cause of the general absence of education. The American war, which gave an enormous stimulus to the cultivation of cotton and so enriched the peasant proprietors in Bombay, led them to appreciate the advantages of education for their children. As fast as schools were opened they were filled. Notwithstanding the interruptions caused by famine, ten thousand scholars have been added year by year to the attendance in cess schools. With so strong a demand for instruction it was possible to raise the standard rapidly and to improve the character of the primary schools. In a very few years the cess schools had entirely left the indigenous schools behind. The imposition of a local rate, which was for five years collected on a voluntary basis, created a permanent fund for primary education; and the local boards at once took an active part in the management of the departmental or cess schools. The several committees identified themselves with the improvement of their local schools; and their popularity was still further increased. Every addition to the popularity or the efficiency of the cess schools thus left the indigenous schools further and further in the background. Moreover, with the large attendance at the cess school the cost of its maintenance decreased, so that, while education at the cess school was more thorough than at the indigenous school, it became also cheaper. The result has been that time has only widened the gulf between the cess and the indigenous school. The masses value the education given in the former, and merely put up with the latter when they cannot obtain the former. The local boards, as trustees for the cess-payers, have spent the cess on the class of schools which the cess-payers prefer. In no part of India has the standard of primary instruction advanced higher than in Bombay, and the fear, which has found expression in Bengal and in the North-Western Provinces, that education above the traditional standard will either empty the schools or unsettle the minds of cultivators, is not put forward in Bombay. The low condition of the indigenous schools is therefore due to their inability, without more regular aid and encouragement than they have yet received, to keep pace with the cess schools.

The policy of inactivity in regard to the practical encouragement of indigenous schools in the Bombay Presidency has been so deliberate, that we have given at length the arguments which have induced the Department to adopt it. Admitting, however, the comparative inferiority of indigenous institutions, we consider that efforts should now be made to encourage them. They have survived a severe competition, and have thus proved that they possess both vitality and popularity. Numerous examples furnished by the history of education in Madras, as well as in Bengal, prove the possibility of adapting the indigenous system to modern requirements, and while the cess schools of Bombay will supply a valuable model, the indigenous schools, if recognised and assisted as we shall presently propose, may be expected to improve their method and fill a useful position in the State system of national education. The introduction of a wider scheme of self-government offers a favourable opportunity for a new departure in the treatment of the elementary indigenous schools of Bombay.

123. Bengal: Elementary indigenous Schools.—The history of the several systems under which the indigenous schools of Bengal have been brought under the influence of the Department, will be traced at length in the next Chapter of this Report, which deals with primary education. It is therefore unnecessary in this place to describe in any detail the character of the institutions that have not yet been incorporated into the State system. While 48,834 indigenous schools in Bengal have been so incorporated, there are

3,265 such schools, giving instruction to 49,238 pupils, which are known to the Department as lying outside the inner circle of State supervision. Of these nearly two-thirds are elementary Hindu schools. The Bengal system of primary instruction is almost exclusively a system of indigenous schools more or less brought under the influence of the Department. Any schools, therefore, which lie outside the aided system are probably either extremely elementary, or else schools which are mainly religious. No information is given as to the proportion of unaided schools which belong to each of these two classes. But it is hardly necessary to pursue the enquiry further, as there is no question that in Bengal the claims of the indigenous schoolmasters, if they are not adequately met, are still fully admitted as a matter of principle.

124. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Elementary indigenous Schools.—The number of unaided indigenous schools in these Provinces, namely, 6,712, giving instruction to 61,634 pupils, is larger than that returned for any other Province of Northern India. But in an interesting account of the indigenous system, which will be found in the Report of the Provincial Committee, reasons are adduced for considering that the return under-estimates the facts. On the other hand, it must be observed that, whereas the average attendance in each indigenous school in Bombay is 19, it is only 9 in similar schools in the North-West. An efficient and popular schoolmaster usually attracts a large attendance, and there must therefore be many classes in the North-Western Provinces which hardly deserve the title of schools. In 1874 a census was taken, which showed that out of 563 maktabs, no less than 543 were simply classes of 4 boys under a family tutor. Out of 91 Kaithi or bazar schools, 41 were of a similar character. As regards the character of their instruction, very depreciatory opinions are entertained by some officials. But it is a remarkable fact that very many of the subordinate native officials of the Province are said to have been almost exclusively educated in schools of this sort. This circumstance would seem to justify a favourable opinion of their merits. In the first instance endeavours were made to extend elementary education by improving the indigenous schools, but the original plan was eventually exchanged for that of maintaining schools under the direct control of the Department; and although from time to time renewed attempts have been made to foster indigenous education, they were not, in the opinion of the Provincial Committee, prosecuted with sufficient earnestness to attain such success as might reasonably have been expected. Besides, the gratuitous education given to the bulk of the pupils in the halkabandi schools has placed the indigenous institutions at a disadvantage. Yet the indigenous schools retain their popularity, and they have even been persuaded to follow the example of the departmental schools in extending their course and improving their text-books and methods of instruction. The Committee are of opinion that while the efficiency of the halkabandi schools should be maintained, the importance of the indigenous schools should also be recognised. We entirely concur in this opinion, and hope that, if our Recommendations be systematically applied, the indigenous system in these Provinces will be treated as an integral part of the general system of education. A large number of the unaided institutions will then be placed on the aided list, and a fresh stimulus afforded to the extension of schools which at present compete successfully with the halkabandi schools for popular favour, notwithstanding the heavy disadvantages against which they have to contend. Among these disadvantages may be reckoned the orders of Government discarding the popular character, Kaithi, in favour of Nagari, as that in which the village records should be kept. The indigenous schools, in which Kaithi continued to be used, were thus heavily weighted in comparison with the halkabandi schools where Nagari was exclusively employed.

125. The Punjab: Elementary indigenous Schools.—The indigenous schools are highly spoken of by several witnesses who have given evidence on the state of education in the Punjab. According to the official Report on Public Instruction for 1878-79, the last in which any statistics of indigenous schools were given, there were 4,662 institutions with 53,029 scholars. Dr. Leitner obtained for the Commission returns of 6,362 unaided indigenous schools with 86,023 scholars, and estimated the actual number of the latter as at least 120,000. Recent enquiries conducted by the Education Department have shown that even this estimate is below the truth. But whatever be the exact number of the pupils, it is manifest that a wide field here exists for work in the cause of education. Circumstances peculiar to the Punjab render the question of encouraging these schools, although not devoid of difficulty, one of extreme importance. It is said that, except the village headmen and the wealthier classes of the agricultural community, the great mass of the rural population do not appreciate the advantage of instruction. The subjects taught in the departmental schools are held to be unsuitable for professional or practical purposes. Education, as now conveyed through the medium of Urdu, which is not the vernacular of the rural population, is said to have "an unsettling effect" on the cultivating classes, as leading them to look to an official career. Whereas in Bombay the demand for cess schools is such that it is estimated that 50,000 more boys would immediately attend the departmental schools if funds were available for opening them, in the Punjab the attendance at departmental schools is only maintained with considerable difficulty. In Bengal and Bombay 2½ per cent. of the male population are found in elementary schools aided or maintained by the Department. In the Punjab only ·91 per cent. are at such schools. In view, then, of the vitality of the indigenous schools, and of the comparative want of success of departmental effort, the recognition of the indigenous system seems to offer the only practicable means of extending primary education. There are, however, special difficulties in the way. The religious feeling is peculiarly strong in a Province where Muhammadans and Sikhs constitute more than half of the whole population. The experience of other Provinces of India in which the most successful attempts have been made to influence the indigenous system, proves that the secular Hindu schools present fewer difficulties in the way of improvement than the religious schools of the Muhammadans and Sikhs. The task, therefore, of securing the co-operation of the indigenous schools of the Punjab has been more difficult than in Bengal or Madras, but conditions appear to be now more favourable to success. It is quite clear that without aid or encouragement from the Department indigenous schools in the Punjab have retained their popularity, and with such encouragement a far larger extension of primary education may reasonably be expected. The managers of these schools, whether Muhammadans, Sikhs, or Hindus, may be expected to understand that the Department entertains towards them friendly views, and that it is prepared to turn their schools to a use profitable alike to their teachers and to society. The extension of a system of self-government also justifies the hope that a fresh impulse will be given to indigenous education. It is through the instrumentality of the boards that so much progress has been effected in Madras, and there are special reasons which promise an even larger measure of success to the direction of local boards in the Punjab than elsewhere. No question has been more pressed upon our attention than that of the choice of a vernacular for the elementary schools of this Province. By giving to local boards full discretion to aid indigenous schools, and by allowing free play to the selection of the vernacular by the people themselves and by the boards which represent them, it may be hoped that a national system of primary education will be established in the Punjab upon a more satisfactory basis.

126. The Central Provinces and Haidarabad Assigned Districts: Elementary indigenous Schools.—The system of education in these two Provinces has been moulded upon similar lines. The unaided indigenous schools in each are exclusively elementary. In the former Province liberal grants are made to the schoolmasters who have accepted inspection and agreed to adopt improvements in their method. The incorporation of the whole indigenous system into the departmental scheme is merely a question of time. The Provincial Report states that in the Central Provinces all indigenous schools are brought under the payment-by-results rules so soon as their masters consent to keep registers. Of the 1,344 elementary schools recorded in the departmental returns, only 83 are unaided. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, the proportion of aided schools to the whole number of indigenous schools is smaller. Out of 405 indigenous schools, 198 were aided, leaving 207 without aid, but not altogether outside the departmental scheme; for it appears that every indigenous school is visited and invited to earn a grant if it

But the indigenous schools in these Districts are reported by Rao Bahadur Narayan B. Dandekar, Director of Public Instruction, to be both ephemeral and inefficient. It is, however, the avowed policy of the Resident at Haidarabad to encourage these institutions as far as possible, and systematic endeavours on the part of the Director of Public Instruction will doubtless be rewarded.

127. Assam: Elementary indigenous Schools.—Out of 1,351 primary schools recognised by the Department in Assam, 1,256 are aided. There are only seven Government and 88 unaided schools under inspection, exclusive of the 497 indigenous elementary schools which we have now to consider. The State system is therefore built, in this Province as in Bengal, mainly on the basis of private effort, but it differs from that of Bengal in the fact that in Assam the Department has for the most part created such effort and has not merely incorporated pre-existing indigenous schools. Except in Sylhet, no secular indigenous schools suitable for incorporation were found in the Province. The indigenous system, weak as it was, consisted of religious schools such as tols, maktabs, and a few Khampti schools. These last institutions are peculiar to Assam. The Khampti tribes inhabit the country on the North-East Frontier of Lakhimpur, and are Buddhists by religion. They receive instruction in the Burmese character from itinerant monks, or Bapus, who come from beyond the Patkoi range, and visit the villages in turn, holding a class in each for three or four months. The pupils are instructed in religion as well as in reading and writing; but since most of the Khampti tribes lie beyond the British frontier, the information acquired by local officers regarding their habits is scanty. It is, however, stated that every male Khampti can read and write, and in some of their villages large collections of xylographs are found. The Department has experienced considerable difficulty in making use of the indigenous schools, whether Hindu, Muhammadan, or Khampti. Aid has been offered to the teachers on a few simple conditions which have been refused. The Department has therefore been obliged, except in Sylhet, to neglect the existing indigenous schools and to encourage pupils from the departmental schools to set up primary schools where they are wanted. Thus the Assam system is built upon private effort aided by the State, but not upon the indigenous institutions as in Bengal.

128. Coorg: Elementary indigenous Schools.—The indigenous system in this small territory lies quite outside the Department. There are 41 elementary indigenous schools, with 470 pupils. They are fairly distributed over the country and divided amongst the different nationalities. Nothing but the merest rudi-

ments is taught. The Hindus learn verses out of the Ramayana; the Lingayats learn books peculiar to their sect, reciting the verses in chorus after their masters without understanding the meaning; while the Muhammadans learn texts of the Koran in the same way. The number of schools has slightly increased in the last ten years. The fee for each pupil varies from 4 annas to Re. 1 a month. Money payments are supplemented by payments in kind, with presents of food and clothes at festival seasons. The general characteristics of the indigenous system of Northern India are therefore preserved with singular fidelity in this isolated region of the south. The instruction is partly religious, and the secular part of the course is very elementary. The vitality of these schools is, however, an argument for their encouragement.

129. The Status of indigenous Schoolmasters.—It has been seen that in the advanced indigenous school, fees are rarely charged for instruction. The character of Hindu and Muhammadan religious endowments has been traced and the paternal relation of the Brahman teacher to his pupils explained. It will presently be seen that all traces of gratuitous education are lost in the bazar schools, which are essentially commercial undertakings. The Maulavi or Pandit of the high school is respected, if not venerated, by his pupils, and is held in high estimation by their parents. The bazar school master, on the other hand, is the paid servant of the community, and holds no such position. The teacher of the ordinary elementary school stands midway between these two classes of schoolmasters, and his position in society rests to some extent on the adequacy of the income he derives from fees. If the school is of a decidedly religious character, the master receives the respect which is naturally paid to a teacher of religion. If it is wholly secular and based upon the departmental model, he is judged by the standard of the departmental schoolmaster; and not possessing the prestige of a Government servant, his social position is inferior to that of the subordinate of the Education Department. Thus, in Bombay, where the masters of the cess school and of the secular indigenous school exist side by side, the influence of the former is as a rule far greater than that of the latter. On the other hand, in Bengal and northern India, the schoolmaster of an old-fashioned indigenous school is much respected, and his position is not improved by his connection with the Department. It has even been held that the receipt of assistance from Government injures rather than improves the position of the Bengal pathsala guru, so long as he confines himself to the traditional subjects of instruction. The more he depends upon the State, the less can he rely upon the maintenance of his fees, since the village community, while acknowledging the obligation of maintaining the guru, have no objection to transfer that obligation wholly or in part to the State. In Madras the indigenous schoolmaster of the old hereditary type is reported to be fast losing his influence through competition with the trained and certificated teacher of the new type. The average emoluments of the latter are said to be only Rs. $3\frac{1}{3}$ a month, exclusive of payments in kind and periodical presents on festive and ceremonial occasions. In Bombay the fee-receipts rarely exceed Rs. 8 a month in the larger, and Rs. 5 in the smaller, villages, while in cities an indigenous school headmaster occasionally earns Rs. 50 a month. On the whole, it may be assumed that, where the indigenous system has been little influenced by the spirit of modern education, the schoolmaster is respected. Where the new spirit prevails, respect is superseded by reputation, and reputation will be proportioned to the capacity of the master. But in the transition stage, the influence of the indigenous master is decreasing, and his claims upon the consideration of the villagers or townspeople can be but slowly re-established.

130. The Bazar Schools.—Our review of the indigenous system will be completed by a brief notice of the bazar schools, which are found in several Provinces of India, and which springing from the practical wants of the people have accepted any useful change consistent with those wants. The ordinary Hindu pathsala endeavoured to give a useful education to all classes including the trading classes. But if the cultivating classes predominated, the chief share of the master's attention was necessarily devoted to them, while he could not neglect the claims of the few pupils who were preparing to enter a tol. Meanwhile the children of the trading classes were not satisfied with the attention which they received, inasmuch as they required a more practical education than that which sufficed for the simple wants of the other members of the village community. Accordingly, in large towns, where the merchants and tradesmen were strong enough to supply their own demand, they established a special class of schools, called bazar schools. These schools are also called Lande, Sarafi, Hindu-Sindhi, or Mahajani schools, according to the peculiar character which they teach, and which the particular class employs in its business transactions. Their subjects of instruction are accounts, the writing out of bills and drafts, book-keeping, and mental arithmetic. Bazar schools are essentially a commercial speculation; and not only is the master usually paid in money, but he is generally paid on the contract system, receiving a fixed grant on the completion of a certain course of special instruction. As the servant of the parents, he has never commanded the respect which the religious Pandit of the high school, or the guru of the village school, obtains. The masters have no objection to receiving aid from the State, but they naturally are slow to adopt any changes opposed to the conservatism of the commercial castes who rigidy adhere to traditional habits of business and systems of account.

131. Recommendations.—It only remains for us to state our suggestions for making use of the material for education lying more or less neglected in the several Provinces of India, and for incorporating, where possible, in the scheme of national instruction the indigenous schools which according to the statistics furnished to the Commission are attended by 354,655 pupils and at present receive no recognition from the Departments. Our Recommendations deal with four matters:—

I—The schools to be assisted.
II—The character of the assistance.
III—The conditions of assistance.
IV—The channel of distributing assistance.

But before discussing them we would briefly refer to the views entertained by one of our Punjab colleagues who is unable to concur in the conclusions at which a majority of us, including our colleague Mr. Haji Ghulam Hasan (who together with Mr. Pearson represented the Punjab), have arrived. Mr. Pearson approves of the policy of aiding and encouraging indigenous schools in the manner proposed by us, wherever it may be possible to do so, but he believes that the experiment has already received a fair trial in northern India, and that the schools have there been found unsuited for this kind of treatment. In the North-Western Provinces the original scheme of popular education devised by Mr. Thomason provided for the establishment of a small number of central Government Schools to serve as models to the indigenous schools in their neighbourhood, and, in the opinion of Mr. Pearson, it was only when the paucity and ephemeral character of these schools had been ascertained, and the impossibility of making any permanent impression upon them had been realised, that the halkabandi system was adopted in

preference. Similarly in the Punjab, when the Education Department was first established, the alternative of aiding the indigenous teachers or of taking them into Government employ, was carefully considered; and although the latter plan was adopted, it was not until some years afterwards that the separation of the village school from the mosque was determined upon as a necessary measure of reform. But if the departmental school ultimately superseded other plans for the extension of popular education, the idea of an outer circle of aided indigenous schools has never been lost sight of, but has been taken up from time to time by zealous officers of all grades, and has been the subject of numerous orders of Government. The uniform failure of these efforts can only be explained, in Mr. Pearson's opinion, by the absence of any real system of secular indigenous instruction for the masses in Northern India. The vast majority of schools enumerated in the returns are, he maintains, useful only for the recitation of texts and for other religious exercises, while the secular schools which have something in common with schools for general education are of an almost exclusively special character. The bazar school is usually kept by a man who knows how to teach the mere rudiments of shop accounts, and nothing else. The Persian maktab is not a vernacular school at all, and the opinion that it is above the requirements of the working classes has found expression in a favourite* proverb quoted by several of the Punjab witnesses. In Bengal it may be possible to improve a pathsala without any violent innovation, but according to the view which our colleague represents, little or nothing of this kind can be done in the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab without introducing strange and unacceptable studies for a purpose foreign to that which has called the school into existence.

132. The Schools to be assisted.—Three classes of indigenous agency have been considered,—the advanced schools and colleges, which are generally of a religious character; the ordinary elementary village schools, which are more or less democratic; and the technical bazar schools. We have included under the term "indigenous" all schools, without reference to the kind of instruction afforded in them, which are established or conducted by natives of India on native methods. This definition will cover a larger area of educational agency than it may be practicable or desirable for the State, maintaining a policy of strict religious neutrality, to assist, or even to encourage in a less direct manner. We therefore consider it sufficient to recommend *that all indigenous schools, whether high or low, be recognised and encouraged, if they serve any purpose of secular education whatsoever.* The success which has attended the introduction of secular teaching into religious and monastic schools in Burma and in the neighbouring district of Chittagong, justifies the hope that in other parts of India a sympathetic treatment of schools, which are chiefly religious, may yet induce the managers to devote some part of their attention to secular instruction, and thus turn to advantage the influence which these institutions undoubtedly exert over native society. We would, therefore, exclude no class of schools from the privilege of connection with the State, or from the right to claim assistance, provided that they satisfy the secular tests imposed, and fulfil the conditions which will be noticed presently.

133. The Character of the Assistance.—Opinions naturally differ as to the best form of rendering assistance to indigenous schoolmasters. It is necessary at the outset to draw a line between higher and primary education. We have fully discussed in the course of our deliberations the difficulty of finding funds and of selecting the best method for encouraging advanced Hindu and Muhammadan schools or colleges. We recommend *that the best practicable method of encouraging indigenous education of a high order, desiring recognition, be ascertained by the several Departments in communication with Pandits, Maulavis, and others interested in the subject.* As regards the secular elementary schools, it has been alleged that in some Provinces the aid rendered by Government is at once accepted by the parents of pupils as an indication that their own contributions may be *pro tanto* diminished. The aid does not reach its object, and the natural objection which a conservative schoolmaster feels to innovation or improvement is not overcome by the prospect of personal advantage, except in those cases in which the villagers may be induced to attach value to the new subjects of instruction. It has therefore been suggested that the best form of aiding an indigenous schoolmaster would be for the State to pay the fees of all boys who are too poor to contribute towards the cost of their education. There are, however, practical difficulties in a system which would entail much trouble on the Inspector, and involve an enquiry into the circumstances of the village population that could neither be conducted with satisfaction to the people, nor with sufficient guarantee to the State. We therefore recommend *that the system of aid adopted be that which regulates the aid given mainly according to the results of examination.* The gradual improvement of the teaching power in the indigenous system is, however, in our opinion, a matter of such primary importance, that we recommend that special rules be made to meet the case. The co-operation and influence of the indigenous schoolmasters will alone enable the Department to raise the level of village schools conducted on native methods, without extinguishing them by well-meant, but injudicious, interference. Accordingly we recommend *that special encouragement be afforded to indigenous schoolmasters to undergo training, and to bring their relatives and probable successors under regular training.* In a subsequent paragraph we shall also suggest the bestowal of special grants in certain cases, on account of low-caste boys educated in indigenous schools.

134. The Conditions of Assistance.—If the State affords liberal grants for the results of examination, and organises Normal schools for the training of indigenous schoolmasters, it may expect that they on their part will accept the conditions imposed on them, and thus justify the Department in applying public revenues to their encouragement. We regard as the best policy that which proceeds with caution, and does not under the name of improvement destroy the distinctive methods and traditions to which bazar or village schools owe their vitality and popularity. We recommend therefore *that a steady and gradual improvement be aimed at, with as little immediate interference with the personnel and curriculum of indigenous schools as possible.* In order to carry out this policy and to re-assure the village schoolmasters, we recommend *that the standards of examination be arranged to suit each Province, with the view of preserving all that is valued by the people in the indigenous systems, and of encouraging by special grants the gradual introduction of useful subjects of instruction.* By such special grants the masters will be more readily induced to accept those improvements in their course which a progressive state of society demands. We do not attempt to define the useful subjects which should be added to the school course. The adaptation of the principle of gradual improvement must be left to the Local Governments, who can ascertain the locality, class, and condition of their indigenous schools, and shape their help and advice in the mould best suited to local circumstances. It is, however, essential that aided schools should submit to inspection. We recommend *that indigenous schools receiving aid be inspected* in situ, *and that,*

* The proverb may be thus translated:—
Reads Persian and then sells oil;
See the freaks of fortune!

as far as possible, the examinations for their grants-in-aid be conducted in situ. We were not entirely unanimous in adopting this Recommendation. It was suggested that the system of local inspection, but of central examination, which obtains in Bengal, was preferable to local examinations. The advantages claimed for the Bengal system were the economy of the Inspector's time, the necessity of entrusting the examinations for rewards to officers of a higher grade than those who ordinarily inspected the pathsalas, and the stimulus and competition created by bringing several schools together to a central examination. On the other hand, the majority of the Commission considered that central examinations encouraged fraud, involved expense to the students and masters, and unless supplemented by systematic inspection prevented a thorough examination of the system of instruction. The following extract* puts in a clear form the arguments against central examinations when not supplemented by adequate inspection *in situ*: "As a practical educationist, I am compelled to "say that examinations held over such gatherings for the very short time that "they must necessarily last, fail to afford clear ideas of the schools as they are. "A school seen in its own abode is known to be what it is at the first glance. "Besides the dirty or clean appearance of the school-house, the neatness and "orderliness of the children or the reverse, as they sit to take their lessons, the "bearing of the teacher towards his pupils, his voice, attitude, patience with "the dull, and a thousand other things, remain unseen by the Inspector under "present arrangements." Besides the conditions of improvement, and of submission to inspection, one further condition of assistance remains. We refer to the right of all classes of the community to participate in any education for which the State pays directly or indirectly. The evidence given before the Commission shows that in many Provinces of India fears are entertained that the transfer of control to local bodies will arrest the progress which depressed castes are successfully making to emancipate and improve themselves. It is admitted to be true that in some parts of India aided schools give no place either to the low-caste Hindu boy or to the backward aboriginal races. For instance, the Mahar and Dher castes alone in the Bombay Presidency number 1,200,000, and are said to be practically excluded from indigenous schools. If the departmental schools should be very largely superseded by indigenous or aided primary schools, under the general control of local boards, it is anticipated that the upward progress of the lower ranks of Hindu society would be effectually barred. To meet the case of such classes, we recommend *that aided indigenous schools, not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all castes and classes of the community; special aid being, if necessary, assignable on account of low-caste pupils.* In order that our object may not be defeated by the registration of all schools as "special," we recommend *that such a proportion between special and other elementary indigenous schools be maintained in each town or District as to ensure a proportionate provision for the education of all classes.*

135. The Channel of distributing Aid.—The agency for assisting indigenous schools will necessarily be the agency of control. We attach great importance to the connection of all agencies of primary education with the various schemes of self-government now under consideration. Local boards, whether municipal or rural, are likely to sympathise with the indigenous system where it is valued by the people. In their hands improvement will not involve destruction. They will know what vernacular the village or town population prefer, and what subjects of instruction are practically useful. These boards

* Report on village schools in the North-Western Provinces and Punjab by Baboo Bhudeb Mookerjea, 1868, page 23.

will generally be entrusted with the control of elementary education in departmental schools, and their attitude towards indigenous schools may be expected to cast light on the vexed question of the relative popularity of the two systems. We therefore recommend *that, where municipal and local boards exist, the registration, supervision and encouragement of indigenous elementary schools, whether aided or unaided, be entrusted to them, provided that such boards shall not interfere in any way with any schools which do not desire to receive aid or to be subject to the supervision of the boards.* This will not only secure the public recognition of such indigenous schools by local bodies entrusted with power, but will also enable the boards themselves to take a wide survey of the field of indigenous agency. The pressure of public opinion, as well as their natural instincts, will, it may be hoped, lead local boards in the direction of popular sentiment. If such boards are entrusted with the control of primary education as well as with the funds to supply it, they will doubtless give indigenous schools fair play; and, when they become efficient, a preference over the more expensive institutions maintained wholly by municipal or rural boards. We therefore recommend *that the aid given to indigenous elementary schools be a charge against the funds at the disposal of municipal and local boards, where such exist, and that every indigenous school, which is registered for aid, receive from such boards the grants to which it is entitled under the rules.* A discretion would, it is true, be left to the boards to register or to refuse to register an application for aid. But the considerations of economy and local popularity (where such exist), to which we have referred, would incline the boards to enter schools on their list of aided institutions as far as funds permit. The amount of aid to be received would of course depend on the efficiency of the school as gauged by the Inspector. But the increase of demands on the school fund administered by the board would correspond with the increasing efficiency of the indigenous schools, and even if a municipal or rural board school had to be closed in order to meet the growing demands of aided schools, the result would be a satisfactory proof of the extension of primary education. In some parts of India, however, it may happen that the indigenous schools have fallen out of repute, owing in some cases to neglect; more frequently to a competition with the departmental school by which they could not but suffer; and occasionally to the real superiority of departmental schools and the preference of the people for them. We should therefore supplement our last Recommendation by the following: *that local and municipal boards be required to give elementary indigenous schools free play and development, and only establish fresh schools of their own when the preferable alternative of aiding suitable indigenous schools cannot be adopted.* It is not desirable to interfere with the discretion of boards in the exercise of the large powers which have been, or are about to be, conferred on them. At the same time it is necessary to provide a sufficient check upon their proceedings in order to ensure a proper observance of the conditions of aid and of the principles of administration which have been suggested. We therefore recommend *that one of the local inspecting officers be an* ex-officio *member of the muncipal or district local board.* Where there are several inspecting officers at the same station, it will rest with the Local Government to decide who shall sit on the board. The association of the inspecting officer with the local board has not only been advocated by several native witnesses whose opinion is entitled to consideration, but it also seems to be the best mode of minimising interference from outside, while giving the boards timely and suitable advice in the discharge of their responsible functions. In order that the educational officers may be sufficiently acquainted with the facts to enable them to render such advice, we recommend *that the officers of the Education Department keep a list of all*

elementary indigenous schools and assist the boards in selecting the schools to be registered for aid and in securing a proportionate provision of education for all classes of the community. By these measures, if there should exist anywhere either a tendency to ignore the rights of the lower castes or of backward races, or a desire to keep any class of indigenous schools in the background, a remedy can promptly be provided. In all probability the experienced advice of the Inspector would be sufficient, but, should this fail, the matter would be brought to the notice of higher authority.

136. Recommendations recapitulated.—Our Recommendations therefore stand as follows:—

Defining an indigenous school as one established or conducted by natives of India on native methods, we recommend that—

(1) all indigenous schools, whether high or low, be recognised and encouraged, if they serve any purpose of secular education whatsoever:

(2) the best practicable method of encouraging indigenous schools of a high order, and desiring recognition, be ascertained by the Education Departments in communication with Pandits, Maulavis, and others interested in the subject:

(3) preference be given to that system which regulates the aid given mainly according to the results of examinations:

(4) special encouragement be afforded to indigenous schoolmasters to undergo training, and to bring their relatives and probable successors under regular training:

(5) a steady and gradual improvement in indigenous schools be aimed at, with as little immediate interference with their *personnel* or curriculum as possible:

(6) the standards of examination be arranged to suit each province, with the view of preserving all that is valued by the people in the indigenous systems, and of encouraging by special grants the gradual introduction of useful subjects of instruction:

(7) indigenous schools receiving aid be inspected *in situ*, and, as far as possible, the examinations for their grants-in-aid be conducted *in situ*:

(8) aided indigenous schools, not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all classes and castes of the community, special aid being, if necessary, assignable on account of low-caste pupils:

(9) such a proportion between special and other elementary indigenous schools be maintained in each town and District, as to ensure a proportionate provision for the education of all classes:

(10) where Municipal and Local Boards exist, the registration, supervision, and encouragement of indigenous elementary schools, whether aided or unaided, be entrusted to such boards; provided that the boards shall not interfere in any way with such schools as do not desire to receive aid or to be subject to the supervision of the boards:

(11) the aid given to elementary indigenous schools be a charge against the funds at the disposal of Local and Municipal Boards where such exist; and every indigenous school, which is registered for aid, receive from such boards the aid to which it is entitled under the rules:

(12) such boards be required to give elementary indigenous schools free play and development, and to establish fresh schools of their own only where the preferable alternative of aiding suitable indigenous schools cannot be adopted:

(13) the local inspecting officers be *ex-officio* members of Municipal or District school-boards:

(14) the officers of the Education Department keep lists of all elementary indigenous schools, and assist the boards in selecting schools to be registered for aid, and in securing a proportionate provision of education for all classes of the community.

CHAPTER IV.

PRIMARY EDUCATION.

137. Public primary Schools.—Before proceeding to a definition of what is to be understood by primary education in India, it is necessary to state at the outset in what sense the term "public" is used in this and the following Chapters. By the term "public" we do not mean merely Government schools which are wholly supported at the expense of public funds, whether those funds be provincial, local, or municipal, but any schools which receive aid in any form from the State, even when that aid is confined to the benefits of inspection and supervision, as well as those which regularly send their pupils to the examinations held by the Department. We also include those primary schools supported or aided from the revenues of Native States which, having no educational Department of their own, are glad to make use of that of the British Government. The definition of primary education rests ultimately upon the Despatch of 1854. Its scope was there defined as consisting of so much knowledge, at least of reading and writing, and of the simple rules of arithmetic and of land measurement, as would enable each man to look after his own rights. Reference was made to the revenue settlements in the North-Western Provinces, in Madras, and Bombay, and to the "solid advantages "attending elementary knowledge which can be plainly and practically made "apparent to the understandings and interests of the lower classes in Bengal." From the various references made to the subject, it is apparent that the character of primary education as understood by the Court of Directors was to be determined by the practical needs both of an agricultural and of an urban community, and that the course was to include reading and writing with elementary arithmetic and mensuration. The history of primary education in India shows that various systems, whether based upon the indigenous schools or created by the direct instrumentality of Government, have been set on foot in the different Provinces. Each system was developed along its own independent lines; and as time went on every one of them tended more or less to go beyond the simple standard indicated in the Despatch. In some Provinces where the advance was most marked, the departure was justified by the argument that the wants of rural society had been enlarged, and that the standard was not above the requirements of the masses. In Bengal, on the other hand, the standard was again in 1872 brought sharply back to the limits set by the Despatch. In dealing with the standards of instruction we shall notice the diversities which now exist, and in tracing the history of primary education in each Province, we shall explain its gradual development. We shall show that each system being the outcome of long experience has necessarily varied with local circumstances and local requirements. An attempt at securing uniformity was made in 1879, when the Government of India for the first time promulgated a definition of primary education for the whole Empire. Primary schools were defined as those "in which pupils are "under instruction from the earliest stage up to the standard at which secondary instruction begins; this standard being marked by an examination to be "called the upper primary examination." The standard of the upper primary examination was then given in detail. These orders not only presupposed and prescribed a uniform, or nearly uniform, standard of primary instruction

throughout India, but they also tended to identify that instruction with the lower section of a course ending in, and determined by, the Matriculation examination. In Bombay and Bengal the orders were received with great reluctance, and detailed objections to them, on the ground that they overlooked the special characteristics of the educational systems of those Provinces, were brought to the notice of the Supreme Government. The force of these representations was admitted. The Government of India disclaimed any intention of dislocating existing systems or of seeking uniformity merely as an incident to the revision of the educational Tables. Local Governments were therefore permitted to select from their own scheme of examinations those which most nearly corresponded to the primary standards as now defined, and to embody the results in the forms of return prescribed for the whole of India. Thus while compliance with the uniform standards laid down has been apparently secured, there is still nothing approaching to uniformity in the primary systems of the various Provinces. Having regard to these circumstances, we are of opinion that no advantage is to be gained by any attempt to secure uniformity throughout India, and we have recommended *that the upper and lower primary examinations be not made compulsory in any Province.* Each Province will thus be enabled to develope and improve its primary course according to the needs and growth of rural society; and it will be free to test the progress made by standards adapted to local wants. As regards the second point suggested by the definition of primary instruction given in the order of 1879, we are of opinion that it should not be regarded as a section cut off from a scheme of education leading to the University, but rather as complete in itself, and as intended to impart such knowledge as will meet all the reasonable and progressive wants of those numerous classes of the community who cannot afford to prosecute their studies in secondary schools. We therefore recommend *that primary education be regarded as the instruction of the masses through the vernacular in such subjects as will best fit them for their position in life, and be not necessarily regarded as a portion of instruction leading up to the University.*

138. Different Classes of Public primary Schools.—Under the wide definition given of public primary schools will be found ranged in very different proportions several classes of departmental and aided or inspected schools. In some Provinces village schools for the masses have to a large extent been originated by Government, while a few of the most promising indigenous schools have been incorporated into the State system by a direct process of conversion. Under this process the indigenous school has partially or wholly lost its distinctive characteristics, and become in reality a departmental school. Or again the influence of the Department has been less severe and rigid, and the indigenous school has received aid without sacrificing its peculiar method and course of instruction. The indigenous institutions have in this case been developed rather than converted. In one Province the whole system of the primary instruction of the masses—as distinguished from the instruction of pupils preparing for secondary schools—rests upon an indigenous foundation; and the superstructure has corresponded more or less fully to the ideal laid down in the Despatch of 1854 and in subsequent orders, in proportion to the endeavours that have been made to provide better qualified teachers and to raise the standard of efficiency of the country schools. It may also be observed that, in some Provinces of India, there have been interruptions and changes of policy, alternating between the several processes which have been described. Other differences of system will be noticed. In some Provinces control over the great mass of primary schools called cess schools has been entrusted to local boards, so far as finance and general supervision is concerned; while each village school has had a local committee, whose duty it has been to encourage

attendance, and to report any remissness on the part of the master. In other Provinces there have been school committees, but no local boards, and the officers of the Education Department have exercised an almost unlimited control. Sometimes the revenue officers have been made entirely responsible for the care and development of primary instruction, while in other cases these officers have contented themselves with offering such advice as has suggested itself from their independent inspection. Thus a great diversity of practice exists, which is the result not only of the local development of indigenous education, but also of the reflex action of general administrative progress. These differences will appear more clearly from the review which will be given of primary education in each Province.

139. Divisions of the Subject.—It will be convenient to preface the detailed consideration of each provincial system by exhibiting in a tabular statement the distribution of the 82,916 primary schools scattered over India, and by showing the classes of the population which attend them. Premising that the term "departmental" is used in a wide sense as embracing municipal and local board schools as well as purely Government institutions, and dividing public schools into the three great classes of departmental, aided, and unaided but inspected institutions, we shall find that 16 per cent. of the public primary schools in India belong to the first class, 69 per cent. to the second, and 14 per cent. to the last. But the extraordinary diversity of systems may be illustrated from the following Table which shows the percentage of each class of school in each Province :—

Proportion of departmental, aided, and other primary Schools.

Province.	Departmental schools.	Aided schools.	Unaided schools under inspection.
	Proportion per cent.	Proportion per cent.	Proportion per cent.
Madras	8·7	51·2	40·1
Bombay	71·4	3·6	25 *
Bengal	·05	91·50	8·45
North-Western Provinces	95·1	4·2	·7
Punjab	84·8	15·2	None.
Central Provinces	66·3	27·3	6·4
Assam	0·5	93	6·5
Coorg	95	5	None.
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	52·9	23·7	23·4

* Most of these schools are really departmental schools in Native States.

It will be seen at a glance that in six of the nine Provinces of India, with whose system this Chapter deals, the departmental schools are the most important part of the machinery for diffusing elementary instruction. But it cannot be precisely ascertained what proportion of these departmental institutions were originally indigenous schools. In the Punjab a large number of native schools were thus converted, while in Bombay the bulk of the cess schools were the original creation of the Department. In Ajmir also the primary

schools, which are classified in accordance with the system adopted in the North-Western Provinces, are chiefly departmental institutions, but we have explained in Chapter II the reasons which have prevented us from incorporating its statistics in our Report. The total number of pupils in the vernacular tahsíli and halkabandi schools of Ajmir and Mhairwarra was 2,309 in 1880-81.

After considering in full detail the system of primary education which exists in each Province, and the methods of registering attendance with a view to the prevention of fraud, we shall examine the quality and character of the instruction, whether intellectual, physical, or moral, and the measures taken to improve the efficiency of the teachers. The fees charged and the prizes and scholarships given to the pupils will also be considered. Any special attempts made to extend elementary instruction in backward places such as the highlands of India or the forest tracts of the Central Provinces, and to educate particular classes of society will be noticed. The progress of female education will be briefly reviewed without anticipating a subsequent Chapter of this Report. We shall then consider the important subject of the relations of local boards, whether municipal or rural, to primary schools; and we shall conclude this review by an examination of the cost of primary education in each Province and the proportion of public expenditure devoted to the instruction of those classes which are least able to help themselves.

140. Two Theories of extending primary Education.—The tabular Statement which has just been given affords a convenient opportunity for prefacing the detailed account of each provincial system by a few general observations upon the opposite policies which have been pursued in different parts of India. In attempting to cope with the ignorance of the vast masses of the Indian populations whose density varies from 50 to the square mile in Sind to 637 in the Patna Division of Bengal, two different systems suggested themselves to the local authorities. There was no difference of opinion as to the ultimate object to be attained, namely, the widest possible extension of a good elementary education suited to the wants of society. Opinions differed only as to the most suitable means. On the one hand, the indigenous schools of the country, however inefficient, offered a ready material to work on; and by extending to them help, however small, their returns could be gathered into the statistics of primary education, and evidence could be thus afforded that the wants of the people were not being neglected. But while the indigenous schoolmasters were very ready to accept help, if it was not saddled with inconvenient conditions, they were extremely slow in many parts of India to alter their methods or to raise their standard of instruction. The older schoolmasters were unwilling to admit the advantages of an improvement which seemed to threaten them with extinction; while the younger generation were partly on conservative principles opposed to any change and partly unwilling to undergo the expense and trouble of a systematic training. Indian rural society moves slowly, and the demand on its part for a more thorough instruction was not likely to be effective until the whole feeling of the people and their standard of comfort were raised. It was therefore urged that, although education might be most readily and widely extended by building on the indigenous foundation, it could not be adapted to the requirements of society, unless for a generation or two the whole system of instruction was lifted out of the conventional rut and its level raised by the example of Government. It was argued that departmental schools in every large village of the country and so organised as to work under the direction of departmental inspectors and trained teachers, would not only create a national demand

for better teaching, but also raise the indigenous system without even any direct aid from the State. To attain the ends proposed by the State, regarding which no serious conflict of opinion has arisen, it was necessary to diffuse not merely elementary instruction, but such an instruction as would protect the poor against injustice, and promote a spirit of self-help and self-reliance. The departmental system could claim to have succeeded when it had raised the indigenous institutions *pari passu* with its own schools, and, while infusing fresh vigour into the former, had brought about their extension as well as their improvement. The system of incorporating the indigenous schools of the country could claim for itself the advantage not merely of rapid extension, but also of the recognition of the progressive wants of a society no longer stationary, provided that the method and course of instruction in indigenous schools had been sensibly improved. One further aspect of the case demands consideration. It was urged in favour of working upon the indigenous schools that it would develope self-help and promote private enterprise. Substantial assistance rendered to indigenous schoolmasters would encourage the profession of teachers, while their existence would not be endangered by competition with departmental schools. On the other hand, the advocates of the departmental method replied that indigenous schools had no existence amongst the aboriginal races, and did not generally admit the lowest castes of Hindu society; and therefore that exclusive reliance upon such schools would doom to perpetual ignorance large sections of the community who were incapable of helping themselves.

141. Both Systems sanctioned in the Despatches.—Both systems could claim the sanction of higher authority. The Despatch of 1854 contemplated the wise encouragement of indigenous schools, and in view of the comparatively insignificant number of those who were receiving school instruction referred to "the almost insuperable difficulties which would at such "an extension of the present system of education by means of co and "schools entirely supported at the cost of Government, as might oped "to supply, in any reasonable time, so gigantic a deficiency, and to provide adequate means for setting on foot such a system as we have described and desire "to see established." In the Despatch of 1859 it was remarked that the mode of extending vernacular education adopted in the several Provinces naturally exhibited considerable diversity. The systems in force in the North-Western Provinces, in Bengal, and in Bombay were reviewed at length, and in paragraph 50 it was observed as follows: "On the whole, Her Majesty's Government can "entertain little doubt that the grant-in-aid system, as hitherto in force, is unsuited to the supply of vernacular education to the masses of the population; and "it appears to them, so far as they have been able to form an opinion, that the "means of elementary education should be provided by the direct instrumentality of the officers of Government, according to some one of the plans in "operation in Bengal and the North-Western Provinces, or by such modification "of those schemes as may commend itself to the several Local Governments as "best suited to the circumstances of different localities." These instructions confirmed the principle of incorporating and improving the existing indigenous schools, rather than of inducing the people to set up new schools under

amounts to more than 99 millions, or not far short of one-half the whole population whose educational systems are under the consideration of the Commission. But it must not be supposed that, even under the same system, very wide diversities of practice and methods are not included. In the Central Provinces unceasing efforts have been made to expand the indigenous system. In Bombay very few indigenous schools are aided, but the neglect to give them pecuniary assistance has not prevented them from taking advantage in many cases of the increasing demand for education which the departmental system has created, and from improving their own method. The Provinces, on the other hand, in which primary education has been largely if not exclusively built upon the indigenous or aided schools, are Madras, Bengal, and Assam, with their population numbering 105½ millions. But here again the Madras system differs widely from the Bengal system. The indigenous schools of Madras have before them the model of a fair sprinkling of departmental schools, and the numerous and well-managed institutions supported and directed by the efforts of missionary bodies. About one-half the whole number of primary schools are improved indigenous schools, and of the remainder the most efficient are not always the departmental but generally the private aided schools. In Bengal the pre-existing indigenous schools have been induced by the offer of small grants to come in vast numbers within the departmental system: while in Assam the efforts of the Department have been chiefly directed to the establishment of new village schools under private management but assisted by much more liberal grants. These differences will be traced in greater detail hereafter. It is only here necessary to repeat that the phrase "public schools" includes departmental, aided, as well as unaided but inspected schools, while the phrase "departmental" is applied to schools supported by local fund committees and municipalities, as well as to those which are exclusively managed by the officers of the Department.

142. Public primary Schools and Pupils.—We give below, at the threshold of our detailed enquiry into the various departmental systems, two comparative statements, of which the first exhibits the number of public primary schools in India on 31st March 1882 as contrasted with the number existing in 1871; while the second classifies the pupils by race and creed. These statements will frequently be referred to in the course of this Chapter.

TABLE 1.—*Comparative Statement showing the number of Primary Schools existing in India † at the end of the official years 1870-71 and 1881-82.*

PROVINCES.	Class of Schools.	1870-71. Number of schools.*	1870-71. Number of pupils.	1870-71. Average number of pupils in each school.	1881-82. Number of schools.*	1881-82. Number of pupils.	1881-82. Average number of pupils in each school.	REMARKS.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
MADRAS	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools	17	741	44	1,263	46,975	37	*a* The numbers enclosed in square brackets are included under the secondary schools.
	Aided Schools	¶2,783	67,496	24	7,414	204,140	27	¶ The figures as returned by the Provincial Committee. The Report on Public Instruction for 1870-71 returns a large number of these schools as aided institutions.
	Unaided Schools under inspection	...	...	...	5,809	109,528	19	† An estimate only.
	Primary classes in High and Middle Schools and in Colleges	*a*[†650]	*a*[21,465]	*a*[33]	...	...	...	
	TOTAL	2,800	68,237	24	14,486	360,643	24	
BOMBAY	Government and Local Fund Schools	2,307	129,653	56	3,811	243,959	64	
	Aided Schools	44	2,945	65	196	13,902	70	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	387	27,030	69	1,331	74,827	56	
	TOTAL ...	2,738	159,628	58	5,338	332,688	62	
BENGAL	Government Schools	47	1,627	34	28	916	32	
	Aided Schools	2,439	66,417	27	47,374	835,435	17	§ As estimated in 1881. Later estimates would add about 6,500 to the number.
	Unaided Schools under inspection	26	499	19	4,376	62,038	14	
	Primary classes in High and Middle Schools	*a*[1,812]	*a*[§57,945]	*a*[31]	*a*[1,891]	*a*[94,318]	*a*[49]	
	TOTAL	2,512	68,543	27	51,778	898,389	17§	
NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH.	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools	‡4,307	‖148,126	34	5,561	197,060	35	‖ Inclusive of the pupils in the secondary departments of Tahsil and Halkaband Schools.
	Aided Schools	143	5,126	35	243	15,019	61	‡ Exclusive of 37 schools in Ajmir with 1,116 pupils. At the end of 1881-82 the schools in Ajmir were 59 in number and were attended by 2,30 pupils.
	Unaided Schools under inspection	...	..	...	41	1,159	28	
	TOTAL	4,450	153,252	34	5,845	213,238	36	
PUNJAB	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools	1,254	50,547	40	1,549	88,251	57	** The apparent decrease in this class of institutions since 1870-71 is due to differences in the classification of schools in the two years here compared.
	Aided Schools	501	18,950	37	**278	14,616	53	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	TOTAL	1,755	69,497	39	1,827	102,867	56	
CENTRAL PROVINCES	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools	795	41,404	52	894	55,745	62	
	Aided Schools	423	20,792	51	368	18,786	51	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	668	14,203	21	86	3,206	57	
	TOTAL	1,886	76,399	40	1,348	77,737	57	
ASSAM	Government Schools	The statistics for Assam are included in those for Bengal.			7	187	26	
	Aided Schools				1,256	35,643	28	
	Unaided Schools under inspection				88	2,352	26	
	TOTAL	...	...	...	1,351	38,182	28	
COORG	Government Schools	32	1,433	46	57	2,978	52	
	Aided Schools	3	108	36	3	91	30	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	...	...	...	...	...	..	
	TOTAL	35	1,541	44	60	3,069	51	
N. A. DISTRICTS.	Government and Local Fund Schools	297	10,223	34	467	27,844	59	
	Aided Schools	...	...	...	209	4,212	20	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	...	...	...	207	2,672	12	
	TOTAL	297	10,223	34	883	34,728	39	
	TOTAL FOR INDIA ††	16,473	607,320	36	82,916	2,061,541	24	

* Including both Boys' and Girls' Schools.
†† Excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE 2.—*Classification of Pupils in Primary Schools a by Race or Creed for the official year 1881-82.*

PROVINCES.	Class of institutions.		Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Sikhs.	Parsis.	Christians c	Others.	TOTAL.	REMARKS.
1	2		3	4	5	6	7	8	9	
ADRAS	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools.	Boys	...	...	...	...	...	...	44,852	c Including Native Christians and Europeans and Eurasians attending schools for Natives of India.
		Girls	...	...	...	...	...	...	2,133	
	Aided Schools	Boys	...	...	...	...	...	...	192,480	
		Girls	...	...	...	...	...	...	11,660	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	Boys	...	...	...	...	...	...	107,946	
		Girls	...	...	...	...	...	...	6,582	
	TOTAL	Boys	289,448	24,205	...	...	23,373	3,252	*340,278	*14,116 of these are girls. †452 of these are boys.
		Girls	12,957	427	...	...	6,578	403	†20,365	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed.	Boys	2·07	2·55	...	...	6·80	22·36	2·23	
		Girls	·09	·04	...	...	1·84	2·95	·13	
BAY	Government and Local Fund Schools	Boys	199,449	28,211	...	1,648	957	2,398	232,663	
		Girls	9,807	1,117	...	350	37	85	11,296	
	Aided Schools	Boys	66,974	1,293	...	1,543	505	149	9,564	
		Girls	2,042	35	...	1,521	647	93	4,338	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	Boys	59,893	9,727	...	326	59	539	70,544	
		Girls	5,898	214	...	161	1	8	4,283	
	TOTAL	Boys	265,416	39,231	...	3,517	1,521	3,086	*312,771	*1,296 of these are girls. †58 of these are boys.
		Girls	35,747	1,366	...	1,932	686	186	†19,917	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed.	Boys	2·84	2·02	...	9·25	1·74	·64	2·61	
		Girls	·18	·08	...	5·34	1·13	·04	·17	
AL	Government Schools	Boys	641,454	217,216	...	...	3,427	18,840	880,937	
	Aided Schools	Girls	14,580	1,570	...	...	1,182	120	17,452	
	Unaided Schools under inspection									
	TOTAL	Boys	641,454	217,216	...	...	3,427	18,840	*880,937	*20,744 of these are girls. †236 of these are boys.
		Girls	14,580	1,570	...	...	1,182	120	†17,452	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed.	Boys	2·91	2·02	...	...	5·07	1·72	2·59	
		Girls	·06	·01	...	...	1·96	·01	·05	
RTH-WESTERN OVINCES & OUDH	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools.	Boys	163,037	30,137	...	...	92	107	193,373	
		Girls	2,560	1,126	...	...	1	...	3,687	
	Aided Schools	Boys	6,907	1,891	...	...	1,392	32	10,222	
		Girls	1,991	1,618	...	...	1,162	26	4,797	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	Boys	803	99	...	...	9	6	917	
		Girls	117	108	...	...	17	...	242	
	TOTAL	Boys	170,747	32,127	...	...	1,493	145	204,512	
		Girls	4,668	2,852	...	...	1,180	26	8,726	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed.	Boys	·85	1·06	...	...	4·78	·34	·89	
		Girls	·03	·03	...	...	7·17	·07	·04	
S	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools.	Boys	44,502	32,751	6,965	...	37	139	84,394	
		Girls	1,360	2,324	173	...	...	...	3,857	
	Aided Schools	Boys	4,896	2,803	597	...	257	713	9,266	
		Girls	1,746	1,913	1,317	...	253	121	5,350	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	Boys	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
		Girls	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	TOTAL	Boys	49,398	35,554	7,562	...	294	*852	93,660	*These include children of sweepers, chamars, &c., who are returned in the census as Hindus.
		Girls	3,106	4,237	1,490	...	253	121	9,207	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed.	Boys	1·27	·64	1·18	...	1·17	...	·91	
		Girls	·09	·08	·30	...	3·02	...	·10	
AL PROVINCES	Government, Local Fund and Municipal Schools.	Boys	47,398	4,014	...	...	12	1,645	53,069	
		Girls	2,543	86	...	...	7	40	2,676	
	Aided Schools	Boys	15,518	1,223	...	...	383	1,148	18,272	
		Girls	319	46	...	...	149	...	514	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	Boys	2,889	248	...	...	9	42	3,188	
		Girls	3	15	...	...	...	...	18	
	TOTAL	Boys	65,805	5,485	...	...	404	*2,835	74,529	*Inclusive of Gonds, Kols and other aboriginal tribes; also of Parsis and Sikhs.
		Girls	2,865	147	...	...	156	40	3,208	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed.	Boys	1·77	3·90	...	...	5·63	·25	1·50	
		Girls	·07	·10	...	...	3·26	...	·06	
M.	Government Schools	Boys	100	7	...	...	1	79	187	
		Girls	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Aided Schools	Boys	26,212	4,946	...	...	653	2,700	34,511	
		Girls	524	2	...	...	266	340	1,132	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	Boys	1,580	522	...	...	2	171	2,275	
		Girls	52	...	...	...	9	16	77	
	TOTAL	Boys	27,892	5,475	...	...	656	2,950	*36,973	*413 of these are girls. †28 of these are boys.
		Girls	576	2	...	...	275	356	†1,209	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed.	Boys	1·76	·81	...	...	16·04	1·19	1·47	
		Girls	·03	...	...	...	9·15	·14	·05	
S	Government Schools	Boys	2,871	86	...	...	21	...	2,978	
		Girls	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Aided Schools	Boys	8	1	...	...	56	...	65	
		Girls	2	...	...	...	24	...	26	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	Boys	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
		Girls	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	TOTAL	Boys	2,879	87	...	...	77	...	*3,043	*305 of these are girls.
		Girls	2	...	...	...	24	...	26	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed.	Boys	3·17	1·10	...	...	4·38	...	3·03	
		Girls	...	...	...	...	1·74	...	·03	
AD AS- DISTRICTS	Government and Local Fund Schools	Boys	24,262	3,945	...	19	16	...	28,252	
		Girls	266	54	...	...	2	...	322	
	Aided Schools	Boys	3,831	263	...	...	13	1	4,108	
		Girls	64	28	...	...	12	...	104	
	Unaided Schools under inspection	Boys	2,368	293	...	...	...	...	2,661	
		Girls	11	...	...	...	...	...	11	
	TOTAL	Boys	30,462	4,501	...	19	39	1	*35,021	*Including 730 pupils attending 24 middle schools, which cannot be separated from the returns. b The total male population was 2 only. *39,874 of these are girls. †774 of these are boys.
		Girls	341	82	...	...	14	...	437	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed.	Boys	2·37	4·62	...	12·10	5·05	b50·	2·53	
		Girls	·03	·09	...	...	2·48	...	·03	
	TOTAL FOR INDIA	Boys	1,543,500	363,881	7,562	3,536	31,284	31,961	*1,981,724	
		Girls	54,842	10,683	1,490	1,932*	10,348	1,252	†80,547	
	Percentage of pupils to total male and female population respectively of each race or creed.	Boys	2·04	1·57	1·06	9·05	5·50	1·06	1·92	
		Girls	·07	·05	·27	5·26	2·02	·04	·08	

* Including schools for Europeans and Eurasians and all schools in Ajmir and British Burma, and in Native States that administer their own system of education.

143. Madras: primary System.—The early history of primary education in Madras offers a marked contrast to its later development. The present system, which rests mainly on private enterprise, without altogether neglecting the direct instrumentality of the Department, was founded in 1868, consolidated in 1871, and has been systematically persevered in and improved from that date until now. It differs from that of Bombay in the large support which it gains from private enterprise and in its liberal patronage of indigenous schools; again it differs from that of Bengal in its more practical and successful insistence upon improvement and upon raising aided schools out of their traditional indifference to a level with the progressive wants of society. The policy laid down from the first has been steadily adhered to without interruption. Prior to the year 1868 Madras could not boast that success had attended its early efforts. Nearly forty years before that date, Sir Thomas Monro had devised a scheme of establishing District and taluka schools based upon the indigenous schools of the country, but his plan was abandoned in 1836. Apart from the check which this abandonment involved, other influences were at work to retard the progress of primary education. From Bengal by its example, and from England by direct instructions, pressure was brought to bear on Madras in favour of extending higher education. The theory of "downward filtration" obtained complete ascendancy; and even in 1841 the President of the University Board, in an address to Lord Elphinstone, gave expression to the popular view when he remarked that "the light must "touch the mountain tops before it could pierce to the levels and depths." Mr. Thomas, who was a few years later Chief Secretary and Member of the Council of Education, entirely disapproved of these sentiments, and argued in favour of the broader basis of solid education through the native languages. No action was, however, taken to carry out these views, and [illegible] the Despatch of 1854 reached Madras, a few elementary schools in the Hill tracts of Ganjam and in Rajamahendri, and a paltry expenditure in Chingleput, Nellore, and Tanjore, represented the attention which the State had paid to the instruction of the masses. Ten years later, when Mr. Monteath's note of 1865-66 was written, primary State education still lagged behind. But about this period the grant-in-aid rules were under revision, and a new scheme for result-grants sanctioned in the following year came into force on 1st January 1868. From this date primary education made rapid and continuous progress. In the first year 494 schools were aided on the system of payment by results, in the next 1,065, and in the third 1,606. In 1871 there were only 17 Government primary schools chiefly in the hill tracts of Ganjam, attended by 741 pupils. The aided and inspected schools were 2,783 with 67,496 pupils, while the high and middle schools had 21,465 pupils in their primary classes. Thus there were 89,702 children under primary instruction in Madras.

144. Madras: Progress of primary Education.—These results, though showing a considerable advance, offered an unfavourable contrast to Bombay with its 160,000 pupils, and even to the backward Central Provinces with more than 76,000. But measures had already been taken which enabled Madras to effect a change that is almost without example in its extent and thoroughness. The Government of India had instituted enquiries, which were suggested by a Note on the state of education in India for 1866-67, prepared by Mr. A. P. Howell. Of that Note the Government of India remarked, on the 30th April 1868, that its clear exposition of the educational systems, as introduced and worked under the different Governments, enabled the Supreme Government to judge of the comparative merits of the several methods adopted in different parts of the country. In forwarding a copy of the Note to the Madras Government, the Governor General in Council on 27th May 1868 called the

attention of the local Government to the necessity, already insisted upon in the Despatch of 1859, of providing from local rates for the means of extending elementary education amongst the agricultural classes. The cesses levied in Bombay and in the North-Western Provinces were held up as a model, the failure of the Madras Act VI of 1863 was distinctly recorded, and the Local Government was called on to initiate measures for the attainment of the object in view. That Government complied, and Act IV of 1871 provided the local rates by which alone the full development of the grant-in-aid system could be secured. It may also be mentioned that in the same year the Municipal Act III of 1871 gave urban committees power to expend municipal funds on education. Provision was also made for associating local boards with the District officers in the administration of the school funds then created. The effect was almost magical. With sufficient ways and means not merely to make a start but to carry out a policy, it was at once discovered that Madras had not so much to create an educational system as to incorporate into its system a network of indigenous schools, and to turn to account a wealth of missionary, and in due course of time of native, enterprise not surpassed in any other part of India. The development was continuous and the conditions of aid were steadily maintained. The annual returns mark a regular improvement, which though interrupted by the occurrence of severe famine was not ultimately checked. The local boards yielding to the advice of the Inspectors of schools, adopted the system which had been successfully introduced in 1868, and aided private schools in preference to opening schools of their own. But where private enterprise was backward, they did not neglect the other alternative. By these means, the pupils in the public primary system had risen in 1881-82 to 360,643 pupils, nearly 87 per cent. of whom were in aided or inspected schools, whilst the rest were being instructed in 1,263 departmental schools. Thus had the attendance in primary schools been quadrupled in eleven years by the combined effects of an adequate fund supplied by local rates and of the grant-in-aid system working under favourable conditions. The indigenous schools brought under control, and estimated by one witness as constituting one-half of the whole number of primary schools, readily conformed to the rules of the Department. Printed books were generally used, and arithmetic was taught according to the system in force in departmental schools. Although the old traditional method of teaching has not been superseded, the division of pupils into classes, and other European methods, were introduced. Additional subjects, such as geography, history, sanitation, and agriculture, were taught; and instruction was sensibly raised above the traditional indigenous course to a standard more calculated to secure the peasant classes in the possession of their proprietary rights. Above all, the qualifications of the teachers were greatly improved and trained men took the places of the inefficient indigenous schoolmasters. The history of the progress thus glanced at is given at length in the Madras Provincial Report, from which the following extract is taken: "It is a not "worthy fact, and one which cannot be ignored or explained away, that the "Districts whose towns in the aggregate have more than 5 per cent. of their "population, or roughly one child in three—or if girls are excluded, about "two boys in three—under instruction, are Districts the education of whose "town population has been mainly left to private effort. In the town of "Coimbatore, where the Government have never established a school, there "are probably at least four boys in every five reading in school. In Tinnevelly, in Palamcotta, Masulipatam, and Nellore the proportion is higher."

145. Bombay: primary System.—The early history of primary education in Bombay is sketched in [illegible]'s Note for 1870-71, page 62, and related at length in the Provincial Report. [illegible] Madras, the "downward filtration

theory" was at first strongly held by the Board of Education over which Sir Erskine Perry presided for nine years up to 1852. His view was that "it was "better to concentrate on the higher education of a few the strength of a grant "that was quite inadequate to make any impression on the masses." But even during his direction of the Board's proceedings, the claims of the uneducated masses found powerful advocates. Protests against the neglect of those claims were emphatically renewed after his retirement; and Government, while increasing its general grant to the Board by Rs. 50,000, announced its policy of organising throughout the Presidency a general scheme of village education. Besides general considerations of the duty of the State to provide education for the masses, there were in Bombay, as in the North-Western Provinces, special reasons arising out of the liberal policy of Government in the matter of revenue administration which induced the local Government to be anxious to improve as well as to extend elementary education amongst the peasant proprietary of the Presidency. Their efforts were from the first successful. Thus on the constitution of the State Department in 1855, while in Madras the few elementary schools were confined to a small tract of country, there were in the Bombay Presidency upwards of 240 vernacular schools managed by the State and educating more than 19,000 children. For some years the village schools were maintained on the partially self-supporting system, which continued until 1858. Under this system the State paid half the master's salary, and the people the other half, as well as all the contingent expenses of the school. In 1858 the Government of India raised objections to the plan adopted, and a further extension of the system was forbidden. At this period the indigenous schools in the whole Presidency were said to number 2,386 with 70,500 pupils. After careful consideration, both of the objections raised in 1858 to the partially self-supporting system, and of the insufficient number of the indigenous schools, the Local Government laid the foundation of the present departmental system which has been steadily maintained without interruption up to the present time. There is now no other Province of India with so large a proportion of the male population under instruction in primary schools, strictly so called, which are maintained, aided, or inspected by the State. One of the distinctive features of the Bombay system is its almost exclusive reliance on departmental schools, managed under official direction by local committees, and maintained chiefly at the cost of local rates supplemented by grants from provincial revenues. Another feature is the systematic and successful attempt made to raise the standard of instruction, instead of limiting it more closely by the traditional wants of the people, according to the plan so strongly insisted upon elsewhere. This elevation of standard has been effected by two methods, which are in marked contrast with the Bengal plan. It will be shown that in Bengal the primary education of the middle and educated classes of society in towns is chiefly conducted in secondary schools, while in Bombay every class of society attending the public schools passes through the ordinary primary school. If the higher castes can give a tone to society, and if the example of the educated can stimulate the backward classes, then in the Bombay system this stimulus is provided by associating every section of the community in the class-rooms of the primary school. It must not, however, be supposed that the peasantry form a small minority; on the contrary there were nearly 132,000 children of the cultivating classes in the cess schools alone in 1881-82. It follows from the double function thus imposed on the primary schools that they have been organically connected with secondary schools, in order that the boys who proceed to higher education may be properly grounded. In this there was an obvious danger of sacrificing the interests of those whose education was to terminate in the primary school, but against this danger the necessary precautions were taken.

The primary school ought according to the Bombay system to be the village school as well as the preparatory school for secondary education. It ought to be an end in itself as well as a means to an end. While, therefore, the course of the primary school was arranged so as to lead in one direction to the high school, it was extended in another so as to afford the most thorough elementary education. Accordingly, to the course of the primary school, at the point where it joined on to that of the secondary school, two standards were added, and the highest of these was adopted as a test of admission to the lower grades of the public service. The number of pupils who go up for examination in standards V and VI is increasing every year. Their popularity has never been questioned, and throughout the evidence given to the Commission by Bombay witnesses there is an entire absence of those complaints about teaching over the heads of the people which have been loudly expressed in some other parts of India. One witness, the present Prime Minister of Baroda, has even recommended that in the Northern Division, which is remarkable for its commercial activity, the standards should again be raised.

146. Bombay: financial Provision for primary Education.—The successful maintenance of the present standards involves two conditions: first, that the course of instruction should not go beyond the wants of the people; and secondly, that there should be a permanent and sufficient financial provision. To the latter point early attention was directed. In 1862 the appropriation of municipal funds to education was legalised; and in 1864 an education cess was levied on the land, which produced in the first year about Rs. 2,80,000. Under these influences the number of primary schools in 1865 was raised to 925 with 61,729 pupils. The cess was at first collected on a voluntary basis, and nothing can better illustrate the popularity of the educational system than the readiness with which the contribution was paid. In Sind the collections were legalised by Act VIII of 1865, but it was not until 1869 that they received the sanction of law in the rest of the Presidency. Since that date the educational portion of local fund income has been administered by local committees, and as far as possible the precise amount raised in each taluka is expended in that taluka. The Government contributes liberally from provincial revenues towards the cost of the urban schools, and adds to the local income administered by the committees whatever assignment it can spare. As Mr. Chatfield, the Director of Public Instruction, lately reported, "the local fund schools in Bombay are financially less dependent "upon Government than board-schools in England. In England the Government "grant for results is larger than the rate collections, whilst the fixed Government "grant in Bombay is only one-third of the rate or cess collections." The main distinction between the administration of the local rates in Bombay and in Northern India is that in Bombay the rates are paid direct to the credit of the local committees, not only without any deduction, but with the addition of the provincial contribution. Any unexpended balance also lapses to the local fund. In the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab the local rates are first credited to provincial revenues, from which an assignment is made to the local committees, but if the assignment is not spent, it lapses to the provincial treasury. Moreover, in some parts of Northern India no provincial assignment, other than that from local rates, is made for elementary vernacular education in rural tracts. In Bombay, therefore, the school fund is inviolable, and cannot be diverted from elementary education. It may be spent in towns or in villages at the discretion of the committees, but it must be spent on primary schools. Owing to the advantages which a secure income afforded, Bombay gained a great start on the Southern Presidency, into which a similar measure was not introduced until many years later. In 1871 there were 159,628 children under instruction in

2,738 primary schools in Bombay, while in Madras there were only 89,702 pupils in primary schools including the primary classes of high and middle schools.

147. Bombay: Progress of primary Education.—In the next ten years the two Presidencies were to compete on equal terms so far as finance was concerned. But the Bombay Government adhered to its original policy, while in Madras education was extended by stimulating private enterprise and by incorporating and improving the existing indigenous schools. The result was that by the beginning of 1882 the relative position of the two Presidencies was reversed. The Bombay system was still instructing a larger proportion of the male population, but while its numbers had rather more than doubled since 1871, those in Madras had been quadrupled. The difference in their relative progress was not merely numerical: 87 per cent. of the 360,643 primary scholars in Madras were in aided or inspected schools, while 73 per cent. of the 332,688 pupils in Bombay were attending departmental schools, exclusive of a large number of pupils in inspected schools, chiefly departmental schools in Native States. The annual reports bear constant testimony to the fact that the demand for cess schools has far outstripped the ability of the Department to supply them. If only for this reason, it is desirable that greater encouragement should be given to the indigenous schools. But it must be noticed that the Bombay indigenous institutions have repeatedly declined to submit to inspection on the terms hitherto offered to them unless substantial aid is given to them. It must not therefore be assumed that the incorporation of indigenous schools into the departmental system will be as economical an arrangement as that in Bengal will presently be shown to have been. It is unnecessary here to anticipate the course of this history by describing the progress made in providing trained teachers and laying down definite standards of examination, measures which have done so much to keep up the efficiency of the State schools. But in one respect the development of primary instruction in Bombay has tended in a direction which has been observed with regret. The local fund cess is contributed mainly by the rural community, and the municipalities have not availed themselves, so far as was hoped, of the permission which the law allows them of assigning municipal funds for the support of primary schools. The result has been that the greater share of the provincial assignment, which ought to be distributed between the towns and villages rateably in proportion to local resources, has been somewhat unfairly spent on the town schools. This result was anticipated in 1870, when the Director of Public Instruction, Mr. Peile, warmly advocated the imposition of a compulsory rate for education on the town population. But the Local Government was unwilling, in view of the income tax and of the license tax subsequently imposed, to increase the burden of taxation. The inequality has therefore not yet been redressed. But the subject demands notice here, because it is the only complaint against the Bombay system, other than the alleged neglect of the indigenous schools and of private effort in primary education, which has been pressed by witnesses upon the attention of the Commission.

148. Bengal: System of primary Schools and primary Classes.—At the very outset it is necessary to explain a feature in the Bengal system of education which renders difficult a comparison of its results under any class of education with those of Bombay, or of any other Province that has not adopted the same plan. In Bengal each class of school is in theory shaped to meet the wants of a different section of the population. Thus the high and middle schools are intended to be complete in themselves, and they contain boys in their lower classes who are only receiving elementary education. In

these schools, which are in no sense of the word schools for the masses, the instruction given in the lower or primary classes is merely the elementary stage of an education which advances to the standard of a high school. It is also more expensive than that given in strictly primary schools. For whereas the average annual cost to the State of educating each pupil in the ordinary village school is only 10 annas per annum, the cost in the primary class of a secondary school is three times as high. Each description of school, in fact, is intended to provide for the complete education of a different class of society, and the standard consequently differs with the requirements of the stratum of society using the school. In Bombay the town as well as the village primary school is devised to give the best possible primary education to all classes of society. The son of the cultivator, who has no prospect of ever going to a secondary school, reads in the same class with the Brahman boy who is destined to go up for the Matriculation examination. In Bengal the former would be content with the village school and a much less ambitious course, while the latter would in places where a high school existed learn his lessons in a different class-room of the same school in which he would continue to prosecute his studies up to the University Entrance examination. Unless this fundamental difference of system is constantly borne in mind, a comparison between the statistics of primary and of secondary education in Bengal and those of other Provinces will be very misleading. For instance, the quality of the instruction conveyed in a Bengal indigenous school must not be judged by the standard required by the well-to-do classes of urban society who attend a cess school in Bombay, but who in Bengal would be found in the lower classes of a secondary school. On the other hand, the cost of education in a Bombay primary school, which performs a wider function, must not be compared with that in a Bengal village school, the majority of whose pupils will advance no further. It would be unnecessary, according to the Bengal system, to raise the standard of instruction in a pathsala above the requirements of the simple village folk. The large part which secondary schools in Bengal take in primary education may be inferred from the following figures. In high schools 39 per cent., in middle English schools 78 per cent., and in middle vernacular institutions 83 per cent. of the pupils are returned as being in the primary stage. In the rest of India these pupils under a different system would swell the ranks of attendance in primary schools, but in Bengal and Assam they are classed as pupils attending high and middle schools respectively.

149. Advantages and Disadvantages of the dual System.—[illegible] tion has been raised by the Bengal Government, "whether there [illegible] "certain waste of power and needless expenditure of funds in the repr[illegible] "in each higher grade school of every class of instruction given in all [illegible]. The Lieutenant-Governor observes that "where various grades of sch[illegible]. "exist in the same locality, it seems a matter for doubt whether the competi- "tion of the present system produces more benefit than would follow from "a more definite and consistent division of labour." The attention of the Commission was not invited to this question until the discussions on primary education had been closed, and it was too late to find time for its consideration. But it is a question to which incidental reference was made [illegible] we may state the arguments advanced on both sides. Those who support the Bengal system point out that to speak of "the reproduction in each higher grade school of "every class of instruction given in all below" is to convey an inaccurate idea of that system, the special feature of which is that the courses of study in corresponding stages of primary, middle, and high school, are altogether distinct. They argue that the present arrangement of attaching a full primary

department to middle and high schools, and of keeping the strictly primary schools distinct, is in full accordance with the definition of elementary education accepted in England, which is so framed as to exclude not only all schools in which a high fee is charged, but also the lower departments of schools teaching to an advanced standard. Again, in the Report of the School Enquiry Commissioners to Her Majesty, 1868, the following recommendations were made regarding the classification of schools: "Education as distinguished from "direct preparation for employment can be classified as that which is to stop at "about fourteen, that which is to stop at about sixteen, and that which is to "continue till eighteen or nineteen; and for convenience sake we shall call these "the third, second, and first grade of education respectively." It is obvious that these distinctions correspond roughly, though by no means exactly, to the gradations of society. Accordingly, in those Provinces, namely, Bengal and Assam, in which this system prevails, a marked distinction is drawn between "primary "instruction" and "the primary stage of higher instruction;" and pupils in the latter stage are returned as belonging to secondary, and not to primary schools. As the pupils in primary schools, and those in the primary classes of secondary schools, aim at a different class of education, and belong to different grades of society, it is both economical and logical to recognise this distinction at the outset of their educational career. The instruction suited to the earlier stages of a course which is to continue for nine or ten years, and to end in the University, is not that which will best enable a village boy to take care of his own interests in his own station of life after three or four years at school. By instituting separate schools with distinct courses of instruction, village boys come to regard the village school course as complete in itself; by uniting them and thus compelling all pupils, whatever their future destination, to pass through the same elementary course, the mischievous tendency to regard primary education as a fragment of higher education, and a stepping-stone to it, is confirmed. The division of labour is most consistently carried out when this distinction is maintained; and no competition can exist between schools teaching different courses and levying very different rates of fees. Boys in the primary department of a high school pay fees at the rate of one or two rupees a month, and sometimes more; that is, ten times as high as the fee in a primary school. They pay for better supervision, better discipline, a higher tone, and the prestige of reading in an advanced school. This system therefore most effectually carries out the requirement of the Despatches, that those who are able to pay should gradually be induced to pay more towards the cost of their education. Consequently the lower classes of such schools pay largely for the cost of the upper; and hence in Bengal, there are more high schools, aided and unaided, under private management than in all the rest of India put together. If the high schools were limited to the upper classes reading for the Entrance examination, there would be an immediate diminution in the fee-receipts of all high schools, and the effect on private enterprise would be that the great majority of non-departmental schools would have to be closed through inability to pay their way. The great unaided colleges of Calcutta support themselves largely by the surplus fees of their school departments. Lastly, it is urged, that in Bengal, where this system has prevailed from the first, there has been no opposition to it from any quarter of the Province, and that it has received the cordial support of private managers. The advantages of the existing system were fully discussed by the Government of Bengal, in its letter to the Government of India No. 1663, dated 12th June 1876, and No. 177, dated 20th February 1879, where it was urged that any change in the existing system would be little short of disastrous. Such are the arguments by which the Bengal system is supported. On the other hand, those of us who object to

it, assail it on the grounds both of finance and of administration. It is urged that there must be a waste of money and of power, no matter how carefully the system is organised, in employing the superior masters of a secondary school to teach children elementary knowledge; and further that it becomes impossible to distinguish the cost of secondary from that of primary education. In particular the real cost of educating in Bengal a secondary pupil becomes obscured when, as shown above, 39 per cent. of the attendance in high schools, 78 of that in middle English schools, and 83 of that in middle vernacular schools belong to the primary classes. When the cost of educating each pupil in each of these classes of schools is divided by the average monthly attendance, the cost is unfairly diminished in comparison with the cost of educating a pupil of the same class in other Provinces. This matter will appear more clearly when the Commission has to deal with the subject of grants-in-aid and withdrawal in Chapter VIII. Again, it is argued that it is an advantage to associate all primary pupils in the same class of institution, and that defects in the system of primary education are thus brought to light and the progress of society is reflected in the progressive standards of primary education. To this last argument it is replied that the Bengal system of primary education seeks above all other objects to keep down the standard to the requirements of the masses, and not to raise it by considering the wants of the well-to-do classes who are not, properly speaking, the masses. In this conflict of views, and considering that no opportunity was given to the Commission of arriving at a definite conclusion on the subject, we have refrained from expressing an opinion. We consider that the matter must be settled by each Local Government. At the same time we must observe that although Bengal and Assam are not the only Provinces in which primary classes are attached to secondary schools, yet it is only in these two Provinces that the pupils attending such classes and the cost of their education are shown under secondary instruction. We would also call attention to our Recommendation given in Chapter V, on secondary education, which is as follows: "That high and middle schools be united in the returns under the "single term 'secondary schools,' and that the classification of students in all "secondary schools, according to the stage of instruction, be provided for in a "separate Table, showing the stage of instruction, whether primary, middle, "or upper, of pupils in all schools of primary and secondary education."

150. Bengal: History of primary Education in four Periods.—Both in Madras and in Bombay, from the time that the Government seriously undertook to extend primary education, its progress under different systems has proceeded upon uniform lines of policy. In Bengal, on the contrary, various methods have from time to time been adopted; and it is necessary to consider the subject under four divisions. These divisions necessarily overlap, and even when one system was being diligently followed, others were not entirely disregarded. Apart from the expediency of applying several methods to the solution of the difficult and important task of infusing a new life into the indigenous system without destroying its vitality or usefulness, there were special obstacles in Bengal which from the outset stood in the way of any uniform policy. Primary education had no financial basis of its own. It depended not on local rates, but on the share of provincial and imperial contributions which could be spared for it. The first division in the history we are about to consider commences with 1855 and ends with 1862. During these years the "circle system" was in force. From 1862 to 1872 the "Normal "school system" was persevered in, but its very success proved the prelude to its downfall. From 1872 to 1875, Sir George Campbell's policy was pursued on the basis of a system of stipends and Normal classes. But that system also in its

rapid development proved to be too costly, and was thought to be in other respects unsuitable; and while the general policy of its founder was continued in many particulars, the stipendiary system was generally exchanged for that form of the system of payment by results which is still maintained.

151. Bengal: First Period from 1855 to 1862.—We have already referred in Chapter II. to the enquiries prosecuted by Mr. Adam in 1835 and the views entertained by Macaulay as President of the General Committee of Public Instruction in Calcutta. But no systematic or widespread attempts to work upon the indigenous schools of Bengal were commenced before 1855. In that year the "circle system" was introduced, under which improvement was aimed at by employing and paying certain State pandits, each of whom was attached to a circle of three or four village schools under their own gurus or masters. The gurus received grants equal to those earned by their pupils, every one of whom on attaining a certain standard was rewarded according to his progress. It was this system to which reference was made by the Court of Directors in paragraph 21 of their Despatch of 1859, when they wrote "this plan has so far "been found very successful, and it is proposed to extend it to others of the "educational divisions." It was so extended especially in the Eastern and Central Divisions of Bengal, and in 1860-61, 172 schools giving instruction to 7,731 pupils had been brought under improvement. But it was felt that even this progress was too slow, and that it would take an almost indefinite time to improve the vast network of indigenous schools. While therefore a policy of improvement was not abandoned, it was sought to secure a greater quantity and not inferior quality of primary instruction by other methods.

152. Bengal: Second Period from 1862 to 1872.—Accordingly in 1862, Sir John Peter Grant decided to substitute a system of District training schools and fixed stipends for the "circle system." Under the new scheme, which was generally called the "Normal school system," a guru, or his relative or probable successor, was sent to a Normal school with a stipend of Rs. 5 a month, under a written engagement with the village that after a year's training he would be received as the teacher with a guaranteed income of not less than Rs. 5. The course of studies at the training school included reading, writing, and arithmetic, as well as accounts and mensuration up to the full indigenous standard. Elementary geography and history and the art of teaching were also taught. Babu Bhoodeb Mookerjea, an experienced Inspector of Schools, who devised and carried out the system, estimated that it would be possible in fourteen years to get 1,000 schools supplied with improved teachers. The plan was in entire accordance with the orders of the Court of Directors which had dwelt much on the want of competent masters for all classes of schools. After a trial of two years there were 377 improved schools educating 12,000 pupils, and the new scheme was extended into six more Districts, of which Midnapur was one. Meanwhile the "circle system" and other plans were not neglected. That the "Normal school system" succeeded in raising the tone of the indigenous schools was made evident by complaints loudly expressed in 1866 that the village schools were rising above the traditional level of the wants of the classes for whom they were intended. It was alleged that they had ceased to be schools for the masses. On the other hand it was contended that the indigenous schools of Bengal were never meant to be exclusively schools for the masses, whose wants, however, were adequately supplied by them. A comparison instituted at this time between the attendance in the halkabandi schools of the Agra circle in the North-Western Provinces and the pathsalas of Burdwan in Bengal showed that in the former only 39 per cent. of the pupils belonged to the labouring classes against 67 per cent. in the latter.

In the next year the constantly recurring difficulty of sustained progress was demonstrated by the Orissa famine. Educational grants were at that period provided from imperial revenues. In consequence of the famine these grants were reduced and no further provision was sanctioned for the development of the Normal school system. In this condition of affairs the Supreme Government interposed. It has already been noticed that the Note on the educational system of India prepared by Mr. Howell induced the Government of India to call the attention of the Madras Government to the need of placing the development of primary education upon a more secure financial basis by the imposition of local rates. The events which we have reviewed afforded indications of a similar necessity in Bengal. Notwithstanding constant interruptions, something had undoubtedly been done to improve the indigenous schools, but the progress was felt to be insufficient. The old doctrine of "downward filtra-"tion," which had been accepted in Calcutta, still found powerful supporters, and so late as 1865 the Director of Public Instruction had written as follows: "The education of the lower orders of society should assuredly not be ne-"glected; but it is a primary condition of the spread of education among all "classes that full provision should *first* be made for the education of that "class on which depends the education of all the rest." While this doctrine influenced the Head of the Department, it was natural that the weight of financial pressure should fall on primary education. One remedy would have been to adopt the plan followed in Northern India and in Bombay, and to create a special local fund for the extension of education amongst the poorer classes of the community. Accordingly on 25th April 1868 a letter was addressed to the Bengal Government by the Government of India which contained the following contrast: "In Bengal, with a population "that probably exceeds 40 millions, the total number of pupils in the lower class "Government and aided schools was in 1866-67 only 39,104. In the North-"Western Provinces, with a population under 30 millions, the number of pupils "in schools of a similar class was 125,394. In Bombay, with a population of "16 millions, the number was 79,189. In the Punjab, with a population of 15 "millions, it was 62,355. In the Central Provinces, with a population of 8½ "millions, it was 22,600. Nor does there seem to be any probability that these "proportions will hereafter become more favourable to Bengal, although the "measures that have lately been taken for the encouragement of vernacular "education by means of the system of training masters in the so-called indi-"genous schools have been more or less successful. The Governor General in "Council feels that it would not be right to evade any longer the responsibility "which properly falls on the Government, of providing that the means of ob-"taining at least an elementary education shall be made accessible to the people "of Bengal. He feels that this responsibility must be accepted in this as in "other Provinces, not only as one of the highest duties which we owe to the "country, but because among all the sources of difficulty in our administration, "and of possible danger to the stability of our Government, there are few so "serious as the ignorance of the people." It may be observed that the pupils in the primary classes of middle and high schools in Bengal were not included in the above comparison. The Government of India proceeded to impress upon the Lieutenant-Governor the necessity for imposing a compulsory rate on the landholders of Bengal in order to provide funds for the necessary extension of education. This proposal led to further correspondence, but owing to difficulties which it is beyond the scope of the Commission's enquiries to discuss, no local rate for education has up to the present time been imposed.

The want of adequate funds created insuperable difficulties in the way of further aiding and improving the indigenous schools. Still some progress was

reported. In 1868-69 the lower schools were returned as 1,797 with 52,688 pupils, besides 252 schools with 7,932 pupils under the grant-in-aid rules: of these, 1,393 with 40,500 pupils were improved pathsalas. The whole outlay on education from public funds was hardly more than one per cent. of the revenues of Bengal. Two years later the financial pressure again induced the local Government to reduce even this grant, and thus in 1870-71 the attendance at the lower schools had sunk to 52,231 pupils, besides 7,387 in the grant-in-aid schools. The general position of elementary education in Bengal in 1870-71 has been thus summarised by the present Director of Public Instruction: "Some "2,000 village schools, with an average attendance of 26 pupils, had up to that "date been taken in hand and supplied with trained teachers of a superior stamp "to the old gurus of the country, whilst their course of instruction had been "improved by the introduction of printed books and systematic arithmetic. In "these, as in the pathsalas of the original type, boys of the middle and lower "classes read together in nearly equal proportions, and consequently under the "new system the masses were touched to some appreciable extent. The result "of the introduction of trained teachers was that the course of instruction in "many, perhaps in most cases, passed sooner or later beyond the simple standard "at first proposed, and geography and history, together with the more advanced "portions of arithmetic, were taught. The improved pathsalas were hardly dis-"tinguishable from middle schools, and in order to identify them still more closely "with that class, and to connect them with the general scheme of education, a "system of scholarships was proposed for their benefit, though the concession was "not yet granted. The teachers being paid fixed stipends, there was no systema-"tic examination of scholars by prescribed standards for the purpose of determin-"ing the amount of Government aid. The scheme was in its earlier years "confined to nine Districts, but it was afterwards extended to the whole of Bengal. "The indigenous schools of the country were recognised exactly in so far as "they were taken up into this system." The complete figures for 31st March 1871 for Bengal and Assam show that the organised system of primary education included 47 Government schools and 2,430 aided indigenous schools, which were altogether attended by 68,044 scholars. These figures excluded the boys attending primary classes in the middle and high schools, and 499 pupils in unaided schools under inspection. According to a calculation made in 1881 the number of scholars in secondary schools in Bengal, who in 1871 were attending primary classes in Government and aided schools, was 57,945, so that the total number of children, whether belonging to the upper or lower classes of society, whose primary education was assisted by the State, only amounted to 126,488,—a number which fell short of the attendance in the departmental schools of Bombay on the same date. But later and more complete enquiries show that about 6,500 more pupils in primary classes should be added to the estimates made in 1881, and with this addition the primary pupils in Bengal in 1871 numbered about 133,000 in all classes of schools known to the Department against about 160,000 in the similar institutions in Bombay.

153. Bengal: third Period: Sir G. Campbell's Resolution.—It need not therefore occasion surprise that a radical change of system was demanded. The proposal to create a local fund for education was not carried out, but Sir George Campbell in a Resolution, dated 30th September 1872, declared it to be the great object of his administration to extend education amongst the masses, and he assigned four lakhs of rupees in order to make a commencement. The controversy, which had arisen regarding the upward growth of the improved pathsalas and the alleged conversion of schools for the masses into middle-schools for the middle classes, gave a distinctive shape to the new policy, and the Bengal system is in very marked contrast to the systems which we have

already described. The aims of the Bengal Government were thus described: "The Lieutenant-Governor's wish is that the money now granted should "be used to encourage and develope in rural villages proper indigenous educa-"tion,—that is, reading, writing, and arithmetic, in the real indigenous language "and character of each Province, ... Arithmetic and writing are "the main subjects in which the people desire instruction, and many books "will not be used; those that are used will be of the simplest and cheapest "description. . . . . It is quite clear that if rural schools are to be "popular among ordinary villagers, the teachers must be of the old gurumahasay "class, or must come from the same social and intellectual stratum. What is "wanted is to teach ordinary village boys enough to enable them to take care "of their own interests in their own station of life, as petty shop-keepers, "small landholders, ryots, handicraftsmen, weavers, village headmen, boatmen, "fishermen, and what not. It is beyond all things desirable not to impart at "village schools that kind of teaching which, in a transition state of society, "might induce boys to think themselves above manual labour or ordinary "village work. To the really able boys at pathsalas opportunities for ad-"vancement will be offered by a chain of scholarships, the gainers of which "can pass through the several grades of schools up to a University degree. One "valuable means of providing that the ordinary pathsala course of study shall "be confined to reading and writing the vernacular, to simple and mental "arithmetic, and to a knowledge of mensuration, and the native system of land "survey, will be a regulation that proficiency in these subjects only will be "required for pathsala scholarships." By these means it was hoped that a gradual improvement of the indigenous schools would be secured without too rapid an alteration in their method or subjects of instruction. A more powerful influence in the same direction was supplied by the order that no grant to a village school should exceed Rs. 5 a month. "Perhaps an allowance of "Rs. 2 or Rs. 3 a month will in many cases suffice." It is important in view of subsequent events to remember that Sir George Campbell regarded an annual grant of Rs. 24 as the minimum grant which could secure the object at which he aimed.

That the present masters were inefficient was admitted, and the Resolution remarked that it would be useless to summon the very old schoolmasters to the Normal classes. "Old men of that stage have done much "good in their time; they are popular with the villagers, and they manage "their schools fairly well; if new acquirements or modes of teaching are "required, they will come with the next generation of village schoolmasters. "But it will probably be desirable to bring into the Normal classes the younger "and newly appointed village schoolmasters. For the present it will be "necessary to perfect village schoolmasters in reading and writing the printed "character, of which (in Behar at any rate) they are often ignorant; to "instruct them in the best modes of teaching simple and mental arithmetic; to "improve their knowledge and power of teaching mensuration and accounts; "and to enable them to understand and teach the very simple text-books "on these latter subjects." We shall presently see how far these hopes of passing future schoolmasters through the Normal classes have been realised: but the scheme of Sir George Campbell laid great stress upon the principle, and he proposed that a Normal school or training class should be established not only at the head-quarters of every District, but also at important sub-divisions. Great latitude was given to the District Magistrates to work out the details of the new scheme.

For the first time in the history of Bengal a fairly liberal assignment

was now given to primary education out of the provincial grant. There were no local rates, and therefore no local committees. Over the greater part of Bengal not a single school had to be created. In almost every village, it was asserted, a school of some sort existed. The task of the Magistrate was simple. He was to make his money go as far as he could, and transfer existing schools and scholars from the outer circle of an indigenous system into the inner circle of improved public primary schools. A gradual improvement of the indigenous schoolmasters had been aimed at under the "circle system," and continued under the "Normal school" or "pathsala "system." It was also a leading feature in the new plan laid down by Sir George Campbell. But at the same time the Lieutenant-Governor had expressed fears of raising too rapidly the level of primary education, and had enjoined cautious progress in the training of masters. His caution was suggested not merely by the expense which such training involved, but by the consideration that a scheme built on the indigenous schools could not be secure unless the schools retained their popularity. Hasty improvement might prove fatal to their existence. So far was this principle carried that in the following year, 1873, the pathsalas that had been improved under former systems were, like those newly-aided, placed in the hands and under the control of District officers, with instructions to work them into the general system. The immediate result of these last orders may be briefly indicated. The improved pathsalas, which on the 31st March 1873 were 2,161, fell in the following years to 2,070, 1,878, and 1,745. This last was the number in 1876, when the two classes of schools were finally amalgamated, and the distinction disappeared from the returns. In fact, Sir George Campbell believed that the course in the improved pathsalas was unduly high, and that so far as they existed they were an obstacle to the spread of genuine primary education among the masses of the people. The warning that the teachers must at the outset deviate as little as possible from the accepted modes of teaching was renewed; and the Lieutenant-Governor in 1873 drew the attention of all District Committees and Magistrates to the following extract from a report by Mr. S. C. Bayley, Commissioner of Patna: "I think it cannot be too "much impressed on those who will have to work the new scheme that "pathsalas are to remain pathsalas; that maps, books, and furniture are not the "first requisites, neither are registers and a variety of subjects; but the essential "point is to take advantage of such teaching of reading, writing, and arithmetic "as we find in existence, and endeavour gradually to improve it, not to substi-"tute something (better perhaps, but wholly different) which the people do not "want, or if they do want, cannot pay for." Mr. Bayley also bore testimony to the advantages of Normal schools for improving the teachers of indigenous schools.

154. Bengal: the Midnapur System.—In the same year, 1873, the complaint, that the people refused to pay their accustomed fees to those gurus who received aid from Government, was made in all parts of Bengal. It was said that people argued that as the Government now paid the guru, there was no reason why they should contribute to his support to the same extent as before; and accordingly they reduced their contributions in some proportion to the amount which the guru received from Government. With this drawback, the newly aided pathsalas were declared on all hands to have been a great success, and to have been received by the people with much cordiality. The Midnapur system of aiding primary schools, which had already received the approval of Sir George Campbell, now came into prominent notice. It substituted the annual examination of pupils at fixed centres, together with rewards after examination, for inspection of schools *in situ* and regular monthly stipends. The

general subjects of examination were reading, writing, and written and mental arithmetic; and a reward of four annas was given for passing in each subject, besides eight annas for bazar and zamindari accounts, and one rupee for land-measuring. A rupee was also given to each indigenous schoolmaster for every quarterly return submitted. This system spread the amount of the District grant over a large circle of schools, and was much cheaper than that of fixed stipends. It was also reported to be most popular with the villagers, teachers, and pupils. Accordingly in the following year, 1874, attention was called to this scheme by Sir Richard Temple, who described it as the most effectual means of improving the indigenous schools, while maintaining them as places of genuine primary education. In fact, the outcry that the villagers habitually reduced their fees in proportion to the amount of the stipend had now become so loud, that it was considered necessary to devise means for checking the evil. The Midnapur system seemed to offer such a means. When aid was given, not in the form of monthly stipends, but as a distinct reward of success coming once a year, the people had much less excuse to retrench their payments. The system was also most economical. While the average rate of aid to each pathsala in Bengal was about Rs. 25 a year, little of which was thought to find its way to the pocket of the guru, in Midnapur the average yearly rate was Rs. 7 (in sums varying from Rs. 2 or Rs. 3 to Rs. 50), which at any rate was a clear gain to him. It was also maintained that the system involved no loss of efficiency. There was plenty of education, it was urged, abroad in Bengal; and if the standard of instruction in primary schools was kept strictly at Sir George Campbell's level, the gurus—no longer itinerant, as so many of them had formerly been, but stationary and having a new and definite incentive to improvement—could work up to it without difficulty. Those who could not do so were held to be incapable of improvement under any system, and must be gradually replaced in course of time by better educated men. All this had an obvious bearing on the Normal school system; and it will be shown in a subsequent paragraph how it soon led to a great reduction in the number of Normal schools.

The development of the aided pathsalas continued to advance on two different lines, some District officers being anxious to raise the schools to something like the old departmental level, while others rigidly confined even the best of them to Sir George Campbell's standard. In a Resolution dated January 1876, Sir Richard Temple, in again drawing attention to the success of the Midnapur scheme, remarked of a District in which the aided pathsalas had reached a high standard of excellence, that the system therein pursued did not appear to provide sufficiently for that education of the masses which it was the main object of the primary school fund to encourage and assist. It was nevertheless maintained that the policy of Government was not only to extend primary education among the lower classes of the people, especially the agricultural classes, but also to gradually improve its organisation and quality. The results attained by the system were summed up as follows: "Primary "education has for the first time been organised, regular hours and a fixed "course of study have been introduced, and a commencement at least has "been made of giving village schoolmasters the advantage of Normal school "training. The result has been, not only that the standard of education "has been improved and rendered progressive, but that these primary schools "now attract classes of the population who previously scarcely came under "instruction at all."

155. Bengal: fourth Period: further Development of the System.—The tendency of the best of the aided pathsalas to rise above Sir George Campbell's

standard could not, however, be altogether checked; and it was known that a considerable number had reached a higher standard. It was also known that many of the old departmental pathsalas had, under the attractions of the primary scholarship and the disfavour with which they were often regarded by the District officer, come down to the primary standard. To meet both cases, Sir Richard Temple established in 1876 a new class of schools intermediate between the primary and middle, whose course was fixed by the creation of a new class of scholarships styled "lower vernacular." The standard for the scholarships was higher than that of the old departmental pathsalas, and included the Bengali language, the history and geography of Bengal, arithmetic, the 1st Book of Euclid, and elementary physics; and the scholarships were thrown open to all pathsalas of whatever origin. On a reference made by the Director as to the classification of these schools, it was ordered that "they should undoubtedly rank under secondary, and not under primary "instruction." It has already been explained under what circumstances these lower vernacular schools have since been taken up into the primary system under the name of "upper primary schools." But neither at this nor at any other time was it intended that the new standard should be that at which the general body of primary schools should aim. This point is emphasised in the Resolution on the Educational Report for 1876-77, in which the following occurs: "It must be distinctly understood that it is not the policy "of the Government to convert the pathsalas into cheap middle schools." The system of payment by results was again recommended for general adoption, as affording the best means of securing "the progress of the general "body of pupils." The year had been signalised by a serious reduction in the primary grant arising from financial pressure; and the manner in which the primary schools had stood the test was pointed to as showing the soundness of the system. The following figures show the number of schools which up to this time had been established or incorporated into the organised system, excluding the attendance in the primary classes of secondary schools :—

Year.	Schools.	Scholars.
1870-71	2,486	68,044
1872-73	8,253	205,934
1873-74	12,229	303,437
1874-75	13,145	330,024
1875-76	13,491	357,233
1876-77	13,966	360,513

It appears from these figures that the number of schools aided from the primary grant did not increase very greatly during the last four years of the period to which it refers. Throughout the subsequent period it will be seen that the increase went on at a rapid and surprising rate. This was the natural result of the exhortations conveyed to District Magistrates in the successive Resolutions of Government, urging them to substitute the cheaper system of payment by results for that of fixed stipends. In 1877-78 it was stated that

nearly half the Districts of Bengal had introduced the results system. The following figures show how rapid was the increase up to 1881-82, by which time it had practically superseded the other all over Bengal. They also show the cost to the State at which these numerical results were obtained :—

Year.	Schools.	Pupils.	Expenditure.
			Rs.
1876-77	13,966	360,513	3,75,000
1877-78	17,395	406,135	3,35,149
1878-79	24,354	489,518	3,99,200
1879-80	30,414	587,992	3,88,635
1880-81	37,501	671,723	4,07,286
1881-82	47,402	836,351	5,30,715

In the last year of this period, the primary grant had been increased by more than a lakh of rupees; but even with this addition the average grant to each aided school amounted to little more than Rs. 11 a year, while Sir George Campbell's lowest estimate of the assistance which any indigenous school should receive was Rs. 24 a year, and he laid down Rs. 60 as a maximum grant. It may be observed that in no other Province of India is so small a grant given to the indigenous schools, and that in the adjoining Province of Assam the percentage of the cost of aided primary schools borne by public funds is 64 per cent. against 26 per cent. in Bengal. A further development of the system of payment by results was effected by the introduction of the "chief guru" system in 1877. The most competent and influential of the village teachers within a given area is selected by the Inspector as "chief guru," and in that capacity he has to supervise some 20 or 30 pathsalas lying within a radius of five miles from his school. He draws no salary from Government beyond what is paid by way of stipend to the pathsala which he teaches; but he receives a small allowance in proportion to the number of schools visited. He distributes his time between teaching his own pathsala, which is to serve as a model for the whole neighbourhood, and inspecting those subordinate to him, with which by long habit he is thoroughly familiar. He collects returns and is responsible for their accuracy; he summons pathsalas to central gatherings, distributes registers, books, and rewards to teachers or pupils, and generally acts as an intermediate agent between the Department and the village schools. The system supplies a close network of organisation, and has been found very effective in discovering the smallest village schools hid in the remotest corners of Districts. The object of Government being to raise and strengthen the indigenous system of education rather than to replace it by another of its own devising, the employment of agents drawn from the general body of gurus to assist it in carrying out that policy is believed to establish a more intimate connection between the Government and popular education; while it is hoped that it will strengthen the confidence of the people in the system and offer a definite object of ambition to the best of the indigenous teachers.

156. Bengal System: General View.—The Bengal system of primary education is therefore based entirely upon the existing indigenous schools. Its

declared policy towards them has been, first, to win their confidence, and then, secondly, to cautiously and gradually introduce necessary improvements. Any rapid improvement or elevation of their standard has been studiously avoided. It has been already stated that the Government of Bengal were strongly opposed to the inclusion of lower vernacular schools in the primary system. In a letter to the Government of India, dated 20th February 1879, it expressed the opinion that "the definition of primary instruction should be confined "to reading, writing, and arithmetic; and that no substantive instruction as "such (*i. e.*, as a special subject, and in addition to any information that the "standard reading-book may furnish) should form part of the standard." This passage defines the view which the Government of Bengal has taken since 1872 of the scope of primary education. That view is held by the Bengal Government to be in accordance with the Despatch of 1854, and it follows the policy laid down in the orders of Sir George Campbell. It will have been gathered from the foregoing sketch that the object of Government has been to give the masses of the people useful, however elementary, instruction in the schools which they themselves created and maintained, and in the form in which they are said still to desire it. The schools are declared to be village schools, established and maintained by the people for the people; and the Government contribution, small as it is, is a subsidy paid to the schoolmasters as an inducement to them to teach, and as a reward for teaching, those subjects of elementary liberal instruction which find no place in the ordinary course of the village pathsala. It is believed that any attempt to raise the schools as a body above the lower primary standard would be to drive away those pupils whom above all others it desires to attract. At the same time, the general improvement of the pathsalas is not wholly neglected; and it is effected partly by the substitution, as opportunity offers, of younger and better-educated teachers, and as a consequence thereof, by the introduction of new subjects of study, serving to connect the pathsalas with the general educational system of the Province, and by encouraging the rise of selected schools to the upper standard. The motive to improvement is supplied, not only by the small rewards that are earned at the annual gatherings, but by inspection, by the stimulus of a competitive examination, by the award of scholarships, and perhaps in a still higher degree by the knowledge which the people in every village of Bengal have acquired, that the Government interests itself in their schools, desires them to prosper, and is eager to co-operate with them in their improvement.

157. Bengal: Educational Results in 1882.—We have reviewed at considerable length the Bengal system, because in respect to the small grants by which its large numerical results are obtained and in regard to its practical abandonment of the principle of training teachers in Normal schools, its advantages have often been contested. We have therefore been anxious to show the merits claimed for it, and the approval which its development has received from the local authorities. The difficult task of incorporating the indigenous schools into the State system is one which we have recommended to the attention of the various Governments, and it will serve good purpose to explain upon what foundations the Bengal primary system is based. Our Recommendations given at the end of this Chapter will show in what respects we consider that that system requires improvement. It is only necessary here to conclude our review by offering a few remarks on the statistics for the year with which we are mainly concerned. Excluding 2,709 indigenous schools with nearly 41,000 pupils, which divided between them a grant of Rs. 4,272 for the whole year, paid for the mere submission of returns, there were in 1881-82, 898,389 children, male and female, who were receiving instruction in primary schools either maintained, aided, or inspected by the Department. This was an increase in

the schools aided under the various systems of about 125,000 children in a single year. These numbers exclude the attendance in the primary classes of secondary schools. But even so, the 51,778 schools thus brought into the State system of primary education represent three different classes of institution. Of them only 28 are wholly maintained by Government, and are situated in backward tracts of country. Each pupil educated in them cost public funds nearly Rs. 4 per annum. The aided indigenous schools numbering 47,374 were educating 835,435 pupils, each of whom cost public funds about 11 annas per annum. They come under some one or other of the various systems of aid which have been described. Besides these there were 4,376 unaided schools attended by 62,038 pupils which in the words of the Provincial Report have been "cut out in the course of the year from the quarry of indigenous path-"salas, and have either adopted the departmental standards or attended the "public examinations without receiving any aid." The strength of the Bengal system lies in the aided indigenous schools, and we shall presently enquire into the quality of instruction imparted in them. But it may be mentioned here that in 1876 out of 338,000 pupils in such schools 110,000 could read easy sentences in a printed book. In 1882 out of more than 820,000 pupils 316,558 could read. It is to be remembered that the schools taken up into the system are schools in which there is little or no reading of a printed book, and that any considerable increase under that head makes a clear gain to the general instruction of the people.

158. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Primary System.—It has been explained in Chapter II that primary education in the North-Western Provinces began with an attempt to improve and multiply the indigenous schools which Mr. Thomason's enquiries, made between 1845 and 1850, showed to exist in very considerable numbers throughout the Provinces. Mr. Thomason's general object was to distribute as evenly as possible a network of schools over the whole country. His special object was, while preserving as far as possible the traditional method of instruction, to make it more practical; and so to enable the agricultural population to understand the rights assured to them under the settlements of the land revenue. In the eight Districts selected for experiment tahsili schools at the head-quarters of each tahsildari were established as models, and a staff of inspecting officers, or pargana and zila visitors as they were then called, was entertained. The duty of the pargana visitors was "to visit all the towns and principal villages in "their jurisdictions, and to ascertain what means of instruction are available to "the people. Where there is no village school, they will explain to the people "the advantages that would result from the institution of a school; they will "offer their assistance in finding a qualified teacher and in providing books, &c. "Where schools are found in existence, they will ascertain the nature of the "instruction and the number of scholars, and they will offer their assistance to "the person conducting the school. If this offer is accepted the school will be "entered on their lists, the boys will be examined and the more advanced "scholars noted; improvements in the course or mode of instruction will be "recommended, and such books as may be required will be procured. Prizes "will be proposed for the most deserving of the teachers or scholars, and the "power of granting free admissions to the tahsildari school be accorded." The zila visitor supervised the work of the pargana visitors, testing the accuracy of their reports, deciding on the bestowal of prizes recommended by them, reporting upon the course of education followed in each class of school, ascertaining as far as possible the extent and nature of the private instruction given to those of the upper classes who did not attend schools, and acting as the departmental agent for the distribution and sale of school-books.

For four or five years every effort was made by Mr. H. Stewart Reid, the Visitor-General, and those under him to carry out Mr. Thomason's scheme. The results, however, were meagre, the tahsili schools alone answering the expectations entertained of them. Moreover, during these years another system of primary instruction had been growing up. This system arose out of an experiment made by Mr. Alexander, Collector of Muttra, upon the following plan: "A pargana being chosen, it was ascertained how many children of school-"going age it numbered, what revenue it paid, and what expense it could "therefore bear. A cluster of villages, some four or five, was then marked out, "and the most central of the villages fixed upon as the site of the school [termed "halkabandi]. The rate in aid originally varied a good deal in the different Dis-"tricts, but ultimately the zamindars agreed to contribute towards education at "the rate of one *per cent.* on their land revenue. Mr. Alexander's idea was quickly "caught up by other Collectors; in 1853 Agra, Bareilly, Etah, Etawah, Main-"puri, Muttra, and Shahjahanpur all had a certain number of halkabandi "schools, and at the close of 1854 there were about 17,000 boys receiving educa-"tion in them." With the increase and success of these schools, the indigenous schools gradually fell more and more into the background, and before many years the recognised system of primary education consisted of the tahsili or what would now be called middle vernacular, and the halkabandi, or primary schools. The teachers in both received fixed salaries, the cost of the tahsili schools being borne directly by Government, and that of the halkabandi schools by the one per cent. cess on the revenue, which, at first voluntary, was in a few years made compulsory. In 1871 there were 4,307 departmental primary schools attended by 148,126 pupils, while 143 aided primary institutions were giving instruction to about 5,000 children. Meanwhile the numerous indigenous schools continued to exist, but were left almost entirely to themselves. In addition to this cause of complaint against the system, it was urged that the halkabandi schools tried to imitate the tahsili schools and were rising above the requirements of the masses, while the adoption of Urdu in the place of Hindi afforded a further ground for dissatisfaction in many parts of the Province.

159. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Progress of primary Education.—That these complaints were not without some foundation may be inferred from the results shown in the two comparative statements printed towards the beginning of this Chapter. The statements indicate an absence of such progress between 1871 and 1882 as may be found throughout the rest of India in the school attendance of primary schools. After proper allowance has been made for the primary classes of secondary schools, there were in 1871 more than 153,000 children in the public primary schools of this Province—an attendance far in advance of Madras and of the Punjab, and not far behind Bombay. But after the lapse of 11 years, we find that both the Southern and the Western Presidencies have far outstripped the Northern Province. In 1881-82, there were 213,238 pupils in primary schools maintained or aided by the Department in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh; while in Madras with a far smaller population there were more than 360,600, and in Bombay, with only half the population of the Northern Province, there were nearly 332,700 in similar schools. In no other Province of India was the percentage of pupils in primary schools to the male population so low, being only ·89 per cent. in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, against 2·6 in Bombay and 2·2 in Madras. The contrast which these figures afford naturally leads us to enquire into the causes assigned for them. It has been alleged that the poverty of the agricultural classes sufficiently accounts for the back-ward state of primary education, and it is true that up to 1877-78, a year of general sickness and distress, the attendance in public primary schools

steadily increased every year. The losses of that and the following years have not yet been wholly recovered. There can be no question that the falling off in recent years was due to famine and its subsequent effects; but, on the other hand, it may be noted that in the Deccan, where the famine of 1876-78 was of longer duration and probably of even greater severity, the primary schools are filled, and the progress of education has been resumed. The losses of the famine years have been more than made good, and the average attendance in a Bombay school is 62 as against 36 in the North-Western Provinces. Moreover, the Bombay agriculturist pays school-fees; while in the Northern Province, free instruction is given to the cess-payers. Again, it has been alleged that at one time the halkabandi schools made an injudicious attempt to imitate the tahsili schools, and several of the witnesses who appeared before the Commission consider the present course too ambitious and unsuited for practical purposes; but in the opinion of the Provincial Committee, the former charge at any rate cannot now be sustained. Some other explanation must, therefore, be sought for the want of elasticity in the system of primary instruction in the North-Western Provinces. It seems that there has been a deviation from the original policy initiated by Mr. Thomason with the full approval of the Court of Directors. The indigenous schools have remained altogether outside the organised system, and for many years past they have received no assistance or encouragement from the Department. Yet the feeling of a large proportion of those whose leisure and means permit of their providing for the education of their children, is still in favour of the indigenous system; while the number of those families who accept the departmental type of school, and at the same time are able to spare their children from manual labour, has nearly reached its limit. In Bombay, the popularity of the departmental schools is proved by the annual increase of pupils attending them; but in the North-Western Provinces, the attendance in the halkabandi schools exhibits no similar progress. We shall hereafter enquire into the subjects taught and the qualifications of masters in halkabandi schools; we shall also consider the powers entrusted to local committees and the financial arrangements for primary education. It is sufficient here to state that in our opinion the encouragement of indigenous schools would have led in the North-Western Provinces to the same development and progress which have been found in the rest of India to mark the history of education between 1871 and 1882.

160. Punjab: Primary System.—The Punjab system was intended to be a combination of the systems of Bengal and of the North-Western Provinces. From both it borrowed the organisation of the high school with its provision for primary classes, and from the latter the halkabandi school. But the circle system was soon abandoned, and schools were established without any exact reference to the theory of equal geographical distribution. In 1854 the Local Government declared it to be their "intention to impart sound elementary "knowledge in the vernacular and to give every village throughout the land its "elementary school." But at the same time they recognised the fact that a provision of 24 lakhs of rupees would be required for the extension of a really national system of education, and that more than one generation must pass away before any such sum could be realised. It seems probable that more rapid progress towards realising the extension of such a system might have been attained by incorporating the indigenous schools into the organised system of primary education and by improving their methods. We have already expressed in Chapter III our dissent from one of our Punjab colleagues who holds a different view. At any rate that policy was not adopted, and the attempt to cope with the ignorance of the masses by means of departmental schools has not succeeded. It may be admitted that the want of adequate funds has created

part of these difficulties. Thus in 1869 about 300 primary schools were abolished with a view to raising the salaries of teachers in those which were retained. The total of primary schools which stood at 1,884 in 1867 amounted to only 1,524 on March 31st, 1881. During this period the total expenditure on education from all sources had increased, according to the statement of the Provincial Committee, from Rs. 8,66,766 in the former year to Rs. 13,92,534 in 1880-81. For although the municipalities in the Punjab are exceptionally liberal towards education, and though the primary school fund rests upon the solid basis of local rates, still it has never been the practice in the Punjab to make any assignment from provincial revenues to primary vernacular schools. On the contrary, the cost of subordinate inspection and other charges formerly borne by provincial revenues have been thrown upon the funds administered by local committees; and, as in the North-Western Provinces, even the local fund is subject to appropriations for famine and other Public Works before it reaches the local committee. Another explanation of the comparative unpopularity of the Punjab schools has been found by certain witnesses in the inclusion of Persian as a part of the primary school course. A still more frequent cause of complaint urged against the departmental schools is the preference given to Urdu instead of the Hindi and Punjabi vernaculars. The vernacular of a large proportion of the population of the Province is Punjabi, or Hindi in its various forms, and it is urged that the departmental schools do not make adequate provision for teaching these dialects, and that they employ Urdu too exclusively as the medium of instruction. On the other hand, it is represented that it was quite natural that the Department should at the outset adopt Persian and Urdu. Throughout the territories of the Muhammadan Kings of Delhi, Persian was used as the language of official correspondence, and its position became so firmly established that it remained the language of the Courts during the Sikh rule, hostile though that rule was to every form of Muhammadan supremacy. When the Court of Directors desired that the vernacular should be substituted for the classical language, Persian, the change to Urdu afforded the most easy transition. The great bulk of the indigenous schools teach Arabic, Persian, or Urdu, and it is therefore urged that the Department wisely conformed its course to that of the existing schools. Urdu is still the language of the British Courts of law, and while it remains so it will naturally find a place in the public primary schools. Whether the circumstances of the Province have now altered, is a more difficult question to decide. There is a large party who would like to see Urdu replaced by Hindi. But the choice of a vernacular is as much an administrative as an educational question, and therefore it is one on which the Commission have hesitated to pronounce an opinion. In no other Province of India has the choice of a vernacular constituted so great a difficulty; and the advocates of the local language or dialect, which has been displaced or excluded from the school course, have been loud in their complaints against the Department. It is a question which in our opinion can only be practically determined by local boards, and we have framed a Recommendation accordingly. We only notice the subject here, as it accounts in some measure for the obstacles against which the primary schools of the Punjab have had to contend. For these and other reasons, primary schools have not increased in the Punjab as they have in the adjoining Provinces. There were, however, 102,867 pupils in 1,827 primary schools on 31st March 1882. Of these schools 1,549 were departmental and 278 were aided. Thus the attendance in 1882 fell far short of that which existed in Bombay or in the North-Western Provinces in 1871. On the other hand, it appears that in 1870-71 there were 1,755 schools in the Province maintained or aided by the State which were attended by 69,497 pupils. These figures would at least show that primary education in the Punjab, if it has not advanced as rapidly as elsewhere, has yet not been entirely stationary.

A considerable number of the Government schools, and the great majority of aided primary schools, are attached to English schools for secondary education, of which they form a preparatory department. These schools are situated in the large towns. Of the rest of the schools included in the primary system, some are converted indigenous schools, others are only branches of vernacular schools for secondary instruction, and about one-half the whole number are purely primary schools chiefly established by the Department. Judged by the proportion of the population at school, it seems that, with the exception of that of the North-Western Provinces, the State system of primary education in the Punjab has been the least successful in India. While more than 2½ per cent. of the male population are at school in Bombay and Bengal, ·91 per cent. only are so provided for in the Punjab. Of the Hindus and Sikhs, about 1·2 per cent. in each case are at school, whilst only ·63 per cent. of the male Muhammadan population attend the schools recognised by the Department.

161. The Central Provinces: Primary System.—The Central Provinces, embracing an area of 84,000 square miles with a population of nearly ten millions, border on Madras, Bombay, Bengal, and the North-Western Provinces. Seventeen per cent. of their population speak Marathi, the chief vernacular of the Bombay Presidency; 53 per cent. speak Hindi, the chief language of the North-Western Provinces and the Districts of Bengal that adjoin them; 8 per cent. speak the dialects of the aboriginal races known as Gondi and Khondi; and 6 per cent. speak Uriya and Telugu, the vernaculars of Orissa and of the neighbouring districts of Madras. As the educational history of the Provinces dates only from 1861, their policy has naturally borrowed something from all the systems which obtained in the adjoining Provinces. From the North-Western Provinces, the Central Provinces borrowed the village school system of Mr. Thomason as well as the 1 per cent. school cess, which was raised to 2 per cent. of the rental shortly after the formation of the Province: from Bombay it has largely adopted its system of internal mechanism and its standards of examination; while from Bengal it has derived the theory, advocated in that Province long before it was put into practice, of incorporating indigenous schools and working upon the basis of private enterprise. Judged by the statistics whether of Bombay or of Bengal the progress made has been remarkably slow, but it is necessary to remember the poverty and scantiness of its population; its early history, which like that of Bombay was a history of general disorder and disorganisation; and the confusion of tongues which results from the use of so many different languages and dialects. With slender funds and a weak indigenous system to work upon, the Department has nevertheless made fair progress. The indigenous schools wherever they could be found have been incorporated into its system and gradually improved. The departmental schools have been increased in numbers and associated with village school committees on the plan adopted in Bombay. In addition to these two agencies the Department has encouraged the creation of new schools by private enterprise. In doing so, it has relied somewhat too much upon the enthusiasm of a particular officer or his influence over the village headmen. In fact it is one of the rules of administration in the Central Provinces that "every District officer is expected to see that the schools are well filled with pupils." We have referred elsewhere to the bad effects of official pressure; and although it helped at the outset to overcome some of the difficulties with which the Department in a backward Province was called upon to deal, its inevitable result may be traced in the falling off of aided schools which we shall now notice. In 1871 there were 795 departmental primary schools, and 1,091 aided or inspected institutions which were together educating 76,399 pupils. In 1882

the aided and inspected schools had fallen to 454 with about 22,000 pu- while the Government schools had risen to 894 with 55,745 pupils. the aided and inspected schools are strong and progressive institutions. Bengal the average attendance at an aided school is 17 pupils Central Provinces it is 51. With such an attendance even a small grant head affords substantial assistance to the manager. In Bengal the contri- tion from public funds given to an aided primary school on account of each boy averages less than 11 annas; in the Central Provinces it is double that sum, so that while the average grant made to each school in Bengal is about Rs. 12 a year, in the Central Provinces it is about Rs. 70. The percentage of Muhammadans at elementary schools is, with the exception of the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, the largest in India, being nearly 4 per cent. of the male Muhammadan population. The percentage of Hindus is greater than in the North Western Provinces. But upon the large aboriginal population the Department has hitherto made no impression at all. The decrease of aided schools is ascribed to the backwardness of the people, the collapse of premature endeavours to stimulate local effort, and generally to the weakness of private enterprise. The small increase of departmental schools is attributed to want of funds and the widespread ignorance and superstition of the population. Altogether a great improvement and advance is required before primary education can overtake the masses. The percentage of the male population at public primary schools is larger than in the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, being 1·5 per cent.; but on the other hand both those Provinces have a large system of indigenous schools awaiting incorporation into the State system, whilst in the Central Provinces the outer circle no longer exists. It is therefore an interesting problem, which patience and experience can alone solve, whether the direct instrumentality of Government must henceforth, as was the case in Bombay, be mainly relied upon for the further extension of primary education, or whether continued efforts to rely on private enterprise will succeed as they have succeeded in Madras.

162. Assam: Primary System.—The history of Assam was bound up with that of Bengal until 1874. The greater part of the early history of its primary education has therefore been already described under the account given of Bengal. The systems of the two Provinces are so far identical that primary education in each is based on private effort. But in Assam the great majority of the aided schools are new creations, and were not adopted from the pre-existing indigenous system. They have been called into existence by the stimulus of the grant-in-aid system. This is the natural result of offering substantial assistance. In Assam the average annual contribution from public funds for each boy in aided institutions is nearly Rs. 2, of which Re. 1-9 is borne by local rates. In 1879 the Assam Local Rates Regulation was passed, under which an allotment from the rates may be made for the construction of school-houses, the maintenance of schools, the training of teachers, and the establishment of scholarships. In other respects, besides the liberality of its aid, the Assam system now differs largely from the Bengal system. Great attention is paid to the training of teachers and the improvement of their method of instruction. The schools are divided into two classes, lower vernacular (or upper primary) and pathsalas (or lower primary schools). Grants-in-aid to primary schools were up to 1876 limited to Rs. 5 per mensem. In 1876 the maximum allowance was raised from Rs. 5 to Rs. 6, except in the District of Sylhet, where the original maximum was retained. In special cases for hill tribes a grant up to Rs. 10 per mensem may be sanctioned. For tols and maktabs only a scheme of payment by results was introduced in 1880-81, but as yet with little result. The Bengal

plan of granting aid by payment for results has never been tried in Assam proper, and the Inspector considers that its introduction in the form in which it is carried out in Bengal would result in closing most of the struggling primary schools which have been brought into existence.

163. Coorg: Primary System.—In the small Province of Coorg, which was annexed in 1834, early steps were taken to establish Government schools. The direct agency of Government has continued to supply the wants of the people without any attempt to incorporate the indigenous system, and with very little effort to stimulate private enterprise. In 1871 the Government of India, in pursuance of their general policy which has already been fully described, urged upon the attention of the Chief Commissioner the need for extending primary education by means of a local cess. The village headmen proposed the revival of the plough tax, which was a rate levied on each plough varying from three to four annas according to the classification of the soil. The proposal was sanctioned as being in accordance with the wishes of the people, and the tax yields about Rs. 5,220 a year. As a necessary complement to the levy of a local educational rate, the village headmen were consulted regarding the control of the schools, and village school committees were appointed in 1873 to assist in promoting attendance and in supervising the management of the institutions. By these measures primary education has made some progress, and whereas there were only 1,541 pupils at elementary State schools in 1871, there were 3,069 on 31st March 1882 attending 57 Government and 3 aided schools. Nearly 5 per cent. of the Native Christian male population and 3 per cent. of the male Hindu population attend these schools. The whole male population of Coorg amounts to only 100,439, of whom 3 per cent. are at primary schools.

164. Haidarabad Assigned Districts: Primary System.—These Districts separated by mountain barriers from the Central Provinces on the north and from the Nizam's Dominions on the south are open on the west to the Bombay Presidency and on the east to the Central Provinces. They have borrowed their system principally from Bombay, but have also attempted in later years, after the example of the Central Provinces, to encourage the indigenous schools. Their primary schools are supported by contributions from a local cess which is applied to works or local utility. For such works a cess is levied on the land revenue to the amount of 7½ per cent., of which one-fifth is assigned for education. To this assignment a contribution from the revenues of the Province is added, but owing to a peculiar system of account the Provincial grant appears to be larger, and the local fund contribution less, than they really are. The education fund created by the combination of provincial and local contributions is not administered as it is in Bombay by local committees, but it is distributed by the revenue officers who are primarily responsible for the management of the elementary schools. The progress made in the encouragement of indigenous schools may be inferred from the following statistics: In 1871 there were 297 primary schools with 10,223 pupils, all of which were Government schools. On 31st March 1882 the Government schools had increased to 467 with 27,844 pupils, while there were 209 aided schools with 4,212 pupils, and 207 schools unaided but under inspection attended by 2,672 pupils. The population of these Districts is 2,672,673, and 2·5 of the male population are at school. The Muhammadans are well represented in the school attendance, but the large aboriginal population, exceeding 37,000, remains entirely uneducated. It is alleged that the indigenous schools are far inferior to the Government schools, and not so popular. It should, however, be noticed that the average grant made to each male pupil in an aided school

is only 12 annas per annum, which is not much more liberal than the rate given in Bengal, and contrasts unfavourably with that in Assam and the Central Provinces, to which the satisfactory results noticed in a previous paragraph are attributed.

165. Statistics of Primary Education for all India.—Under the various provincial systems which have been described, there were in 1881-82 in the public primary schools of India with which our Report is concerned, 2,061,541 pupils receiving instruction in 82,916 recognised institutions. Thus 1·02 per cent. of the entire population in the nine Provinces reviewed were under instruction, or if the school-going population of both sexes be estimated at 15 per cent. of the whole population, then 6·78 per cent. of them were at primary schools. But these figures do not take into account the primary classes of higher schools in Bengal and Assam which were giving instruction to about 100,000 pupils, nor yet the attendance in the indigenous elementary schools outside the State system, for which an estimate is given in paragraph 118, Chapter III. Assuming that altogether there were some 2,520,000 pupils under primary instruction in 1881-82, this estimate, which is the most liberal that we are justified in making, would give only 8·29 per cent. of the population of school-going age in the primary schools or classes of India in that year. If again the male population be separated from the female, then there were under primary instruction 15·48 per cent. of the male school-going population, and ·81 of the female school-going population; while 12·55 of the male children and ·80 of the female were in the primary schools recognised by the State. In this last class of schools, containing 2,061,541 pupils of both sexes, nearly 1,600, 000 were Hindus, 374,560 Muhammadans, and 41,600 Native Christians. But for our present purpose a more important classification of the pupils under instruction in schools recognised by the Department will show that 663,915, or 32·2 per cent., were in Government institutions, 1,141,844, or 55·4 per cent., in aided schools, whether indigenous or conducted on European methods, while 255,782, or 12·4 per cent., were in unaided schools under regular inspection, many of which are really departmental schools in Native States. For further details we must refer to General Tables 2 *a*, 2 *b*, and 2 *c*, which will be found at the end of this Report. But we shall conclude our review of the provincial systems of primary education in India by stating the Recommendations which we offer on this part of the subject under discussion.

166. Recommendations regarding Systems of State primary Education.—Our review has shown that for many years the cause of primary education had to struggle against the theory described as that of "downward "filtration." The contest was prolonged up to dates varying in different Provinces of India. The comparative neglect of the education of the masses in the Native States of India shows that their claims are even yet inadequately recognised by native society. Under these circumstances, and as it is probable that henceforth the administration of primary education will largely devolve on local committees, we think it desirable that the policy upon which the British Government has acted since 1871 should be reaffirmed. We therefore express our conviction *that while every branch of education can justly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable, in the present circumstances of the country, to declare the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension, and improvement, to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore.* In order to secure full practical attention to this important declaration of policy, to which further reference will be made in considering expenditure on primary education, we shall in paragraph 216 consider the financial arrangements which will best advance the object in view. We shall also, in considering the subject of legislation in Chapter XI, repeat and discuss a further Recommendation which we unanimously adopted. That Recommendation was *that an attempt be made to secure the fullest possible provision for an extension of primary education by legislation suited to the circumstances of each Province.* If adequate financial provision is secured and the hearty co-operation of local boards obtained, the first question that will present itself to the authorities entrusted with the task of diffusing primary education will be the choice of the agency by which the work is to be done. We have discussed at length the advantages claimed for the departmental system, and shown to what extent the direct instrumentality of Government has hitherto been relied on in various parts of India. We may repeat the caution contained in the Despatch of 1859: "It is obvious that no general "scheme of popular education could be framed which would be suitable for all "parts of India." The history of the progress of education under the different Local Governments forbids any general condemnation of any of the various systems in force, which have produced on the whole satisfactory results. As remarked by the Government of India in 1881, "these systems being the outcome "of long experience must necessarily vary with local circumstances and local "requirements, and it would be unreasonable to seek uniformity at the cost of "hindering their further development, or of rendering them unsuitable to the "particular circumstances of the Provinces in which they have grown up." We have therefore carefully avoided any Recommendations which could be interpreted as advocating any centralised control in the matter of primary education, or the wholesale alteration of any existing system. At the same time we may remark that arguments which at the outset induced Government to rely mainly on its own direct efforts, lose, except in the case of neglected castes or of backward Districts, much of their force when once a solid foundation has been laid for the diffusion of primary education. We are therefore unanimous in pressing upon the attention of those Provinces such as Bombay, the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab, which have almost exclusively directed their attention to Government schools, the following Recommendation: *that where indigenous schools exist, the principle of aiding and improving them be recognised as an important means of extending elementary education.* There are several Provinces, of which the most important is Bengal, which do not require to be reminded of the permanent advantages of eliciting private enterprise; but our review of their systems of aiding indigenous schools has suggested the Recommendations given in Chapter III, namely, "that a steady and gradual "improvement in such schools be aimed at with as little immediate inter-"ference with their *personnel* or curriculum as possible:" and "that special "encouragement be afforded to their masters to undergo training or to bring "their relatives and probable successors under regular training." If indigenous schools are to be improved, it is necessary that the inspecting staff should be strong. The number of Sub-Inspectors in Bengal has been largely increased since 1872, and every indigenous school recognised by the Department is inspected either by one of the 173 Sub-Inspectors or by a chief guru, who is a superior indigenous schoolmaster. But since it is obviously impossible for the 173 Sub-Inspectors to examine *in situ* a very large number of the aided indigenous schools, it has been found necessary to supply their place for purposes of local inspection by the agency of chief gurus. Both agencies have their uses, but with the large and increasing number of indigenous schools requiring inspection in Bengal it is absolutely necessary in our opinion to make a large addition to the regular inspecting staff. In his last Report on Public Instruction the Director has remarked that "it may be broadly assumed that

"if the number of Sub-Inspectors in those Districts in which primary schools "abound were doubled and even quadrupled, it would still be impossible "to secure such frequent inspection of pathsalas as would seem to be "required." If the indigenous schools are to be incorporated into the State system, it is essential that the Government, which can afford them very little assistance in money, should at least provide sufficient inspection. The examinations under the Bengal system are conducted at central gatherings, and we have already stated the objections which seem to be involved in such a plan. To meet the deficiencies of the system we recommend *that examinations by inspecting officers be conducted as far as possible* in situ, *and all primary schools receiving aid be invariably inspected* in situ. Of the different systems of aid we have already given a brief notice, and in Chapter VIII their advantages will be more fully discussed. We therefore content ourselves with stating without further comment our Recommendation *that as a general rule aid to primary schools be regulated to a large extent according to the results of examination; but an exception be made in the case of schools established in backward districts or under peculiar circumstances which may be aided under special rules.* By the qualifying expression "to a large extent" we mean to include, in our definition of the result system recommended by us, such a system as is being tried in Madras and Assam, where a salary grant is given more or less dependent on the efficiency of a school as tested by results. On the importance of providing Normal schools and various other matters we have passed specific Recommendations, which will find a more appropriate place in subsequent portions of this Chapter.

167. Methods of Registration of Attendance.—It can readily be understood that in Provinces where the schools are mainly departmental and the schoolmasters are Government servants receiving fixed salaries, there can be no general inducement to falsify the returns, unless a school is bad and the master wants to deceive his superior officer. But even in this case the difficulty of falsifying registers is to a considerable extent checked by a comparatively strong inspecting staff, and by the independent agencies of school committees and Revenue Officers. In Madras, where the great bulk of the schools are aided, special and stringent rules regarding registers are contained in the Result Code. Inspecting schoolmasters, Deputy Inspectors, Inspectors, and finally Local Fund Boards, constitute a chain of supervision which tends to secure accuracy in the returns, and instances of fraud seldom occur. When they do, a prompt example is made, and the offending schoolmaster is deprived of the whole or a part of his result grant. In Bombay, and in the Central Provinces, in addition to the agencies described as existing in Madras, there is a further check upon the schoolmasters which might perhaps be adopted with advantage in other Provinces of India, at any rate for departmental schools. Under the orders of the Government of Bombay it is "considered part of the regular duty of an Assistant "Collector to visit a considerable number of primary schools and to report, "on forms issued by the Education Department, the results of his inspection. "The mamlatdars and mahalkaris" (senior native revenue officers) "should visit "every school in their charge for the purpose of reporting on such matters as "the condition of the buildings, the use or abuse of the free list, the number of "boys present as compared with the number on the register, and the truth of any "complaints against the master." In addition to these safeguards there are village school committees attached to each school, whose business it is to record in a book kept for the purpose the results of their frequent inspections. Lastly, it is a common practice in Western India for the native Judges on circuit, native pleaders and other professional or private men who are travelling, to visit the village schools *en route*, and record their remarks in the visitors' book. Under

this system the registers of village schools are believed to be thoroughly trustworthy and hardly a single case of fraud, except in Sind, has been reported for many years. In Bengal the annual returns are ordinarily collected at appointed centres by the Sub-Inspectors, whose means of checking false statements consist in a reference to their notes made at visits *in situ* and at gatherings of the pathsalas. It is stated in the Provincial Report that "there is no temptation to "give in false returns, as there are no capitation grants for numbers on the roll." On the other hand, the area of inspection is admitted to be too vast for adequate supervision. In reviewing the last Report on education the Lieutenant-Governor expressed his hope that it will in future be possible to attach greater statistical value to the returns of primary instruction. "Recent disclosures make the Lieute-"nant-Governor glad to think that in the Local Government Boards a means "will be found for closer supervision than at present exists over the class of chief "gurus and Sub-Inspectors who are now responsible for the submission of these "returns." In the North-Western Provinces it is admitted that perfect honesty has not yet been secured, and must not be expected, but on the whole the returns are considered fairly trustworthy. In the Punjab it is the business of all inspecting officers to examine the registers of attendance, and to ensure as far as possible that the entries are genuine. It is, however, stated that in village schools there is some laxity. In the Central Provinces part of the Bombay system of inspection has been introduced, and the Inspector General reports that in village schools the visits of the tahsildars, deputy tahsildars, as well as the Inspectors and other officers, afford an adequate check against fraud. But he adds that though in a remote village a master may submit false returns for a time, his detection is ultimately certain. In Assam the Inspector considers that the registers checked by his subordinates are generally honestly kept and trustworthy, though instances have occurred of gurus filling them in from memory. In Coorg the inspecting officers aided by village committees are said to keep sufficient check over the masters' returns. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts a clear line of distinction is drawn between departmental and aided primary schools. The registers in the former are considered trustworthy, but in the latter it is said that "the very existence of the indigenous "schools is only reported once a year, and the statistical information supplied "cannot be relied upon."

168. School Accommodation.—In the matter of school buildings as well as of methods of registration, there is also a broad distinction between departmental and aided schools. The contrast is most marked between the departmental system of Bombay and the indigenous system of Bengal. In the Bombay Provincial Report it is stated that there are 688 substantially built school-houses in the British districts and 371 in the feudatory States of the Northern Division alone, which have together cost more than 27 lakhs. Besides these there were 560 houses built after the country fashion of less lasting materials, whilst 2,530 were private houses or temples lent to the Department. The school-houses are being improved as far as funds will permit. In Bengal it is stated that "School accommodation does not as yet form a very important "point for consideration in this country, the climate permitting the children, "except during the rains, to sit out in the open air. Of the 50,788 schools, "6,545 have houses of their own, 43,256 are accommodated rent-free in the "houses of other people, and 987 are held under the shelter of trees." In Madras, school accommodation for result schools is often very inefficient. An open *pyal*, or raised verandah facing the street, is among the [illegible] of the places provided. Sometimes a dark room is used. A shed used [illegible]attle at night often does duty for a school-room by day. Inspecting officers not unfrequently hold their examinations under a tree. Where, however, local boards

and municipalities have schools, there is generally fair and sometimes good accommodation. In the North-Western Provinces school-houses are either Government buildings on a more or less uniform plan prescribed by the Public Works Department; or rented buildings; or sheds or other accommodation lent by zamindars. The houses answer their purpose fairly well, and light and ventilation are sufficient. In the Punjab also, where the system of primary education is chiefly departmental, constant attention is paid to the subject, and it is stated that the tendency is to build more expensive houses than are really required. In the Central Provinces the Government school-houses are built on a standard plan. They are said to be durable and cheap. A school-house for 60 pupils costs Rs. 600. It is a tiled building built of brick and lime. If the village or town committee wish for a more imposing structure, they must obtain subscriptions to its cost. In Assam the houses are of the rudest description, consisting simply of posts and a thatch, while in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts more ambitious flat-roofed structures have been planned by the Public Works Department. They are said to be expensive, and in the Provincial Report the expense is justified by the argument that the village school-house ought to be the best building in the village—a really suitable and permanent structure. "Such a building well furnished is "in itself an education both for the villagers and their children, and should "outlast successive generations." On the whole, then, it may be said that proper school accommodation for Government schools is generally provided, while in Bombay and in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts very great attention is paid to the subject. On the other hand, the school-houses of the aided schools in country villages are very indifferent, frequently mere cattle-sheds or corners of houses, while in some cases the shade of a tree supplies the wants of the pupils until the monsoon closes the sylvan school-houses for four months. After some discussion we arrived at the following Recommendation, *that for primary schools, school-houses and furniture should be of the simplest and most economical kind.* Local authorities must attach to the phrase "economical" whatever interpretation considerations of the climate and of the permanency of the institutions may justify. We are not in favour of spending local funds on architectural effects, but on the other hand cow-sheds or the precarious shade of trees afford an obviously insufficient accommodation even for Indian children. In Bombay, the expenditure upon school-houses is very largely in excess of that which is found necessary in other Provinces, and it seems to us that it would be advisable to reduce it. The provision made in the Central Provinces appears to be well adapted for all purposes.

169. School Apparatus and Libraries.—Once again, the advantage is naturally on the side of the departmental schools in the matter of furniture and apparatus. In Madras the schools are ill-supplied, except of course the primary classes in higher schools. It has been suggested that in order to remedy the admitted defects in the indigenous and some of the aided schools, the managers should be compelled to spend a portion of the grant earned on the purchase of a board, maps, and slates. This, it is urged, would be a development of that policy of steady but gradual improvement of method which is so successfully carried out in the indigenous schools of Madras. But as such compulsion would interfere with the right of private managers to spend their grant in their discretion, the proposal has very properly not been enforced. In Bombay it is part of the system of making primary education thoroughly efficient and progressive that maps, boards, sand-glasses, and other necessary furniture should be invariably supplied. For the larger town schools more apparatus is given; and to the few schools which have adopted the Kindergarten system when pictures are issued. Globes have been supplied to the cess schools that teach the higher standards, and several of the largest institutions have collections of mineral, botanical, and other natural objects collected by the boys themselves. A few schools in convenient localities have gardens attached to them, and prizes are annually awarded for the three best in each District. Nearly every school is supplied with a library of some sort consisting of a set of the class books and books of reference. The town schools are also supplied with a monthly school paper. Most of the aided and inspected schools have equipped themselves with similar furniture and apparatus. In Bengal the primary schools have little or no furniture, and of course no libraries. The upper primary schools alone have a few benches and a stool for the teacher. They have also the necessary maps, a black-board, and a few books of reference. In the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab such furniture as is absolutely necessary is supplied, while in the Central Provinces and Berar the Department has generally furnished its schools on the Bombay scale. In Assam the school furniture consists of a chair, a table, and a few maps, but there are no books. In the preceding paragraph we have stated our Recommendation that "the furniture should be of the simplest and most economical kind," but much has to be done before even this moderate provision is universally made.

170. Standards of Instruction and Results of Examination.—We give below a statement showing the results of primary school examinations under the various standards prescribed in each Province of India. We shall afterwards explain in detail the standards adopted, and offer some remarks on the varying results which the following Table discloses; but we may mention here that the figures for Bengal do not show the results of the District examinations for rewards under the payment by results system, since no fixed standards other than the scholarship standards are prescribed for the whole Province. It is worth noticing how rapidly the number of those who pass examinations decreases in going from the lower to the higher standards. The proportion varies considerably in different Provinces, but throughout India a large number of the pupils in primary schools leave school before they have received anything like a complete elementary education.

TABLE 3.—*Statement showing the results of the Primary School Examinations in 1881-82.*

Province.	Nature of Examination.		Number of institutions presenting examinees.	Number of examinees.	Number passed.	Percentage of those passed to those present.
Madras	Special Upper Primary	Boys	99	1,128	457	
		Girls	42	224	77	
	Upper Primary	Boys	1,112	10,140	6,674	
		Girls	120	729	498	
	Lower do.	Boys	3,566	22,166	15,334	
		Girls	240	1,713	1,273	
	Result Standard II	Boys	...	39,442	27,047	
		Girls	...	2,935	1,837	
	Ditto I	Boys	...	59,797	42,360	
		Girls	...	5,049	3,209	
		Total	...	143,323	99,366	
Bombay	Public Service Certificate Examination in Vernacular Standard VI	Boys	252	3,771	1,253	
	Sixth Vernacular Standard Examination held in Schools	Boys	532	2,698	1,028	
		Girls	24	34	25	
	Fifth ditto	Boys	1,246	7,289	5,198	
		Girls	57	146	67	
	Fourth (Upper Primary) *a* ditto	Boys	2,749	18,127	7,946	
		Girls	132	503	230	
	Third ditto	Boys	3,639	30,865	14,061	
		Girls	195	1,005	458	
	Second (Lower Primary) *b* ditto	Boys	4,341	43,650	21,932	
		Girls	265	1,933	890	
	First ditto	Boys	4,585	54,604	36,669	
		Girls	299	2,893	1,696	
		Total	...	167,518	89,453	
Bengal	Upper Primary	Boys	1,267	3,142	2,531*	
		Girls	10	15	13	
	Lower do.	Boys	8,196	29,182	16,417†	
		Girls	87	186	144	
	Utterpara Hitakari Sabha Examination	Girls	33	85	50	
		Total	...	32,610	19,155	
N.-W. Provinces and Oudh.	Upper Primary	Boys	3,595	14,081	6,627	
		Girls	61	235	129	
	Lower do.	Boys	4,887	30,573	14,834	
		Girls	142	749	391	
		Total	...	145,638	21,981	
Punjab	Upper Primary	Boys	1,384	6,321	4,203	
		Girls	5	8	7	
	Lower do.	Boys	1,518	10,197	7,582	
		Girls	241	163	44	
		Total	...	16,689	11,836	
Central Provinces.	Sixth Vernacular Standard Examination held in Schools	Boys	Results not tabulated by the Inspectors.			
		Girls				
	Fifth ditto	Boys				
		Girls				
	Fourth (Upper Primary) *a* ditto	Boys	747	7,461	3,062	
		Girls	11	90	51	
	Third (Lower Primary) *b* ditto	Boys	1,039	12,303	6,398	
		Girls	53	437	219	
	Second ditto	Boys	Results not tabulated by the Inspectors.			
		Girls				
	First ditto	Boys				
		Girls				
		Total	...	20,291	9,730	
Assam	Lower Primary	Boys	534	1,348	682	
		Girls	1	3	2	
		Total	...	1,351	684	
Coorg	Upper Primary	Boys	58	517	...	
	Lower do.	Boys		2,526	400	
		Girls	1	26		
		Total	...	3,069	400	
Haidarabad Assigned Districts.	Public Service Certificate Examination in Vernacular Standard VI	Boys	...	...	...	
	Sixth Vernacular Standard Examination held in Schools	Boys	24	164	109	
		Girls	...	...	...	
	Fifth ditto	Boys	66	520	250	
		Girls	...	...	...	
	Fourth (Upper Primary) *a* ditto	Boys	241	1,500	634	
		Girls	3	12	8	
	Third ditto	Boys	460	3,169	1,487	
		Girls	5	21	15	
	Second (Lower Primary) *b* ditto	Boys	566	4,747	2,754	
		Girls	10	55	35	
	First ditto	Boys	649	6,743	4,481	
		Girls	11	79	53	
		Total	...	17,010	9,826	
Total for India§		Boys	...	428,171	251,010	
		Girls	...	19,328	11,421	
		Total	...	447,499	262,431	

* Inclusive of 564 passed candidates from the lower classes of middle schools.
† Ditto 430 ditto ditto and upper primary schools.
‡ Inclusive of 1,072 pupils in European and Eurasian schools that are inseparable from the returns.
§ Excluding Ajmir, British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
a The Standard selected by the Local Government as equivalent to that of the Upper Primary Examination.
b The Standard selected by the Local Government as equivalent to that of the Lower Primary Examination.

171. Uniform Standard of Examination for primary Schools.—We have already explained that the Government of India desired to obtain statistics from the several Provinces of India, with a view to enabling them to compare the progress made in different parts of the Empire. Accordingly the proceedings of the Government of India, No. $\frac{1}{2-16}$ of the 6th January 1879, laid down general regulations for primary education in the following four paragraphs:—

(A) *In primary schools* shall be included all pupils who are under instruction from the earliest stage up to the standard at which secondary education begins; this standard being marked by an examination to be called the upper primary school examination.

(B) Primary schools shall consist of two divisions, the number of pupils in each division being shown in the returns—(1) the lower division containing pupils preparing for an examination to be styled the lower primary school examination, and (2) the upper division consisting of pupils who have passed this standard.

(C) *The upper primary school examination* shall be the qualifying test for admission to a course of study to extend over three years, and ending with the middle school examination. Candidates shall be required—

(1) to read at sight with fluency and intelligence a passage of ordinary difficulty from a book or newspaper in a vernacular language, or in the case of Europeans and Eurasians in the English language;
(2) to write a passage to dictation from the same;
(3) to work miscellaneous questions in arithmetic—the precise standard to be determined by the Local Government; and
(4) to pass an examination in at least one additional subject to be determined by the Local Government.

(D) *For the lower primary school examination* candidates shall be required to read at sight with facility a moderately easy book in a vernacular language, to write to dictation from the same, and to work sums in the first four rules of arithmetic, simple and compound, including easy miscellaneous questions.

The Bombay Government and the Resident at Haidarabad complained from the first of their inability to force their system, which had developed with local wants far beyond this arbitrary definition of the upper primary standard, into the form required by the Supreme Government. In a letter to the Government of India, dated April 15th, 1879, the Bombay Government expressed the belief that the Government of India did not desire to impose a material change in the educational system, by the introduction of returns which were merely intended to record results in a more convenient shape, and they promised to select from their school examinations those which would correspond with the examinations prescribed by the Supreme Government. On this subject they called attention to a Report of their Director, who showed that the lower primary corresponded with Vernacular Standard II, and the upper primary with Standard IV. With regard to the latter, the Director wrote, "the "Upper Primary examination corresponds to Vernacular Standard IV, but by "the definition qualifies for the middle school course of three years. Here there is "no possibility of our fitting in our two most valuable Vernacular Standards, V "and VI, the last of which qualifies for admission to the vernacular branch of "the public service. Here again the rules of the Government of India neces- "sitate a reduction of our curriculum, and a renunciation of our second bifur- "cation of studies which has been found so suitable to the people and to school "managers." The Bengal Government also objected to the orders of the

Supreme Government on the following grounds. It was pointed out that in Bengal the course in primary schools and in the primary classes of secondary schools was determined not by reference to an ultimate University standard, but by the requirements of those students whose education was to come to an end in the school or the class in which they were reading. Alternative standards were required by the various needs of the community, and the effect of the rules was to abolish them. As a special objection, it was urged that the proposed classification made no provision for the standard of the "lower vernacular "schools," each of which included History, Geography, Euclid, and a branch of physical science, and therefore went far beyond the upper primary standard as now defined. The force of these objections was admitted by the Government of India. The same considerations have induced us to recommend that the attempt to carry out the orders of January 6, 1879, be abandoned, and no endeavour made to force various and widely different systems into one shape. Our Recommendation is *that the upper and lower primary examinations be not made compulsory in any Province;* and its application is intended to be somewhat wide, as the course of our debates will show. It was first proposed, at our meeting of February 19th, 1883, that "the adoption of the upper and lower "primary examinations be not made compulsory on the Departments throughout "India." The proposal was objected to, on the ground that it was desirable to go much further than this, and to avoid imposing an identical course even on schools within the same Province. For a similar reason the proposal, that "the upper "and lower primary examinations be not made compulsory on schools in any Pro- "vince of India," was not carried, because it was held that the Recommendation as given above was wide enough in its terms, not only to secure variety in every Province, but also to allow of it in the various classes of schools found in the same Province. Finally, a motion was made and strongly supported, to the effect that "the annual Reports of Public Instruction should show a complete "record of the results of the departmental and public examinations held in each "Province." To this proposal objection was taken on the ground that the motion if carried might be used to impose on schools the same uniform tests which it was sought to abolish; and that it was better to leave each Local Government free to issue whatever orders were considered necessary. On the other hand, it was urged that in some Provinces these tests were popular with aided as well as with Government schools. In this conflict of opinion the Commission, recognising the importance of leaving to every Province the largest independence and discretion, decided against the motion, thinking it better to leave the original Recommendation sufficiently wide to cover all cases.

172. Provincial Standards of Examination—Madras: Bombay: Bengal.—The following summary will show how far the regulations of the Government of India have been adopted in their entirety or modified in the different Provinces. In the case of the three largest Provinces we have placed the standards side by side in parallel columns, so as to afford an easy comparison.

The lower and upper primary standards in Madras, Bombay, and Bengal are as follows:—

Madras.	Bombay.	Bengal.
LOWER PRIMARY STANDARD. (USUALLY PASSED AT THE END OF THE PUPIL'S 3RD YEAR.)		
Head. 1. (*a*) Reading at sight with facility a moderately easy book in a vernacular language. (15 marks).	Head. 1. (*a*) Reading and explanation of the First and Second Departmental Readers in the printed vernacular character. (*b*) The First Departmental Reader in the script vernacular character. (*c*) Recitation and explanation of the poetical pieces. (100 marks).	Head. 1. Reading— (*a*) A Vernacular adaptation of Chambers's Rudiments of Knowledge. (*b*) Manuscripts written in current hand.
(*b*) Writing to dictation from the same book. (25 marks).	2. (*a*) Writing to dictation, in the printed and script vernacular characters, an easy passage containing words of two or three syllables. (*b*) Copy-writing (large hand). (100 marks).	2. Copy-writing. (200 marks for heads 1 and 2).
2. Arithmetic—The first 4 rules, simple and compound, with easy miscellaneous questions founded on them. (40 marks).	3. Arithmetic— (*a*) The first 4 simple rules. (*b*) Mental Arithmetic on the native methods. (100 marks).	3. Arithmetic— (*a*) The first 4 rules, simple and compound. (150 marks). (*b*) Mental Arithmetic on the native methods. (150 marks). (*c*) Bazar and zamindari accounts and simple mensuration. (150 marks).
	4. Geography—Boundaries, mountains, rivers, chief towns, roads, railways, &c., of the collectorate to be pointed out on the map. (50 marks).	4. Cuningham's Sanitary Primer. (100 marks).
N. B.—In order to pass the pupil must obtain ¼ of the maximum number of marks in each of the above heads and ⅓ of the aggregate marks of the standard.	*N. B.*—In order to pass the pupil must obtain ¼ of the marks assigned to each sub-head and ⅓ of the total marks of each head.	*N. B.*—In order to pass the pupil must obtain ⅓ of the marks in each group of subjects and ⅖ of the aggregate marks of the standard.
UPPER PRIMARY STANDARD. (USUALLY PASSED AT THE END OF A 5TH-YEAR COURSE.)		
Compulsory Subjects— 1. (*a*) Reading at sight with fluency and intelligence a passage of ordinary difficulty from a vernacular book or newspaper. (15 marks).	*Compulsory Subjects*— 1. (*a*) Reading with explanation and parsing the Fifth Departmental Book, inclusive of the Lessons on Elementary Physics and Natural History. (*b*) Poetry. (*c*) Reading manuscripts written in good current hand. (100 marks).	*Compulsory Subjects*— 1. Vernacular language. (100 marks).
(*c*) Writing a passage to dictation from the same. (25 marks).	2. (*a*) Writing (in the printed and script character) to dictation from the Reading Book. (*b*) Copy-writing (current hand). (100 marks).	

Madras.	Bombay.	Bengal.
2. Arithmetic—(*a*) Reduction, the Compound Rules and Vulgar Fractions. (40 marks). (*b*) Mental Arithmetic applied to bazar transactions. (10 marks).	3. Arithmetic:— (*a*) Vulgar Fractions. Simple Rule of Three and Simple Interest. (*b*) Mental Arithmetic (complete) after the native methods; and bazar accounts. (100 marks).	2. Arithmetic— (*a*) Vulgar and Decimal Fractions and Simple Proportion. (*b*) Native accounts. (150 marks).
3. Geography—Asia. (40 marks).	4. History of India with special reference to the history of the Province; Physical and Political Geography of India; map of the District or Province to be drawn. (100 marks).	3. Euclid, Book I. (50 marks). 4. History and Geography of Bengal. (100 marks). 5. Elements of Physics. (100 marks). 6. Cuningham's Sanitary Primer. (100 marks).
Optional Subjects (any two may be chosen)—	*Optional Subjects*—	
1. Vernacular Poetry—Recitation and explanation of 200 lines of verse from any approved anthology. Simple parsing. (40 marks).	1. Elementary Drawing, *viz.*:— (*a*) Free-hand drawing. (*b*) Model and Object drawing. (*c*) Practical Geometry.	
2. English—Reading and construing from the Second Reading Book. Dictation and oral translation. (45 marks).	2. Field instruction in agriculture.	
3. Elementary History—India or England, or the History of the World. (40 marks).	3. Printing, carpentry, joinery, smithery, &c.	
4. Cunningham's Sanitary Primer. (40 marks).		
5. Robertson's Agricultural Class Book or any similar Primer. (40 marks).		
N. B.—In order to pass the pupil must obtain ½ of the marks in the compulsory subjects 1 and 2.	*N. B.*—In order to pass the pupil must obtain ½ of the marks in each sub-head and ⅓ of the aggregate marks of each head of the compulsory subjects.	*N. B.*—In order to pass the pupil must obtain ½ of the marks in each group of subjects and ⅔ of the aggregate marks of the standard.

We have referred to Vernacular Standard VI, which is the highest development of the Bombay course, and is intended to prepare the successful pupil

in primary schools for the lower grades of the public service. The subjects are as follows:—

Compulsory Subjects.

1. (*a*) Reading, with explanation, the Seventh Departmental Book (inclusive of the lessons on the History of Ancient and Modern Europe, and on Natural History and Elementary Physics);
   (*b*) Syntax, Prosody and Etymology;
   (*c*) Explanation and recitation of 300 lines of classical Vernacular Poetry;
   (*d*) Reading rough current hand. (115 marks).
2. Writing a report or story in current hand. (100 marks).
3. (*a*) Arithmetic, complete.
   (*b*) Knowledge of the principles and method of arithmetic; or Euclid, Book I.
   (*c*) Advanced Native accounts and book-keeping. (100 marks).
4. (*a*) History of India, ancient and modern, with information regarding the system of Government.
   (*b*) Geography, Political, Physical and Mathematical; an outline map of India to be drawn, (details to be prescribed by the Inspector). (100 marks).
5. Cuningham's Sanitary Primer (Vernacular Version). (50 marks).

Optional Subjects.

1. Elementary Drawing, including—
   (*a*) Free-hand drawing;
   (*b*) Object and model drawing;
   (*c*) Practical Geometry.
2. Field instruction in Agriculture.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Standards.—In primary English schools the subjects of instruction are Hindi or Urdu, English reading and writing, the elements of grammar, arithmetic, history and geography, and simple sanitary rules. In primary vernacular schools the subjects are reading, writing, and arithmetic, with the elements of history, geography, sanitation, and mensuration. In some schools the boys are taught to read the village accountant's papers. Besides the lower and upper primary examinations prescribed by the Government of India, there is no general departmental examination for primary schools.

Punjab: Standards.—The lower primary school contains three classes, the course in which comprises no English. The following is the work of the third or highest class: third and fourth Urdu readers, copies and dictation, first and second Persian readers, arithmetic to compound division (money), and maps of the Punjab and India. The upper primary school contains two classes, and the course may be either English or vernacular. That of the highest class is as follows. In English schools the first reader; and in vernacular schools mensuration is substituted for English. The other subjects are Urdu and Persian selections: grammar, parsing and translation: arithmetic, including practice, rule-of-three, square measure, and interest: geography, including names of the countries of the world, with their capitals and chief natural features: and revision of previous lessons.

Other Provinces: Standards.—In the Central Provinces, as in Bombay, the course of studies varies for schools in different parts of the country. Primary instruction is given either in primary vernacular schools or else in the primary departments of middle schools. The latter have only three classes,

while the former usually have four and in towns five or six classes. Vernacular standard III is held to correspond with the lower primary standard and standard IV with the upper primary. Under the former are taught reading, writing, grammar, geography, and arithmetic, including mental arithmetic and the four simple and compound rules. Under standard IV are taught reading, writing, grammar, history, geography, and arithmetic, including simple proportion, vulgar fractions, and native accounts. In Assam primary schools are classed as lower and upper, the latter being also called lower vernacular schools. The standard of the former is arranged in strict accordance with the Government of India Resolution of the 6th of January 1879, while to the course of the latter a few additional subjects are added in order to prepare the pupil for the scholarship examination. In Coorg the standards are those prescribed by the Government of India. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts the course is framed upon the standards already described for Bombay.

173. The Place of English in primary Schools.—Considerable conflict of opinion prevails as to the proper place which the study of English should occupy in primary schools or classes. Variations of practice depend to a large extent upon differences of system. In Provinces where the pupils destined for higher education are separated at the earliest age from the great bulk of primary pupils and commence their education in a middle or high school, the general tendency is to begin English as soon as possible, and in some cases English is taught before the child can read or write his own vernacular. Thus in the Bengal high school English is generally employed as the medium of instruction and is taught from the lowest class, but in middle schools its study is discouraged until the boy has passed the third standard. In the ordinary village school of Bengal English is very rarely taught. In Madras not only is English taught as a language from the lowest class of a middle school, but it is also studied in the primary schools from the third class upwards; in other words, before the pupil has entered on the upper primary standard. The demand for English instruction in the south of India is so strong that the large attendance in primary schools is said to be due in no small measure to the popular demand for English. In Bombay, on other hand, the Department has systematically resisted every attempt to introduce the study of English until a boy has completed standard IV and reached the point where secondary education commences. Even then an English class is not attached to a purely primary school unless those who require it are prepared to pay for the extra cost. As the strictly primary course according to the definition of the Government of India is then completed, boys who study English in a class attached to a primary school are classified as under secondary instruction. There are no primary classes attached to middle schools in Bombay, and therefore it follows that in Bombay no pupils under primary instruction are returned as studying English. The Bombay Department not only believes that many good vernacular schools are liable to be spoilt by the introduction of English into the primary course, but it also argues that the preservation of the vernacular in the course of all classes of schools is required in order that the mental progress of the scholar may be reflected in his increased power to make use of his own language. It is urged in the Report* of the Provincial Committee for Bombay that the Despatch of 1854 contemplated that the vernaculars would be enriched by translations of European books or by the compositions of men imbued with the spirit of European advancement, and that the only method of thus bringing European knowledge within the reach of the masses is to give every pupil a

* Page 47 of the Report.

thorough grounding in the vernacular, and to keep his attention upon it even up to the college course. In pursuance of this policy English is rigidly excluded from the primary school course. With such a variety of practice we found it impossible to lay down any rule upon the subject of English instruction which would suit the circumstances of every Province. The extent to which English is at present taught to children under primary instruction in each of the large Provinces of India will be seen in the Table given below. But it must be noted that owing to the peculiarities of the Bengal system already described we are unable to show the number of pupils in the primary classes of secondary schools who are learning English. The figures given for Bengal are those of pupils in strictly primary schools. For the other Provinces the figures in column 3 give the number of pupils both in primary schools and in the primary classes of secondary schools who are learning English. All that can be said regarding Bengal is that out of nearly 140,000 pupils in secondary schools more than 94,000 are in primary classes, and would, in any other Province of India except Assam, be returned as primary pupils. Of them all in the primary classes in high schools are learning English, as well as some proportion of those in middle schools.

Statement showing the number of primary pupils learning English in each of the larger Provinces of India.

Provinces.	Total number of pupils in all institutions learning English.	Number of pupils in primary schools or classes learning English.	Percentage of numbers in column 3 to those in column 2.
1	2	3	4
Madras	61,098	35,591	58
Bombay	23,789	...	...
Bengal	75,677	1,025*	See foot-note.
North-Western Provinces and Oudh .	18,449	12,608	68
Punjab	11,074	7,808	70
Central Provinces	5,446	2,609	47

* The figures for Bengal exclude the primary classes in middle schools.

174. Results of Examinations in primary Schools.—Although the results of examination ought to afford some indication of the relative value of primary instruction given in each Province, yet it will be clear from what has been said that the results, as already tabulated in paragraph 170, can only give a partial idea of the relative progress made throughout India. Of the progress made from year to year in each Province, they afford sufficient indication; but in comparing the number of successful candidates at any examination in one Province with those who have passed an examination called by the same name in another, the question arises how far the standards are the same. The Departments in Bombay, in the Central Provinces, in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, regard their standard IV as equal to the upper primary standard pre-

scribed by the Government of India, while the Bengal Department regards the course in its upper primary schools as going considerably beyond that standard. But the relative difficulty of the subjects taught in the differnt Provinces of India can be determined by a reference to the standards already given in this Chapter. Independently of this question, the following statement is useful as showing the very small proportion of pupils who come up for examination in Bengal. It indicates the difficulty and magnitude of the task which has yet to be accomplished in that Province before it can raise the standard of its indigenous schools even up to the moderate requirements of the lower primary standard. This remark remains true after every allowance has been made for the fact that the pupils in the primary classes of secondary schools in Bengal are for the most part excluded from this Statement.

Statement comparing the number of examinees in each Province.

Province.	Primary pupils.	Examinees.	Standard.	Number passed.
Madras	360,643	10,869	Upper primary	7,172
		23,879	Lower „	16,607
		34,748	Both	23,779
Bombay	332,688	18,630	Upper primary	8,176
		45,583	Lower „	22,822
		64,213	Both	30,998
Bengal	898,389	3,157	Upper primary	2,544
		29,368	Lower „	16,561
		32,525	Both	19,105
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	213,238	14,316	Upper primary	6,756
		31,322	Lower „	15,225
		45,638	Both	21,981
Punjab	102,867	6,329	Upper primary	4,210
		10,360	Lower „	7,626
		16,689	Both	11,836
Central Provinces	77,737	7,551	Upper primary	3,113
		12,740	Lower „	6,617
		20,291	Both	9,730

175. Recommendations as to Standards and Examinations.—We have fully explained the want of uniformity which necessarily attends the progress of primary education not merely under widely different systems, but also amidst populations that differ so materially in social habits and stages of civilisation as the different races and classes of Indian society. The largest possible independence should be left to each Government. Education should grow with the various growths of different Provinces, and whatever tends to check its free play and development or to force it into anything like a uniform shape for the whole of India should be avoided. Our attention has been drawn to a difficulty which has been specially brought to notice in the North-Western Provinces, but which has also been referred to in other parts of Northern and Eastern India. It is urged by some that the spread of education is injurious to the interests of agriculture by making the children of cultivators

unfit for hard work in the fields and leading them to be discontented with their lot in life. It is obvious that this is a danger which arises only while education is the monopoly of a few, but with a wider diffusion of knowledge the sense of discontent which it is said to inspire will disappear. To some extent, however, the complaint indicates another danger and shows how necessary it is that the elementary education provided for the masses should be of a kind which they recognise as practically useful to them in their ordinary occupations. We are convinced not only that education of the right kind is as beneficial to the cultivators as to all other classes of Indian society, but also that it is capable of improvement and development as society advances. We therefore recommend *that the standards of primary examination in each Province be revised with a view to simplification, and to the larger introduction of practical subjects, such as native methods of arithmetic, accounts, and mensuration, the elements of natural and physical science, and their application to agriculture, health, and the industrial arts; but that no attempt be made to secure uniformity throughout India.* Not only do we desire to see each provincial system left free to develope according to local wants, but we also desire to see the greatest freedom left to managers of aided schools. We therefore recommend *that care be taken not to interfere with the freedom of managers in the choice of text-books.* Under a grant-in-aid system, it may be necessary to test results by fixed standards of examination, but it is important *that promotion from class to class be not made to depend necessarily on the results of one fixed standard of examinations uniform throughout the Province.*

176. Physical Training.—We have given an account of the intellectual training provided under various standards in the public primary schools of India. We have now to enquire what steps are taken to promote the physical and moral wellbeing of the children. As we have previously observed, the Provinces in which education is mainly provided by the direct instrumentality of Government possess a great advantage in this as in some other respects over those whose system is built on private schools which must be left very much to themselves. Accordingly, in Bombay and the Central Provinces especially, gymnastics and drill have been introduced as part of the school routine, and schoolmasters are taught gymnastic exercises as part of their training. In Bengal, the opportunity of boys being collected for central examinations is often taken to encourage athletic contests and to reward success in physical exercises. In the rest of India less systematic attention is paid to the subject. It seems to be taken for granted that the boys who belong to the lower and more robust classes of society will provide exercise for themselves. But the sedentary habits of the higher castes are proverbial; and we consider that a regular course of physical exercise would have a specially good effect upon the minds and bodies of most Indian students. We therefore recommend *that physical development be promoted by the encouragement of native games, gymnastics, school drill, and other exercises suited to the circumstances of each class of school.* The Bengal plan shows how in the case of aided schools occasional opportunities may be taken for encouraging gymnastics, and under the departmental system the provision of a small play-ground with a few poles and bars will not add much to the cost of education, while it will afford the boys a beneficial interlude from mental study.

177. Moral Training.—Much has been said in the evidence and the memorials before us regarding the importance of moral teaching. There is a widespread feeling, especially in the Punjab, that something should be done to promote the development of the sense of right and wrong in the minds of scholars of all grades. Some have advocated the preparation of a moral text-book, others of

a manual for the guidance of masters, whilst others again think that the object will be more surely gained by introducing lessons having a moral bearing into the ordinary reading-books. Very successful efforts have been made in this direction in the Province of Bombay, especially in the series of text-books prepared by Mr. T. C. Hope, C. S. The whole subject of text-books for primary as well as for other schools will be reserved for consideration in Chapter VII. Undoubtedly they offer one means of conveying moral teaching to pupils. But even where their importance is recognised, we doubt whether the teachers take sufficient advantage of any opportunities open to them of instilling moral principles and habits into the minds of their pupils. The ever-impending examination tends to push to one side any subject, however important, which will not appear directly in the "results." In the Central Provinces the Manual of Teaching, which is put into the hands of every student on his admission in to the Normal school, contains a full statement of the teacher's duty in this respect, and similar directions are included in the "standing orders" of the Bombay Department. But there may be some doubt how far these measures effect their object. It is of course impossible to secure that every teacher shall be a man of such moral character as to lend weight to his precepts. But the inspection of a school should at any rate include a careful enquiry whether the boys have had their attention directed to the moral significance of the lessons they have read. A simple manual for the guidance of teachers may assist them in this part of their duty; while the knowledge that some enquiry will be made by the Inspector will keep the subject before their minds. Nor should the moral value of strict and careful discipline be left out of sight. When a boy knows and keeps his proper place in the school, he will be in some degree trained to keep it in the world also. Manners afford some indication of moral training, and should on no account be regarded as beyond the teacher's care. It appears that a good deal of what is sometimes described as moral deterioration in Indian school boys is in reality a departure from the gentle and respectful manners of old times. In this respect the Inspector's treatment of the schoolmaster will often be reflected in the master's treatment of his pupils. There may be inspecting officers who are more careful of their own dignity than of that of the schoolmasters with whom they deal, while the latter is in reality far more important. On the whole, though no general measure can secure moral training in primary schools, careful and constant attention may have some effect in promoting it. We therefore recommend *that all inspecting officers and teachers be directed to see that the teaching and discipline of every school are such as to exert a right influence on the manners, the conduct, and the character of the children, and that for the guidance of the masters a special manual be prepared.*

178. Religious Teaching.—It has already been shown how large a place religious teaching occupied in the course of instruction provided in indigenous schools, both high and low. Even from the essentially secular bazar school in some parts of India, religion is not excluded; while the complaint against maktabs has been that they confined their instruction to the Koran. Following a policy of strict religious neutrality, the Despatch of 1854 declared that the system of grants-in-aid should be based on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the school assisted. Under the application of this stringent rule, aided institutions are at liberty to convey whatever religious or moral instruction they please. But the Despatch did not leave its decision on the question of religious instruction in departmental schools to be drawn as a mere inference from the contrast with aided schools. On the contrary, the Court of Directors declared that Government institutions were founded for the benefit of the whole population of India, and that it was therefore indispensable that the education conveyed in them should be exclusively

secular. At the same time it was explained in paragraph 84 of the Despatch of 1854 and in paragraph 59 of the Despatch of 1859 that the masters of Government schools were not absolutely precluded from giving instruction out of school-hours in the facts and doctrines of the Christian religion to any pupils who might apply for such instruction. Against the strict principle of excluding religious instruction from the school-course various objections were raised and discussed in the Commission. It was urged that in some parts of India no difficulty would arise, because the Government school is attended by children all of whom belong to one religious sect; that part of the policy of transferring the management of primary schools to local committees was to permit of wider and readier adaptation to local wants; which might possibly include a desire for religious teaching; and that, finally, these boards might be trusted not to do violence to religious prejudices or local feelings, or at least that the reservation of a right of appeal from a dissenting minority would secure justice to all. On the other hand, a majority of us considered that religious feeling was so inflammable in India, and sectarianism so prevalent, that it was not safe to depart from a policy which had worked well in the past. The value of religious education was admitted on all sides, but it was hoped that home-instruction and the increase of aided schools in which religious instruction may be freely given, would to a large extent minimise the recognised evil of banishing religion from Government primary schools. Accordingly we rejected a proposal "that religious instruction be permitted, with the sanction of the school "committee, in primary schools maintained by boards: provided (i) that such "arrangements be made as to enable parents objecting to the religious instruction "to withdraw their children from it; (ii) that the Inspector or other Departmental "officer does not interfere or examine in such subjects; (iii) that if there be a "dissenting minority in the community, who represent a number of pupils "sufficient to form one or more separate classes or schools, it shall be incumbent "on the Department to provide for the establishment of such classes and schools, "and it shall be incumbent on the municipal or rural board to assign to such "classes or schools a fair proportion of the whole assignable funds." Having rejected this proposal, the Commission by a large majority adopted the following Recommendation, *that the existing rules as to religious teaching in Government schools be applied to all primary schools wholly maintained by municipal or local fund boards.* In dissenting from this Recommendation one member of the Commission observed that it must not be implied that the existing rules precluded religious instruction; for on the contrary teachers were allowed, in accordance with the Despatches just quoted, to give such instruction in the school before or after the ordinary school-hours, and several instances could be mentioned of teachers availing themselves of this permission, especially in the Bombay schools for Muhammadan boys. Another member remarked that religious instruction was especially desirable in girls' schools. The mover of the Recommendation with the assent of his supporters disclaimed any intention of desiring to alter existing practice, and the Recommendation was adopted on this understanding.

179. Training of Teachers: Policy affirmed by Authority and carried out in Practice.—We now approach a most important subject in the consideration of primary education. A special paragraph was devoted to this matter in the instructions issued by the Government of India to the Commission, from which we quote the following passage: "The arrangements existing in different "parts of the country for training the teachers of primary schools should be "brought under careful review, and suggestions for rendering that training more "efficient and practical should, if possible, be submitted." In the Despatch of 1859 it was remarked that "the institution of training schools does not seem to

"have been carried out to the extent contemplated by the Court of Directors." In a later Despatch of the Secretary of State, dated March 24, 1862, satisfaction was expressed at "the improvement of the halkabandi schools in the North-"Western Provinces in consequence of the training of the masters in Normal "schools." Thus from the earliest date particular stress was laid upon the improvement of the teachers. We have seen that upon this basis proceeded the first attempts to improve the indigenous schools of Bengal. The "circle system" and the "Normal school system" attempted to raise the standard of instruction in the Bengal village schools "through improved teaching." Sir George Campbell's scheme of 1872 also laid particular stress upon "attaching newly appointed "teachers of village schools for some months to training classes at the district or "sub-divisional head-quarters." In 1872 and 1873 there were 26 Government Normal schools of all grades in Bengal. In 1874 the new scheme for the extension of Normal schools came into force. It contemplated the establishment of a first grade school for training superior vernacular teachers at the head-quarters of each Division; and of a lower grade school for village school teachers in each District. Accordingly, sanction was given to the establishment of 9 Normal schools of the first grade, 22 of the second grade, and 15 of the third grade, at a total annual cost of Rs. 1,64,000. Half of the stipends at first grade schools, and all at second and third grade schools were allotted to pupils under training as village teachers.

180. Change of Policy in Bengal as regards the Training of Teachers.—After a year's trial of this scheme, the Lieutenant-Governor, Sir Richard Temple, found reason for believing that it was unduly expensive. In fact, the utility of Normal schools, except as a means of providing trained teachers for the better section of the pathsalas, had already begun to be doubted. A phrase in common use about this time in the mouths of District Officers was that to raise the indigenous schools much above their traditional level would be "to improve them off the face of the earth." The complaint also began to be heard that the indigenous gurus were strongly averse to leaving their villages and coming in, if only for three or six months, to the Normal school. Thus the new Normal schools were declared to be both costly and ineffective. The best gurus were considered able to teach the simple standard required of them without going to a Normal school; the worst were regarded as incapable of improvement by any process. The gradual substitution of better educated, if untrained, men was urged on grounds alike of economy and efficiency, especially if accompanied by a system of payment by results. Under that system it was thought that greater attention would be paid to the middle of the school, while the scholarships would always pull up the first class. The new policy with regard to Normal schools was set forth in a Minute dated 9th September 1875. The Lieutenant-Governor was of opinion that, at least in Bengal proper, teachers for the primary schools could be supplied in abundance from the classes educated in the lower vernacular and middle schools of the country; and that Normal schools for the training of elementary teachers could, except in the most backward Districts, be gradually closed without injury to the cause of elementary vernacular education. Accordingly, a few second and third grade Normal schools were to be kept up, though on a reduced footing, in the backward Provinces of Behar, Chota Nagpur, and Orissa only, where the supply from other sources of qualified teachers for primary schools was not equal to the demand. It was hoped that under the new system the cost of Government Normal schools could be reduced one-half without any sacrifice of efficiency. At the same time, continued improvement in the quality of the in-

TABLE 5.—*Statement showing the number of trained and untrained teachers in Primary Schools.**

Name of Province.	Departmental Schools.				Aided Schools.				Total.				Remarks.
	Total number of teachers (masters and assistants, excluding pupil-teachers).	Number of certificated (*a*) teachers.	Number of uncertificated teachers.	Percentage of certificated (*a*) to total number of teachers.	Total number of teachers (masters and assistants, excluding pupil-teachers).	Number of certificated (*a*) teachers.	Number of uncertificated teachers.	Percentage of certificated (*a*) to total number of teachers.	Total number of teachers (masters and assistants, excluding pupil-teachers).	Number of certificated (*a*) teachers.	Number of uncertificated teachers.	Percentage of certificated (*a*) to total number of teachers.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Madras	[No statistics available.]												
Bombay	7,248	2,451	4,797	33·82	...	...	...	...	‡7,248	2,451	4,797	33·82	
Bengal	46	28	18	60·87	46,453	3,330	43,123	7·17	46,499	3,338	43,141	7·22	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	6,208	3,768	2,440	60·69	335	37	298	11·04	6,543	3,805	2,738	58·15	‡ The difference between the number given here and that in the Provincial Report arises from the exclusion of pupil-teachers.
Punjab	2,041	579	1,462	28·36	...	...	...	...	2,041	579	1,462	28·36	
Central Provinces	1,143	998	145	87·31	382	129	253	33·77	‡1,525	1,127	398	73·90	
Assam	...	...	...	...	1,389	673	716	48·45	1,389	673	716	48·45	
Coorg	81	66	15	81·48	3	1	2	33·33	84	67	17	79·76	
Hyderabad Assigned Districts	1,011	182	829	18·00	22	1	211	·47	1,223	183	1,040	14·96	
Total for India†	17,778	8,072	9,706	45·40	48,774	4,171	44,603	8·55	66,552	12,243	54,309	18·39	

* Both Boys' and Girls' Schools are included.

† Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

(*a*) The term *certificated* has a somewhat wide meaning in this Table. In Bombay and the Central Provinces all the teachers so returned have won certificates of merit after going through a two-year or a three-year course in a high-class Training College. In some of the other Provinces the term *certificated* implies that the teacher has gained a pupil-teacher's certificate in a Primary School.

TABLE 6.—*Statement showing the number of Training Schools for Vernacular Teache... in 1881-82.*

Number of Training Schools.	Provinces and Class of Institutions.	Number of students on the rolls on 31st March 1882.	Classification of the students by race or creed. Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Sikhs.	Native Christians.	Others.	Total expenditure on Training Schools.	Total cost of training each student. (b)	Number of students who in 1881-82 left with training certificates of various grades.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Training Schools							R	R a. p.		
28	Madras . For men .	770	561	41	...	167	1	61,038	82 14 1	344	
4	For women.	157	7	...	...	144	6	16,467	104 3 6	25	
32	Total .	927	568	41	...	311	7	77,505	89 11 1	369	
7	Bombay . For men .	480	392	42	...	46	...	a 64,706	135 14 11	141	
2	For women.	73	62	1	...	4	6	a 19,485	299 12 3	8	
9*	Total .	553	454	43	...	50	6	84,191	155 9 11	149	*These institutions are first grade training colleg Hence the high rate of c given in column 10.
20	Bengal . For men .	†1,007	585	55	...	288	79	83,562	93 0 10	‖459	†Of this number 30 are gir †Europeans and Eurasians
2	For women.	41	....	...	...	30	‡11	6,739	192 8 8	§...	§Training certificates are n issued to mistresses.
22	Total .	1,048	585	55	...	318	90	¶90,301	96 12 6	459†	‖Of this number 266 obtain certificates for Pandits a the remaining 193 for G rus.
18	North-Western Provinces and Oudh. For men .	306	251	55	...	...	...	36,687	121 14 2	369	
3	For women.	89	6	...	...	83	...	6,671	82 5 9	7	
21	Total .	395	257	55	...	83	...	¶43,358	113 8 0	376	¶Includes expenditure on t half of pupils training f Middle Schools.
4	Punjab . For men .	220	98	101	14	7	..	34,886	116 8 1	98	
3	For women.	138	42	59	33	4	...	17,197	161 3 1	Statistics not available.	
7	Total .	358	140	160	47	11	...	52,083	143 1 4	98	
3	Central Provinces. For men .	171	155	14	...	...	2	19,356	115 14 6	95	
1	For women.	17	17	...	...	...	...	5,132	270 1 8	2	
4	Total .	e188	172	14	...	...	2	24,488	131 10 5	97	
9	Assam . For men .	**331	171	28	...	81	51	17,940	63 9 10	19	**Including 9 girls.
...	For women.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
9	Total .	331	171	28	...	81	51	¶ 17,940	63 9 10	19	
1	Coorg . For men .	7	7	...	...	...	...	†† 1,890	315 0 0	7	††Including Rs. 1,200, penditure on the Boa School.
...	For women.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
1	Total .	7	7	...	...	...	...	1,890	315 0 0	7	
1	H. A. Districts . For men .	79	66	13	...	...	...	‡‡ 8,571	119 0 8	19	‡‡Includes Rs. 4,720 count of stipends to under training.
...	For women.	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
1	Total .	79	66	13	...	...	...	8,571	119 0 8	19	
91	Total for India (c) For men .	3,371	2,286	349	14	589	133	3,28,636	104 3 1	1,551	
15	For women.	515	134	60	33	265	23	71,691	141 10 10	42	
106	Total (d) .	3,886	2,420	409	47	854	156	4,00,327	b 109 6 0	1,593	

a.—Inclusive of building and other miscellaneous charges, which have not been returned by the other Provinces.
b.—The total cost of educating each student has been calculated on the average monthly number of the students enrolled.
c.—Excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
d.—Excluding 2 Training schools in Ajmir, with 23 pupils. The total expenditure incurred on these schools was Rs. 1,388.
e.—There are also 10 pupil-teachers in Sambalpur under training, who are under special agreements, and the masters who receive a bonus on their passing the teacher's certificate examination. Nine passed and were employed.

183. Madras: Normal Schools and Teachers.—It is unfortunate that the statistics supplied from Madras should be insufficient to enable us to fill in the first Table. But the deliberate policy pursued in Madras, of improving and not merely of incorporating the indigenous schools, has left its mark upon the *personnel* of indigenous schoolmasters. The progress is more marked in some Districts than in others. In Malabar 150 masters in 672 indigenous schools are returned as having been trained in a Normal school, and in the Godavari District there are 89 masters so returned in 641 schools. It is true that in 11,264 indigenous schools throughout the Presidency there are only 480 masters returned as thoroughly trained and 208 more who hold certificates. But these returns are reasonably held to be far below the proper estimate. An examination of the returns of the last twenty-three years shows that more than 5,800 trained masters have received fourth and fifth grade certificates. The number of those who have died, or abandoned the profession of teaching, or have been promoted to secondary schools must be a matter of conjecture; but in the opinion of the Madras Provincial Committee it is probable that 3,000 certificated teachers are engaged in primary education. The number of elementary Normal schools has rapidly increased of late years, and it is believed that their annual outturn is represented by at least 500 trained men; so that every hope is entertained of speedily overtaking the demand, and of supplying nearly all the indigenous schools with competent teachers. Provision for training primary teachers is made in 28 Normal schools, of which one is maintained from provincial resources, 24 from local funds and 3 are aided. The number of pupils in 1881-82 was 770. Of these, 166 learnt English, 14 a classical language, and 763 a vernacular; three-fourths of the students were thus being prepared for teaching in the vernacular only. Of the 770 pupils 167 were Native Christians, 561 were Hindus, 41 Mussalmans, and one was a Eurasian. The standard aimed at in these schools is what is termed the "special upper primary examination," of which the course will be found given in Appendix B of the Madras Provincial Report.

Position of Teachers.—The pay and prospects of teachers in the public primary schools of Madras are said to be greatly superior to those of the indigenous schoolmasters who receive no aid. They are employed in three classes of schools—first, private schools aided by result grants; secondly, the schools aided by local fund boards and municipalities on the "combined system" which will be described in Chapter VIII; and thirdly, in schools aided by the same boards on the "salary grant system." In the first class of schools the average income of a village school-teacher is estimated at Rs. 7 a month. The teachers in the second class hold a better position, not merely as being assured of a fixed salary, but also as being servants of public boards. Their fixed salary averages Rs. 5, and their contingent income about Rs. 2-8 in addition. Thirdly, in local fund and municipal "salary grant schools," the salaries vary from Rs. 5 for an assistant to Rs. 10 or Rs. 12 for a head-master. Some boards, however, pay much more; in the Saidapet Local Fund primary school, for example, the salaries rise as high as Rs. 25. Generally only masters who have passed the Matriculation examination can secure salaries of Rs. 18 or Rs. 20. The salaries contemplated in the Grant-in-aid Code for masters in the primary classes of secondary schools range from Rs. 20 to Rs. 30 in the upper section, and from Rs. 7 to Rs. 20 in the lower section.

184. Bombay: Normal Schools and Teachers.—In 1881-82 there were 7 training colleges for male teachers, 4 maintained by Government, 2 in Native States, and one under private management. These had 480 students on the rolls, and 141 left during the year with certificates of training; while the out-

turn for the ten years, 1871-81, was 1,718. The total number of teachers employed in the cess schools at the end of 1881-82 was 9,314. Of these, 4,565 were head or sole masters, of whom 2,077, or 45·45 per cent., held training college certificates; 2,683 were assistant masters, of whom 374, or 14 per cent., were certificated, and 2,066 were pupil-teachers. Of the 2,488 masters returned as untrained, 1,371 received salaries amounting to less than Rs. 10 a month. These men are placed in charge of branch or small village-schools, for which teachers with a special college training are declared to be unnecessary. At present, at any rate, the Department would not be justified in appointing to such schools a more expensive agency, especially as the masters now in charge have nearly all passed an examination in the highest vernacular standard and are not incompetent to perform the duties entrusted to them.

Position of Teachers.—The Bombay Provincial Committee give a complete list of the salaries paid to teachers in the cess schools, from which it appears that 59 per cent. of them receive salaries not exceeding Rs. 10 a month. All who are permanently engaged on a salary exceeding Rs. 10 are entitled to pensions payable from local fund revenues. Those masters, moreover, who have been instructed in the Normal schools receive, in addition to the minimum pay named in their college certificates, an allowance calculated on the results of the annual examination of their schools and on the average attendance of their pupils during the year. This system of payment by results works fairly well. It enables the trained master of a large and flourishing school to almost double the minimum pay of his rank; but there is a certain drawback to the system in the varying attendance of the village schools, in consequence of which the income of the master is affected by causes independent of his merit. The highest monthly pay given to the head-master of any primary school rarely exceeds Rs. 60 a month, but teachers of long and approved service are eligible for Assistant Deputy Inspectorships, the pay of which post is Rs. 75. The prospects of a vernacular schoolmaster are not considered to be equal to those of an officer of similar status in the Revenue Department. Still the former occupies a respectable position in native society. In ninety schools out of a hundred he is a Brahman. In the rura districts he is often chosen to manage the village post-office, by which arrangement he secures additional pay and importance; and in towns he is not unfrequently a member of the Municipal Committee. On the whole, it may be said that the cess schools have succeeded in attracting a competent class of men whose position secures respect for the office of schoolmaster, and who in point of education and intelligence are rather above the average of subordinate officers in other branches of the public service.

185. Bengal: Normal Schools and Teachers.—We have already quoted the statement contained in the Bengal Provincial Report that the training of teachers from outside must necessarily be out of place in the Bengal system. It will therefore at first sight occasion some surprise to see how large an expenditure is annually incurred on Normal schools in that Province. The explanation will be found in the remarks made in an early part of this Chapter upon the Bengal primary system. That system extends into secondary education, since middle and high schools have primary classes attached to them. For the real primary schools of Bengal there are only 12 Normal schools in backward Districts, of which 8 are Government institutions attended by 248 pupils, and the rest are aided institutions. Besides these there are guru classes attached to 2 first grade Normal schools. The total outturn from the Government institutions was 193 in the year under review. The course occupies from six months to one year, whereas in Bombay it varies from two to three years.

The other 8 Normal schools were attended by 466 pupils, who are training for teacherships in the middle schools. Their course extends over three years, and includes a classical language, vernacular mathematics and science, up to some point which is above rather than below the First Arts standard of the Calcutta University.

Position of Teachers.—On this subject the following extracts are taken from the Provincial Report: "The average annual pay of the teacher of an "upper primary school is estimated at above Rs. 100 in cash, of which Rs. 48 "are from Government and 52 from local sources; besides occasional payments "in kind and clothes, and in many instances gratuitous maintenance by some "well-to-do villager. The average income of the teacher of a lower primary "school probably falls short of Rs. 100 a year. The Government contribution "varies, under the result system, from Rs. 16 to the lowest average of Rs. 4; "under the stipendiary system the average payment is Rs. 31 a year; and under "a mixed system Rs. 39. A very large number of the teachers of lower primary "schools have free board and lodging in respectable households. Cases are "coming to be known of primary school-teachers seeking for promotion, and "getting it as assistant teachers of middle schools, with some improvement to "their position, but with no gain, as they quickly find, to their income." It would, however, appear that the pay of all these masters, and especially of the lower primary schoolmasters, has been over-estimated. For in the General Table of Expenditure it is shown that the total cost of 46,453 aided boys' schools was less than 19 lakhs, including fees, all other local receipts, and the Government grant, which was not quite 26 per cent. of the whole cost. According to these figures each school enjoys an average annual income of Rs. 40 only. But average calculations are very misleading, and no accurate estimate can be formed of the value of fees paid in kind. According to a careful calculation made at page 127 of the Report, the small amount of the grants given in Bengal will be seen from the following figures:—

	Rs.
2,059 stipendiary schools at	31·1 per school per annum.
4,658 aided by stipends and rewards at . .	39 „ „ „
33,867 aided by rewards at	5·5 „ „ „
5,680 registered schools at	1·7 „ „ „

186. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Normal Schools and Teachers.—This Province has always paid systematic attention to the training of teachers, and it is estimated that 58 per cent. of the masters hold certificates. There are 18 training schools for male teachers, and the course of instruction lasts one year. Kumaon is the only revenue Division which is not supplied with a Normal school. The Department endeavours to obtain for these schools young men who have passed the middle class vernacular examination, who are fairly well acquainted with the subjects which they will have to teach, and who require chiefly to be trained in the art of teaching. In Oudh there is a central Normal school at Lucknow, and in the other districts there are Normal classes attached to tahsili schools (one in each District), where teachers are trained in a similar manner. These latter teachers serve at first as apprentices, and if they give satisfaction are appointed permanently as vacancies occur.

Position of Teachers.—The monthly pay of halkabandi school-teachers varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 12. Able and deserving men may be promoted to tahsili teacherships on Rs. 10, Rs. 15, and Rs. 20, and may become Sub-Deputy Inspectors, and possibly Deputy Inspectors. The great majority of halkabandi teachers, however, have little chance of ever getting more than Rs. 12 a month,

and they have no claim to superannuation pensions or gratuities. The total number of halkabandi teachers is 5,731, of whom more than half are certificated, and the proportion is yearly increasing.

187. Punjab: Normal Schools and Teachers.—There are three Government training schools for vernacular teachers. The students are almost all stipendiaries drawn from the Districts. Students who have passed the middle school examination join the second-year class and receive a year's training before they are examined for a certificate. The rest complete the full course of two years. The Christian Vernacular Education Society at Amritsar has a training school with 31 pupils. In the Government schools there are 170 stipendiary studentships. The Report remarks that in future, "when these "students are all sufficiently instructed before joining to require only one year's "training, the annual outturn should not be less than 150, which would be suffi-"cient to supply the vacancies which occur in all existing schools." At present the number of teachers in Government primary schools, English and Vernacular, is about 2,500. In Government vernacular schools there were, in 1881, 1,284 head teachers, of whom 459 held certificates. Of these certificates, 168 qualify the holders to teach in middle schools, and 281 in primary schools. The number of assistant teachers was 757, of whom 120 held certificates, 56 of the middle school class, and 64 of the primary school class. Among untrained teachers and assistants, 77 had passed the Punjab University Entrance examination, and 305 the middle school examination. A few others have passed the special examinations of the Punjab University College in Oriental languages, or have studied in Government vernacular high schools. In aided schools the number of trained teachers is small, but no figures are supplied. In departmental schools nearly 1,000 teachers, or two-fifths of the whole number, hold certificates of a Normal school, or have passed some equivalent public examination.

Position of Teachers.—In 1869 a scheme for improving the prospects and pay of teachers in the departmental schools of the Punjab was sanctioned, under which the minimum pay of a schoolmaster, excepting assistants, was fixed at Rs. 10. This involved a large reduction in the number of schools and scholars, as additional funds had to be provided from the cess and local funds, but it materially improved the position of the teachers. As in other Provinces, there are a certain number of attached primary schools in which the teachers receive salaries as low as Rs. 6.

188. Central Provinces: Normal Schools and Teachers.—In no Province of India, except the small district of Coorg, has greater success attended the systematic effort of the Department to improve teachers than in the Central Provinces. There are three Normal (Government) schools, one at Jábalpur with 97 scholarships, another at Nagpur with 40, and the third at Raipur with 50. Village masters are trained for one year and town masters for two. All agree to serve for at least two years after qualifying. In the Government schools 87 per cent. of the masters are trained, which gives a higher percentage than in any other Province of India, while in aided schools the percentage is as high as it is in the cess schools of Bombay.

Position of Teachers.—The pay of vernacular teachers in the Government primary schools varies from Rs. 6 to 35 a month. Those who draw less than Rs. 6 are monitors or pupil-teachers. Many of the masters are respected in the villages, and some of them are employed as village postmasters, or allowed to sell licenses under the forest regulations.

189. Assam: Normal Schools and Teachers.—There were 9 Normal schools, 6 of which were departmental with 220 pupils and 3 aided mission with 111, besides 2 training classes with 23 pupils in Cachar. Arrangements have been made in the Goalpara District to train teachers at ten primary schools, the estimated number of stipendiaries being 80. In 1881-82 eighteen students qualified for first grade primary schoolmasterships, and one for a second. During the year the various schools and classes sent out 96 teachers, making the total since 1871 1,132. In the primary and lower vernacular schools there were 1,389 teachers, of whom 673 were trained and 716 untrained. The importance of improving the teachers of aided schools in this Province is fully recognised, and the Inspector observes that "the supply of qualified teachers is "not nearly equal to the demand, and it is much better not to start a primary "school at all than to start one with a bad teacher who brings discredit on "our system of education."

Position of Teachers.—A guru's pay varies from Rs. 3 to Rs. 6 a month in ordinary pathsalas. In special cases in pathsalas for hill tribes, the guru's pay is Rs. 10. In the Khasi and Jaintia Hills the pay of the teacher is on an average about Rs. 12 per mensem. According to the report of the Inspector, the teachers, besides their regular pay, are allowed to keep whatever they can collect from fees; this makes the average pay of a teacher in a primary school to be nearly Rs. 5 a month. In making this calculation, all primary schools—Government, aided, and unaided—are included. If these be taken separately, the monthly income of a teacher exclusive of payment in kind is as follows: In Government police schools five teachers at Rs. 10, and two teachers at Rs. 12 each; in aided schools each teacher gets on an average Rs. 6-8, and in unaided schools each teacher gets on an average less than Rs. 2. A few of the best gurus occasionally are promoted to be teachers in middle schools; but with this exception they have no prospect of improving their position.

190. Coorg: Normal Schools and Position of Teachers.—For the training of vernacular teachers, a Normal class is maintained at Merkara in connection with the central school. Candidates for teacherships, who are selected as far as possible from among the pupil-teachers of schools, receive Rs. 5 a month while under training, and have quarters in the boarding-house. They are periodically examined, and on completing a course up to the middle-school standard, and passing a satisfactory examination, are appointed to schools as vacancies occur. Their pay commences at Rs. 7 a month, with the prospect of rising to Rs. 10 after five years' satisfactory service, and to Rs. 12 after five years more. Normal students who fail to pass the final examination, but are yet considered qualified for a lower teachership, are made assistant masters on Rs. 5 a month. The pupil-teachers are promising boys who have done well in the school and wish to become masters. They receive Rs. 3 a month and teach in junior classes, to allow of an opinion being formed of their aptitude for the work. All the Canarese masters are reported to have received some measure of training.

191. Haidarabad Assigned Districts: Normal Schools and Position of Teachers.—There is one training school at Akola, with Marathi and Hindustani branches, the latter with 15 stipends, and the former with 60. There is both a first and a second year's course. Students passing the first year's course, but not qualified for the second, are sent out on salaries not exceeding Rs. 10. The second year men get Rs. 15, or from Rs. 10 to 12, according as they pass in the first or the second class. At the examination held in 1881, there

were 28 examinees, and 19 passed, those who failed being appointed assistant teachers on lower salaries. The trained masters who begin on Rs. 12 or Rs. 15 per mensem can rise to Rs. 25, if they give satisfaction and show good results. Assistant teachers on lower salaries are taken from the pupils of vernacular and Anglo-vernacular schools, and those on higher salaries are men who have matriculated or have finished the high school course, or have, by their long service, experience, and satisfactory work, established their claim to promotion. It has already been mentioned that a large proportion of the masters in these Districts are foreigners, but it is hoped that the Normal school will in a few years succeed in turning out a sufficient number of trained teachers who are residents of Berar. On the 31st March 1882, there were 418 posts of teachers with salaries varying from Rs. 12 to Rs. 25 per mensem, and 262 of them were held by persons who had not gone through or passed a training school-course.

192. Recommendations as to the Supply and Position of Teachers.—We have already stated our Recommendations for providing in every Inspector's Division facilities for training and improving the teachers not merely of Government but also of aided institutions. In Madras the importance of the subject has been fully recognised. In Bombay, if the indigenous schools are further encouraged and assisted, as we think they ought to be, additional Normal schools must be provided, and it will be a matter for consideration whether a less severe test should not be prescribed, and the course shortened. In connection with this subject we call attention to a Recommendation which will be found in Chapter VIII that the "teachers in non-Government "institutions be allowed to present themselves for examination for any grade of "certificate required by the grant-in-aid rules without being compelled to attend "a Normal school." In Bengal the Normal schools for strictly primary schools are according to our view inadequate, and more systematic and sustained endeavours should be made to improve the teachers of indigenous schools, whether in the way suggested by Sir George Campbell, or according to any modifications of his system which may be approved by the Local Government. In the North-Western Provinces much has been accomplished, but in the Punjab the results are less satisfactory. If our Recommendations regarding the treatment of indigenous schools are carried out in these two Provinces, additional and revised measures will have to be considered. In the Central Provinces and Coorg no suggestions are called for. In Assam a steady development of the policy now pursued will effect much improvement; but in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts greater facilities for training teachers are required. We may expect that in providing Normal schools, private enterprise will assist Government, and in that case the patronage at the disposal of Government should be freely bestowed on the best qualified candidates irrespectively of the institutions in which they are trained.

As regards the position of teachers, we have thought it best to make no formal Recommendations. It was suggested that the Local Governments should be invited to consider the propriety of conferring additional duties in connection with the revenue, postal, and forest Departments upon schoolmasters. But in respect to revenue duties, we recognised the danger of interference with the functions of hereditary village officers; and as regards the other Departments, we observed that the experiment had been attended in Bombay as well in the Central Provinces with some measure of success, and we anticipate that the example will be followed, if convenient, in other parts of India. All parties are agreed as to the advantage of raising the status of the village schoolmaster, and the measures appropriate to that end may be left to

the local authorities. The provision of liberal aid to indigenous schoolmasters is obviously the most simple and effectual means of raising their position.

193. Fees; and Exemptions.—Table 7 given in paragraph 219 of this Report will show the extent to which fees support primary education in each Province; and in Chapter VIII we shall revert to the subject. It is necessary to repeat the caution which has been conveyed throughout this part of the Report against hasty comparisons between the returns which indigenous schoolmasters submit, and those more accurate statistics which are collected under the departmental system. In indigenous schools where fees are paid without regularity and in kind as well as in money, it must be a matter of conjecture what is the money value of the teacher's receipts. But, speaking generally, the fees in the local fund and municipal schools of Madras are left to the option of the boards and are fixed too low. Still Madras collects in the shape of fees a larger proportionate amount than almost any other Province, especially in its aided schools. In the Bombay cess schools a certain percentage of free scholars is permitted, the proportion being regulated by the situation of the school, but the rule is that fees are charged, though at a reduced rate, even to the children of cess-payers. Some of the witnesses have urged that the fees might be raised at any rate in towns, and this has lately been successfully attempted in the larger towns of Bombay. Others have pleaded for a free education to the whole rural population on the ground of its general poverty. In backward Districts for aboriginal or specially poor races, and in girls' schools, no fees are charged. In rural Bengal according to the returns furnished by the indigenous schoolmasters the fees would appear to be large. In the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, and to some extent in the Central Provinces, contributors to the local cess are exempted from all payments of fees. For full details as to the amount realised by fees in every class of school and in every Province we must refer to Table 8 given towards the end of this Chapter.

194. Recommendations as to Fees.—We think it generally desirable that even in primary schools fees should be raised as far as is consistent with the spread of education. As regards the propriety of demanding schooling fees from all pupils in the Punjab schools, we may call attention to the Secretary of State's Despatch No. 14, dated April 8th, 1861. The writer of that Despatch remarks that "there do not seem to me to be any circumstances which would "justify the continued exemption of the Punjab from the rule prevailing in other "parts of India under which schooling fees are universally exacted." In our opinion the levy of some fee should be the general rule. Accordingly we recommend *that pupils in municipal or local board-schools be not entirely exempted from payment of fees merely on the ground that they are the children of rate-payers.* The adoption of this Recommendation will create a great change in Northern India. We base our Recommendation not merely on the example of Madras and Bombay, where rate-payers are subject to the payment of fees, but on the broader grounds of justice to the numerous rate-payers in Northern India, who, though they contribute to the cess, are not supplied with a public primary school, whether departmental or aided. The whole educational fund is inadequate to the supply of schools for every group of villages, and those who enjoy the advantage of a school should contribute towards its cost so as to promote the establishment of similar institutions elsewhere. But we do not overlook the wants of the struggling poor, or of exceptionally backward races and tracts. We therefore propose to limit the general rule by the following Recommendation, *that in all board-schools a certain propor-*

tion of pupils be admissible as free students on the ground of poverty; and in the case of special schools, established for the benefit of the poorer classes, a general or larger exemption from payment of fees be allowed under proper authority for special reasons. While the case of departmental schools is thus provided for, we would also extend our general principle to aided schools, and accordingly we recommend *that, subject to the exemption of a certain proportion of free students on account of poverty, fees, whether in money or kind, be levied in all aided schools, but the proceeds be left entirely at the disposal of the school managers.*

195. Scholarship System.—We have now to consider various measures adopted in the different Provinces for stimulating the interest of pupils and encouraging parents to send their children to primary schools. It will be seen that there is nothing like uniformity throughout India. In the first place we shall enquire into the provision made for scholarships and prizes, and afterwards into the measures adopted for giving the best pupils from primary schools employment in the public service. The following Table shows the number and value of scholarships held in primary schools, but we must observe that some of them are tenable for two or even three years, and others only for one year. The Table will not therefore represent the annual expenditure.

TABLE 4.—*The number and value of Scholarships tenable in primary Schools.*

Name of Province.	Number of Scholarships.	Total monthly value.	Total annual value.
1	2	3	4
		R a. p.	R
Madras	Not returned.	2 2 8	26
Bombay	23	80 8 0	966
Bengal	385	770 0 0	9,240
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	None.	...	...
Punjab	Not returned but number stated to be small.		
Central Provinces	283	725 5 4	8,704
Assam	108	324 0 0	3,888
Coorg	None.	...	...
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	None.	...	...
Total for India	799	1,902 0 0	22,824

The Despatch of 1854 directed that "the best pupils of the inferior schools "should be provided for by means of scholarships in schools of a higher order, "so that superior talent in every class may receive that encouragement and "development which it deserves." This instruction has not been literally or uniformly carried out, and deviations from the policy laid down in the Despatch have been justified on various grounds. In order to understand these grounds it is necessary to explain the functions which a scholarship system in primary schools is designed to fulfil. Scholarships may in the first place enable a pupil to proceed from an inferior primary school to one of a superior

order, and in the second place from a primary to a secondary school. Again, a scholarship system unites to a certain extent various educational agencies, since it possesses the unquestioned advantage of enabling aided schools to compete with departmental schools for a prize open to both. We shall see that, with the exception of Bengal, no complete scholarship system is to be found in any Province of India. Even in that Province the system is not developed up to the needs of the community. But before inquiring into the present circumstances of each Province we shall examine a preliminary objection that has been taken to expenditure on scholarships. It is urged that under the departmental system the necessity for a chain of scholarships is not felt. Hence in Bombay the tendency has been to reduce scholarships and to rely almost exclusively on free studentships. There is some force in this argument; and up to a certain point a liberal provision of free studentships does carry out part of the objects of the Despatch. In the Bombay primary system there is no division between the inferior village school for the masses and the superior primary departments of secondary schools for the education of the more well-to-do classes of society. In fact all boys, whatever their future course of study, learn the same subjects in the ordinary primary school. Hence no bridge is required to lead from primary schools of an inferior to those of a superior order. The first object then of a scholarship system is met in Bombay by the constitution of the primary school, which is complete in itself up to the point where secondary education commences. As almost all the primary schools are departmental, the Department is able to institute free studentships, and these provide sufficiently for the wants of poor pupils who find in the village school the best primary education which the State can supply. It is at the stage where the primary school is quitted for the middle school that the need for a scholarship system begins to be felt in Bombay. Here again a provision of free studentships for promising boys is made, but a scholarship system is meant to do more than meet school fees; it is intended to meet also the extra cost of leaving home and of studying at the middle class school. In Bombay the provision of scholarships at this stage is very small. The Bombay Department argues that the middle schools are filled, and that there is no need to stimulate a demand for secondary education. Its policy is to economise in secondary education, and so long as the schools maintained by the Department are filled it would be a waste of money to supply scholarships. The Secretary of State expressed entire approbation of the policy pursued by Sir A. Grant in his endeavours to check the increase in departmental secondary schools, and one of the measures adopted with that object was to reduce the number of scholarships. To these arguments it must be replied that, whatever may be the advantages of the Bombay system, it does not provide all those facilities for poor or clever pupils which the Despatch of 1854 advocated. Moreover, the absence of a liberal scholarship system in that Presidency prevents the Department from offering to aided schools that encouragement and assistance which, as we have pointed out, can be so naturally supplied by a chain of scholarships. In Bengal, on the other hand, the system provides for all these wants. In this Province there is a fundamental division between inferior and superior primary schools, and in order to bridge over the separation between them, lower primary scholarships have been established, which are tenable in upper primary schools. Inasmuch as nearly all the primary schools in Bengal are aided institutions, the Department cannot impose upon their managers any provision of free studentships, and hence the necessity for a provision of scholarships is apparent. Between the primary schools and the secondary schools a further connection is established by a still more liberal provision of scholarships tenable in middle

schools. It has been urged, however, that the provision is inadequate. It is true that only in rare cases of exceptional ability is it necessary to bridge the gulf by such means. Thus Sir George Campbell's Resolution of September 1872 expressed the intention of the Bengal Government in these terms: "To the really able boys at pathsalas opportunities for advancement will be "offered by a chain of scholarships, the gainers of which can pass through the "several grades of schools up to a University degree." Still it may be questioned whether the present provision of primary scholarships is equal to the requirements of a primary system constituted as that of Bengal is. The statistics available to the Commission do not enable us to make any distinction between the pupils in village and town schools, and we cannot therefore determine what number of village school-boys have ascended to a superior primary school by means of scholarships. But the number of scholarships has received no great addition since their first institution by Sir George Campbell, although the number of schools which may compete for them has largely increased. In 1881-82 there were only 651 scholarships tenable in middle schools for competition amongst more than 850,000 pupils. Much therefore remains to be done in extending scholarships for primary schools; but the importance of the system for Bengal has been explained. Speaking generally, it may be said that in proportion as any provincial system of primary education rests less upon Government schools than upon aided or indigenous institutions, so does the need for developing a scholarship system as contrasted with that of free studentships increase. This has been fully recognised in the Central Provinces. In Madras, however, no scholarships are given in primary schools, though their establishment is under consideration. In considering secondary education it will be seen what provision is made for scholarships in middle schools. But under the circumstances it is clear that in Madras a liberal system of providing assistance for primary scholars proceeding to secondary schools is urgently required. This want is emphasised by a passage in the Madras Report, in which it is stated that the children of peasants have no special provision made for their education in middle schools, and take no advantage of these institutions. The only public service examination in Madras is the middle school examination, and therefore the door to the public service is closed against the peasant proprietary. In other Provinces the need will be felt more largely, as the proportion of aided primary schools increases. The subject will be noticed under secondary education, and it is therefore sufficient to remark here that we there recommend that "in all Provinces the system of scholarships be so "arranged that, as suggested in the Despatch of 1854, they may form connect-"ing links between the different grades of institutions."

196. Prizes.—No notice is taken of prizes in the Report of our Bengal Provincial Committee, but rewards amounting to nearly Rs. 30,000 are distributed to pupils at the central examinations. In Bombay, the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab, regular but moderate provision is made for prizes in departmental schools in each Inspector's Division, and the same plan is followed in the Central Provinces. In short, under the departmental systems encouragement by means of prizes is never neglected, but where the primary schools are aided institutions, no aid is afforded to the managers except in Bengal in providing prizes for their pupils.

197. Public Patronage.—The most efficacious of all encouragements to the spread of education is that supplied by the bestowal of public appointments upon educated candidates. Unfortunately no lever for raising education is less systematically applied. In many parts of India the responsible officers

ıtrusted with public patronage, yielding to the solicitations of friends or ollowing their own discretion, regard the imposition of a fixed standard of ualification as a troublesome trammel. The appointments to which we here efer are of two sorts—those which may be conferred without any limitation s to the area of selection, and those which must be conferred as the heredi-ıry possession of certain families. In reference to these two classes the Des-atch of 1854 remarked: "We have learnt with satisfaction that the subject of gradually making some educational qualification necessary to the confirm-ation of these hereditary officers is under the consideration of the Government of Bombay, and that a practical educational test is now insisted upon for persons employed in many offices under Government." Ten years before the date of his Despatch, Lord Hardinge, in an order which will be found at page 44 of Mr. Howell's "Note on Education prior to 1854 and in 1870-71," had attempted o throw open the public service to qualified young men; and, with a view to romote the diffusion of knowledge among the humbler classes of the people, ad directed that, "even in the selection of persons to fill the lowest offices under Government, respect be had to the relative acquirements of the candidates, and that in every instance a man who can read or write be preferred to one who cannot." How this order became and remained a dead letter is explained n that Note. With respect to higher appointments in most Provinces of ndia some examination held for boys attending schools of secondary instruc-ion is regarded as fixing a test of qualification for the public service. But t is only in Bombay and the Central Provinces that real and successful ndeavours have been made from a very early date to connect primary schools vith the public service, and thus to stimulate the diffusion of a thorough rimary education, and to open the subordinate ranks of Government service o all classes of the people in a practical way which no scholarship system could o well effect. The theory of the Bombay primary system has been explain-d. It recognises the fact that the great bulk of the rural population can ever afford to leave their villages for a course of higher instruction in the own. To the masses the village school must supply the whole of their educa-ion. The revenue system of Bombay creates a demand for large revenue stablishments and provides for a village accountant and registrar in every illage. The District officers do not desire to recruit their local establishments rom a single class of urban residents. From the very outset, therefore, the District and the educational officers were alike interested in the success of the ural schools. Even before 1852 appointments in the lower grades of the public ervice in Bombay were thrown open to competition at examinations held n each District. The standard was subsequently raised. When standards V and VI were added to the Bombay primary course the present public examination n standard VI was instituted, and the successful candidate now receives a certi-icate qualifying him for the subordinate grades of the public service. To the igher grades of the service a similar door was opened by the addition of a special tandard of examination to the ordinary middle-school course. No candidate an obtain an appointment in the public service in Bombay who cannot produce certificate of having passed one or other of these examinations. The orders of Government do not, however, touch the case of the menial offices to which the atter part of Lord Hardinge's Resolution referred. After several years' rigid nforcement of these rules, the public service examinations have come to be egarded by the public generally as fitting standards of qualification for employ-nent in the various professions of commerce and business. It is held that the opularity of the higher primary standards and the widespread demand for cess chools are very largely due to the policy of the Bombay Government in regu-

lating the patronage of their District Officers in the manner indicated. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts the Bombay officers who laid down the lines of the Education Department advocated the introduction of the same system, but the rules at first prescribed were soon relaxed, and District Officers bestowed the appointments at their disposal without any reference to a public service examination. Recently some improvement has been effected, and selected candidates are required to produce a certificate from the Department. But the heads of offices may relax these rules, and it is not the practice for any candidate to obtain a certificate until he has been provisionally selected. Under such a system the full advantages of a public service examination cannot be realised.

198. Recommendations as to public Patronage.—It does not appear that the standard of primary education has yet reached so high a point in all Provinces of India as to render it possible to open the door to the public service directly out of the primary school course rather than of the middle school course. We have therefore inserted a Recommendation bearing on this subject in Chapter V, and shall here confine our attention to the lowest offices of public employment. We recommend *that the principle laid down in Lord Hardinge's Resolution, dated October 11, 1844, be re-affirmed, i.e., that in selecting persons to fill the lowest offices under Government, preference be always given to those who can read and write.* As regards the hereditary offices of village headman and accountant, we are aware that in many cases a knowledge of reading and writing is insisted upon, but it seems both practicable and advantageous that a higher standard of qualification should be enforced. We therefore recommend that the attention of the Local Governments be called to this matter, and *that the Local Governments, especially those of Bombay and the North-Western Provinces, be invited to consider the advisability of carrying out the suggestion contained in paragraph 96 of the Despatch of 1854, namely, of making some educational qualification necessary to the confirmation of hereditary village officers such as patels and lumbardars.*

199. Night Schools; and School Hours.—Our information regarding the extension of night schools is scant. The subject finds no separate place in the Reports of our Provincial Committees of Madras and Bengal. At the same time, long before Sir George Campbell drew attention to them, their importance had been fully recognised in Bengal, and night-classes have in many cases been attached to improved village schools. No statistics are, however, given. In Bombay, and to a much less extent in the Central Provinces, this class of institution is established on a definite basis. In Bombay there were, in 1881-82, 3,919 scholars attending 134 vernacular night schools, of which 84 were departmental, 48 inspected, and 2 aided. The schools are found in every Division of the Presidency, and are as popular with the Muhammadans as with the Hindus. In addition to them there were 223 night-classes attached to day schools in the Southern Division which were attended by 4,962 persons. At Belgaum one of these classes is attended by 90 students, of whom 60 belong to the low caste of Mahars. The attendance of low-caste men at night schools is an interesting fact. At Kaira, in Gujarat, the night school is exclusively attended by low-caste men, and the townspeople have frequently remonstrated against their education. The schools are chiefly attended by men who have to labour in the day-time, and the instruction is limited to the barest rudiments of reading and writing, and a little ciphering. They have proved a great success, and more are demanded than the Department can supply. In Bombay the Theistic Association has opened two aided night schools for working men and messengers, and they are

attended by 175 pupils. At Kurla, a suburb of Bombay, a night school is attended by factory boys who work all day in the mills; and the Inspector of that Division reports that he has five applications for new schools which his funds will not enable him to open. In the neighbourhood of Calcutta also a few night schools are attached to factories. The experience gained in Bombay proves that night schools may become an assured success not only in towns but in villages. It must often happen that until a man or a boy is brought face to face with the practical needs of his daily life, he will fail to realise the full value of an elementary education, and then without special facilities he cannot obtain such education. For this and many other reasons the demand for night schools will probably increase with due encouragement. We therefore recommend *that night schools be encouraged wherever practicable.* Although the subject of school-hours is not immediately connected with night schools, yet it will find appropriate mention here, because the success of night schools in Bombay illustrates the advantage of studying the convenience and habits of the people. The factory boy and the field labourer cannot attend school in the day-time, and they must remain ignorant just when they most feel the want of knowledge, unless the arrangements of the Department or of school managers are made to fit into the scheme of their daily avocations. In all departmental systems there is great danger arising from the rigidity of fixed rules, which require constant re-adjustment to varying wants. Even the hours of labour differ in different Provinces of India, and the seasons of sowing and reaping vary with the class of cultivation. The indigenous schools as a rule recognise these distinctions, and the Departments should not be less considerate. Accordingly we recommend *that as much elasticity as possible be permitted, as regards both the hours of the day and the seasons of year, during which the attendance of scholars is required, especially in agricultural villages and backward Districts.*

200. Special Attempts made in backward Districts, or for special Classes.—Even night schools and the most considerate arrangements respecting school-hours will not be sufficient to attract those classes which have inherited a position of social subjection, or which prefer the freedom of forest or mountain and the pursuit of game to the monotony of the school. If the aboriginal races are to be educated, no reliance can be placed upon the indigenous schools, which have never aimed at attracting them until they have become part of the Hindu social system; nor will the departmental schools, unless organised to meet their wants, be more successful. Besides the aboriginal or half-civilised races, there is a large population which is found in every Hindu village community and which usually lives on the outskirt of the village settlement, whose education has practically been ignored and in many parts of India resisted by the higher castes. It has been shown in the last paragraph that notwithstanding the remonstrances of their neighbours the Mahars of Bombay are in some places crowding into the night school. The half-civilised and the low-caste races form two divisions of the Indian population whose education presents special difficulties throughout the Empire. Again, in some parts of India a very different class from those just mentioned, consisting of certain sections of the Muhammadan community, have sunk, owing to causes which will be considered in Chapter IX, into a deplorable state of ignorance from which they can only be extricated by the application of special remedies. This remark by no means applies to the whole Muhammadan community whose position has greatly improved in recent years so far as primary education of the modern type is concerned. But in some parts of the country

they and other once dominant races still require special help. Finally, abject poverty has fallen to the lot not merely of certain classes of the community, but even of the lower strata of the very highest castes, who are altogether unable to find the few annas required for their school-fees. Thus, four causes exist which practically place the four classes of Indian society to which they severally apply under the ban of ignorance. They may be summarised as want of civilisation, lowness of caste, loss of political status, and extreme poverty. In Chapter IX we shall revert to this subject. We here confine ourselves to a brief notice of what has been done for the primary education of each of these four classes, and to a statement of our Recommendations.

201. Education of aboriginal Races.—In three Provinces of India—Bombay, Bengal, and the Central Provinces—the problem of attracting to school the aboriginal population, numbering 932,000 in Bombay, 2,056,000 in Bengal, and 1,754,000 in the Central Provinces, or altogether about 74 per cent. of the whole aboriginal population of India, is beset with difficulties. Two attempts demand special notice here. The first was unsuccessful, though it deserved a better fate. In the Western Division of the "forest-reserves" in the Central Provinces, endeavours were made in 1870 to attract the Kurkus to certain special schools which were placed under the joint control of the Forest and the Education Departments. The instruction was to be as simple as possible, and a carpenter's and blacksmith's shop was to be attached to each school. The prospect of forest employment was held out as an inducement to the people to send their children to the schools. Experience proved that European supervision was essential, and the scheme failed for want of it. In Bengal another plan was tried. The education of the various non-Hindu races that inhabit the frontier tracts of Bengal was entrusted to the zeal of missionary societies, and liberal grants were from very early days given to those who were prepared to undertake the task. Thus the Kols and other aboriginal races in Chota Nagpur, the Santhals on the confines of Bengal proper, the Khonds in Orissa, and the Paharias of Darjeeling, as well as the Khasis and others in Assam, have all received some measure of attention. The Missionaries have been specially successful in training young Santhals and Kols as teachers, and have overcome a great difficulty by thus providing masters acceptable to the tribes. At Ranchi, in Chota Nagpur, the Berlin mission has maintained for many years an artizan class for Kol pupils, which with liberal aid from Government has been very successful. But while the bulk of the work has been entrusted to missionaries, the Department has not been idle. Not only has it maintained primary schools for the aboriginal tribes in Eastern Bengal, but it has also established a few secondary schools for their benefit at Chaibasa in Singbhoom, at Darjeeling, and in Chittagong. Altogether by one agency or another nearly 20,000 aboriginal children are being educated. In Bombay, the departmental system has made some progress which though not so conspicuous as in Bengal is greater than that reported by the Department in the Central Provinces. There are now 2,713 aboriginal boys at schools, of whom 2,176 are in cess schools. But this success purchased by great efforts gives little hope of overtaking the enormous task before Government. Experience has proved that sympathetic European effort is essential, and that no Department can adequately supply this want. It is hopeless to depend on indigenous schools, but that consideration does not preclude other forms of aided enterprise. Meanwhile the Departments must continue to labour; but ultimately we look to the philanthropy of missionary and other societies to cope with the special difficulties in the way. We therefore recommend *that primary education be extended in backward Districts, specially in those inhabited mainly by aboriginal races, by the instrumentality of the Department pending the creation of school-boards, or by specially liberal grants-in-aid to those who are willing to set up and maintain schools.* We shall have to revert to this subject in a subsequent Chapter, but it may be mentioned here that we are so convinced that it is from missionary agency that most may be expected in educating the aboriginal races, that we have emphatically re-affirmed as the principle on which aid should be given to bodies willing to undertake the work, that of entire abstention from interference with any religious instruction which such bodies may choose to give.

202. Low-castes and Out-castes.—It will be more convenient to defer until Chapter IX a brief account of our discussions regarding the rights of these neglected classes of the community to receive education. In Provinces where primary education is almost wholly built upon the indigenous system, we fear that in the present state of society, even where their right is admitted in theory by local sentiment, low-caste boys actually receive few or none of the advantages of education. In those Provinces, however, where the schools are more directly under the control of Government, more or less progress has been made in securing for low-caste boys a recognition of their legitimate claims. In Bombay the greatest attention has been paid to the matter; and whereas in 1871 there were only 592 low-caste boys at school, there are now 3,512, of whom 2,862 are in departmental day schools. In our Chapter on indigenous schools we have insisted on the division of aided schools into two classes, "special" and "other primary" schools. In all but "special" schools the right of all castes to receive instruction is to be affirmed, and a due proportion is to be maintained between these two classes of institutions. In addition to this precaution, we have recommended that special grants be given to the managers of aided schools on account of low-caste children, and we have now to make somewhat similar Recommendations with regard to Government schools. We recommend *that all primary schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school-boards, and all primary schools that are aided from the same fund and are not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all castes and classes of the community:* and *that such a proportion between special and other primary schools be maintained in each school-district as to ensure a proportionate provision for the education of all classes, special aid being assignable, if necessary, on account of low-caste pupils.*

203. Depressed Races.—It is unnecessary to anticipate the full review, to be given in Chapter IX, of the measures taken to attract to the State primary schools those classes which, like the Muhammadans, have lost the special privileges of a ruling race. Their claims have received considerable attention, and their progress is noticed in the annual reports of the Department in most of the Provinces of India. But we have adopted certain Recommendations for furthering the object in view, which will be set forth in the Chapter referred to.

204. Poor Classes.—As this subject will require fuller treatment hereafter, our remarks in this place will be confined to a brief introduction to the Recommendations which we have adopted. A poor law is unknown in India. The rules of caste enjoin the performance of those charitable duties, by the performance of which the relief of the destitute is distributed over the area of the family and even of the whole caste. In every caste, not excluding Brahmans, cases of great poverty exist. But as the caste descends in the social scale, the instances of poverty increase, and the well-to-do are less able

to render aid to the poorer members of their class. The best remedy is perhaps to relax the rule which requires that education, even in schools which are not entirely supported but only aided by the State, should not be purely gratuitous. We therefore recommend *that in all board-schools, a certain proportion of pupils be admissible as free students on the ground of poverty; and in the case of special schools established for the benefit of the poorer classes, a general or larger exemption from payment of fees be allowed under proper authority for special reasons.* There may be schools which specially undertake the education of the poor, and which, under the operation of the above rule, will be unable to charge fees, and must thus depend upon charitable assistance and grants from the State. The grants which they may earn under the result system will be very small, and their case seems to deserve special encouragement. We therefore recommend *that assistance be given to schools and orphanages in which poor children are taught reading, writing, and counting, with or without manual work.*

205. Brief Notice of Female Schools.—The history and condition of female education is a matter of such importance that a separate Chapter will be devoted to its consideration. With very rare exceptions, the whole of an Indian girl's instruction is comprised within the brief years of her attendance at a primary school. The age varies with different castes and classes of the community and in different parts of the country. But only a small proportion of girls continue at school beyond the age of ten years. Here and there a Brahman girl may be seen as old as twelve, and occasionally a Parsi or a Brahmo girl will remain up to the age of sixteen. These ages sufficiently indicate that it is under primary instruction that the chief statistics regarding female education in India must be sought. Those statistics will be analysed elsewhere; and it is only necessary to note here, in a Chapter which is mainly concerned with the education of boys, a few points which must be borne in mind whenever Tables of figures bearing on primary education are considered. Statistics of female education exert a most disturbing effect, not only upon percentages of attendance in primary schools, but especially upon calculations of cost and expenditure. While there were in 1881-82, nearly 2,400,000 boys under primary instruction in the nine Provinces of India with which we are dealing, there were only 122,806 girls at school. The percentage of children at school to the total population of school-going age was 8·29; but of boys at school to the male population of that age it was 15·48, and of girls to female population only ·81. These differences are sufficiently striking. But if we confine our attention exclusively to the statistics given in this Chapter, there were 2,061,541 children in the "public primary schools," of whom only 119,647 were girls. Thus, while 12·55 per cent. of boys of school-going age were at school, only ·80 per cent. of the girls of that age were attending public schools. The order in which according to departmental returns the chief Provinces of India stand in respect to the progress of female education as tested by the percentage of pupils at school to the total female population of school-going age, is as follows: (1) Bombay, (2) Madras, (3) Punjab, (4) Central Provinces, (5) Bengal, (6) North-Western Provinces and Oudh. Throughout the whole of India the order in which the various classes of the population avail themselves of the opportunity of instructing their daughters is as follows: (1) Parsis, (2) Native Christians, (3) Sikhs, (4) Hindus, (5) Muhammadans. This fact throws some light upon the different progress made in the several Provinces. But it is in statistics of expenditure that the greatest confusion is caused by the inclusion of statistics for male and female education under a common head. In aided schools, for instance, the annual cost to the State of educating each girl

is nearly Rs. 3-6, whilst for a boy it is only Re. 1. In a Government school it is Rs. 5-8, against Rs. 3-12 for a boy. The cost varies materially in different Provinces. Leaving out Coorg, it is highest in the Punjab, where a girl in an aided school costs the State Rs. 4-3. Of the larger Provinces, it is least in Bombay where it costs Rs. 2-6. These and other differences will appear on a reference to the statistical Tables at the end of our Report. It is only necessary to bear in mind that if the cost of primary education in any Province appears to be comparatively large, it must be enquired what proportion of the cost is due to female education, and in the case of Normal schools, what are the charges incurred in the training of female teachers.

206. The Relation of Boards to primary Education.—We have now to enter upon a most important part of our enquiry, namely, the function and powers of Local Boards in regard to primary education. The gradual extension of self-government has created certain corporate organisations which represent popular power in the country and the town. Country boards are called in Madras and in Bombay Local Fund Boards, and elsewhere District Committees. The circle of the board's influence is sometimes co-extensive with the area of the District, and at others with the area of the sub-divisions of Districts, which are called talukas or tahsils. The jurisdiction of the boards or committees within these rural circles usually excludes the larger towns or cities, which form municipalities under the control of their own Municipal Boards or committees. The obvious advantage of connecting the education of the masses with local popular organisations has long been recognised. But as the development of self-government over the immense area included in the geographical expression, India, has proceeded on no uniform basis, and has even varied materially within each Province, so the control which the several boards have acquired over primary schools differs in every possible degree. It might have been expected that a considerable uniformity would have attended the growth of municipal institutions, as the conditions of life in the larger cities of India are so much more uniform than can be expected in rural tracts, but the interest shown in education by municipal corporations, where such exist, varies considerably. In the Punjab, applications for increased contributions for schools find a liberal response; in Madras, municipal assistance is said to be inadequate, but it is far more generously accorded than in Bombay, where only 1·17 per cent. of municipal income is spent on primary schools. In Bengal the town councils are still less liberal. The difference, however, between municipal and local boards in the various Provinces is not merely one of public spirit or of interest in education. Their control is in one Province financial and in another administrative. Here it extends only over Government or municipal schools, there it embraces private effort as well. In Bombay it is described as real, and in the North-Western Provinces as nominal. In no part of India is the charge of primary education made obligatory by law on town boards; but the Local Fund Boards in many Provinces are bound by law to expend certain funds on elementary schools. It thus happens that the relations of the boards to primary education vary materially; and this makes it necessary to explain the actual condition of affairs in each part of India separately, without any attempt to generalise or reconcile essential differences by one vague and common description. Having explained generally the present position of affairs in each Province, we shall give a brief summary of the suggestions which have been offered by the witnesses and in the memorials presented to us, concluding with a statement of the Recommendations which we have adopted.

207. Madras: Boards, and Suggestions regarding them.—In Madras both the Municipal and the Local Fund Boards maintain their own schools, and

also aid private schools. The initiative in preparing their budgets is taken by the Education Department, whose officers submit an estimate to the official President of the Board for incorporation in the general annual budget of the town or District. Practically, the Inspector's estimate is accepted as a general rule, and when once the budget has received the sanction of Government, it not merely limits the expenditure of the board on the object proposed in the estimate, but prevents any transfer of allotment from one school to another. In the case of aided schools the boards are obliged to pay for all grants by results earned in the three lowest standards, but they have the right of reducing the scale of grants and of refusing to admit any school to be examined. In other respects they must conform to the rules laid down by Government in the Grant-in-aid Code. So far, then, the financial control of the Madras boards involves the acceptance or modification of a budget drawn up by the Inspector, and a discretionary power to reduce the scale of grants and to refuse to admit for examination a school whose earnings after admission they cannot decline to pay. In the matter of control, they are unable to interfere with aided schools; but in their own schools they have in theory the power of regulating the fees and the course of studies. As a general rule, however, the course of study is determined by the Inspector; while the boards usually exercise the power of fixing the rate of fees, and are inclined to fix them very low. The Madras system, especially in its inclusion of aided schools, is in theory and practice more extended than that of Bombay, but in their financial administration the boards in the adjoining Presidency would appear to be more independent. This independence is perhaps due to some extent to the fact that the Bombay local fund boards have hardly any concern with aided schools, and merely manage their own cess schools.

The witnesses who have given evidence before the Commission in Madras are agreed on two points, that municipalities should set aside a fixed proportion of their income for education, and that the local boards should give a larger share of the local cess to education. They are divided as to the precise amount that should be so assigned. One witness considers that 5 to 7 per cent. of municipal income should be allotted for education. As regards the proper share of local rates, opinions vary from an assignment of one-third to one-sixth. It appears that in the nine years which followed the introduction of the Local Funds Act IV of 1871, education received on the average 9 per cent. of the local fund income derived from rates and taxes only, while of the whole local fund income it received only a little more than 6 per cent. According to the wording of section 36 of Act IV of 1871, which assigns to "the road fund" or public works division of the budget not less than two-thirds of the land cess, together with the net proceeds of all tolls, the assignment to education cannot be called illegal; but it was certainly expected, when the Act was passed, that it would provide 8½ lakhs for education; whereas in 1881-82 the actual expenditure charged to local funds was not 5¼ lakhs. Greater differences of opinion are expressed in regard to the classes of schools which should be supported at the expense of the educational fund thus created. Some witnesses would not limit the assignment of the fund to any class of institution, but would leave it to the discretion of the Inspector. The general opinion, however, is that the boards should control their own expenditure, and that the allotment should not be diverted from primary or lower secondary instruction to education of a higher kind. To this control certain limitations are proposed. Some would insist on the appointment of qualified teachers, and Mr. Justice T. Mutuswamy Aiyar amongst other witnesses lays great stress on the establishment of Normal schools for their supply. Many witnesses also consider that the Department should be allowed to

intervene, and at least to suggest, if not to prescribe, the course and method of instruction. This power of intervention is regarded as more necessary in the case of local boards than of municipal corporations. One witness would give the Educational Inspectors a place *ex-officio* on the boards; another would make the Inspectors quite independent. A third, on the other hand, would leave the boards independent administrators of the grant-in-aid system, but allow them no power of altering the rules without the sanction of Government. On the whole, the general tendency of the Madras evidence favours the administration of primary and lower secondary education by local boards, whether urban or rural, subject to the general control of the Education Department; the enforcement of a contribution from municipal funds; and a more liberal assignment from local rates.

208. Bombay: Boards, and Suggestions regarding them.—In Bombay neither Municipal nor Local Fund Boards have as a rule any direct concern with aided schools. A few indigenous schools receive aid which is paid for out of local funds, but the boards have practically little control in the matter. Municipal boards are permitted by law (Bombay Act VI of 1873) to spend their income on education; and in their discretion they for the most part leave it alone, preferring, as might be expected, to throw the charge on provincial revenues or else on the neighbouring District Board. It may be said that, with the exception of Sukkur in Sind, no municipality in Bombay has hitherto taken the active part which it might have been expected to take in managing elementary education. As shown in Chapter III, Section A of the Bombay Provincial Report, the contributions from provincial revenues for the support of primary education in the towns of Bombay bear no adequate proportion either to the local resources of such towns, or to the contributions from the same revenues to the support of village schools. A partial change is immediately to be made in this matter, and primary schools will shortly be placed under the control of Municipal Boards, but no provision has yet been proposed for compelling the corporations to provide increased funds.

With the Local Fund Boards, whether District or taluka, the case is quite different. They administer the whole fund on which primary education rests, and they prepare their own budgets, which show separately the share of the cess spent on education. They transfer or close schools at their pleasure; they regulate the fees, and without their authority no departmental primary school can be established. But they do not interfere with the studies, or appoint the master. The local fund income is quite distinct from provincial revenues, and the educational share of that income is equally distinct. In fact, the school fund might be defined, as precisely as the school-board fund is defined in England by section 53 of the Act of 1870. In this respect the Bombay system differs materially from that of the North-Western Provinces, as will presently appear. With this distinct educational fund, which is entirely spent on elementary education and is supplemented by a grant from provincial revenues, the boards provide for their cess schools, or Government primary schools, as they are commonly called to distinguish them from the aided indigenous or other schools under private management. In the North-Western Provinces the local fund revenue is paid into the treasury to the credit of provincial income, from which an allotment is made for expenditure by the local fund committee. But in Bombay the process is entirely reversed. The provincial allotment is paid to the credit of the local fund committee, and any unexpended balance at the end of the year remains the property of the rural board. Financially, the power of the local boards is complete, and their practical control over

education is only limited by their want of confidence in themselves and by the delegation of their own functions to the departmental officers. The departmental officers act, however, under instructions from the board.

The evidence given by witnesses before the Commission in the Bombay Presidency is full of references to the relations of municipal and local boards to the Department of Public Instruction. It deals with the question both of finance and of administration. In regard to finance, the proportion of the cess upon the land which should be given to primary schools is fixed by rules which have the sanction of law, and any unexpended balance lapses to the educational fund, not to the general local fund, and still less to the provincial fund as in Northern India. Hence on these points no question has been raised by witnesses in Bombay. But the complaint has been made that the local fund is properly a rural fund, and should be spent on the villages which contribute it, and not in the towns which only contribute a very small proportion of the cess. Several witnesses of great experience have urged that there should be a redistribution of the financial burden of supporting primary schools, which would set free for rural education funds paid by rural Districts and now appropriated by municipalities. Their view is supported at considerable length by the Bombay Provincial Committee. Other witnesses have in the same sense argued that the time has arrived when municipal boards must be compelled to make more adequate provision for primary education out of the funds at their disposal. While all witnesses are more or less agreed on the question of finance, opinions are divided on the point whether any local board should administer education above the standard of primary schools. It is further argued that if boards are to be entrusted with the task of aiding private schools it will be necessary to give private managers financial rights, and especially to protect the low-caste population against the indifference or opposition of those higher castes which are sure to command all executive power on the boards.

209. Bengal: Boards, and Suggestions regarding them.—We have already mentioned that the approval of the Secretary of State to the proposal of the Government of India for giving Bengal the financial provision upon which the systems of primary education rest in other parts of India, has not yet resulted in the imposition of an educational cess, or in the allotment to education of a share in the cesses already levied. Accordingly in Bengal there are no local fund boards charged with administrative powers over schools. A special education committee exists at the head-quarters of each District under the presidency of the Collector, but it rather connects the control of education by the Department with a local official board than invests with responsible powers over primary schools an independent organisation holding control over local funds. For the school committee described above has no financial, and little administrative, control over elementary education. The municipal boards occupy no better position. Some of them spontaneously encourage special teachers or institutions. But they exercise no systematic or recognised control at present over primary education; and this need occasion little surprise, since in no other Province of India do municipal bodies exhibit greater indifference to the claims of education upon the town funds. Even in the city of Calcutta no steps have been taken in this direction, though so far back as 1873 Sir G. Campbell expressed a hope that the municipality of Calcutta would move the Legislature to permit the expenditure of some part of its large income upon primary schools for the children of the Calcutta poor.

The evidence of witnesses dwelt on two points; the liability of municipalities to contribute more liberally to education, and the functions of the self-

government boards that may hereafter be created. On both these points opinions differed. The Honourable Kristodas Pal objected to throwing on town boards charges for primary education, while Maulavi Sayyid Amir Hüssein would insist on their making proper provision and would examine their budgets to see that they did so. The Bengal Provincial Committee remark that, under recent orders, much of the cost of zila schools and the whole cost of vernacular schools in towns will fall upon municipalities. As regards the advisability of entrusting rural boards with the charge of even primary schools, some witnesses have expressed doubts, but a few have suggested that secondary as well as primary education should be entrusted to them.

210. North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Boards, and Suggestions regarding them.—In the North-Western Provinces both the practice and the theory of local control had been well developed before Act XVIII of 1871 was passed. Under that Act, which was incorporated into Act III of 1878, not only is the education provision lumped up with the provision for other local wants, but to the Local Boards is allotted, as an act of grace, the income which in reality belongs to them. Unspent allotments are therefore not a saving to local funds as in Bombay, but lapse to the provincial treasury. The constitution of the local fund boards has hitherto been strongly official, but it will become more popular under the new Bill now before the Legislature. The control of education is not managed by the general District or sub-divisional committee as in Bombay, but by special sub-committees who are guided by rules issued in 1877. Their powers, such as they are, extend over aided schools, and over middle class vernacular and lower primary schools. They are allowed to appoint teachers, but not to regulate the course of studies. Their financial powers are confined to accepting a budget already drawn up, and their position generally is described as that of executive agents of the Department, rather than administrative corporations controlling an executive. The municipal boards make some moderate assignments to education, and their attention to the claims of primary schools is invited in a memorandum drawn up by the Department of Public Instruction. But their contributions are optional, and do not seem to carry with them any real control over the expenditure of the resources which their liberality provides.

The witnesses and memorialists from the North-Western Provinces have generally expressed far greater confidence than those of Bengal in the administrative capacity of rural and town boards. Speaking, however, of the existing system, the Provincial Committee describe it as follows: "The present "system of education committees in the North-Western Provinces can hardly be "considered other than a failure. It is condemned by nearly all the wit- "nesses, is praised with great reservation by the Director of Public Instruction, "and has, we hope, been proved to be a very different system in its origin "and development from what was intended by the Legislature when passing "Act XVIII of 1871." The Honourable Sayyid Ahmad, Khan Bahadur, suggests that local committees should have the power to frame annual budgets, and to manage entirely all vernacular schools; while another witness would entrust both primary and lower middle schools to boards, giving them a consultative voice in higher education. Six witnesses have given strong testimony in favour of placing more trust and power, in matters both of finance and of administration, in the hands of local boards. On the other hand, there are a few who consider that the committees as at present constituted are unfit for their work. It is further urged by others that the inevitable result of dependence on non-official committees is the transfer of control

from Educational Inspectors to Revenue officials. But on the whole, the superior weight of testimony inclines to placing in the hands of local boards increased control over primary education, and to separating the funds for education from other resources entrusted to rural and urban committees.

211. Punjab: Boards, and Suggestions regarding them.—The Punjab system is very similar to that just described. Under Act V of 1878, which repealed Act XX of 1871, the Lieutenant-Governor, after appropriating one-fourth of the total proceeds for famine purposes, may allot such sums as he pleases for education and other local wants. For each District a committee or board is appointed to administer the allotment thus made. In matters of control, the boards in the Punjab are theoretically entrusted with the management of schools, but in practice they are unable to close any institution without the sanction of Government. The municipal committees in the same Province are given the share of the local fund cess which belongs to them, and are expected to supplement it by contributions from the town income. In this respect the Punjab system is more equitable than that of Bombay. The corporation usually exercises control over its own schools within the municipality through the official president or the secretary to the board. It must, however, be understood that both the president and the secretary can only derive their authority from the corporation, which if it chose might, and occasionally does, exercise considerable influence over education both primary and secondary. It should be noticed that municipalities in this Province contribute more towards education than in any other part of India.

Very voluminous and contradictory evidence has been given by the witnesses for the Punjab, not merely as to the capacity of the boards to manage schools, but also as to the funds now assigned for education. The weight of testimony is, however, strongly in favour of entrusting both the expenditure and the management of the educational cess to such boards. As to the amount of control to be reserved opinions differ. In the opinion of some witnesses the funds contributed by municipalities are still inadequate, and they urge that a larger proportion of municipal revenues should be reserved by law for the extension of primary education. The charge brought against the Department of having diverted funds from primary to higher education is neither supported by the figures given in the Provincial Report, nor justified by the precise letter of the law, which does not assign to educational purposes any specific share of the local fund income.

212. Assam: Boards.—While the Province of Assam was included in the larger Province of Bengal no local rates were levied in it. But in November 1879, Regulation No. III of that year received the assent of the Governor General. Under Section 12 of this Regulation the Chief Commissioner is empowered to allot, from the proceeds of the local rates levied under it, such amount as he thinks fit for expenditure on the construction and repair of school-houses, the maintenance and inspection of schools, the training of teachers, and the establishment of scholarships. In accordance with a circular issued by the Chief Commissioner, school sub-committees have been appointed subordinate to the district committees, and they are entrusted with the powers which formerly vested in the district committees of Public Instruction. They exercise a complete control and supervision over primary education, but power is reserved to the Inspector of Schools to make suggestions and recommendations. The Committees are required to consider his recommendations, and in the event of dissenting from them to record their reasons. All expenditure on primary

education is now borne by the local rates. Under recent orders the powers of the boards have been extended, and they are made responsible for administering the grants-in-aid to all classes of schools in their jurisdiction, and for managing the Normal schools of the third grade.

213. Other Provinces: Boards and Rates.—In the Central Provinces a recent Act, which affects neither municipalities nor cantonments, has created a net work of boards with village school committees subordinate to them. But prior to this year the local rate was distributed in accordance with budgets prepared by the local officers. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts a levy of 1 anna and 3 pies on every rupee of land revenue is collected, and the share of it assigned to education is administered by the revenue officers. In Coorg also an educational fund is provided by the plough tax. But in all these Provinces the administration of the fund prior to 1883 rested with officials, and the school committees which watched the village schools had no power to spend any portion of it.

214. General Review of the Powers of Local Boards.—Except in Bengal there is no Province of India where provision for primary education has not been made by the imposition of a local rate in which education shares. The administration of these local rates has been entrusted, except in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts and in Coorg, to local fund committees. In Madras and Bombay the local fund income is wholly at the disposal of the local boards, but in Northern India it is subject to certain deductions for the extension of irrigation and for the prevention of famine. It is only the balance, after these deductions have been made, that is placed at the disposal of the boards; and should they fail to expend their whole assignment in the year, the unexpended balance lapses to provincial revenues. Again, in Madras and Bombay the practice is not uniform. In Bombay a distinct share of the local fund income is set aside by law or by statutory rules for education, and under the same rules it cannot be expended on any but primary education. But the law does not distinguish between rural and urban schools, and therefore it is not illegal to spend the cess on town schools. The ever-increasing demand which the towns are making upon a fund, essentially a rural fund, has given rise to complaints. In Madras, on the contrary, no specific share of the local fund income must be appropriated for education; and although it is in accordance with the policy of Government to spend the educational grant upon primary schools, it would not be opposed to any provision of the existing law to devote it to secondary education.

With regard to municipalities, the law is everywhere permissive, and education is a legitimate but not an imperative charge on municipal income throughout India. The funds of town corporations are, with the exception of the city of Madras, applicable under the existing law not only to primary but to higher education. The extent to which municipalities have made use of their powers will appear from the statistical Table which follows. The grants made towards education are accurately known, but the figures representing the net municipal income in 1881-82 are obtained from the Annual Administration Reports of each Province and are not entirely trustworthy. The evidence, however, given before the Commission affords proof of the unanimous conviction entertained in all Provinces of India, that the time has come when the exercise of these permissive powers can no longer be left to the discretion of municipal bodies. The enlargement of the scheme of self-government divides urban boards in municipal towns from rural boards, and it is necessary that the responsibilities and liabilities of both should be clearly defined. As long as the former can cast on the latter the burden of providing elementary education for the town population, the municipal authorities will be content to do nothing, and will leave the cost of maintaining these schools to be met either from local funds or else from provincial revenues.

TABLE 9.—*Return showing Municipal* expenditure on primary education in the official year 1881-82.*

PROVINCE.	Net Municipal income (excluding opening balances) for the year 1881-82.	MUNICIPAL EXPENDITURE ON PRIMARY EDUCATION.†						TOTAL.	Total Municipal expenditure on education** generally.	Percentage of Municipal expenditure in column 9 to total expenditure on primary education‡ from Public Funds.	Percentage of Municipal expenditure in column 9 to total Municipal expenditure on education.**	Percentage of Municipal expenditure** on all classes of institutions to Municipal income.	REMARKS.
		BOYS' SCHOOLS.			GIRLS' SCHOOLS.								
		Departmental.	Aided.	Unaided.	Departmental.	Aided.	Unaided.						
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14
Madras . . .	R 21,47,775	R 23,822	R 39,470	R ...	R 3,756	R 2,225	R ...	R 69,273	R 88,018	9·37	78·70	4·09	
Bombay . . .	68,38,205	38,737	607	...	1,785	300	...	40,949	80,4230	3·61	50·91	1·17	a Exclusive of Municipal building grants included in the item of Rs. 1,27,733 shown in General Table 3c, col. 25, as Local Fund expenditure on buildings.
Bengal . . .	51,89,088	...	2,941	1,623	...	1,221	929	6,714	24,917	1·09	26·94	·48	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh .	29,36,109	26,401	6,190	1,676	1,030	1,096	300	36,693	52,069	4·65	70·47	1·77	
Punjab . . .	28,56,328	61,327	2,631	...	7,102	5,992	...	77,052	1,51,703	16·03	50·95	5·29	
Central Provinces .	11,57,226	18,832	2,032	...	1,320	240	...	22,424	34,815	7·23	64·40	3·01	
Assam . . .	92,768	...	75	...	...	...	...	75	360	·09	20·83	·39	
Coorg . . .	15,099	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Haidarabad Assigned Districts . .	1,03,320	580	120	...	496	150	...	1,346	1,377	·53	97·75	1·33	
India§ . . .	2,13,36,458	1,69,219	54,066	3,299	15,489	11,224	1,229	2,54,526	4,33,182	5·78	58·76	2·03	

* Includes not only grants for the maintenance of primary schools, but scholarship and building grants to such schools and contributions to Normal Schools.
† Exclusive of grants to European and Eurasian Schools.
‡ Inclusive of the expenditure from public funds on Primary Schools for Europeans and Eurasians.
§ Excluding Ajmir, British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
** Inclusive of all Municipal grants to technical and to European and Eurasian schools.

215. Recommendations regarding Ways and Means for primary Education.—We have to consider two questions—the claims of primary education, and the rights and duties of boards. With regard to the first question, we have to consider how far it is possible to protect the right of the masses to receive primary education not only against the encroachments of expenditure upon public works and other demands which local boards have to meet, but also against those demands which fall upon the provincial revenues. We have also to guard against the danger so prominently brought to notice in the Bombay Report, that the demands of municipal schools are apt to encroach upon funds which are raised in the villages and ought to be expended upon village schools for the rural community. In dealing with the second question, we have to bear in mind the relations of the boards to the Department, their duties towards the people, and their duties to private enterprise. Reverting to the first question we must consider how the educational fund is to be constituted, and what precautions are necessary to ensure its expenditure upon primary education. We therefore recommend *that primary education be declared to be that part of the whole system of public instruction which possesses an almost exclusive claim on local funds set apart for education and a large claim on provincial revenues.*

This Recommendation was not adopted by the Commission without long discussion and the consideration of several amendments to which we shall refer towards the close of this Chapter, when we deal with the claims of primary education upon public funds. The importance of the principles contained in it was fully understood, and when the Recommendation was carried by a large majority, it became the foundation of the Commission's decision regarding the constitution of school funds and other matters. The first part of

it declares that local funds set apart for education should be almost entirely devoted to primary education; while the second part gives prominence to the claims of primary education to a large share in provincial revenues. Both these principles have long since been established by the highest authorities in India, and in most Provinces they have guided the policy of the Department. In the Punjab, however, there has been deviation from them, the cause of which will be presently explained. But before doing so, it is necessary to state briefly the arguments by which the Recommendation was opposed and supported in our debate on February 14th, 1883. It was urged that local rates, which were levied on the land should be devoted for the education of the agricultural classes both in primary and in secondary schools; that the modern distinction of primary from secondary education was based on English precedents, and was opposed to the interests of the wealthiest though least numerous class who contribute to the cess, and who were not satisfied with a purely elementary education; and lastly that, owing to recent classification, primary education meant much less than it did when the local funds were first imposed. It was further maintained that the Despatches of 1854 and 1859 included in the education of the masses all classes of instruction, and that it was quite fair to spend local rates on the tahsili and high schools to which those Despatches referred. On the other hand, the supporters of the Recommendation took their stand upon more recent Despatches which had clearly defined the interpretation attached by the Secretary of State to the phrase "education of the masses;" upon the policy initiated by Lord Mayo in 1870, and especially upon the Circular Orders of February 11th, 1871, which had been carried out without question in every Province of India but one. Upon the second part of the Recommendation, it was urged in the course of the debate that secondary education was as important as primary, and that where the latter was sufficiently provided for by local rates, it was unnecessary to give a contribution from provincial revenues which were required to supply so many other needs. It was observed that in Bengal, where there were no local rates, the cost of all classes of education fell upon provincial revenues; but in the Punjab, where under legislative sanction local rates had been increased in the last 12 years, and where the provincial fund was wanted for other purposes, it was quite logical that the cost of primary education should be charged exclusively to local rates, and that of higher education to provincial revenues. Above all, it was urged that the Local Governments were the best judges of financial considerations, and that any hard-and-fast rule might throw the educational finance of any Province into enbarrassment without doing any good to primary education. To these arguments it was replied that the principle involved in the proposal, namely, that local rates were a form of self-help, was one of extreme importance, and that the Government was bound to help those who helped themselves. In one Province, at any rate, the orders of 1871 had been thoroughly understood, and the Director in Bombay had described them as the charter of the educational rights of local boards. It was argued that the maintenance of the system followed in the Punjab endangered such rights. With reference to this argument it must be explained that on October 25th, 1869, the Government of India directed that Rule XIV should be amended in the Punjab Grant-in-aid Code and stand as follows: "Grants-in-aid from Imperial "Funds are not admissible to purely vernacular primary schools, but special "grants may be made for limited periods where the circumstances are so excep- "tional as to justify a departure from rule." In February 1871, an important circular Resolution was issued by the Government of India to all the Local Governments explaining "on what principle it will be permissible to assign "from the sums allotted for educational purposes grants-in-aid to schools for "primary education, and it will rest with the Local Governments under the new "system of Financial control to determine in what localities and to what ex- "tent such grants shall from time to time be made." Having intimated that

the Local Governments were thus authorised to carry out the orders, the Government of India laid down for their guidance the following principles contained in paragraphs 3, 4, 5 of their Resolution No. 63, dated February 11th, 1871.

"3. It has been repeatedly declared by the Secretary of State that it is a "primary duty to assign funds for the education of those who are least able to "help themselves, and that the education of the masses therefore has the greatest "claim on the State funds. The Government of India desires to maintain this "view, but the grant-in-aid rules have in practice been found so unsuitable to "primary schools that, except in special cases, such grants-in-aid are seldom "sanctioned from the general revenues. It has, moreover, been repeatedly "affirmed that we must look to local exertion and to local cesses to supply the "funds required for the maintenance of primary schools.

"4. These standing orders may seem inconsistent, but they really are not so. "The fact is that primary education must be supported both by Imperial Funds "and by local rates. It is not by any means the policy of the Government of "India to deny to primary schools assistance from Imperial Revenues; but, on "the other hand, no sum that could be spared from those revenues would suffice "for the work, and local rates must be raised to effect any sensible impression on "the masses. This does not lessen the obligation of Government to contribute "as liberally as other demands allow, to supplement the sums raised by local "effort. The true policy will be to distribute the Imperial funds, so far as such "funds are available, in proportion to the amount raised by the people from each "district.

"5. The amount at present allotted for primary education under the several "Local Administrations is small, and it is not expected that the Local Governments will in any case diminish it. On the other hand, they will have full "liberty to increase the allotment, either from retrenchments in other Services, or "from savings in other branches of education; and it is permissible to assign, "from the provincial grant, funds in aid of schools mainly supported by contributions from local cesses or municipal rates."

Notwithstanding these orders the Punjab Government did not alter the lately revised rule in their Grant-in-aid Code. On the contrary, they adhered to their original policy, and in reviewing the Annual Report on Public Instruction for 1877-78, the Lieutenant-Governor observed—"The decrease in the number "of schools is in part due to the policy of the Government in throwing more "and more upon local funds, in such towns and Districts as can afford it, "the charge for popular education. The charge is indeed but nominal, the "local fund being as much a portion of provincial taxation as any branch of the "Government revenue." The effect of these orders was to throw still further charges on local funds, and to cause a still further deviation from the principle laid down above that the "true policy will be to distribute the Imperial Funds in "proportion to the amount raised by the people from each District." We regard local funds, even when raised by legislative sanction from any District, as equivalent to funds raised by the people themselves, and we attach the greatest importance to the recognition of the principle that local expenditure on primary education should be supplemented by a provincial contribution. Our Recommendation is intended to enforce this view, which we believe to be not only sound in principle, but in strict accordance with the orders of the Government of India, and the wishes of the Secretary of State.

216. Recommendations regarding School Funds.—Having settled from what sources the ways and means for primary education are to be supplied, we propose to protect them against the encroachments of other Departments by the constitution of separate funds both for towns and rural tracts respectively, and by declaring the items of which these two funds shall be composed. Accordingly we recommend *that both municipal and local self-government boards keep a separate school fund.* The fund should in our opinion be constituted as follows. We recommend *that* (i) *the municipal school fund consist of*—

(*a*) *a fair proportion of municipal revenues, to be fixed in each case by the Local Government;*
(*b*) *the fees levied in schools wholly maintained at the cost of the municipal school fund;*
(*c*) *any assignment that may be made to the municipal school fund from the local fund;*
(*d*) *any assignment from provincial funds;*
(*e*) *any other funds that may be entrusted to the municipalities for the promotion of education;*
(*f*) *any unexpended balance of the school fund from previous years:*

and that (ii) *the local board school fund consist of*—

(*a*) *a distinct share of the general local fund, which share shall not be less than a minimum proportion to be prescribed for each Province;*
(*b*) *the fees levied in schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school fund;*
(*c*) *any contribution that may be assigned by municipal boards;*
(*d*) *any assignment made from provincial funds;*
(*e*) *any other funds that may be entrusted to the local boards for the promotion of education;*
(*f*) *any unexpended balance of the school fund from previous years.*

It will be observed that we have not attempted to suggest what fixed proportion of municipal income should be devoted to education. The witnesses from various parts of India have differed in their estimates from 3 or 4 per cent. of municipal income to even 10 per cent. But the assignment must vary with each municipality; and though some of our number thought that it should be left to the municipalities to define its amount, a majority of us considered that the Local Government could alone determine what was reasonable. On one point we are entirely agreed, that hitherto the permissive sections of the municipal law have failed to secure adequate and uniform consideration for the claims of education throughout India. We have guarded against the danger of the municipality encroaching on the rural fund, by recommending, as shown above, that a specific assignment from local funds be made to the municipality, and by proposing that each separate fund, whether municipal or rural, be granted its own separate assignment from provincial funds. This assignment from provincial revenues would naturally bear some proportion to local resources. Lastly, to avoid the recurrence of the complaints made in the North-Western Provinces that unexpended balances are lost to the educational fund, we have recommended that balances of the school fund, which may be unexpended at the end of the year, be credited to the school fund, and neither to the general local fund nor to provincial services. The creation of these distinct school funds appears to us to offer the best guarantee against the complaints which witnesses have made, sometimes perhaps without due foundation, from the Punjab to Madras, that the whole of the education cess is not spent on primary schools, that education does not receive its legitimate share of the income of rural or municipal boards, or that the towns encroach upon the financial provision for village education.

217. Recommendations regarding the Rights and Duties of School-boards.—Turning now to a consideration of the rights and duties of school-boards and of the control which they should exercise over primary education, we recommend *that the general control over primary school expenditure be vested in the school-boards, whether municipal or rural, which may now exist or may hereafter be created for self-government in each Province.* So far as rural boards are concerned the experiment has worked well in Bombay, and the recognition of the rights of municipal boards is only a natural develop-

ment of the same policy. We have refrained from expressing any opinion on the question whether the school-boards should be the town boards and local fund committees, or sub-committees of those boards. Each administrative unit created under the various schemes of self-government will adopt the plan which is best suited to the locality. The central boards, whether in town, taluka, or District, will probably work through village school committees, as they do in the Central Provinces. But these details can be determined on the spot, and we have deliberately avoided suggestions of too precise or uniform a character. There exists in our opinion the greatest need for variety and provincial independence in grappling with the great task of extending a thorough primary education. The relations of the boards to the Departments must, however, be precisely defined, in order to avoid friction from conflict of authority. Some departmental control is necessary, but its limits should be defined. In Chapter VIII we shall revert to this subject; but on one matter we deem it desirable here to state our Recommendation, suggested by one of the Bombay witnesses, which will promote the improvement of teachers, an object to which we attach great importance. We recommend *that the first appointment of schoolmasters in municipal or board-schools be left to the town or District boards, with the proviso that the masters be certificated or approved by the Department, and their subsequent promotion or removal be regulated by the boards subject to the approval of the Department.* The boards will provide the salaries of the masters, and it seems reasonable that within certain limits they should select and control the teachers. They will also have to provide all the funds necessary for maintaining both the schools and the buildings. We recommend *that the cost of maintaining and aiding primary schools in each school-district, and the construction and repair of board school-houses, be charges against the municipal or local board school fund so created.* This Recommendation, if carried out, will introduce generally the Madras system under which the boards are responsible for aiding private enterprise. There is an obvious advantage in giving the boards control not merely over their own schools but over all the primary schools in the District or town. Their financial and administrative control over primary education would be incomplete if the Department remained responsible for aided schools, while the boards had charge of the cess schools alone. It should be the duty of the boards to deal with the whole system of primary education, to watch over the wants of all classes of the community, and to provide for all such wants whether by creating schools of their own or by aiding existing schools. We have already mentioned our Recommendations "for ensuring a proportionate provision for the education "of all classes," for giving "special aid on account of low castes," and for providing "a proper proportion between special and other primary schools." It is only by making the boards responsible for all agencies that these results can be adequately secured. Another forcible reason presented itself to us as an argument for giving boards the fullest powers. The choice of a vernacular is in some Provinces of India, especially in the Punjab, a very perplexing question. We have discussed this subject in a previous paragraph, and it is sufficient here to state our Recommendation, which is so framed as to protect minorities. We recommend *that the vernacular in which instruction shall be imparted in any primary school, maintained by any municipal or local board, be determined by the school committee of management, subject to revision by the municipal or local board: provided that if there be any dissenting minority in the community, who represent a number of pupils sufficient to form one or more separate classes or schools, it shall be incumbent on the Department to provide for the establishment of such classes or schools, and it shall be incumbent on such municipal or local board to assign to such classes or schools a fair proportion of the whole assignable funds.* The choice of the vernacular in aided schools will, of course, rest with the managers of such schools, and will offer a valuable index to popular wishes in each locality. In conclusion, it is only necessary to guard against boards endeavouring to crush out private enterprise whether missionary or indigenous. If the public funds are entrusted to them, they must administer them as a public trust in accordance with public policy. We therefore conclude our Recommendations regarding the rights and duties of boards in their administration of primary education with the following: *that municipal and local boards administering funds in aid of primary schools adopt the rules prescribed by the Department for aiding such schools, and introduce no change therein without the sanction of the Department.*

218. Recommendation regarding Legislation.—It will be readily admitted that the constitution of the school funds proposed by us would be rendered more secure, and the rights and duties of school-boards be more clearly defined, if they were placed on a legislative basis. The question of legislation is one, however, which will be treated at length in Chapter XI of this Report. But in discussing the whole subject of primary education we adopted the following Recommendation, *that an attempt be made to secure the fullest possible provision for an extension of primary education by legislation suited to the circumstances of each Province.* This Recommendation was intended not only to secure the support of law for primary education, but also to give expression to our opinion that separate legislation should be undertaken in each Provincial Council for making laws and regulations.

219. Expenditure on primary Education.—The ways and means of primary education can best be understood by analysing the expenditure in some particular year. It may of course happen that the nominal income of any particular year exceeds the expenditure for the following reasons, but it is safer to regard the actual expenditure as equivalent to the income. The primary school fund, speaking broadly, depends on two sources of supply, the provincial grant and the local rates. The provincial grants are either assigned as special grants for specific purposes or else credited in the lump to local rates. In the former case, if they are not wholly spent, the balance lapses again to the provincial fund from which it was given, and is not available for primary education unless it is re-allotted. Therefore the real provincial grant is the actual amount allotted and spent, and in that sense expenditure is synonymous with income. If, on the other hand, the provincial grant is credited to local rates, it either becomes, as in Bombay, part of the educational local fund (in which case it may be treated as local income), or else as in the North-Western Provinces it lapses to provincial services, in the same way as a special unspent grant would lapse. It follows then that, so far as education is concerned, a provincial surplus of income above expenditure cannot exist at the end of the year. But a local fund surplus may and often does exist. Here again it is unsafe to regard that surplus as available for expenditure. In Bombay, for instance, the greater part of the local fund rates are collected at the close of the Financial year with the land revenue, and therefore when the accounts are made up on the 31st of March a large surplus is shown. But this working balance will be required to keep the schools going until the following February. Also it is well known that most Indian Provinces are subject to the recurrence of famine, when the collections of land revenue and consequently of local rates are suspended or remitted. In view of such contingencies a reserve fund must be kept. The danger varies in intensity in different Provinces; and it is safe to assume that the local Department, which has no possible interest in reducing its expenditure on primary schools below its income, is the best judge of the amount which it has to spend. For these reasons we regard the actual expenditure of each year as practically equivalent to the income available for expenditure. Accordingly we give below two Tables, in the first of which will be found a comparison between the expenditure in 1870-71 and that in 1881-82. The next Table exhibits in detail the total expenditure on departmental and aided primary schools for the year which is under review in this Report.

TABLE 7.—*Comparative Statement of the Total Expenditure on primary Education in the years 1870-71 and 1881-82.*

Provinces.	Object of Expenditure.	Imperial or Provincial Expenditure.* Years. 1870-71.	Imperial or Provincial Expenditure.* Years. 1881-82.	Expenditure from Local Cesses and Municipal Funds.* Years. 1870-71.	Expenditure from Local Cesses and Municipal Funds.* Years. 1881-82.	Expenditure from Fees.* Years. 1870-71.	Expenditure from Fees.* Years. 1881-82.	Expenditure from other sources.* Years. 1870-71.	Expenditure from other sources.* Years. 1881-82.	Total Expenditure on Primary Education.* Years. 1870-71.	Total Expenditure on Primary Education.* Years. 1881-82.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
		R	*R*	*R*	*R*	*R*	*R*	*R*	*R*	*R*	*R*	
Madras	Boys' and Girls' Schools	82,796	1,39,118	...	4,78,297	91,202	5,14,178	68,371	3,76,996	2,42,369*a*	15,08,589*b*	
	Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses	74,799	29,027	...	23,819	8,210	1,877	21,369	22,782	1,04,378	77,505	
	Scholarships *c*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Buildings *c*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Miscellaneous *c*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Total	1,57,595	1,68,145	...	5,02,116	99,412	5,16,055	89,740	3,99,778	3,46,747	15,86,094*d*	
Bombay	Boys' and Girls' Schools	2,33,247	2,74,146	5,22,299	6,21,381	29,557	1,94,470	87,280	3,32,398	8,72,383	14,22,395	
	Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses	37,753	49,555	24,539	20,085	219	11	8,526	11,788	71,037	81,439	
	Scholarships	...	...	...	1,691	...	...	...	8,267	...	9,958*e*	
	Buildings	51,267	10,115	1,22,772	1,19,788	414	...	74,303	82,811	2,48,756	2,12,714	
	Miscellaneous	11,284	11,922	13,101	24,187	1,315	...	...	16,030	25,700	52,139	
	Total	3,33,551	3,45,738	6,82,711	7,87,132	31,505	1,94,481	1,70,109	4,51,294	12,17,876	17,78,645*f*	
Bengal	Boys' and Girls' Schools	1,75,774	5,26,553	...	14,835	58,652	11,66,478	96,570	4,77,691	3,30,966*g*	21,85,557*h*	
	Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses	1,38,382	70,216	...	350	5,748	2,927	20,758	16,808	1,64,888	90,301	
	Scholarships *c*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Buildings *c*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Miscellaneous *c*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Total	3,14,156	5,96,769	...	15,185	64,400	11,69,405	1,17,328	4,94,499	4,95,884	22,75,858*i*	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh.	Boys' and Girls' Schools	1,71,767	1,83,829	1,61,906	5,39,299	19,634	54,797	2,21,772	87,953	5,75,079	8,65,878	
	Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses	50,269	32,248	9,975	6,392	21	724	12,552	3,994	72,817	43,358	
	Scholarships *c*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Buildings	1,515	...	17,214	27,059	...	...	...	...	18,729	27,059*j*	
	Miscellaneous	...	...	4,927	13,720	...	...	...	...	4,927	13,720	
	Total	2,23,551	2,16,077	1,94,022	5,86,470	19,655	55,521	2,34,324	91,947	6,71,552	9,50,015*k*	
Punjab	Boys' and Girls' Schools	71,470	77,271	1,47,229	3,22,750	13,163	62,230	67,920	73,444	2,99,782	5,35,695	
	Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses	29,073	19,751	17,411	22,098	10	74	10,789*l*	10,160	¶57,283	52,083	
	Scholarships *c*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Buildings *c*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Miscellaneous *c*	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Total	1,00,543	97,022	1,64,640	3,44,848	13,173	62,304	78,709	83,604	3,57,065	5,87,778	
Central Provinces	Boys' and Girls' Schools	46,916	76,130	1,24,955	1,44,698	7,395	21,902	69,273	36,099	2,48,539	2,78,829	
	Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses	10,484	24,358	11,153	14	...	...	849	116	22,486	24,488	
	Scholarships	4,000	2,014	1,000	5,335	...	...	...	...	5,000	7,349	
	Buildings	... *m*	42,148	...	4,633	...	..	...	2,676	...	49,457	
	Miscellaneous	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Total	61,400	1,44,650	1,37,108	1,54,680	7,395	21,902	70,122	38,891	2,76,025	3,60,123*n*	
Assam	Boys' and Girls' Schools	Figures included in those for Bengal.	11,930	...	51,209	Figures included in those for Bengal.	18,016	Figures included in those for Bengal.	18,291	Figures included in those for Bengal.	99,446	
	Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses		10,595	...	3,363		96		1,232		15,286	
	Scholarships		...	...	...		...		...		...	
	Buildings		485	...	1,431		...		785		2,701	
	Miscellaneous		1,161	...	544		...		584		2,289	
	Total	...	24,171	...	56,547	...	18,112	...	20,892	...	1,19,722*o*	
Coorg	Boys' and Girls' Schools	5,530	2,206	...	6,150	127	1,064	...	220	5,657	9,640	
	Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses	16	1,890	...	...	...	...	...	...	16	1,890	
	Scholarships	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Buildings	...	...	...	433	...	...	...	...	...	433	
	Miscellaneous	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Total	5,546	4,096	...	6,583	127	1,064	...	220	5,673	11,963	
Haidarabad Assigned Districts.	Boys' and Girls' Schools	77,756	98,673	35,382	55,525	...	25,927	497	974	1,13,935	1,81,099	
	Training Schools for Masters and Mistresses	2,089	8,571	3,416	...	...	...	...	...	5,505	8,571	
	Scholarships	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Buildings	...	§6,967	18,619	§28,784	...	...	...	...	18,619	§35,751	
	Miscellaneous	15,377	10,789	3,162	3,532	...	...	...	...	18,539	14,321	
	Total	95,222	1,25,000	60,879	87,841	...	25,927	497	974	1,56,598	2,39,742	
TOTAL FOR INDIA†		12,91,564	17,21,668	12,39,360	25,41,402	2,35,667	20,64,771	7,60,829	15,82,099	35,27,420	‡79,09,940	

a Excluding the expenditure on primary classes attached to secondary and collegiate institutions.
b Including the expenditure on primary classes attached to secondary schools.
c Statistics not available.
d Including the expenditure of Rs. 2,60,691 on unaided primary schools under inspection.
e A large portion of this amount was for prizes awarded in Native State schools and cannot be separated from the sum spent in scholarships.
f Including the expenditure of Rs. 4,25,904 on primary schools in Native States.
g Excluding the cost of the primary classes of secondary schools which may be roughly estimated at Rs. 5,32,861.
h Excluding the cost of the primary classes attached to secondary schools which may be roughly estimated at Rs. 5,10,613.
i Including the expenditure of Rs. 1,43,941 on unaided primary schools under inspection.
j Inclusive of expenditure on primary schools for Europeans and Eurasians, which is stated to be inseparable.
k Inclusive of Rs. 10,480 on unaided primary schools under inspection.
l In 1870-71 municipal contributions were treated as private funds and included under "other sources."
¶ Inclusive of the expenditure incurred on the training of teachers for secondary vernacular schools.
m The building expenditure of 1870-71 is included under "boys and girls' schools," and cannot be separated.
n Including the expenditure of Rs. 2,895 on unaided primary schools under inspection, but excluding the cost of industrial schools, which are attended chiefly by pupils in the primary departments of middle schools. The cost of the industrial schools was—

	Rs.
Provincial Funds	4,082
Municipal ,,	10
Fees	815
Other sources	452
	5,359

o Including the expenditure of Rs. 1,281 on unaided primary schools under inspection.
§ Inclusive of certain expenditure on buildings which has been shown against "miscellaneous" in General Table 30.

* Excluding the expenditure on schools for Europeans and Eurasians.
† Excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
‡ Excluding the expenditure on primary education in Ajmir, which amounted to Rs. 17,837. The expenditure in Ajmir for 1870-71 is also omitted from this Table.

TABLE 8.—*Detailed Statement showing the Total Expenditure on Departmental and Aided Primary Schools¶ in 1881-82.*

Name of Province.	Class of Schools.	Departmental, Local, and Municipal Schools.*					Aided Schools.*					Total.*					Grand Total.*	Total expenditure on† Education in 1881-82 from public funds (Provincial, Local and Municipal).	Percentage of expenditure in columns 13 and 14 to total expenditure from Public Funds in column 18.	Percentage of Provincial expenditure in column 13 to total expenditure in column 17.	Percentage of Provincial expenditure in column 13 to total Provincial expenditure on education.†	Percentage of total expenditure in column 17 to total expenditure on education.†	Percentage of total expenditure on Primary Education‡ to total expenditure on education.†	Remarks.
		Provincial Funds.	Local Cess and Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Provincial Funds.	Local Cess and Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Provincial Funds.	Local Cess and Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.									
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	23
Madras	Boys	₹ 53,278	₹ 2,00,896	₹ 51,895	₹ 2,766	₹ 3,08,836	₹ 67,174	₹ 2,92,697	₹ 2,06,392	₹ 1,90,215	₹ 8,56,478	₹ 1,20,452	₹ 4,93,593	₹ 3,58,288	₹ 1,92,981	₹ 11,65,314	₹ 16,32,345	41·06	12·68	27·12	38·22	45·74	
	Girls	12,137	6,173	595	465	19,370	35,556	2,350	9,403	93,410	1,40,719	47,693	8,523	9,998	93,875	1,60,089							
	Total	65,415	2,07,069	52,491	3,231	3,28,206	1,02,730	2,95,047	3,15,795	2,83,625	9,97,197	1,68,145	5,02,116	3,68,286	2,86,856	13,25,403	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Bombay	Boys	2,92,928	2,32,377	1,44,920	7,155	11,77,380	9,266	3,156	5,303	20,491	38,306	3,02,194	7,35,513	1,50,423	27,559	12,15,685	19,82,535	57·14	25·60	30·36	39·34†	51·83	† The total expenditure incurred by the Native States (Rs. 5,76,831) is her included in the total expenditure on education. Excluding that sum the percentage for Bombay is 47·30.
	Girls	34,060	51,097	948	1,315	87,420	9,484	522	3,127	34,040	47,173	43,544	51,619	4,075	35,345	1,34,593							
	Total	3,26,988	2,83,474	1,45,868	8,470	12,64,800	18,750	3,678	8,630	54,441	85,479	3,45,738	7,87,132	1,54,498	62,911	13,50,279	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Bengal	Boys	65,139	350	581	104	66,174	4,80,013	11,062	10,54,342	3,41,891	18,98,309	5,45,152	11,412	10,64,924	3,42,995	19,64,483	26,80,510	22·73	27·99	22·55	33·99	36·29	
	Girls	...	...	...	...	...	51,617	1,221	11,970	1,02,626	1,67,434	51,617	1,221	11,970	1,02,626	1,67,434							
	Total	65,139	350	581	104	66,174	5,31,630	12,283	10,76,313	4,45,517	20,65,743	5,96,769	12,633	10,76,894	4,45,621	21,31,917	...	...	...	...	...	...	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh.	Boys	1,41,577	5,31,634	37,568	7,012	7,17,841	43,132	6,603	16,274	41,290	1,07,299	1,84,709	5,38,287	53,842	48,302	8,25,140a	15,77,695	50·74	24·04	23·28	45·70	46·21	a The expenditure on buildings and miscellaneous objects (Rs. 40,779) entered in Table 7 cannot be shown separately for boys' and girls' schools. It has therefore been excluded from columns 13-17, but included in columns 18-23.
	Girls	11,454	4,212	...	490	16,156	19,914	1,216	1,381	34,949	57,460	31,368	5,428	1,381	35,439	73,616a							
	Total	1,53,031	5,35,896	37,568	7,502	7,33,997	63,046	7,819	17,655	76,239	1,64,759	2,16,077	5,43,715	55,223	83,741	8,98,756	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Punjab	Boys	36,319	3,20,282	46,209	6,187	4,08,997	28,318	1,581	13,671	32,689	77,259	64,637	3,22,863	59,880	38,876	4,86,256	12,31,047	35·89	16·50	15·39	36·07	36·07	
	Girls	2,182	15,337	2	521	18,042	30,203	6,648	2,422	44,207	83,480	32,385	21,985	2,424	44,728	1,01,522							
	Total	38,501	3,35,619	46,211	6,708	4,27,039	58,521	8,229	16,093	76,896	1,60,739	97,022	3,44,848	62,304	83,604	5,87,778	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Central Provinces.	Boys	71,356	1,29,157	18,023	5,719	2,24,255	22,253	1,032	3,707	22,843	50,835	93,609	1,31,189	21,730	28,562	2,75,090b	5,28,802	56·60	48·14	39·98	52·98	53·41	b The expenditure on scholarships and buildings (Rs. 56,806) entered in Table 7 cannot be shown separately for boys' and girls' schools. It has therefore been excluded from columns 13-17, but included in columns 18-23.
	Girls	5,131	13,283	...	170	18,585	1,747	240	...	4,760	6,747	6,879	13,523	...	4,930	25,332b							
	Total	76,483	1,42,440	18,023	5,889	2,42,840	24,000	2,272	3,707	27,603	57,582	1,00,488	1,44,712	21,730	33,492	3,00,422	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Assam	Boys	9,492	3,363	96	67	13,018	14,036	51,486	17,207	17,256	99,985	23,528	54,849	17,303	17,323	1,13,003	2,05,075	39·36	20·40	17·05	38·07	38·48	
	Girls	...	...	...	...	...	643	1,698	24	3,073	5,438	643	1,698	24	3,073	5,438							
	Total	9,492	3,363	96	67	13,018	14,679	53,184	17,231	20,329	1,05,423	24,171	56,547	17,327	20,396	1,18,441	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Coorg	Boys	3,784	6,583	1,043	...	11,410	192	...	21	110	323	3,976	6,583	1,064	110	11,733	20,293	52·62	34·23	30·95	52·61	52·61	
	Girls	...	...	...	...	...	120	...	...	110	230	120	....	...	110	230							
	Total	3,784	6,583	1,043	...	11,410	312	...	21	220	553	4,096	6,583	1,064	220	11,963	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Haidarabad Assigned Districts.	Boys	1,20,167	86,092	13,411	...	2,19,670	3,088	240	12,516	704	16,548	1,23,255	86,332	25,927	704	2,36,218	3,24,381	65·61	52·13	53·07	67·93	67·93	
	Girls	1,433	1,359	...	...	2,792	312	150	...	270	732	1,745	1,509	...	270	3,524							
	Total	1,21,600	87,451	13,411	...	2,22,462	3,400	390	12,516	974	17,280	1,25,000	87,841	25,927	974	2,39,742	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Total for India.§	Boys	7,94,040	20,10,784	3,13,747	29,019	31,47,581	6,67,472	3,69,837	14,39,634	6,68,399	31,45,342	14,61,512	23,80,621	17,53,381	6,97,409	62,92,923	1,01,82,624	41·82	24·08	24·33	38·23	43·42	
	Girls	66,398	91,461	1,545	2,961	1,62,365	1,49,596	14,045	28,237	3,17,445	5,09,413	2,15,994	1,05,506	29,872	3,20,406	6,71,778							
	Total‖	8,60,438	21,02,245	3,15,292	31,971	33,09,946	8,17,068	3,83,882	14,67,961	9,85,844	36,54,755	16,77,506	24,86,127	17,83,253	10,17,815	69,64,701	...	...	...	...	...	...	

* Excluding the expenditure on schools for Europeans and Eurasians.
† Including the expenditure on all professional and technical institutions and on schools for Europeans and Eurasians.
‡ Including the expenditure of unaided schools under inspection.
§ Excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
‖ Excluding the expenditure on primary education in Ajmir which amounted to Rs. 11,887.
¶ Including training schools and classes for masters of primary schools.

220. Expenditure on primary Education in 1870-71 and in 1881-82.—The first subject which demands notice in Table 7 is the contrast between the funds available for extending primary education in 1870-71 and in 1881-82. In the first year, Bombay, the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts were the only Provinces of India in which local and municipal funds bore any part of the burden of educating the masses. We have seen the importance which the Secretary of State and the Government of India attached to the levy of local rates for primary education. The advantages of associating the development of this branch of public instruction with local taxation were both financial and administrative. One argument was supplied by the inability of the Imperial exchequer to find sufficient funds for so great and increasing a task; the other was suggested by the political advantage of entrusting to local boards, administering local resources, a branch of administration in which local interest and supervision could alone secure full efficiency and economy. Accordingly we find that in 1881-82 there was no Province of India, except Bengal, which had not cordially accepted the policy recommended by superior authority. The total expenditure from provincial, rural, and municipal funds in 1881-82 on primary education was Rs. 42,63,070, of which 60 per cent. was raised locally by urban or rural boards, while 40 per cent. fell upon provincial revenues. In 1870-71 49 per cent. of the expenditure had been paid by local rates, while 51 per cent. was contributed by provincial revenues. But the difference between 59 per cent. and 49 per cent. is not the only measure of the success that has attended the imposition of local rates. In 1881-82 the provincial expenditure had increased over that of 1870-71 by 33 per cent., while the local and municipal grants to primary education had increased by 105 per cent. The local fund revenue has, therefore, been vastly more elastic than the provincial grant, and this elasticity is likely to continue in future years. This comparison fails, however, to exhibit the results in the most striking light. In Bengal there are no local educational rates, and the local rates levied in Assam were imposed after the separation of the Province from Bengal and long after 1871. Excluding therefore Bengal and Assam from the present review, it appears that in the remaining seven Provinces 56 per cent. of the public expenditure on primary education in 1870-71 was provided by local rates, and 44 per cent. by imperial, or as they are now termed provincial revenues. In 1881-82 the local rates contributed 69 per cent. and the provincial funds 31 per cent. of the public expenditure. In the same period the provincial grant had increased by only 12 per cent., and the local rates by 99 per cent. Thus it is evident that the extension of primary education since 1870-71 in seven of the Provinces has almost entirely depended on local resources, and it must be remarked that if its history were traced throughout each year between 1871 and 1882, it would be found that, whereas the provincial grant has varied with financial disturbances caused by war and famine, the local fund income has remained comparatively secure. In considering Table 7 it must further be borne in mind that the expenditure on school buildings is not shown for Madras, Bengal, or the Punjab, as these charges appear in the lump and are not separated according to the class of education. But in Bengal such expenditure cannot be great, as the indigenous schoolmasters make their own arrangements for accommodation. It must also be remembered that under the heading "expenditure from other "sources" are included estimates furnished by indigenous schoolmasters. We have no means of verifying these estimates which in some Provinces are regarded as under, and in others as over, the mark; and they must therefore be accepted with reservation, especially in Bengal, where inspection is still inadequate to the great task which the Department has undertaken. In Bombay, under this heading are included large sums paid by the Native States for

schools which, though only inspected by the Department, are in their character essentially departmental institutions. In Chapter XII we shall be careful to distinguish these sums from contributions made by the people.

221. The Claims of primary Education upon public Funds generally.—The controversy regarding the relative claims of higher and primary education has not been completely set at rest by the change of public sentiment in regard to the "downward filtration theory." We have already referred to our Recommendations on this subject, but it is necessary, before reviewing the statistics of public expenditure upon Government and aided primary schools, to refer more particularly to the debate which took place in the Commission on February 14, 1883. It was proposed that the Commission should assert the principle "that the elementary educa-"tion of the masses be declared to be that part of the State system of "education to which public funds be mainly devoted." To this proposal objection was taken by some on the grounds that, if local funds were mainly expended upon primary education, the higher grades of education had a stronger claim upon provincial funds which were equally public funds; that it took no notice of private funds which might be largely devoted to the education of the masses and thus render a large public expenditure unnecessary; and that the authorities had never intended to limit expenditure to that class of instruction now defined as primary. The Commission thereon decided, not without protest from the minority, to substitute for consideration the following proposition: "That while every branch of educa-"tion can rightly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable, in the present "circumstances of the country, to declare the elementary education of the masses, "its provision, extension, and improvement, to be that part of the educational "system to which the efforts of the State should now be directed in a still larger "measure than heretofore." This proposal was objected to on the ground that it was a vague and qualified declaration of policy; that the Government of India Resolution No. 63, dated February 11, 1871, had laid down the policy which Government meant to pursue; and that except in Bengal the local rates were exclusively or almost exclusively reserved for primary education. An amendment to the proposition was then moved to the following effect: "That "it be declared that, while all forms of education are necessary for the good of "the community and deserving of encouragement, the elementary education "of the masses is that portion of the system of education that has the strongest "claim on the State; and that as secondary and collegiate education become "more self-supporting, a constantly increasing proportion of public funds be "devoted to elementary education." The main object of this amendment was to remove the impression that the duty of the State towards primary education might one day change, which seemed to be suggested by the phrase "under present circumstances." The amendment was lost, but the supporters of the original motion agreed to accept the Recommendation in this form—*that whilst every branch of education can rightly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable in the present circumstances of the country to declare the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension, and improvement, to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore.* It was felt that this Recommendation did not prevent a more explicit declaration of the ways and means by which "the strenuous "efforts of Government" in the cause of primary education must be supported. Accordingly a further Recommendation was proposed and adopted, to the effect *that primary education be declared to be that part of the whole system of public instruction which possesses an almost exclusive claim on local funds set apart for education and a large claim on provincial revenues.* Objection was taken

to this Recommendation on the ground that local rates might be fairly charged with the cost of higher education, and it was proposed to declare "that "primary education possesses the first claim on local funds set apart for edu- "cation, where such exist, and a large claim on provincial revenues." This amendment was resisted on the ground that the imposition of local rates was universal except in Bengal, where, notwithstanding the decision of the Government of India in 1868 which was supported by the Secretary of State, no educational rate had yet been imposed; and that the clause "where such "exist" would imply that the Commission were indifferent to the further development of a policy which had been so instrumental in providing for the education of the masses throughout India with the exception of one Province. It was urged that the two principles contained in the Recommendation were sound, namely, that the local educational rate should be almost exclusively devoted to the education of the masses who were the chief contributors to it; and secondly, that the levy of a local rate did not diminish, but rather increased, the obligation of the State to help those who were least able to help themselves and yet came forward to supply local resources for their education. The Recommendation given above was then carried by a large majority. Accepting therefore these two Recommendations as the deliberate verdict of the Commission upon the question of the claims which primary education possesses upon public funds (whether they be those raised by municipal and rural boards in the form of local rates, or whether they be the provincial revenues assigned to the Local Government from imperial taxation), we may now proceed to enquire how far the practice corresponds with the theory thus enunciated. The following figures are taken from Table 8, which has been given above. They show how the claims of primary education, first, upon public educational funds, and, secondly, upon provincial funds assigned for education, were recognised by the various Local Governments and Administrations in the year ending March 31, 1882. In the last column they show the share of public as well as private educational funds which is believed to have been spent on primary education. The information is as accurate as we can obtain, but the expenditure on buildings and on scholarships is not uniformly included in every Province. In Chapter XII we shall give a somewhat different analysis of public expenditure, and the distinction between the results shown here and there must not be overlooked.

Statement showing the percentage of expenditure on primary schools.

PROVINCE.	Percentage of public educational funds devoted to Departmental and Aided Primary schools.	Percentage of Provincial Educational funds devoted to Departmental and Aided Primary schools.	Percentage of total expenditure devoted to Departmental and Aided Primary schools.	Percentage of total educational expenditure devoted to Primary schools of all classes (Departmental, Aided, and Inspected).
Madras	41·06	17·12	38·22	45·74
Bombay	57·14	30·36	39·34	51·83
Bengal	22·73	22·55	33·99	36·29
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	50·74	23·28	45·70	46·21
Punjab	35·89	15·39	36·07	36·07
Central Provinces	56·60	39·98	52·98	53·41
Assam	39·36	17·09	38·07	38·48
Coorg	52·62	30·95	52·61	52·61
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	65·61	53·07	67·93	67·93
All India	41·82	24·33	38·23	43·42

These figures show that in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, in Bombay, the North-Western Provinces, the Central Provinces and Coorg, more than half of the public expenditure on education was devoted to the instruction of the masses. In Madras, Assam, and the Punjab, more than one-third was so spent; whilst in Bengal, where owing to the absence of local rates the public support of primary education falls exclusively upon provincial revenues, less than one-fourth of the total public expenditure was devoted to primary education. For the whole of India, the percentage of public educational funds devoted to the instruction of the masses was 41 per cent., and the following Provinces were below that average, namely, Assam, which spent 39·36, the Punjab, which spent 35·89, and Bengal, which spent only 22·83 of its public educational fund on primary instruction. The proportion given for Bengal excludes, however, the cost of primary classes in secondary schools.

222. The claims of primary Education on Provincial Revenues.—The advocates of the claims of the masses have never been content with showing that a large proportion of public funds is spent on primary schools. They argue that local rates being contributed by the great mass of Indian cultivators are local contributions, which in equity demand an equivalent from the State; that, in the words of the Government of India, the provision of local rates does not lessen the obligation of the State to help those who help themselves, and therefore that it is important to see that a reasonable proportion of the provincial grant for education is assigned for primary schools. They call special attention to the Despatch of the Secretary of State, dated 26th of May 1870, which was the outcome of long discussion with the Bengal Government. That Despatch certainly enjoined the greatest caution in dealing with higher education, and it referred to the poverty of many of the students in the Bengal colleges and high schools; but it was prefaced by the following general remarks: "In the brief remarks which I shall offer on your Despatch, "I would be understood as approving generally of the main principle which "runs through it, namely, that the Government expenditure should, as far "as possible, be reduced with reference to the education of those who are well "able to pay for themselves and should be mainly directed to the provision of "an elementary education for the masses of the people." What constitutes a reasonable grant has never been determined, but it is obvious that in a Province like Bengal, where there is no local fund for education to depend on, more must be done by provincial revenues than elsewhere. The Table shows that, while in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts more than half the provincial assignment for education is given to primary education, and in the Central Provinces more than a third, Bombay and Coorg give 30 per cent., the North-Western Provinces 23 per cent., Bengal 22 per cent., and the rest of the Provinces between 18 and 14 per cent. We are, however, unable to pass over our reference to the Haidarabad Assigned Districts without further explanation. From the forwarding letter which covers the Report on education in these Districts we extract the following remarks: "The cess was originally an education cess, but is now "part of a local cess connected with village police. Education, however, did "not lose by the change, and it receives a larger share now than formerly. On "every rupee of revenue paid by each field, one anna three pies or five pice are "levied. Of this revenue one-fifth forms the school cess. The cess income for "education in 1881-82 amounted to Rs. 1,01,081 and each District was credited "with its own share. The administration of the fund is, however, peculiar "and demands notice. A hard-and-fast rule is laid down, that primary educa- "tion in Government schools is not to receive more than Rs. 1,30,000 a year. "It is also assumed that Rs. 53,660 of the cess income are available for this "purpose, to which the Local Government adds from general revenues the

"balance to make up Rs. 1,30,000. The rest of the cess income is set aside "for school buildings. If the cess income increases, so as to be able to contri- "bute more than Rs. 53,660, then the provincial assignment proportionately "decreases." We have no information which would show us whether the whole of the cess is annually spent on school buildings. But in Chapter IV of his Report the Director of Public Instruction suggests that the balance of the cess money, Rs. 47,000, now devoted to buildings, &c., should be given for the extension of primary education, and the provincial grant be raised under the terms of the Government of India Resolution No. 60, dated 11th February 1871. It seems probable that the very large share of provincial educational funds, 53 per cent., which is given to primary education in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, is partially accounted for by the financial arrangement described above, —an arrangement which treats a local fund income of Rs. 1,01,081 as if it were an income of Rs. 53,660. Our Recommendations will, however, if they are adopted by the Local Administration, introduce a change in this respect. The whole local fund income will in the first place be credited to the school fund and will be supplemented by a provincial grant. The proportion of the whole expenditure borne by local rates will then be increased, and that charged to the provincial grant be *pro tanto* diminished.

223. The Cost of Education in primary Schools.—The following Table gives the average annual cost of educating each pupil in the primary schools of each Province. It includes, except for Bengal and Assam, the expenditure upon primary classes in secondary schools; and thus it appears that in the Punjab provincial funds bear some part of the cost of primary education, although we have explained elsewhere that in that Province primary vernacular schools are not assisted or maintained out of provincial revenues. The inclusion of these primary classes, and of schools in which English is taught to pupils under primary instruction, will explain the comparatively large cost of educating a pupil in the aided schools of the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces. It will be observed that the cost of educating a pupil in the primary cessschools of Bombay is very little more in the case of boys' schools, and much less in the case of girls' schools than the cost in aided institutions. This is explained by the large average attendance in a departmental school in Bombay, which economises the attention of the masters and other incidental expenses. With these few remarks we subjoin the following Table.

ABLE No. 10.—*Statement showing the average* annual cost of educating each pupil in primary schools in the official year 1881-82.*

PROVINCE AND CLASS OF SCHOOLS.		Departmental Schools.				Aided Schools.				Unaided Schools under inspection.	
		Total cost.	Cost to Provincial Funds.	Cost to Local Rates or Cesses.	Cost to Municipal Funds.	Total cost.	Cost to Provincial Funds.	Cost to Local Rates or Cesses.	Cost to Municipal Funds.	Total cost.	Cost to Municipal Funds.
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
Primary schools for		R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.
DRAS	Boys	6 0 10	0 13 9	3 7 10	0 8 2	4 5 9	0 5 3	1 5 1	0 3 3	2 0 8	...
	Girls	5 2 0	2 11 3	0 12 11	1 4 1	11 5 0	2 13 5	0 0 2	0 3 2	8 5 1	...
	Total	6 1 11	0 15 3	3 6 3	0 9 1	4 11 11	0 7 5	1 3 11	0 3 3	2 6 6	...
MBAY	Boys	4 5 10	1 1 3	2 6 10	0 2 9	4 1 6	1 0 1	0 4 4	0 0 2	4 5 6	...
	Girls	6 0 7	1 11 5	4 1 11	0 1 9	10 4 11	2 4 9	0 0 10	0 1 2	5 8 9	...
	Total	4 7 0	1 1 8	2 8 1	0 2 9	6 0 3	1 6 7	0 3 3	0 0 5	4 6 7	...
AL	Boys	4 0 3	3 14 3	...	...	2 10 0	0 10 7	0 0 2	0 0 1	2 7 2	0 0 5
	Girls	...	...	...	...	11 7 4	3 6 11	...	0 1 4	7 4 4	0 7 11
	Total	4 0 3	3 14 3	...		2 12 9	0 11 6	0 0 2	0 0 1	2 9 10	0 0 8
ORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH	Boys	3 10 0	0 9 6	2 10 9	0 2 3	10 12 2	4 5 2	0 0 8	0 9 11	9 6 4	1 12 9
	Girls	4 7 5	3 2 8	0 14 1	0 4 7	10 12 8	3 13 0	...	0 3 8	6 4 0	1 1 5
	Total	3 10 8	0 10 4	2 10 3	0 2 3	10 12 3	4 2 7	0 0 5	0 7 11	8 10 11	1 10 2
UNJAB	Boys	4 12 8	0 6 6	2 15 8	0 12 0	7 6 9	2 13 6	...	0 4 7	...	...
	Girls	4 11 5	0 9 1	2 2 10	1 13 2	12 12 6	3 4 3	0 3 10	0 10 11	...	...
	Total	4 12 7	0 6 8	2 15 1	0 12 9	9 6 4	3 0 0	0 1 5	0 6 11	...	...
ITRAL PROVINCES	Boys	3 14 1	0 15 9	2 1 9	10 5 4	2 12 2	1 3 4	...	0 1 9	0 14 9	...
	Girls	5 2 5	...	4 9 4	0 8 1	13 0 9	3 6 0	...	0 7 5	...	...
	Total	3 15 0	0 15 9	2 3 8	0 5 5	3 0 8	1 4 3	...	0 1 11	0 14 9	...
S. M	Boys	2 0 8	2 0 8	...	...	2 15 0	0 5 7	1 9 2	...	0 8 2	...
	Girls	...	...	...	...	5 3 11	0 9 11	1 10 2	...	2 3 5	...
	Total	2 0 8	2 0 8	...	...	3 0 2	0 5 8	1 9 2	...	0 9 1	...
BG	Boys	3 4 9	0 11 0	2 3 9	...	5 10 8	3 5 11	...	...	...	...
	Girls	...	...	...	...	14 6 0	7 8 0	...	...	...	...
	Total	3 4 9	0 11 0	2 3 9	...	7 9 2	4 4 5	...	...	...	...
AIDABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS	Boys	6 1 7	3 8 11	2 0 3	0 0 4	4 1 3	0 12 2	0 0 6	0 0 5	...	...
	Girls	10 9 2	5 6 10	3 4 3	1 14 1	7 2 10	3 0 11	...	1 7 6	...	...
	Total	6 2 4	3 9 2	2 0 6	0 0 8	4 2 5	0 13 1	0 0 6	0 1 0	...	...
TAL FOR INDIA†	Boys	4 5 7	0 14 9	2 9 7	0 4 3	3 1 11	0 10 6	0 5 0	0 0 10	2 13 1	0 0 2
	Girls	5 10 7	1 2 10	3 2 1	0 10 4	11 3 11	3 1 8	0 1 3	0 3 5	7 3 6	0 1 7
	Total	4 6 5	0 15 4	2 9 11	0 4 6	3 7 1	0 12 1	0 4 11	0 1 0	3 0 8	0 0 3

* Calculated on the average monthly number of the pupils enrolled.
† Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

124. Recommendations Recapitulated.—The Recommendations which have been discussed in detail in the course of this Chapter may now be presented in a complete form as follows:—

We recommend that—

(1) primary education be regarded as the instruction of the masses through the vernacular in such subjects as will best fit them for their position in life, and be not necessarily regarded as a portion of instruction leading up to the University:

(2) the upper primary and lower primary examinations be not made compulsory in any Province:

(3) while every branch of education can justly claim the fostering care of the State, it is desirable, in the present circumstances of the country, to declare the elementary education of the masses, its provision, extension, and improvement, to be that part of the educational system to which the strenuous efforts of the State should now be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore:

(4) an attempt be made to secure the fullest possible provision for an extension of primary education by legislation suited to the circumstances of each Province:

(5) where indigenous schools exist, the principle of aiding and improving them be recognised as an important means of extending elementary education:

(6) examinations by inspecting officers be conducted as far as possible *in situ*, and all primary schools receiving aid be invariably inspected *in situ*:

(7) as a general rule, aid to primary schools be regulated to a large extent according to the results of examination; but an exception may be made in the case of schools established in backward Districts or under peculiar circumstances, which may be aided under special rules:

(8) school-houses and furniture be of the simplest and most economical kind:

(9) the standards of primary examination in each province be revised with a view to simplification, and to the larger introduction of practical subjects, such as native methods of arithmetic, accounts and mensuration, the elements of natural and physical science, and their application to agriculture, health, and the industrial arts; but no attempt be made to secure general uniformity throughout India:

(10) care be taken not to interfere with the freedom of managers of aided schools in the choice of text-books:

(11) promotion from class to class be not necessarily made to depend on the results of one fixed standard of examinations uniform throughout the Province:

(12) physical development be promoted by the encouragement of native games, gymnastics, school-drill and other exercises suited to the circumstances of each class of school:

(13) all inspecting officers and teachers be directed to see that the teaching and discipline of every school are such as to exert a right influence on the manners, the conduct, and the character of the children, and that for the guidance of the masters a special manual be prepared:

(14) the existing rules, as to religious teaching in Government schools, be applied to all primary schools wholly maintained by municipal or local fund boards:

(15) the supply of Normal schools, whether Government or aided, be so localised as to provide for the local requirements of all primary schools, whether Government or aided, within the Division under each Inspector:

(16) the first charges on provincial funds assigned for primary education be the cost of its direction and inspection, and the provision of adequate Normal schools:

(17) pupils in municipal or local board-schools be not entirely exempted from payment of fees, merely on the ground that they are the children of rate-payers:

(18) in all board-schools a certain proportion of pupils be admissible as free students on the ground of poverty; and in the case of special schools, established for the benefit of poorer classes, a general or larger exemption from payment of fees be allowed under proper authority for special reasons:

(19) subject to the exemption of a certain proportion of free students on account of poverty, fees, whether in money or kind, be levied in all aided schools; but the proceeds be left entirely at the disposal of the school-managers:

(20) the principle laid down in Lord Hardinge's Resolution, dated 11th October 1844, be re-affirmed, *i. e.*, that in selecting persons to fill the lowest offices under Government, preference be always given to candidates who can read and write:

(21) the Local Governments, especially those of Bombay and the North-Western Provinces, be invited to consider the advisability of carrying out the suggestion contained in paragraph 96 of the Despatch of 1854, namely, of making some educational qualification necessary to the confirmation of hereditary village officers, such as patels and lambardars:

(22) night schools be encouraged wherever practicable:

(23) as much elasticity as possible be permitted both as regards the hours of the day and the seasons of the year during which the attendance of scholars is required, especially in agricultural villages and backward Districts:

(24) primary education be extended in backward Districts, especially in those inhabited mainly by aboriginal races, by the instrumentality of the Department pending the creation of school-boards, or by specially liberal grants-in-aid to those who are willing to set up and maintain schools:

(25) all primary schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school-boards, and all primary schools that are aided from the same fund and are not registered as special schools, be understood to be open to all castes and classes of the community:

(26) such a proportion between special and other primary schools be maintained in each school-district as to ensure a proportionate provision for the education of all classes:

(27) assistance be given to schools and orphanages in which poor children are taught reading, writing, and counting, with or without manual work:

(28) primary education be declared to be that part of the whole system of public instruction which possesses an almost exclusive claim on local funds set apart for education, and a large claim on provincial revenues:

(29) both Municipal and Local self-government Boards keep a separate school-fund:

(30) the municipal school-fund consist of—

(*a*) a fair proportion of municipal revenues, to be fixed in each case by the Local Government;

(*b*) the fees levied in schools wholly maintained at the cost of the municipal school-fund;

(*c*) any assignment that may be made to the municipal school-fund from the local fund;

(*d*) any assignment from provincial funds;

(*e*) any other funds that may be entrusted to the municipalities for the promotion of education;

(*f*) any unexpended balance of the school-fund from previous years:

(31) the Local Board's school-fund consist of—

(*a*) a distinct share of the general local fund, which share shall not be less than a minimum proportion to be prescribed for each Province;

(*b*) the fees levied in schools wholly maintained at the cost of the school-fund;

(*c*) any contribution that may be assigned by municipal boards;

(*d*) any assignment made from provincial funds;

(*e*) any other funds that may be entrusted to the local boards for the promotion of education;

(*f*) any unexpended balance of the school-fund from previous years:

(32) the general control over primary school expenditure be vested in the school-boards, whether municipal or rural, which may now exist or may hereafter be created for self-government in each Province:

(33) the first appointment of schoolmasters in municipal or board-schools be left to the town or District boards, with the proviso that the masters be certificated or approved by the Department, and their subsequent promotion or removal be regulated by the boards, subject to the approval of the Department:

(34) the cost of maintaining or aiding primary schools in each school-district, and the construction and repair of board-school-houses, be charges against the municipal or local board-school-fund so created:

(35) the vernacular, in which instruction shall be imparted in any primary school, maintained by any municipal or local board, be determined by the school committee of management, subject to revision by the municipal or local board: provided that if there be any dissenting minority in the community, who represent a number of pupils sufficient to form one or more separate classes or schools, it shall be incumbent on the Department to provide for the establishment of such classes or schools, and it shall be incumbent on such Municipal or Local Board to assign to such classes or schools a fair proportion of the whole assignable funds:

(36) Municipal and Local Boards administering funds in aid of primary schools adopt the rules prescribed by the Department for aiding such schools, and introduce no change therein without the sanction of the Department.

CHAPTER V.

SECONDARY EDUCATION.

225. Definition of the Term.—Secondary education, as the term is understood in India, may be generally (though not in all cases accurately) described as that which leads up from the primary to the collegiate course. But though its standard is everywhere higher than that of primary education, no definition can be framed which will exactly cover the subjects of secondary education in all Provinces. Its higher limit is, indeed, precisely defined by the matriculation standard of the Universities, since that standard has hitherto been regarded not only as the introduction to a course of collegiate study, but also as the final standard of secondary schools. But the starting-point of secondary education necessarily varies with the varying limits of primary instruction, as that is understood in different Provinces. Nor is the varying stage at which secondary education begins the only element of difference; other and equally marked differences are found to exist in the character of the instruction itself. In some Provinces the course in secondary schools is framed with exclusive reference to the University matriculation standard; in others, independent standards and courses of instruction are also found. In some Provinces, but not in all, instruction in English forms a necessary part of the course; in others, the study of an oriental classic is required, either as an alternative with English or as an independent subject; in others, again, elementary science is prescribed. In every Province, history, geography, and either geometry or algebra or both, form part of the course, though one or other of the first two subjects is sometimes taught in primary schools of the better class. But with all these differences, there is a clear line of distinction between secondary and primary education, in that the character of the former no longer has exclusive reference to the practical requirements of the student in after-life. In however small a degree, it begins to be definitely associated with what is understood as liberal education, and with the exercise of the higher faculties of thought. These are the lines by which the character of secondary education has been determined in all countries, and along which its development should manifestly proceed.

Another requirement of at least equal importance should always be kept in view. In the words of the Resolution appointing the Commission, "the great "majority of those who prosecute their studies beyond the primary stage will "never go beyond the curriculum of the middle or at furthest of the high "schools. It is therefore of the utmost importance that the education they "receive should be as thorough and sound as possible." In the course of this Chapter we shall enquire how far middle and high schools in India satisfy the condition of giving an education, sufficient and complete in itself, to pupils who proceed no further.

226. Instruction in high Schools.—The variety of standard above noted is, however, practically confined to the lower division of secondary schools,—that is, according to the existing classification, to middle schools. The course in the upper division—that is, in high schools—is governed throughout by the standard of the matriculation examination in which it ends. That standard, it is true, is not precisely the same in the different Universities of India, and to this extent the course of instruction in high schools will be found to differ. But as regards

the progress of education in high schools, these differences are not important enough to prevent an accurate comparison of Province with Province. There are, indeed, differences of another kind, which will be explained in detail hereafter; and of which it is now sufficient to say that while in one Province a high school contains only the two highest classes reading for the Entrance examination, and in another the four highest classes, in a third it includes pupils in every stage of progress from the alphabet to matriculation,—that is, it includes a high, a middle, and a primary department. But if we leave out of sight these differences of range, and confine our attention to the highest standards taught in high schools, it will appear that throughout India these standards present no wide variations.

227. Instruction in middle Schools.—It is very different with the course of instruction in middle schools. In these schools not only does the curriculum vary from Province to Province, but even within the limits of the same Province double standards and courses of instruction are sometimes found. The former variation arises from the wider or narrower range of the course in different Provinces in primary and in high schools, by which the inferior and superior limits of middle school instruction are respectively determined. The latter variation is due to another cause. In many Provinces it has been felt that the requirements of pupils whose education is to terminate at the middle stage are different from those of pupils who will pass on in due course to the high school and the University Entrance examination. The standard has accordingly been modified in two different directions to suit the separate requirements of these two classes of pupils. In the first case, the middle standard is a development of that for primary schools, complete in itself and not looking to any higher standard. In the second case, it is ancillary to, and determined by, the standard of the high school to which it leads.

228. Connection of the different Classes of secondary Schools.—The following diagrams will show more clearly the general character of secondary schools, together with their relation to primary schools, in the chief administrative divisions of India. In each case the course of instruction is assumed to advance from class I, the lowest primary class, to class IX or X, that of the matriculation standard:—

Madras.

	Vernacular Schools.	*English Schools.*
High School		VI (Entrance examination).
		V
Middle School	VII	Upper IV (Middle School examination).
	VI	Lower IV
	V	III
Primary School	IV	II (Upper Primary examination).
	III	I (Lower „ „).
	II	
	I	

In vernacular schools, which are examined by fixed standards and are generally aided according to the results of examination, English may be optionally taught, as a language only, from class III upwards. In English schools, English is taught as a language from class I, and as the medium of instruction from the Lower IVth. In the corresponding classes of English and vernacular schools, the standard of instruction is practically the same.

Bombay.

Primary Schools (Vernacular).	*Middle Schools.*	*High Schools.*
		VII (Entrance examination).
		VI
	V (Public Service examination, Upper Grade).	V
	IV	IV
	III (High School Admission Standard).	
VI (Public Service Examination, Lower Grade).	II	
V	I	
IV (Upper Primary Standard).		
III		
II (Lower Primary Standard).		
I		

The ordinary primary course terminates at standard IV, after passing which pupils are admissible to middle schools, and the ordinary middle course at standard III, whence they may proceed to high schools. But a 5th and a 6th standard (still confined to instruction in the vernacular) are added to the course in primary, and a 4th and a 5th standard to that in middle schools, in order to meet the requirements of pupils who desire a fuller course of instruction, vernacular and English respectively, in the schools in which they are reading, without joining those of a higher class. The certificate of having passed these extra or supplementary standards is recognised as entitling the holder to enter the public service in different grades. In vernacular schools as they are now classified, English is not taught. In middle schools it is taught mainly as a language. In higher schools it is taught as a language and is also the medium of instruction.

The system in the Central Provinces closely resembles that of Bombay, on which it was founded. Its character will be seen from the following diagram:—

Central Provinces.

	Class.	*Primary Schools (Vernacular).*	*Middle Schools.*	*High Schools.*
High Section	IX			II
	VIII			I
Middle Section	VII		IV (Middle School standard)	
	VI	VI	III	
	V	V	II	
Primary Section	IV	IV	I (Upper Primary standard)	
	III	III	(Lower Primary standard).	
	II	II } Occupying half a year each.		
	I	I }		

No pupil can begin the study of English until he has passed the lower primary vernacular examination. Classes I to III (vernacular) form the lower primary branches of middle schools, the lowest class of which reads the upper primary course. Village primary schools have four and sometimes five classes, and town primary schools have five at least and sometimes six. According to the view expressed in the Report of our Provincial Committee for the Central Provinces, "The town vernacular schools might in fact be called "middle schools," were it not for the absence of a standard of examination corresponding to that prescribed for middle English schools. English is taught in all the classes of a middle school, and is usually the medium of instruction.

Bengal and Assam.

Primary Schools.	*Middle Schools.*	*High Schools.*
		IX (Entrance examinat
		VIII
	VII (Middle School exami-	VII
	nation).	
	VI	VI
V (Upper Primary exami-	V	V
nation).		
IV	IV	IV
III (Lower Primary examina-	III	III
tion).		
II	II	II
I	I	I

In each class of schools the course is distinct throughout, and is determined from the beginning by the final standard of each school, which is fixed so as to meet the requirements of different classes of pupils. The lower and upper primary standards have no relation to the subjects of instruction at any part of the cousre in a middle or a high school. Again, the final standard of a middle school is complete in itself, and has no resemblance to that of the corresponding class in a high school. Pupils in middle and high schools are subject to no general examination other than that by the final standard of their class, namely, the middle school and Entrance examinations respectively. In primary schools the vernacular alone is taught. Middle schools may be either English or vernacular, the only difference being that, in the former, English is taught as a language in the upper classes in addition to the full vernacular course. In high schools English is generally employed as the medium of instruction, and is taught from the lowest class. In a few high schools, however, the vernacular is used as the medium of instruction in all except the four or five highest classes.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh.

	Vernacular Schools.	*English Schools.*
High Section		IX
		VIII
Middle Section . .	VII (Middle School examination)	VII
	VI	VI
Upper Primary Section .	V (Upper Primary examination)	V
	IV	IV
Lower Primary Section .	III (Lower Primary examination)	III
	II	II
	I	I

The vernacular subjects in corresponding classes of English and vernacular schools are almost identical. Up to the middle school standard, English is mostly taught as a language only. Each section is for purposes of classification treated as a separate school.

Punjab.

	Vernacular Department.	*English Department.*
High School . .	V	V
	IV	IV
Middle School . .	III	III
	II	II
	I	I
Primary School, Upper Division. . .	V	V
	IV	IV
Primary School, Lower Division . .	III	
	II	
	I	

No English is taught in the lower division of primary schools. In the higher classes of English schools, English is taught as a language, in addition to a course of study which is common to both classes of schools; and in vernacular schools mathematics and some other subjects are taught instead of English.

229. General Review of the Rise of Secondary Education.—The differences of system that are disclosed in the preceding paragraph are explained and justified by the different circumstances amid which secondary education of the modern type took its rise in the various Provinces of India. We proceed to give a brief historical review of these circumstances; dividing our review into three periods, (*a*) before 1854, (*b*) from 1854 to 1871, (*c*) from 1871 to 1882. Each period is marked by a distinguishing character of its own, which is common, more or less, to all the Provinces of India.

Before 1854.—During the first period, which may be roughly taken as beginning in the most advanced Province with the year 1820, the desires of the people set more or less strongly in the direction of English education, as being that which would qualify them for the most lucrative and honourable employment. This tendency was confirmed by the Resolution passed by the Government of Lord William Bentinck on 1835, which decided in favour of education in English and the vernaculars, in preference to the oriental classics. After that declaration of educational policy, the establishment of English schools and colleges became the main object of the efforts alike of Government, of the missionary bodies, of charitable individuals, and of the natives themselves associating together for that purpose. These efforts, so far as they came at all under the influence and control of Government, were subject to the supervision of honorary Boards, Committees, or Councils of Education, to whose zeal and success in discharging the difficult duties which they had undertaken, the Despatch of 1854 paid a well-earned and cordial tribute.

1854 to 1871.—In that Despatch the Court of Directors laid stress on the fact that the efforts of the Government had been too exclusively directed* towards the maintenance of colleges of a high standard, and towards providing a small number of natives of India, drawn for the most part, as the Court supposed, from what would be called in England the higher classes, with the means of acquiring a very high degree of education. It proceeded to point out that the attention of the Government should now be also directed† towards conveying to the great mass of the people useful and practical knowledge, suited to every station in life. This result would be attained if there existed, in every District of India, schools "whose object‡ should be not to train highly a few youths, but "to provide more opportunities than now exist for the acquisition of such an im- "proved education as will make those who possess it more useful members of "society in every condition of life." In using these words the Court of Directors had in view not merely the extension of primary and elementary schools, on the necessity of which marked and repeated stress is laid, but also the increase of schools of the class which are now called secondary. "We include§ in this class "of institutions those which, like the zillah schools of Bengal, the district Gov- "ernment Anglo-vernacular schools of Bombay, and such as have been established "by the Raja of Burdwan and other native gentlemen in different parts of "India, use the English language as the chief medium of instruction; as well "as others of an inferior order, such as the tehseelee schools in the North- "Western Provinces, and the Government vernacular schools in the Bombay "Presidency, whose object is, however imperfectly it has been as yet carried "out, to convey the highest class of instruction which can now be taught

* Paragraph 39. † Paragraph 41. ‡ Paragraph 42. § Paragraphs 43 and 44.

"through the medium of the vernacular languages. We include these Anglo-"vernacular and vernacular schools in the same class, because we are unwilling to "maintain the broad line of separation which at present exists between schools in "which the *media* for in parting instruction differ." The attention of Government was thus directed, not only to the provision of instruction through the vernacular languages for the great mass of the people, but also to the increase of schools of secondary instruction; and although later Despatches* recalled attention to the urgent claims of primary education, yet it is not surprising that the outset of the period under notice is chiefly distinguished by the extension of secondary schools—a tendency which made itself felt, more or less in different Provinces, up to its close.

1871 to 1882.—Towards the close of the period just described, successive reviews of the progress of education in India, undertaken by the Home authorities, drew prominent attention to the need of extending elementary education among the masses of the people. Accordingly throughout the next period, from 1871 to 1882, in which the control of education was transferred to Local Governments, the extension of secondary is much less marked than that of primary education; for the support and development of which local cesses had been raised in most Provinces. It should be here stated, and will be shown at length hereafter, that any comparison of progress between the first and the last year of this period becomes a matter of extreme difficulty owing to four causes:—(1) the more definite classification of primary and secondary schools in accordance with the standards prescribed by the Government of India, which resulted in the transfer of a great number of schools from one class to the other; (2) the separation of the middle departments of high schools, and of the primary departments of high and middle schools, and their exhibition as separate schools with corresponding separation of expenditure; (3) the exclusion of schools for Europeans and Eurasians from the Tables of attendance and expenditure for 1881-82; (4) special differences of classification affecting the North-Western Provinces and Oudh. But notwithstanding these sources of uncertainty, it may still be possible to trace and exhibit the main lines of the policy followed in each Province with regard to secondary education.

230. Secondary Education in Madras: Before 1854.—The Board of Public Instruction, appointed in 1826, established, in addition to nearly 100 elementary schools in the Districts, a training school in Madras which in later years became the basis of the high school of that town. The University Board, which ultimately replaced the Board of Public Instruction, opened two provincial schools of the same standard as the Madras High School, one at Cuddalore in 1853, and one at Rajamahendri in 1854. The missionary bodies were working with much greater success towards the same end; and before 1849 they had opened a large number of secondary schools in which English was taught, besides vernacular schools chiefly of an elementary character. Pachaiyappa's Central Institution was established at Madras in 1842, out of the accumulated funds arising from a native bequest for charitable purposes; and in 1854 this school with its two branches was educating about a thousand pupils.

Madras: 1854 to 1871.—Towards the beginning of this period there were, under the management of Government, four high and seven middle schools, educating in all 1,631 pupils. Of the four high schools, three were afterwards raised to the rank of colleges. A scheme was set on foot for the establishment of 100 vernacular "taluka" schools, to serve as models; but owing to the indifference of the native community to vernacular education other than that

* 7th April 1859; 24th December 1863; 25th April 1864.

provided in the indigenous schools, it was afterwards found expedient to add instruction in the English language to the regular vernacular course. Meanwhile, the grant-in-aid system was being introduced, for the encouragement of private effort in this class of education. In 1859 the Director of Public Instruction wrote as follows: "In all our educational operations, the eventual resort to the "grant-in-aid system as the main course of action should be steadily kept "in view . . . . . Although it is probable that the time is still far distant "when it will be possible to dispense with the limited number of Government "schools which have been or are likely to be established, I would view these "schools rather as pioneers, and as models to be followed and eventually to be "superseded by others established on the grant-in-aid system." In 1870-71 there were 14 high and 67 middle schools under Government management, and 40 high and 523 middle schools under private bodies, together educating 43,700 pupils, including about 21,000 pupils in primary classes. Every District except one had a high school, either Government or aided. The grants to aided schools increased at a much more rapid rate than the expenditure on departmental institutions. The requirement of the Despatch of 1854, that stress should be laid on the vernacular languages, was met by the exclusion of English from the two lowest classes of primary schools, and by the adoption of the vernacular as the medium of substantive instruction in the three classes next above them.

1871 to 1882.—In this period, the liberal policy of previous years was to some extent reversed. There was a serious loss in the number of secondary schools, and the reduction fell with exclusive weight on aided institutions. Government and aided high schools for boys increased from 52 to 69, the increase being equally divided between the two classes of schools. In aided middle schools for boys there was a loss of 200, while Government institutions of the same class increased by 66. The number of aided middle schools for girls also fell from 83 to 18, while the Department itself established one high and three middle schools of this class. The remarkable decrease shown in the number of middle schools is ascribed in a great measure, by our Provincial Committee for Madras, to the introduction of a more accurate system of classification. Still, there is good ground for believing that during the period under review there was an actual and considerable decrease in the number of aided middle schools. It is to be noticed that the reduction in the numbers returned was coincident with the elaboration of proposals for altering the grant-in-aid rules in the direction of greater stringency, a change which was carried out in spite of vigorous protests on the part of managers of aided schools. The salary-grant system, by which the grants to secondary schools were chiefly regulated, had been settled in 1865; and in 1873 Government announced its intention of transferring to primary education some portion of the funds until then devoted to secondary. Large reductions were accordingly proposed in that year, and again in 1875, in the existing rates of aid. The expenditure from Provincial revenues upon aided schools fell in the period under review from Rs. 2,38,000 to Rs. 77,000, the last amount, however, excluding expenditure on schools for Europeans and Eurasians and on attached primary schools. The more accurate classification of schools, to which reference has been made as explaining the apparent decrease in the number of secondary schools and in the expenditure on them took place in 1875-76; and in that year the Government expenditure on aided secondary schools accordingly fell from Rs. 1,96,000 to Rs. 1,53,000. In the three following years it ranged between Rs. 1,35,000 and Rs. 1,29,000; in 1879-80 it fell to Rs. 1,15,000; in 1880-81 to Rs. 90,000; and finally in 1881-82 to Rs. 77,000. There is therefore reason to believe that other causes, in addition to greater accuracy of classification, tended in these later years to

diminish the number of middle schools. Fear of reduction in the rates of aid, followed by actual reduction as the rules came gradually into force, appears to have had no slight influence in retarding the progress of middle education. The unaided schools returned for 1881-82 included 12 high and 299 middle schools for boys, and 23 middle schools for girls, educating together 4,929 pupils; and the large number of unaided schools appears to show how ill-adapted the new grant-in-aid rules were to the encouragement of private enterprise. The number of pupils in secondary schools of all classes shows a large apparent decrease; but if the necessary corrections are made on account of the two causes above specified, it will appear that there was little actual loss.

The reductions which we have mentioned as having been made in the amount of grants-in-aid, though arresting the progress of aided education, had a useful effect in bringing about an increase in the scale of fees. Committees, including Government officers and the managers of aided schools, were appointed to consider the rates of fees in schools of every class, with the result that, while the fees in all schools were raised, higher rates were fixed for Government than for aided schools, and for schools in the town of Madras than for those in the mofussil.

231. Secondary Education in Bombay: Before 1854.—The history of education in Bombay, from near the close of the first quarter of the present century to the end of this period, is chiefly a record of missionary enterprise and of the operations of a private society. Though the efforts of the Missionaries were for the most part confined to elementary vernacular education, yet at various places in the Districts English schools and schools for the training of teachers were opened between 1820 and 1840. In the town of Bombay itself, the Anglo vernacular school established by Dr. John Wilson in 1832 (which in later years became the Free General Assembly's Institution), and the Robert Money School established in 1837, testified to the efforts of missionary bodies. The Bombay Native Education Society was established in 1823. With the assistance of Government in aid of liberal private contributions, it applied itself to the task of establishing vernacular schools throughout the mofussil, and of compiling and distributing improved school-books. The Society also opened in 1825 an English school in Bombay under a European head-master, which soon rose to a state of high efficiency; and it subsequently established schools in three other towns. In 1840 the Society gave place to the Board of Education, which thenceforward played a leading part in the history of educational progress, as the central organising body directing and supervising the extension of education of every class throughout the Presidency. Besides undertaking the control of vernacular education, the Board established a number of English schools, which were regarded as forming an essential part in any complete system of national education. The entire management of the Elphinstone Institution in Bombay was also entrusted to the Board. Sir Erskine Perry succeeded to the presidency of the Board in 1843. He was a strong advocate of English schools and of the theory of "downward filtration;" and during the nine years that he held office the number of English schools under the Board was doubled. After his retirement in 1852, the efforts of the Board were mostly directed to the extension of primary schools; but it was far from neglecting English education, and when it laid down its office in 1855, there was an English school in every District but one of the Presidency. The direct efforts of Government in secondary education were confined during this period to the establishment of the school departments attached to the Poona and Elphinstone Colleges.

1854 to 1871.—At the outset of this period there were, under the direct

control of the Department, 20 English schools, high and middle, including 7 in Native States; there were also 10 aided and inspected schools of the same class under private managers; and 12 unaided schools, chiefly under missionary bodies, whose efforts the Department at the time steadily refused to aid. These 42 schools educated altogether 5,600 pupils; and they were accepted as sufficient for the immediate needs of the Presidency. In these earlier years the attention of the Department was confined to consolidating and co-ordinating the existing system, which provided for the establishment and support of (1) indigenous schools, (2) primary schools in towns and in villages, (3) taluka or middle schools, English and vernacular, and (4) high schools. The course in each class of schools was intended to be complete in itself, though at the same time facilities were offered to pupils desiring to pass from any school to one of the next higher class. In the later years of this period, from 1865 to 1871, greater attention was paid to the claims of secondary education. The teaching staff of high schools was strengthened; definite standards of instruction and examination were laid down; and an entrance test was prescribed for all Government high and middle schools. The number of Government secondary schools rose from 23 with 3,183 pupils, to 147 with 9,045 pupils. There was a considerable increase in the number of secondary schools in Native States, which though maintained from the revenues of those States are managed by the Department. The grant-in-aid system of payment by results was introduced in 1865; and missionary institutions were then for the first time made eligible for grants-in-aid. The system was soon declared to be suitable only for schools of secondary instruction, in the promotion of which Government might reasonably demand fuller co-operation and a readier initiative on the part of those who were to be benefited by it. Still, from one cause or another, very little advantage was taken by the people of the opportunities of education which the system afforded. The limited operation of the scheme was charged partly to the want of enlightenment of the native community, and partly to the numerical weakness of the missionary bodies. In 1870-71, the number of secondary schools receiving aid, including 18 schools for Europeans and Eurasians, was only 41, of which 8 were middle schools for girls. The total number of secondary schools increased from 42 with 5,600 pupils, to 209 with 15,527 pupils. Compared with some other Provinces, therefore, the development of secondary education in Bombay during this second period must be pronounced to have been weak; on the other hand, the policy of the Government was avowedly and strongly directed during the same period to the claims, and its efforts to the extension, of primary education.

1871 to 1882.—The operations of the Department in regard to secondary education during this period may be seen from the following statement. In 1870-71 there were under the direct control of the Department 10 high schools, 47 middle schools of the first grade, and 90 middle schools of the second grade. In accordance with the policy of ultimately supplying each District with a high school, the number of high schools was increased from 10 to 19. Of the 47 first grade middle schools, 13 were either raised to or amalgamated with high schools, 5 had been so amalgamated prior to 1870-71, 10 were closed, and 6 new ones opened; there remained, therefore, 25 independent schools of this grade. Middle schools of the second grade are described as "vernacular schools "with an attached English class." The policy of the Department has been to discourage schools of this kind unless the people come forward to bear the additional cost of their maintenance. They are the first to feel the effect of agricultural depression; and owing to the inability of the people to provide the salaries of the English teachers, the number of second-grade middle schools fell to about

45 between 1873 and 1879. In the next three years, when the country had recovered from the effects of famine, the number again rose to 86; this increase having been effected without entailing any extra cost on the Government. Hence the general effect on Government schools of this class was that those for the maintenance of which Government is directly responsible, rose from 52 (10 high and 42 middle) to 61 (19 high and 42 middle); while those of a lower class, in which the extra cost is met by the people themselves, fell from 90 to 86. The total expenditure on Government secondary schools rose from Rs. 3,48,000 to Rs. 3,82,000; the whole of the increase being met by increased fees. The number of boys in Government schools increased during this period from 9,045 to 11,170; primary departments being in each case excluded. Efforts were made to give a more practical turn to secondary instruction by the establishment of agricultural and drawing classes in many high schools.

As regards aided schools, the state of the Provincial finances in 1875 led the Government to reduce the total allotment for grants-in-aid to Rs. 70,000. The reduction was not, however, intended to be permanent; and after 1878, as the pressure caused by the famine was lightened, the grants were again considerably increased in order to meet the increased demands arising from the greater number and efficiency of aided schools. A comparison of the first and last years of the period from 1871 to 1882 shows that the grants to aided schools of secondary instruction for natives only increased from Rs. 28,048 to Rs. 59,642, and the number of pupils receiving such instruction in aided schools from 4,662 to 5,561. During the same period, the grants to schools for Europeans and Eurasians increased from Rs. 49,508 to Rs. 64,718. The number of aided middle schools for native girls increased from 3 to 9, and the pupils in them from 198 to 555. The expenditure from public funds on the education of 11,200 pupils in 14 Government schools was Rs. 2,19,657; while that on the education of 5,600 pupils in 53 aided schools was Rs. 59,642.

On the whole the expenditure from public funds on Government and aided schools for secondary instruction showed no great increase during the period under review, at the same time there was an increase of 22 per cent. in the number of their pupils. The number of unaided schools also largely increased, from 39 with 1820 scholars in 1870-71, to 66 with 6,527 scholars in 1881-82; these being mostly schools under departmental management in Native States. A marked feature in the Bombay secondary system is that the schools, though few in number, have a much larger average attendance than in any other Province of India, being between two and three times as large as in Madras or Bengal. This fact is of importance in comparing the different systems in the point of view of economical working.

232. Secondary Education in Bengal.—In dealing with secondary education in Bengal, it should be explained at the outset that middle and high schools in this Province contain children reading from the lowest primary classes. The attendance in secondary schools will therefore appear far larger than in those Provinces in which a different system prevails. The necessary adjustment will be made hereafter, when we come to compare the figures for different parts of India; but meanwhile it will be sufficient to say that in Bengal 39 per cent. of the pupils in high schools, 78 per cent. in middle English schools, and 83 per cent. in middle vernacular schools, are in the primary stage. In the other Provinces of India most of these pupils would be classified under primary and not under secondary instruction.

Before 1854.—The establishment in 1817 of the Hindu College of Calcutta,

by the voluntary contributions of wealthy Hindus, defined the direction in which the desires of the native community had by that time set. The large-hearted benevolence of David Hare, and the missionary zeal of Dr. Duff, tended alike to the same end, namely, the spread of English education. In 1817 the School-Book Society was established by private effort, with the object of preparing and distributing text-books in English and the vernacular; and it shortly after received a Government grant of Rs. 500 a month, which it enjoyed for 60 years. The General Committee of Public Instruction was appointed in 1823, and soon began that controversy between the advocates of English and of oriental learning, which was finally settled by the publication of Macaulay's celebrated Minute. The policy of Lord William Bentinck and his successors was to increase the number of English colleges and schools; and the Council of Education, which in 1842 took the place of the General Committee of Public Instruction, aimed at providing each District with an English school. In 1855 the newly formed Department of Public Instruction received charge of 47 Anglo-vernacular schools with 7,412 pupils, besides 26 vernacular schools of the middle class, the remnant of the 101 "Hardinge" schools that had been set up under the Council of Education.

1856 to 1871.—This period is characterised by the remarkable development of the grant-in-aid system, which was readily accepted by the people of Bengal as a means of providing themselves, beyond the necessarily limited range of the Government system, with the secondary schools that they required. Within a year and a half of the promulgation of the rules, the whole of the allotment for grants-in-aid was taken up by 79 Anglo-vernacular and 140 vernacular schools, chiefly in the metropolitan Districts. The grant-in-aid system steadily advanced in popularity; and by 1862-63 it had far outstripped that of departmental schools in the field of secondary education. In 1870-71, the number of Government high English schools had increased to 53 with 10,100 pupils; the middle schools, almost entirely vernacular, were 217 with 12,400 pupils. The aided system covered a much wider area, and included 80 high, 551 middle English, and 769 middle vernacular schools. There were also 19 high and 94 middle schools that were unaided; but they furnished no detailed returns to the Department. The expenditure by Government in aiding 1,400 secondary schools for boys, with 68,000 pupils, amounted in 1871 to Rs. 3,31,000. The Government expenditure on 270 secondary schools under its own management, with 22,500 pupils, amounted to Rs. 2,80,000. Throughout this period very liberal provision was made by Government for scholarships linking the lower schools by a progressive chain to the higher, and the higher to the colleges. The cost of these scholarships to Government was Rs. 1,42,000 in 1870-71, and almost from the first they were open to competition by pupils in schools of every class, Government, aided, and unaided.

1871 to 1882.—During this period, namely, in 1874, the Province of Assam was separated from Bengal, carrying with it 125 secondary schools. Between 1870-71 and 1881-82 the number of Government and of aided secondary schools alike decreased; the former from 270 to 245, the latter from 1,400 to 1,370. The decrease was due to the following causes: (1) the separation of Assam; (2) the return of schools for European boys under a distinct heading; (3) the stoppage of all new grants and the withdrawal of many old ones in 1870-71; (4) the reduction of the grant-in-aid allotment in 1876-77, necessitated by the pressure arising out of the famine in Behar; (5) the measures taken in the later years to prevent the multiplication of inefficient schools, which resulted in the transfer of some to the vernacular class, and in the withdrawal of grants from others. The reductions in 1870-71 which, in the words of the Director, "caused such widespread dist[illegible]t of the intentions of Government

"that it can only be described as a state of actual panic," but the effects of which were more seriously felt in the two following years, were made in consequence of the desire of Government to transfer grants from secondary to primary education. In 1870-71 no girls' schools were specially returned as secondary; in 1881-82 the necessary classification was made. The girls' schools of this class were, at the later date, 2 high, 5 middle English, and 15 middle vernacular. All but four were aided schools; and together they educated 1,051 pupils. Taking all classes of recorded schools together, it appears that during the period from 1870-71 to 1881-82, the number of high schools increased from 133 to 209; and that of middle schools from 1,537 to 1,682. The expenditure from public funds on 245 Government schools for secondary instruction, with 27,000 pupils, fell from Rs. 2,80,000 to Rs. 2,53,000. The public expenditure on grants-in-aid to 1,370 secondary schools, with 84,000 pupils, fell from Rs. 3,31,000 to Rs. 2,99,000. The reduction in the grant-in-aid allotment during the Behar famine was not again fully made up, owing to the constant and (latterly) the increasing demands made upon the State funds by primary education.

233. Secondary Education in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh: Before 1854.—The North-Western Provinces were created a distinct Government in 1843. When in that year the Local Government received from the Council of Education the control of educational affairs, in defining its future policy it pointed to the diverse conditions that prevailed in Bengal and in the North-Western Provinces, as showing how little encouragement was offered by the circumstances of the Upper Provinces to English education, and how small, comparatively, was the success that might be expected for English schools. It therefore resolved to lay special stress on the cultivation of the vernacular languages, and to employ them largely as the medium of instruction. At that time there were, besides the three colleges of Benares, Agra, and Delhi, with their attached school departments, nine Anglo-vernacular schools, of which latter all but three had disappeared in 1854,—namely, those at Bareli, Sagar, and Ajmir. The cause of this serious decline in the number of schools may be traced to the attempts, often injudicious or premature, that were made to establish English schools after the issue of Lord William Bentinck's Resolution. The schools that survived at the close of this period were, if few in number, well organised and successful.

1854 to 1871.—During this period improvement went on hand in hand with gradual extension; and in 1867-68 there were 31 Government schools in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, of which 8 read up to the matriculation standard and were therefore high schools, the remaining 23 being middle schools. In 1871 there were 88 high and middle schools under the control of Government, educating together 11,500 pupils. There were at the same time 182 high and middle schools, with 16,200 pupils, receiving grants-in-aid. It is to be observed, however, that the title of many of the middle English schools to be so classed lay solely in the fact that a little English was taught in them in addition to the vernacular course. Of another order were the tahsili schools, in which a sound vernacular education was given to such a standard as would justify their inclusion in the rank of secondary schools. The system spread and flourished, so that in 1865 there were in these Provinces some 18,000 scholars in schools of this class. In 1869, however, an increase in the rate of fees was followed by a sensible diminution in the attendance. The original grant-in-aid rules were modified in 1858, and were not unfavourable to the managers of missionary schools, whose principle it was, while levying fees whenever they could, to admit many pupils free of charge. Still, the

system was slow in making its way among the people. In 1860, when the Government expenditure on education was about 9½ lakhs, only Rs. 16,000 were given in grants. In 1864, under a more liberal code of rules, the amount granted to 72 schools and colleges was Rs. 80,000; and in 1870-71, 235 institutions received Rs. 1,76,000. But the great majority of these schools were still under the management of missionary bodies; and of genuine native effort in the promotion of secondary education there was little trace. At the headquarters of most Districts, Government high schools had been established; but in some cases there already existed an aided school which was thought to be adequate to the needs of the locality.

1871 to 1882.—The figures for this period show very extensive changes in the provision of secondary education. The number of Government schools appears to have risen from 88 to 522; but the increase is actually due to a mere change of classification. For 1870-71, the tahsili schools, then numbering 273, were returned under primary instruction, on the ground that the vast majority of their pupils were in the primary stage. For 1881-82, these schools (though not their primary pupils) are rightly returned as secondary. Again, the 455 middle vernacular schools of 1881-82 include a large number (not less than 200) of halkabandi schools which have reached the middle stage of instruction, and which are now no longer distinguished in the returns from tahsili schools of the same rank. The number of advanced halkabandi schools is not known for 1870-71, but two years later they were returned at 342. There is, therefore, little ground for supposing that the departmental system has been extended within this last period; though owing to ordinary processes of development, the 20 high and 35 middle English schools of 1870-71 had increased in 1881-82 to 25 high and 42 middle English schools. In aided schools the losses were severe. The number of English schools receiving grants fell from 182 to 56. But it should be noted that of the 182 schools returned in 1870-71 as aided, 75 were in reality departmental schools receiving a small grant-in-aid for the maintenance of an attached English class. Schools of this character were, however, soon found to be unsatisfactory; and the grants for the support of the English classes were withdrawn from a large number. A similar decrease took place in the number of aided schools for girls, which fell from 26 to 3. Generally, it may be noticed that the grant-in-aid system made very little way with the people, and that whatever advance there was in secondary education was due to the success of the Government schools. In 523 schools of this class, 6,500 pupils were educated at a cost of Rs. 2,25,548 to public funds; in 66 aided secondary schools, 2,700 pupils were taught at a cost to public funds of Rs. 53,442. The returns for 1881-82 give only 5 unaided secondary schools in these Provinces, educating 50 pupils.

234. Secondary Education in the Punjab.—Up to the year 1861 the number of students learning English did not exceed 4,500. Within the next five years the number had increased to more than 13,000. The belief that a knowledge of English would lead to profitable employment had got abroad; and it was ruled that an elementary English class might be opened in any vernacular school, if the people would guarantee a subscription of Rs. 15 a month, to be met by an equivalent grant from Government. In 1866 there was at the headquarters of nearly every District a Government or an aided mission school of a superior class. The grant-in-aid rules now in force had been sanctioned in the previous year; and in 1866 there were 18 schools of the higher and 52 of the middle class receiving grants-in-aid. Between 1866 and 1871 the number of English students greatly decreased. It had been decided to require

an elementary knowledge of the vernacular before allowing a boy to begin the study of English, and the total number of scholars learning English in the Punjab rapidly fell to below 8,000 in 1871; of these, the great majority were pupils in middle schools. The study of English, it was held, had then been placed on a sound footing, not only by the orders just quoted, but also by the regulation that the vernacular was to be employed as the medium of instruction up to the middle school examination, instruction through English being confined to subjects above that standard. In 1871 there were, under the management of Government, 4 high and 97 middle schools, English and vernacular; there were also 10 high and 37 middle schools receiving grants in aid. The total number of pupils in them was 14,800; but excluding the primary departments, the number of boys attending classes for secondary education was estimated at 2,314.

During the following period, from 1871 to 1882, the number rose to 6,200. There was a sufficient improvement in the standard of attainments, and the promise of Government to reserve a share of official appointments for these who had passed the middle school examination, made these schools more popular. On the whole, however, there was little independent desire for education except as leading to employment, and the grant-in-aid system made but little way. Many of the schools classed as aided were virtually under departmental management, though partly maintained from local funds. In 1881-82, the Government schools for secondary instruction were 10 high and 53 middle English schools, besides one high and 125 middle schools of purely vernacular instruction. These educated 4,974 pupils, at a cost to public funds of Rs. 1,99,043. The aided system included 12 high and 22 middle English schools for boys and one middle school for girls, educating altogether 994 students, at a cost to public funds of Rs. 31,569. No unaided schools are returned for 1881-82.

235. Secondary Education in the Central Provinces.—In these Provinces there were in 1861-62 only one Government high school (that at Jabalpur) and 3 unaided middle schools, educating together 1,046 pupils. By 1870-71 the number had increased to 4 high schools (2 Government and 2 aided) and 52 middle schools (44 Government and 8 aided); together they educated 6,758 pupils. In the last period there was a slight decrease in the number of schools. In 1882 there were 5 high schools (one Government and 4 aided), while the number of middle schools had fallen to 48 (38 Government and 10 aided). The expenditure from public funds on the education of 2,101 pupils in Government schools was Rs. 58,647; and on that of 671 pupils in aided schools Rs. 14,116. There were no unaided schools.

236. Secondary Education in Assam.—In Assam, as in Bengal, high and middle schools contain full primary departments. On its separation from Bengal in 1874, the Province carried with it 9 high schools with 1,435 pupils, and 116 middle schools with 5,344 pupils. In 1882 the high schools had increased to 11, and the pupils in them to 2,264. Middle schools fell from 116 (26 English and 90 vernacular) to 81 (37 English and 44 vernacular); but their pupils increased to 5,913. During this period the efforts of the Department were directed towards making the schools more efficient and self-supporting; and many middle schools, which had not proved successful in that class, were reduced to the next lower stage. In 1881-82 the cost to public funds of the education of 3,403 pupils in 29 Government schools (9 high, 2 middle English, and 18 middle vernacular) was Rs. 39,827; and of that of 4,085 pupils in 54 aided schools (1 high, 28 middle English, and 25 middle vernacular) was Rs. 18,838. One high and 8 middle schools were unaided.

237. Secondary Education in Coorg.—An Anglo-vernacular school was

opened by Government in 1857 at Merkara, and was placed under the charge of the head of the Basel Mission, to whom the general direction of education was entrusted. To the building of a new school and boarding-house the people of Coorg subscribed a sum of nearly Rs. 10,000. Subsequently it was determined to establish in each of the five talukas an Anglo-vernacular school, to serve as a feeder to the Central School at Merkara. These last, though giving instruction in English, are classed as primary schools. By 1882 the Merkara school had been raised to the Entrance standard; and in that year it educated 157 pupils in its high and middle departments at a cost of Rs. 7,518 to the State.

238. Secondary Education in Berar.—Two English schools were opened in 1862 at Amraoti and Akola. These were raised in 1866 to the status of high schools; and there were also at that time five middle schools teaching English. In 1871 the two high schools educated 208 pupils, and the middle schools, then increased to 44, contained 3,638 pupils, including primary departments. Between 1871 and 1882 there was no alteration in the number of high schools; but it was found that the number of middle schools was greatly in excess of the requirements of the people, and the majority were reduced to the primary class. In 1881-82 there were 29 such schools, imparting a course of instruction extending over six classes, in the two highest of which English was taught. In all the schools there were 1,033 pupils, educated at a cost of Rs. 53,197 to the State.

239. Statistics of Secondary Schools in 1870-71 and in 1881-82.—The following Tables show in detail the number of secondary schools and scholars in 1870-71 and in 1881-82, and they will be found combined on a single page in Subsidiary Table No. 1 of Secondary Education at the end of this Report. All unaided schools known to the Department are included in the Tables:—

I.—HIGH AND MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN 1870-71.

Province and Grade of Schools				Departmental Schools.		Aided Schools.		Unaided Schools.*		Total of Schools.	Total of Scholars.	Remarks.
				Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.			
1				2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
MADRAS	High Schools	For Boys	English	14	3,313a	30†	8,904a	Statistics not available.		53	12,217a	a Including pupils in attached middle schools.
		For Girls	English	...	...	1	122a			1	122a	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	67	4,642b	433†	21,335b			500	25,977b	b Including pupils in attached primary schools.
			Vernacular	...	...	...	...			...	...	
		For Girls	English	...	...	90†	5,402b			90	5,402b	c The high and middle schools in Bengal include primary departments. Of the 91,145 pupils returned in 1870-71, 53,994 were in attached primary schools.
			Vernacular	...	...							
	Total			81	7,955	563	35,763	...	...	644	43,718	
BOMBAY	High Schools	For Boys	English	10	2,349	8	2,419a	2	346a	20	5,114a	d Girls' schools which were not classified in 1870-71 have been shown altogether under primary schools.
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	137	6,696b	12	2,045b	37	1,474b	186	10,215b	
		For Girls	English	...	...	3	198b	...	...	3	198b	e Including pupils in attached middle and primary schools.
	Total			147	9,045	23	4,662	39	1,820	209	15,527	
BENGAL	High Schools	For Boys	English	53	10,091c	80	8,691c	Statistics not returned.§		133	18,782c	f The pupils in the secondary classes of tahsili and halkabandi schools are returned under primary schools.
		For Girls	English	...	...	...	...			...	...	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	8	746c	551	25,534c			559	26,280c	g The schools in Ajmir are omitted.
			Vernacular	209	11,715c	769	34,368c			978	46,083c	h Excluding pupils in attached primary schools.
		For Girls	English	...	...	...	...			...	...	
			Vernacular	...d	...	...d	...			...	...	
	Total			270	22,552c	1,400	68,593c	...	...	1,670	91,145c	
N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH.	High and Middle Schools.	For Boys	English	55	8,772b	182	16,240b	Statistics not available.		237	25,012b	
			Vernacular	33f	f 2,709b	...	...			33	2,709b	
		For Girls	English	...	...	26	707b			26	707b	
			Vernacular	...	...	...	...			...	...	
	Total			f 88g	11,481g	208	16,947	...	...	296	28,428	
PUNJAB	High Schools	For Boys	English	4	193	10	2,428e	Statistics not available.		14	2,621e	
		For Boys	Vernacular	...	...	...	...			...	...	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	97	9,211	37	2,980b			134	12,191b	
			Vernacular							...	...	
		For Girls	English	..	...	...	...					
	Total			101	9,404	47	5,408	...	...	148	14,812e	
CENTRAL PROVINCES	High Schools	For Boys	English	2	284e	2	513e	...	...	4	797e	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	44	5,063b	8	898b	...	...	52	5,961b	
	Total			46	5,347	10	1,411	...	...	56	6,758	
ASSAM	High Schools	For Boys	English	The figures for 1870-71 are included in those for Bengal.						...	...	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English							...	...	
			Vernacular							...	...	
	Total			...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
COORG	High Schools	For Boys	English	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	1	60	...	...	...	...	1	60	
	Total			1	60	...	...	...	...	1	60	
BERAR	High Schools	For Boys	English	2	208a	...	...	...	...	2	208a	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	44	3,638b	...	...	...	...	44	3,638b	
	Total			46	3,846	...	...	...	...	46	3,846	
TOTAL FOR INDIA‡	High Schools		For Boys	140	25,210	321	39,705	2	346	463	64,751	
			For Girls	...	...	1	122	...	...	1	122	
	Middle Schools		For Boys	640	44,480	1,810	87,760	37	1,474	2,487	133,114	
			For Girls	...	...	119	6,307	...	...	119	6,307	
	Total			780	69,690e	2,251	132,784e	39	1,820e	3,070	204,294e	

* Including uninspected as well as inspected schools.
† The figures as returned by the Provincial Committee. The Report on Public Instruction for 1870-71 returns one of the 29 high schools and 28 of the 433 middle schools as *unaided* institutions. Seven of the 90 middle schools for girls are unaided.

II.—HIGH AND MIDDLE SCHOOLS IN 1881-82.

Province and Grade of Schools				Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Total of Schools.	Total of Scholars.	Remarks.
1				2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
MADRAS	High Schools	For Boys	English	22	1,142a	47	2,995a	12	629a	81	4,836a	a Excluding pupils in attached middle schools.
		For Girls	English	1	1	1	...	...	...	2	2	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	129	5,085c	184	9,837c	208	3,631c	521	18,553c	b Including pupils in attached primary schools.
			Vernacular	4	35c	21	830	91	393c	116	511c	
		For Girls	English	1	15c	6	79c	9	95c	16	190c	c Excluding pupils in attached primary schools.
			Vernacular	2	10c	12	77c	14	110c	28	197c	
	Total			159	6,288	271	13,072	334	4,929	764	24,289	d The returns for high and middle schools in Bengal include primary departments. Of the 139, 198 pupils returned in 1881-82, 7,481 were in the high stage, 37,399 in the middle stage, and 94,318 in primary stage of instruction.
BOMBAY	High Schools	For Boys	English	19	3,601a	14	1,226a	15	3,166a	48	7,993a	e Including pupils in attached middle and primary schools.
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	128	7,569c	30	3,780c	51	3,361c	209	14,710c	
		For Girls	English	...	..	9	555c	...	...	9	555c	f Excluding pupils in attached middle and primary schools.
	Total			147	11,170	53	5,561	66	6,527	266	23,258	
BENGAL	High Schools	For Boys	English	51	14,795d	96	12,696d	60	16,256d	207	43,747d	g Including nearly 100,000 pupils in attached primary schools. The total given in column 24 of general table 2c (211,362) excludes 2,715 pupils in ten unaided secondary schools not under inspection, which number is included in the total 214,077 here given.
		For Girls	English	1	100d	...	...	1	84d	2	184d	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	9	1,349d	465	28,981d	138	7,629d	612	37,959d	
			Vernacular	183	10,467d	791	41,623d	76	4,351d	1,050	56,441d	
		For Girls	English	1	199d	4	141d	...	...	5	340d	
			Vernacular	...	...	14	508d	1	19d	15	527d	
	Total			245	26,910d	1,370	83,949d	276	28,339d	1,891	139,198d	h Excluding 10 schools in Ajmir with 816 pupils.
N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH	High and Middle Schools.	For Boys	English	67	2,927f	56	2,377f	5	50f	128	5,354f	
			Vernacular	455	3,582f	7	241f	...	...	462	3,803f	
		For Girls	English	...	...	2	62e	...	...	2	62e	
			Vernacular	...	...	1	6e	...	...	1	6e	
	Total			522	6,489	66	2,686	5	50	593	9,225	
PUNJAB	High Schools	For Boys	English	10	335a	11	118a	Statistics not available.		21	453a	
		For Boys	Vernacular	1	32a	1	100a			2	132a	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	53	1,903e	22	768e			75	2,671e	
			Vernacular	125	2,704e	...	...			125	2,704e	
		For Girls	English	...	...	1	8e			1	8e	
	Total			189	4,974	35	994	...	...	224	5,968	
CENTRAL PROVINCES	High Schools	For Boys	English	1	149f	4	172f	...	...	5	321f	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	38	1,952e	10	499e	...	...	48	2,451e	
	Total			39	2,101	14	671	...	...	53	2,772	
ASSAM	High Schools	For Boys	English	9	1,898e	1	130e	1	236e	11	2,264e	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	2	123b	28	2,418b	7	388b	37	2,929b	
			Vernacular	18	1,382b	25	1,537b	1	65b	44	2,984b	
	Total			29	3,403	54	4,085	9	689	92	8,177	
COORG	High Schools	For Boys	English	1	38a	...	...	...	...	1	38a	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	1	119e	...	...	...	...	1	119e	
	Total			2	157	...	...	...	...	2	157	
BERAR	High Schools	For Boys	English	2	61a	...	...	...	...	2	61a	
	Middle Schools	For Boys	English	29	972e	...	...	...	...	29	972e	
	Total			31	1,033	...	...	...	...	31	1,033	
TOTAL FOR INDIA†	High Schools		For Boys	183	24,978	230	19,814	93	20,407	506	65,199	
			For Girls	2	101	3	63	1	24	6	248	
	Middle Schools		For Boys	1,174	37,222	1,582	89,767	572	19,818	3,329	146,807	
			For Girls	4	224	47	1,374	24	225	75	1,823	
	Total			1,363	62,525	1,863	111,018	690	40,534	3,916h	214,077g	

* With the exception of Bombay, the unaided schools not under inspection have not been returned by the Provinces.
† Excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

240. Changes of Classification between 1871 and 1882.—Before proceeding to the remarks which the above Tables suggest, it may be well to present in a summary form the leading results which they exhibit. These results may be shown as follows :—

High and Middle Schools.

	1870-71.		1881-82.	
	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
Government	780	69,690	1,363	62,525
Aided	2,251	132,784	1,863	111,018
Unaided	39	1,820	690	40,534
TOTAL	3,070	204,294	3,916	214,077

A point which at once engages attention is that, while between 1871 and 1882 the number of secondary schools increased from 3,070 to 3,916, the number of pupils in them shows a much smaller proportionate increase, namely, from 204,294 to 214,077. It must not, however, be supposed that the actual increase is limited to that which the figures show. The returns must be understood in connection with a circumstance, now to be explained, which makes any comparison between the figures of 1871 and those of 1882 a matter of extreme difficulty. In the former year, the high schools in every Province contained pupils in the middle stage of instruction, and in some they also contained pupils in the primary stage. In every Province also, with the exception of Bombay, the middle schools contained pupils in the primary stage. By the Resolution of Government dated 6th January 1879, in which revised forms of return were prescribed for the Education Department throughout India, it was ordered that the middle, or the middle and primary, departments of high schools should be shown as separate schools, the primary departments of middle schools being similarly treated. Again, middle schools were uniformly defined as those in which the pupils are reading for a standard two years below that of matriculation; and thus no recognition was given to those schools which taught a course independent of University standards. After much correspondence the separation of the lower departments was effected in every Province except Bengal and Assam. On the part of Bengal it was urged that the proposal to split up the schools in the manner indicated was based on the general assumption of relations between different classes of schools which had no existence in that Province, and that it would involve an entire remodelling of the educational system. The force of these representations was admitted. The Government of India had no desire that the new educational forms should be so applied as to require a revision of the educational system, and a re-classification of all middle and lower schools in Bengal; and they were satisfied that such a general alteration of system should not be made merely as an incident of the alteration of the statistical forms of return. The various classes of schools in the several Provinces had, it was allowed, grown up in widely different circumstances; and they could not be compressed everywhere into the same mould. Consequently, while in other Provinces the middle and primary departments have since 1871 been shown as separate and integral schools, thus making any comparison of the number of schools and pupils a matter of great difficulty, a further element of disturbance is introduced by the exceptional treatment sanctioned in the case of Bengal. The general effect of the re-classification of schools on the statistics of secondary instruction can, however, be shown without difficulty. The number of secondary schools at

once received a nominal increase equivalent to the number of middle departments broken off from high schools,—that is, an increase equal to the existing number of high schools. The number of pupils suffered an immediate diminution by the transfer to the returns of primary education of the primary departments of middle schools, and in some Provinces of high schools. Within the region of secondary education itself, the number of pupils in high schools was reduced by the number of those in the middle departments, while the number in middle schools received an equivalent addition.

241. Comparison of Schools and Pupils in 1870-71 and 1881-82.—The statistics may now be considered in the light of these explanations. For the sake of simplicity the comparison will be confined to schools for boys, and will exclude the minor Provinces of Assam, Coorg, and Berar. Though the Tables above given make no distinction, in case of Bengal, between pupils in the high, middle, and primary departments, yet the departmental returns enable us to separate, for high and middle schools in 1882, the number of pupils reading in the secondary stage of instruction, as understood in that Province. We have accordingly in the figures here given, for 1882 excluded all pupils in the primary stage of instruction in Bengal; and in order to carry out the comparison more completely, we have also represented the middle departments of high schools in Bengal as separate institutions. In Bombay, primary pupils are excluded from the figures of 1870-71 as well as from those of 1881-82. The returns from the North-Western Provinces and Oudh make no distinction between high and middle schools, and no comparison under these subordinate heads is possible. We obtain, therefore, the following summary statement of schools for boys in 1870-71 and 1881-82 :—

PROVINCE.	High Schools.				Middle Schools.				Total Secondary Schools.			
	1870-71.		1881-82.		1870-71.		1881-82.		1870-71.		1881-82.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
Madras	53	12,217	81	4,836	500	25,977	521	18,553	553	38,194	602	23,389
Bombay	20	5,114	48	7,993	186	10,215	209	14,710	206	15,329	257	22,703
Bengal*	133	18,782	207	7,481	1,537	72,363	1,869	37,399	1,670	91,145	2,076	44,880
North-Western Provinces	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	267	24,914	590	9,157
Punjab	14	2,621	23	585	134	12,191	200	5,375	148	14,812	223	5,960
Central Provinces	4	797	5	321	52	5,961	48	2,451	56	6,758	53	2,772
TOTAL	224	39,531	364	21,216	2,409	126,707	2,847	78,488	2,900	191,152	3,801	108,861

* The figures for 1870-71 include Assam.

The foregoing statement shows that, in the five selected Provinces for which the returns are complete, the number of high schools has increased from 224 to 364. The number of middle schools has increased from 2,409, or, if the middle departments of high schools be added, from 2,633 to 2,847. To the number of schools should strictly be added the 11 high and 81 middle schools returned for Assam in 1881-82, the figures corresponding to which in 1870-71 were included in the returns of Bengal. Altogether for the Provinces named in the Table, excluding the North-Western Provinces and including Assam, there is a real increase in the eleven years of 151 high and 295 middle schools. It is certain that the number of pupils has also increased, though the increase cannot be precisely computed, since we have no means of estimating for most Provinces the number in the middle and primary departments of high and middle schools in 1871. The only Provinces which afford the materials for a compari-

son are Bombay, in which the primary departments have been excluded from the returns of both years; and Bengal and Assam, in which they have been included in both. An examination of the detailed Tables given above will show that in Bombay the number of high schools has advanced within this period from 20 with 5,114 pupils, to 48 with 7,993 pupils; and that of middle schools from 186 with 10,215 pupils to 209 with 14,710 pupils. Hence the number of secondary schools for boys has risen by 25 per cent., and that of their pupils by 48 per cent. In Bengal and Assam the number of high schools for boys was in 1871, 133 with 18,782 pupils; besides 19 unaided schools, the number of whose pupils is unknown. In 1882 the number had risen to 218 with 46,011 pupils; the primary departments being included in each case. The number of middle schools for boys in the two Provinces together rose during the same period from 1,537 with 72,363 pupils (excluding 94 unaided schools), to 1,743 with 100,313 pupils; primary departments, which comprise the large majority of the pupils in schools of this class, being again included. But, except in the three Provinces named, no estimate can be framed of the increase in the number of pupils in secondary schools; we shall therefore confine our attention to the number of schools of that class, and proceed in the next paragraph to regard them under another aspect.

242. Relative Increase of Departmental and other Schools, between 1870-71 and 1881-82.—An important question which requires notice in this connection is, how far the increase above referred to was due to the direct operations of Government, and how far to private effort, aided or unaided. To the consideration of that point we now turn. It has been seen that the total number of secondary schools rose from 3,070 in 1871 to 3,916 in 1882. The former total included 120 girls' schools, and the latter 81. The circumstances of this decrease in the number of girls' schools will be noticed below; for the present it will be convenient to confine our attention to schools for boys, the number of which rose nominally (since at the later date middle departments were reckoned as separate schools, and at the earlier date but few unaided schools were returned) from 2,950 to 3,835. This apparent increase of 885 schools was distributed as follows: Government schools increased from 780 to 1,357, aided schools decreased from 2,131 to 1,813, and unaided schools (so far as shown in the returns) increased from 39 to 665. We are therefore met by the somewhat remarkable fact that within the period in question there was a decrease of more than 300 in the number of aided schools, against an increase of nearly 600 in that of Government schools. It will be presently seen that more than two-thirds of the increase in Government schools is merely nominal; but in order to bring out the facts more clearly a summary statement of the fluctuations for high and middle schools separately will now be given for the different Provinces of India, with the exception of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh, the returns for which do not admit of a complete separation, and to which we shall again recur.

A.—High Schools.

Province.	1871.				1882.			
	Government.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.	Government.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.
Madras	14	38	1	53	22	47	12	81
Bombay	10	8	2	20	19	14	15	48
Bengal and Assam	53	80	...	133	60	97	61	218
Punjab	4	10	...	14	11	12	...	23
Central Provinces	2	2	...	4	1	4	...	5
Minor Provinces	2	...	...	2	3	...	...	3
Total	85	138	3	226	116	174	88	378

B.—Middle Schools.

Province.	1871.				1882.			
	Government.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.	Government.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.
Madras	67	405	28	500	133	205	299	637
Bombay	137	12	37	186	128	30	51	209
Bengal and Assam	217	1,320	...	1,537	212	1,309	222	1,743
Punjab	97	37	...	134	178	22	...	200
Central Provinces	44	8	...	52	38	10	...	48
Minor Provinces	45	...	...	45	30	...	...	30
Total	607	1,782	65	2,454	719	1,576	572	2,867

The first of these Tables shows that Government high schools increased by 31 and aided high schools by 36. In the Provinces of Madras, Bombay, Bengal with Assam, and the Punjab, the list of Government schools was increased by from 7 to 9 in each case, either in pursuance of the declared policy of providing each District with a high school, or by the gradual rise of middle schools. Aided high schools increased by 17 in Bengal, 9 in Madras, 6 in Bombay, 2 in the Central Provinces, and 2 in the Punjab. Furthermore, the recognition accorded to private effort contributed to the establishment of large numbers of high schools without the assistance of a grant-in-aid. Schools of this class are often opened in the hope of receiving a grant hereafter; and all are directly benefited, in most Provinces at least, by the advice and encouragement of inspecting officers, and in Bengal, Assam, and the Central Provinces, by the open competition for scholarships. Thus the establishment of even unaided schools in increasing numbers may be regarded as a measure, not only of the vitality of private effort, but also in some Provinces of the recognition and support accorded to it by the Department.

The second Table shows an apparent increase of 112 in the number of Government middle schools, but a decrease of 206 in that of aided schools of the same class. If, however, the middle departments of high schools be treated in the figures for 1870-71 as separate schools, as they are in 1881-82 for all Provinces other than Bengal, it would appear that Government schools have increased by 82, and aided schools fallen off to the number of 264. This calculation, however, assumes that in 1870-71 every high school had an attached middle department, which was not always the case in Bombay. In Government schools the increase is confined to Madras and the Punjab, which added respectively 66 and 81 schools to the list. In each of the other Provinces there is a slight decrease in the number. The heavy reduction in the number of aided middle schools shown in the Table is confined to Madras. The circumstances of this reduction have been discussed in an earlier paragraph of the present Chapter, in which it was described as being largely due to a more accurate classification, although grounds were shown for the belief that the revision of the grant-in-aid rules in the direction of greater stringency was not without its effect in checking private enterprise. In the other Provinces the changes are slight, the greatest being a loss of 15 aided middle schools in the Punjab.

As regards the North-Western Provinces and Oudh it has already been shown that the large apparent increase in the number of Government schools was due almost entirely to different modes of classification adopted for the

two years compared; and that the decrease of 126 shown in the number of aided schools was, in the case of 75 of them, merely the abolition of the English classes attached on the grant-in-aid system to certain Government vernacular schools. The reasons which in the opinion of the Department rendered this course advisable are given in the following extract from the annual report of the Director of Public Instruction for 1877: "As it was "pronounced needful to retrench, there is no question but that the withdrawal "of aid from subscription Anglo-vernacular schools outside sudder stations has "caused less harm and less retardation than if any other class of schools had "been concerned. No doubt they represented a certain amount of effort made "by the people themselves to obtain a better class of education for their children "than could be had in the vernacular schools, and this is the sole reason why they "were aided in the first instance; but it has been found in the majority of cases "that the effort was unwillingly sustained or fraudulently counterfeited. Even "under the most careful inspection, than which nothing is more difficult to main-"tain when Secretaries of Committees and inspecting officers are often changed, "there was always a feeling of uncertainty as to whether the teachers received "their share of pay from the subscription funds, or whether the fee entries in "the accounts were *boná fide* transactions. The teachers dare not complain, "because if the school was closed, they lost their living; and they preferred to "make a false affidavit to ruining themselves or compromising the tahsildars or "other people by whose influence these schools were established." The passage is instructive as showing how in many Provinces the same doubts and difficulties arose on the first introduction of the system of grants-in-aid; and it also leads to the reflection whether greater care at the outset in selecting the schools or classes to which aid should be given, might not in time have led to a consider-able expansion of the system.

It thus appears that in Bengal and Assam taken together, and in the Central Provinces, departmental and aided agency supply respectively much the same proportion of the number of secondary schools as they did eleven years ago, while the standard has sensibly risen. In Bombay, aided private effort has made considerable progress, though the number of aided schools is still very small compared with those of Madras and Bengal. We shall here-after see, however, that small as the number of schools is, they are large and well-attended; and that in the spread of secondary education, Bombay is in no wise behind other Provinces. In the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab and Madras, departmental agency has to a large extent taken the place of private effort,—a fact which is the more remarkable in the case of Madras, since in no other Province of India has the capacity of private effort to provide the means of advanced education been more clearly shown.

243. Girls' Schools in 1870-71 and 1881-82.—The summary statistics of girls' schools are shown in the following Table:—

	1870-71.		1881-82.	
	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
Government	...	...	6	325
Aided	113	6,162	50	1,437
Unaided	7	267	25	309
TOTAL	120	6,429	81	2,071

The Government schools are confined to Madras and Bengal. In the former Province there are one high and three middle schools of this class, two of them being in the town of Madras; in the latter the Bethune School of Calcutta teaches in its school department up to the matriculation standard, and a new middle school has been opened at Dacca. In aided schools the fluctuations are more serious. Schools of this class for native girls are confined to the five chief Provinces of India. In Bombay and the Punjab alone has there been an increase; in the former of 6 schools and in the latter of one. The girls' schools of Bombay have an exceptionally large attendance, averaging over 60 pupils each. In Bengal there are now 18 secondary schools; but as in 1870-71 girls' schools were not classified, it cannot be stated how many of the 18 schools were then secondary. In Madras middle schools have fallen from 83 to 18, and in the North-Western Provinces from 26 to 3. The loss in Madras is ascribed by our Provincial Committee to a more accurate classification of middle and primary schools; and it has also to be remembered that schools for European girls are excluded from the returns of 1881-82. Still there is ground for believing, as already explained in the case of boys' schools, that the loss is not altogether nominal,—a belief which derives some support from the fact that in 1881-82 there were 23 middle schools for girls in Madras receiving no grants-in-aid. In the North-Western Provinces the reduction is a real one. The attempt to educate girls had, it was maintained, been prematurely made; and when in 1876 the financial position of the Government became such as to render economy essential, it was believed that the abolition of a large number of girls' schools was one of the measures that could be taken with least prejudice to education. Secondary and primary schools suffered alike in the reduction. Unaided secondary schools for girls are confined to Madras and Bengal; in the former Province there are 23, and in the latter two, one of these being a high school in Calcutta.

The number of secondary schools is not, however, an accurate measure of the progress of female education, as tested by the number of pupils. In Bombay, for example, the secondary schools for girls are so large that, although few in number, they contain more pupils than those of any other Province. The number of girls returned as being in the secondary stage of instruction in every Province of India are here given: Madras, 389, Bombay, 555; Bengal, 211; North-Western Provinces and Oudh, 68; Punjab, 8. These figures are of course subject to whatever corrections may be necessitated by the different range of what is known as secondary education in different Provinces.

244. Summary View of the Spread of secondary Education through private Effort.—In regard to the spread of secondary education in departmental schools, the chief Provinces of India exhibit no great differences; it is in connection with schools under private management that the differences come into prominence. Here we should note that there are two points of importance to be considered; the number of schools, and the number of pupils, which will be seen to bear no uniform relation to each other in the various Provinces of India. Our first consideration will be the number of the schools which, whether aided or unaided, are maintained by private effort. The number of such schools, as distinguished from the number of pupils attending them, is evidently of importance as indicating, in the first place, the desire of the people to rely on themselves for the spread of secondary education, and in the second place the willingness of the Local Government to aid their efforts over a large area, and at that early stage at which aid is most helpful. In this respect the chief Provinces of India exhibit the widest differences, even after the statistics of population are taken into account. The fact that the 68 millions

of Bengal maintain, with or without aid from Government, 157 high and 1,489 middle schools, while in the British districts of Bombay with 16½ millions the people support only 22 high and 49 middle schools, would appear to point to differences either in the wants of the people and their efforts to supply them, or else in the policy of Government with regard to private effort in this branch of education. Unaided schools in Bombay, to the number of 7 high and 41 middle, are not here reckoned, because they are maintained from the revenues of Native States and therefore afford no indication of purely private effort. Madras, with nearly 31 millions, supports 60 high and 545 middle schools under private management,—rather more than one-third of the number in Bengal, while the population is nearly one-half; and it is significant that of the secondary schools maintained by private effort in Madras more than half are unaided, while the proportion is only one-sixth in Bengal. The Punjab, with 19 millions of people, has 12 high and 23 middle schools receiving grants-in-aid; and the Central Provinces, with 4 aided high and 10 middle schools to a population of 9¾ millions in British Districts, are far below the level of other Provinces in private enterprise; but it may be noted that in these two Provinces no unaided secondary schools have been returned. Though the statistics of the North-Western Provinces are not given in a sufficiently detailed form for exact comparison, yet the 61 English and 7 vernacular schools maintained by private managers may be approximately distributed into 26 high and 45 middle schools; and this, with a population of 44 millions, must be regarded as indicating either very great apathy in the matter of private effort or a disinclination in the Department to encourage it.

We now turn to the connected question of the number of pupils. In this point of view it is important to notice that the attendance of pupils in the secondary schools of Bombay, whether for boys or for girls, is far higher than in any other Province. Thus the departmental primary and secondary schools of Bombay have an average of nearly 80 pupils each; while in Madras, the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, the average is only 40, 12, and 26 respectively. The special system of classification adopted in Bengal makes it difficult to institute any such comparison; but wherever the line of division between the upper and lower departments be drawn, it is at any rate clear that the average number of pupils in a secondary school in Bengal falls very far below that in Bombay, and probably below that in Madras. An even greater difference in the average attendance marks the girls' schools of Bombay as compared with other Provinces. The facts here noted point to a clear contrast of policy between Bombay and Bengal. We have seen in this and the preceding Chapters that, as regards secondary education, the Department in Bombay aims at combining economy of expenditure with an equal distribution of high and middle schools over all Districts. It is obviously more economical to aid a single well-filled school than a number of small and scattered institutions; and the attention paid to primary education in Bombay imposes on the Department the necessity of strict economy in education of a more advanced kind. On the other hand, this policy, it must be admitted, fails to secure for private enterprise in secondary education that widespread encouragement without which the people cannot be expected to set up schools for themselves. Another point must be noticed. The value of any such comparison as that instituted above is impaired by the fact that in different Provinces the range of what is understood as secondary education differs widely. Thus in most Provinces, as shown at the beginning of this Chapter, the secondary stage of instruction comprises four or five classes; in Bombay the number of classes in the secondary stage extends to seven, and therefore includes a much larger number of pupils. These differences of system are sufficient to prevent any accurate comparison; but

ere are grounds for believing that the proportion of pupils under secondary struction to the population does not differ very widely in the three chief ovinces of India.

245. Expenditure on secondary Schools.—Full details of the expenditure on secondary schools in each Province, and of the average annual cost of ducating each pupil in schools of each class, are given in the two following ables.

MADRAS RECORD OFFICE

Expenditure on secondary education in 1881-82.

Province and Grade of Schools.	Departmental Schools.* Provincial Revenues.	Local and Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Percentage of fees to total expenditure.	Aided Schools.* Provincial Revenues.	Local and Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Percentage of fees to total expenditure.	Unaided Schools.* Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Percentage of fees to total expenditure.	Total.* Provincial Revenues.	Local and Municipal Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Grand Total.	Percentage of fees to grand total of expenditure.	Total expenditure on education from Public Funds (Provincial, Local and Municipal).	Percentage of expenditure in columns 18 and 19 to total expenditure in column 24.	Percentage of Provincial expenditure in column 18 to total expenditure in column 22.	Percentage of Provincial expenditure in column 18 to total Provincial expenditure on education.†	Percentage of total expenditure in column 22 to total expenditure on education.‡	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29
	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹		₹	₹	₹	₹	₹		₹	₹	₹		₹	₹	₹	₹	₹		₹					
MADRAS — High Schools — For Boys — English	48,247	544	29,504	1,389	79,684	37·03	32,811	...	56,444	60,204	1,49,48		14,128	8,613	22,641	61·95	81,058	544	99,976	70,206	2,51,784	39·71	16,32,345	12·30	28·65	19·08	18·85	*a* Exclusive of the expenditure on buildings, scholarships and miscellaneous objects.
MADRAS — High Schools — For Girls — English	465	...	137	...	602	22·76	...	...	12	1	13		...	...	...		465	...	149	1	615	24·23						
MADRAS — Middle Schools — For Boys — English	51,949	12,094	62,784	2,226	1,29,053	48·65	41,457	374	1,13,238	42,743	1,95		33,028	19,040	52,068	63·43	93,406	12,468	2,09,050	62,009	3,76,933	55·49						
MADRAS — Middle Schools — For Boys — Vernacular	...	339	...	...	339	...	359	...	257	27			1,981	491	1,542	68·16	359	339	1,308	528	2,534	51·61						
MADRAS — Middle Schools — For Girls — English	428	113	223	...	764	29·19	1,930	...	328	3,529			1,622	2,112	3,734	56·61	2,358	113	841	5,551	8,663	9·70						
MADRAS — Middle Schools — For Girls — Vernacular	9	...	...	...	9	...	686	...	154	1,005			290	1,822	2,112	13·73	695	...	202	3,294	4,291	4·70						
MADRAS — Training College for Masters of Secondary Schools.	9,052	...	...	...	9,052	...	...	...	...	...			48	2,389	2,437	1·97	9,052	...	....	...	9,052	...						
MADRAS — Total	1,10,150	13,090	92,648	3,615	2,19,503	42·20	77,243	374	1,70,433	1,05,519	3,53		48,445	32,355	80,800	59·95	1,87,393	13,464	3,11,526	1,41,489	6,53,872	47·64	..	...	...	...	...	*b* Inclusive of the expenditure on attached technical schools.
BOMBAY — High Schools — For Boys — English	1,19,681	20,274	86,169	10,627	2,36,751	44·69	17,087	...	13,204	24,332	54,6		8,813	55,965	64,779	14·32	1,35,768	20,274	1,08,186	90,925	3,56,153	34·92	19,82,535	14·08	34·38	20·26	19·55	
BOMBAY — Middle Schools — For Boys — English	51,383	28,319	63,254	2,138	1,45,094	44·79	36,319	...	20,429	37,367	94,1		7,711	45,038	52,769	14·97	87,702	28,319	97,394	78,563	2,91,978	35·51						
BOMBAY — Middle Schools — For Girls — English	...	...	...	...	...	...	6,236	...	5,391	11,276	22,9		...	...	...	...	6,236	...	5,391	11,276	22,903	24·68						
BOMBAY — Total	1,71,064	48,593	1,49,423	12,765	3,81,845	44·73	59,642	...	45,024	66,975	1,71		16,524	1,01,024	1,17,548	14·62	2,30,706	48,593	2,10,971	1,80,764	6,71,034	34·82	...	...	...	...	...	*c* The expenditure on buildings and scholarships (Rs. 18,013) cannot be distributed among the several grades of secondary schools. It has therefore been excluded from columns 2—22, but included in columns 23—28.
BENGAL — High Schools — For Boys — English	1,67,429	937	2,71,904	30,141	4,70,465	57·81	54,139	3,860	1,07,006	76,901	2,41,		68,568	72,572	1,41,080	48·55	2,21,568	6,361	4,47,508	1,78,014	8,53,451	52·43	26,80,510	20·69	30·73	20·24	27·79	
BENGAL — High Schools — For Girls — English	12,000	...	3,488	...	15,488	22·52	..	..	..	...	...		...	...	...	...	12,000	...	3,488	...	15,488	22·10						
BENGAL — Middle Schools — For Boys — English	15,278	600	7,667	275	23,820	32·18	1,20,201	7,758	92,853	1,54,768	3,75,6		6,238	56,706	56·09	1,25,479	8,841	1,20,988	4,56,136	26·52							
BENGAL — Middle Schools — For Boys — Vernacular	51,868	606	22,797	6,237	81,508	27·96	1,04,527	2,347	99,529	91,762	2,89,1		8,507	22,787	18·78	1,56,375	3,603	1,17,666	3,93,440	29·59							
BENGAL — Middle Schools — For Girls — English	4,928	...	...	889	5,817	...	1,663	...	1,108	4,492	7,5		.....	...	...	...	6,591	...	1,408	5,381	13,380	1·15						
BENGAL — Middle Schools — For Girls — Vernacular	...	...	...	...	...	...	3,611	...	390	2,901	10,2		33	453	486	6·79	3,611	390	311	6,444	10,756	4·52						
BENGAL — Total	2,51,503	2,137	3,05,946	37,512	5,97,098	51·23	2,84,121	14,285	2,52,074	3,33,924	9,24,4		93,289	1,27,770	2,21,059	42·20	5,35,624	19,195	6,91,309	4,96,523	17,42,651	39·61	...	...	...	...	...	*d* Of this amount Rs. 8 were from Provincial funds.
N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH. — High and Middle Schools — For Boys — English	1,66,718	4,393	14,626	3,280	1,80,017	7·73	46,277	3,938	3,108	52,087	1,05,4		14	1,301	2,615	4·72	2,12,995	8,631	17,848	57,368	2,96,842	6·01	15,77,695	17·70	69·55	27·16	17·63	
N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH. — High and Middle Schools — For Boys — Vernacular	36,182	18,255	2,444	1,556	58,477	4·17	...	236	464	1,264	3,4		...	...	...	...	37,651	18,501	2,908	2,850	61,010	4·69						
N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH. — High and Middle Schools — For Girls — English	...	...	...	...	...	...	1,320	34	220	1,753	3,3		...	...	...	...	1,320	24	...	259	3,319	0·62						
N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH. — High and Middle Schools — For Girls — Vernacular	...	...	...	...	...	...	108	....	...	259	4·		...	...	...	...	168	...	...	259	427	...						
N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH. — Total	2,02,900	22,648	17,070	4,836	2,47,494	6·89	49,234	4,208	3,792	55,355	1,12,58		114	2,301	2,415	4·72	2,52,134	27,156	20,976	62,232	3,62,498	5·78	...	...	...	...	...	*e* Including expenditure on Training classes for masters of secondary Schools, and on Scholarships, Buildings and Miscellaneous objects in Middle English Schools.
PUNJAB — High Schools — For Boys — English	50,945	684	4,656	...	56,286	8·27	5,163	1,057	677	6,071	13,0		...	...	...	...	57,109	1,741	5,333	6,071	70,254	7·59	12,31,047	20·70	55·61	28·22	19·62	
PUNJAB — High Schools — For Boys — Vernacular	3,057	...	319	...	3,376	9·45	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	3,057	...	319	...	3,376	9·45						
PUNJAB — Middle Schools — For Boys — English	78,984	15,364	13,675	4,047	1,12,070	12·20	21,522	2,387	4,333	24,360	52,		...	...	...	...	1,00,508	17,751	18,008	28,407	1,64,672	10·94						
PUNJAB — Middle Schools — For Boys — Vernacular	384	49,424	3,822	32	53,852	7·10	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	584	49,424	3,822	32	53,862	7·10						
PUNJAB — Middle Schools — For Girls — English	...	...	...	...	...	...	440	...	507	2,459	3,		...	...	...	...	440	...	...	2,459	3,406	14·82						
PUNJAB — Training College for Masters of Secondary Schools.	16,152	8,084	...	...	24,236	...	...	...	...	...			...	...	...	...	16,152	8,084	...	...	24,236	...						
PUNJAB — Total	1,49,723	73,556	22,472	4,079	2,49,830	8·99	28,125	3,444	5,517	32,890	69		...	...	...	...	1,77,848	77,000	27,989	35,969	3,19,806	8·75	...	...	...	...	...	*f* Including Rs. 2,973 from Municipal Funds, viz., Rs. 2,673 in Bengal, and Rs. 300 in the N.-W. Provinces.
CENTRAL PROVINCES — High Schools — For Boys — English	8,530	...	1,093	...	9,623	11·36	6,312	922	1,359	6,288	14,		...	...	...	...	14,842	922	2,452	6,288	24,504	10·00	5,28,802	16·56	66·42	21·48	16·75	
CENTRAL PROVINCES — Middle Schools — For Boys — English	43,268	7,149	5,092	2,128	57,937	8·78	5,070	1,812	1,797	3,997	12,6		...	...	...	...	48,338	8,961	6,889	6,425	70,613	9·75						
CENTRAL PROVINCES — Total	51,798	7,149	6,185	2,128	67,560	9·15	11,382	2,734	3,156	10,285	27,55		...	...	...	...	63,180	9,883	9,341	12,713	a 95,117	9·82	...	...	...	...	...	
ASSAM — High Schools — For Boys — English	26,424	...	21,271	1,679	49,374	50·13	1,685	...	1,551	133	3,3		573	2587	1,931	81·79	28,117	...	24,505	2,162	54,674	51·18	2,05,076	28·60	48·90	41·29	38·37	
ASSAM — Middle Schools — For Boys — English	512	...	316	...	828	38·15	10,361	285	7,228	11,335	29,2		554	1,541	2,095	26·44	10,873	285	8,098	12,876	32,132	25·20						
ASSAM — Middle Schools — For Boys — Vernacular	12,891	...	4,179	10	17,080	30·48	6,501	...	2,735	4,935	14,1		85	1,248	1,333	6·37	19,393	....	6,999	6,193	32,585	26·12						
ASSAM — Total	39,827	...	25,766	1,689	67,282	45·23	18,548	285	11,514	16,403	46		2,212	3,147	5,359	41·33	58,383	285	39,492	21,231	1,19,391	37·06	...	...	...	...	...	
COORG — High Schools — For Boys — English	7,518	...	1,160	...	8,678	13·37	...	...	...	...	..		...	...	...	...	7,518	...	1,160	..	8,678	13·37	20,203	5·04	86·63	59·82	38·16	
COORG — Middle Schools — For Boys — English																												
COORG — Total	7,518	...	1,160	...	8,678	13·37	...	...	...	...	..		..	...	...	...	7,518	...	1,160	...	8,678	13·37	...	...	...	...	...	
HAIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS — High Schools — For Boys — English	11,817	...	144	...	11,961	1·20	...	...	...	...	..		...	...	...	...	11,817	...	144	...	11,961	1·20	2,24,381	15·39	98·15	22·56	15·34	
HAIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS — Middle Schools — For Boys — English	41,336	44	810	...	42,190	1·91	...	...	...	...	..		...	...	...	...	41,336	44	810	...	42,190	1·91						
HAIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS — Total	53,153	44	954	...	54,151	1·76	...	...	...	...	..		...	...	...	...	53,153	44	954	...	54,151	1·76	...	...	...	...	...	
TOTAL FOR INDIA† — High Schools — For Boys	6,02,849	26,826	4,20,776	47,086	11,06,537	40·60	2,64,474	9,777	1,83,340	2,26,016	5,83		93,036	1,39,810	2,32,846	40·52	7,67,331	38,473	7,06,161	4,11,034	19,22,999	37·77	1,01,82,684	17·29	38·88	22·12	22·10	
TOTAL FOR INDIA† — High Schools — For Girls	12,465	...	3,625	...	16,090	22·52	1,320	24	232	1,756	3,		...	...	...	...	13,785	24	3,857	1,756	19,422	9·04						
TOTAL FOR INDIA† — Middle Schools — For Boys	3,91,753	1,32,194	1,88,000	18,080	7,30,026	25·07	3,47,787	25,230	3,39,863	3,64,558	10,67,		57,177	1,22,123	1,89,300	35·73	7,30,520	1,48,536	5,95,040	5,04,567	19,87,653	30·20						
TOTAL FOR INDIA† — Middle Schools — For Girls	5,395	113	223	889	6,500	43·38	14,734	390	8,666	29,012	52,		371	4,664	5,035	7·36	20,009	563	8,660	34,564	63,826	13·79						
TOTAL FOR INDIA† — Training Colleges for Masters of Secondary Schools.	25,204	8,084	...	...	33,288	...	...	...	...	...	...		...	...	...	...	25,204	8,084	...	...	33,288	...						
TOTAL FOR INDIA† — Total	10,37,636	1,67,217	6,21,624	65,964	18,93,441	33·02	5,28,255	25,430	5,31,510	6,21,342	17,06,		1,60,584	2,66,597	4,27,181	37·99	15,65,939	1,95,620	13,13,718	9,51,921	f 40,27,198	33·26	...	...	...	...	...	

* Including the expenditure on Professional and Technical Institutions and on schools for Europeans and Eurasians.

Average annual Cost § of Educating each Pupil in 1881-82.

1			Departmental Schools.			Aided Schools.			Unaided Schools.
			Total average annual cost of educating each pupil.	Average annual cost to Provincial Funds.	Average annual cost to Local and Municipal Funds.	Total average annual cost of educating each pupil.	Average annual cost to Provincial Funds.	Average annual cost to Local and Municipal Funds.	Total average cost educating each
			2	3	4	5	6	7	8
			R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a.
MADRAS	High Schools	For Boys English	77 4 7	46 12 9	0 8 5	55 14 4	12 4 4	...	34
		„ Girls English	100 5 4	77 8 0	...	13 0 0	...	...	
	Middle Schools	„ Boys English	29 3 4	11 12 2	2 11 9	21 10 1	4 9 3	0 0 8	20
		„ Boys Vernacular	10 15 0	...	10 15 0	7 0 4	3 13 9	...	3 15
		„ Girls English	58 12 4	32 14 9	8 11 1	83 13 11	27 15 6	...	24 17
		„ Girls Vernacular	0 14 5	0 14 5	...	20 15 5	7 12 9	...	21
	Training College for Masters of Secondary Schools		502 14 2	502 14 2	...	...	...	...	...
BOMBAY	High Schools	For Boys English	59 2 4	27 10 9	2 5 2	48 15 1	15 4 11	...	73
	Middle Schools	„ Boys English	20 8 7	7 0 8	3 15 9	22 6 10	6 8 8	...	20
		„ Girls English	...	...	...	38 14 11	9 3 7	...	...
BENGAL	High Schools	For Boys English	34 10 2	12 5 2	0 1 1	21 7 8	4 12 10	0 5 5	9
		„ Girls English	154 14 0	120 0 0	...	...	...	...	...
	Middle Schools	„ Boys English	20 15 5	13 7 2	0 8 5	14 5 2	4 9 4	0 4 9	8
		„ Boys Vernacular	8 9 6	5 7 6	0 0 11	7 10 8	2 12 4	0 1 0	5
		„ Girls English	31 7 1	26 10 2	...	54 12 10	12 0 9	...	...
		„ Girls Vernacular	...	...	...	20 5 4	7 2 4	0 12 4	48
N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH.	High and Middle Schools	For Boys English	70 6 9	62 1 10	1 10 2	47 7 0	20 13 3	1 12 4	58 14
		For Boys Vernacular	18 4 10	11 5 2	5 11 5	13 12 7	5 14 4	0 15 9	...
		„ Girls English	...	...	...	45 7 5	18 1 4	0 5 3	...
		„ Girls Vernacular	...	...	...	71 2 8	28 0 0	...	...
PUNJAB	High Schools	For Boys English	162 3 3	146 13 1	1 15 5	98 5 10	43 6 5	7 7 0	...
		„ Boys Vernacular	116 6 7	105 6 7	...	... ‡	...	...	Statis
	Middle Schools	„ Boys English	54 6 5	38 5 5	7 7 3	66 6 8	27 2 9	3 0 2	not
		„ Boys Vernacular	18 14 10	0 3 3	17 5 10	...	...	...	availa
		„ Girls English	...	...	...	*378 7 1	148 14 3	...	...
	Training College for Masters of Secondary Schools		448 13 6	299 1 9	149 11 3	...	...	...	...
CENTRAL PROVINCES	High Schools	For Boys English	96 3 8	85 4 9	...	89 1 9	37 12 9	5 8 4	...
	Middle Schools	„ Girls English	33 4 5	24 13 8	4 1 8	25 8 11	10 3 7	3 10 5	...
ASSAM	High Schools	„ Boys English	24 13 6	11 15 2	...	26 14 2	13 3 1	...	8 7
	Middle Schools	„ Boys English	7 2 2	4 6 7	...	13 12 5	4 14 2	0 2 2	5 12
		„ Boys Vernacular	11 2 2	7 11 8	...	8 9 6	3 14 9	...	21 2
COORG	High Schools	„ Boys English	65 4 0	56 8 5	...	...	...	...	...
	Middle Schools	„ Boys English							
HAIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS.	High Schools	„ Boys English	239 3 6	236 5 5	...	...	...	...	...
	Middle Schools	„ Boys English	50 5 6	49 5 3	0 0 10	...	...	...	...
AVERAGE FOR INDIA†	High Schools	For Boys	46 3 9	24 13 8	0 9 10	32 15 3	9 4 6	0 8 10	13 12
		„ Girls	151 12 8	117 9 6	...	45 0 5	17 13 5	0 5 2	...
	Middle Schools	„ Boys	21 3 9	11 4 11	3 12 8	12 14 0	4 1 5	0 2 11	11 3
		„ Girls	31 10 11	25 12 8	0 8 8	37 2 7	9 14 11	0 4 6	23 15
	Training College for Masters of Secondary Schools		462 5 4	350 0 10	112 4 5	...	...	...	...
	Total		32 0 3	17 6 0	2 10 11	16 12 11	5 1 5	0 4 0	1

* This school is under European management.
† Excluding Ajmir, British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
‡ The cost of the School attached to the Punjab Oriental College, being inseparable
§ Calculated o

246. Different Sources of Expenditure.—From the first of these Tables a few salient facts may be extracted, though their value is impaired by the fact that in the expenditure on secondary education in Bengal and Assam is included the cost of educating the pupils in primary classes, who constitute a very large proportion of the whole attendance. It follows, not only that the figures for these two Provinces are affected by considerations which do not apply to the rest of India, but also that any averages for the whole of India are in one direction increased, and in another diminished, by the inclusion of the statistics for Bengal and Assam. The total cost of a high school in Bengal is much greater, and the average cost of each pupil much less, than in those Provinces in which a high school contains only the upper classes. Hence the result of including the figures for Bengal and Assam will be on the one hand to raise the percentage of expenditure on secondary education, and on the other to reduce the average cost of educating each pupil. The necessary correction can be applied by comparing the statistics of the several Provinces. With these explanations the following summaries may be noticed. The totalamount spent from all sources on secondary education in India in 1881-82 was Rs. 40,27,000, or 22 per cent. of the whole expenditure; Rs. 15,66,000 being paid from Provincial revenues; Rs. 1,95,000 from local and municipal funds; Rs. 13,14,000 from fees; and Rs. 9,52,000 from other private sources. The proportion borne by the total expenditure from all sources on secondary education to the total expenditure on education of all kinds is much above the average of 22 per cent. in Bengal and Assam, where it rises to 28 and 38 per cent. respectively; but in these two Provinces a large amount of what is elsewhere called primary is included in and charged to secondary education. The proportion borne by Provincial revenues to the total expenditure in secondary schools, which is 39 per cent. for the whole of India, varies from 28 and 34 per cent. in Madras, Bombay and Bengal, to 55 and 69 per cent. in the Punjab and the North-Western Provinces; in the other Provinces it varies from 49 per cent. in Assam to 98 per cent. in Berar. The contributions from Local and Municipal Funds to the support of secondary schools show wide and significant variations; from one per cent. of the total cost of secondary education in Bengal, and two per cent. in Madras, to 10 per cent. in the Central Provinces, and 24 per cent. in the Punjab. In Bombay and the North-Western Provinces the proportion is 7 and 8 per cent. respectively, while in the minor Provinces little or nothing is contributed from this source. There can be no doubt that while municipalities should be induced to recognise their public duty in this respect, as they certainly do not appear to do in Bengal and Madras, it is still possible to go too far, and to expend on secondary education funds that might more usefully be devoted to the education of the poor in large towns. In this view it is right to notice that the bulk of the expenditure on secondary education from Municipal and Local Funds in the Punjab is devoted to middle, and chiefly to middle vernacular schools; these funds also bear one-third of the cost of the Lahore Training College. The percentage of fees to total expenditure, which is 33 for the whole of India, rises to 48 in Madras; in Bengal, Assam, and Bombay it varies in that order from 40 to 35 per cent., while in the Central Provinces, the Punjab, and the North-Western Provinces it falls to about 10, 9, and 6 per cent. respectively. It will be observed that the fees realised in aided secondary schools amount to considerably more in Assam, where however these schools contain attached primary departments, than in the North-Western Provinces, Oudh, and the Punjab taken all together. The contributions from 'other sources,' chiefly subscriptions and to some extent endowments, are highest in Bengal and Bombay, with 28 and 27 per cent. respectively of the total expenditure; while in the

other Provinces it varies from 12 and 13 per cent. in the Punjab and the Central Provinces to 20 per cent. in Madras. In Bombay, however, the proportion of 27 per cent. includes the large contributions made by Native States for the maintenance of their own schools, and is therefore no indication of the extent of popular support. Taking 'fees' and 'other private sources' together, it will be seen that in Madras and Bengal the contributions of the public to the cost of secondary education amount to about 68 per cent., and in Assam to 50 per cent. In the other Provinces the proportion is much lower.

247. Average annual Cost of educating each Pupil.—The second of the foregoing Tables shows that the total annual cost of educating a boy in a Government high school, which is Rs. 46 for the whole of India, varies from Rs. 24 in Assam and Rs. 34 in Bengal to Rs. 162 in the Punjab and Rs. 239 in Berar. In an aided high school the cost for the whole of India is Rs. 33; varying from Rs. 21 in Bengal and Rs. 26 in Assam to Rs. 89 in the Central Provinces and Rs. 98 in the Punjab. In an unaided high school the average cost of Rs. 13 varies from Rs. 8 and Rs. 9 in Assam and Bengal to Rs. 73 in Bombay. The low rate in Bengal and Assam, where the average cost is greatly reduced by the primary departments of high schools, suggests a reason why such comparisons must always be received with caution. Thus in Bengal, when a high school contains nine or ten classes, the total annual cost of each boy in a Government school is Rs. 34; in Bombay, where there are four classes, it is Rs. 59; and in Madras, where there are only two classes, it rises to Rs. 77. For Coorg, Madras, the Central Provinces, and the Punjab an accurate comparison can be made; and it will be seen that the cost of educating each boy in a Government or aided school increases in the order in which the Provinces have been named, the cost in the Punjab being exceptionally high. High as it is, however, it is exceeded in the two Government high schools of Berar, where a boy's education costs annually Rs. 239, of which no less a share than Rs. 236 is paid for him by the State. In comparing the figures for middle schools similar caution must be used; for a middle school, which commonly contains three classes, has from two to five classes in Bombay and seven (including the primary department) in Bengal, while it has only two classes in the North-Western Povinces and Oudh. The cost of each pupil in an aided school can be best elucidated by comparing it with the cost of a Government school in the same Province. In the whole of India, the cost of educating a pupil in an aided high school is 72 per cent. of the cost of his education in a Government high school; the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, and Bengal being below this average; and Madras, Bombay, and the Central Provinces above it. It will also be seen that the cost of a girl's is far higher than that of a boy's education; the difference being much the greatest in the case of high schools maintained by Government.

248. Initial Standards in secondary Schools.—On a compendious review of the course of study in secondary schools or departments throughout British India, it may be generally stated that, from the time of his entrance upon the secondary stage, a scholar receives instruction in the following subjects: English, the vernacular, arithmetic, geography and history; and that after a period of study extending over five years, three of which are passed in the middle stage and two in the high, he is brought up to the matriculation standard of the University. These general statements are, however, subject to large modifications in their application to different Provinces, as regards alike the contents of the course, the period during which it is studied, and its relation to the course below it. For example, English may be generally regarded as the subject which specially characterises the beginnings of secondary as distinguished from primary education. In some Provinces, however, English is

taught in primary as well as in secondary schools; in others it is not a necessary part of the course even in secondary schools, but may be replaced by a classical language, or mathematics, or elementary science. Similar differences prevail as to the number of classes comprised in a secondary school. In Bombay the course in secondary schools extends over seven years, three being spent in the middle and four in the high school. A comparison of the courses, however, shows that the initial standard of middle schools is considerably lower than the initial standard of secondary instruction in other Provinces, which corresponds more nearly, though not precisely, to the third standard of middle schools in Bombay. Understood in this sense, the period of secondary instruction may in Bombay also be taken to extend over five years, one being spent in the middle and four in the high school. In Berar, where the courses are also governed by the Entrance standard of the Bombay University, the middle-school course occupies three years, and that of the high school two years. In Bengal and Assam, where the courses in corresponding classes of different schools to some extent overlap, the secondary course may also be regarded as extending over five years, three in the middle and two in the high school. The same is explicitly the case in the Punjab and in Coorg. In the North-Western Provinces the course occupies four years, and in the Central Provinces six years, but in neither case do the Provincial Reports supply the initial standard of middle schools, so that the materials for an exact comparison are wanting. It will, however, be convenient, in order to furnish a more precise idea of what is generally understood by secondary education, to present in a tabular form a comparison of the initial standards, as above understood, of middle schools in which English is taught, in the three Provinces of Madras, Bombay, and Bengal. In Madras and Bengal this standard is reached after a five or six years' course in one school, in Bombay after a seven years' course in two schools.

Initial Standards of Instruction in Secondary Schools.

Subjects.	Madras.	Bombay.	Bengal.
	Standard of the 3rd Class of English Schools.*	*Standard of the 3rd* Class of Middle Schools.*	*Standard of the 5th* Class of Middle and High Schools.*
1. English	Third English Reader; writing, dictation, and grammar; translation into English and the vernacular; dialogues in the Reader to be learnt by heart; knowledge of English to be tested by sentences outside the text-book.	Third English Reader; writing, spelling, and simple parsing in English; translation into English and the vernacular; recitation of poetry.	Fourth English Reader; dictation and grammar; translation into English and the vernacular; recitation of select pieces of poetry.
2. Vernacular language	Fourth Reader, and short poetical passages not previously studied; dictation and grammar; recitation of poetry.	Prescribed portions of standard authors, in prose and poetry; dictation and grammar; recitation of 100 lines of poetry.	Prose and poetical Reader; dictation and grammar.
3. Arithmetic	To compound rules and vulgar fractions; easy decimals.	To decimals, compound proportion, and discount.	To vulgar and decimal fractions, and proportion; native methods of arithmetic.
4. Geography	Europe: maps to be shown.	Asia and India in detail; elementary knowledge of the world; map of India to be drawn from memory, with political divisions.	Asia and India in detail; general knowledge of the world; map of Bengal.
5. History	Portion of the history of the world. (Agriculture may be substituted for history in rural schools.)	India to 1856.	Bengal.
6. Additional subjects	.....	.....	Euclid to I. 26. Mensuration of lines, and native methods of mensuration. The Sanitary Primer, with an additional text-book.

* The classes are reckoned from the bottom of the school.

These standards, it will be observed, do not greatly differ. The Bengal standard covers a wider field than that of Bombay, but the latter within its narrower area is more complete. In Bombay the following subjects may also be optionally taken up by students of middle schools: (*a*) free-hand drawing; (*b*) model and object drawing; (*c*) practical geometry. Schools in which drawing is taught are examined once a year, and a prize is given to any scholar who passes in the first grade.

It should here be noticed that our Bombay colleagues take exception to the comparison of standards made above; and they urge that, owing to the greater attention paid to the vernacular in secondary schools in Bombay, a student necessarily remains a longer time in the secondary stage of instruction in that Province than in others in which the attention of pupils is more exclusively directed to English and the subjects of the University Entrance course. They consider that the lowest and not the third standard in middle schools should be taken as marking the beginnings of secondary education in Bombay; and they regard the former standard as being equivalent, except in the single subject of English, to the standards given in the above Table for Madras and Bengal. The practical bearing of the argument here put forward is that, in comparing the number of secondary pupils in different Provinces, no deduction should be made on account of those reading in the two lowest classes of a middle school in Bombay. Calculated in this way, the number of pupils in secondary schools in Bombay would, in proportion to the population, be above that of any other Province. We have already expressed the opinion that no accurate comparison is possible; and for those who wish to pursue the subject further, the Bombay standards are given in detail at page 114 of the Bombay Provincial Report.

249. The Place of English and the Vernacular in secondary Schools.—In those schools in which English is taught, it may either be taught as a language merely, all substantive instruction in other subjects being imparted through the vernacular, or it may itself be used as the medium of instruction. It will be seen that wide differences prevail in this respect. Again, the description of secondary schools given in the preceding paragraph applies only to those schools in which English forms part of the course. That subject, however, is not everywhere regarded as a necessary element in secondary instruction; and in many Provinces, schools in which English finds no place are included in this class. The latter practice appears to have derived its origin or sanction from the principle enunciated in paragraphs 43 and 44 of the Despatch of 1854, in which Anglo-vernacular and vernacular schools were included in the same class, and the standard of instruction, in whatever language conveyed, was declared to be the most important element in classification. In Madras, middle vernacular schools form part of the recognised system, though the large majority of middle schools include English in their course. English is also taught as a necessary or optional part of the course in primary schools. In the lowest class of middle schools it is taught as a language only; in the higher classes of these schools and in high schools, it is the medium of instruction. In Bombay, there is nothing exactly corresponding to a middle vernacular school, since middle schools are defined by the teaching of English. But some approach to it is found in the addition of a fifth and sixth standard to the ordinary course in primary schools, after the examination which qualifies for admission to a middle school has been passed. If "middle school instruction" is understood to mean that which leads on to a high school, these standards will form no part of it, since they have been devised with exclusive reference to the requirements of candidates for the public service. But if by middle or secondary instruction is meant that which carries primary instruction to a higher point, the fifth and sixth standards, though taught in a primary school, may so far be regarded as belonging to the secondary system. In all middle schools the vernacular is the sole medium of instruction; in high schools English takes its place. In Bengal, the greatest value is attached to middle vernacular schools, which are regarded as the strength of the secondary system; and equal stress is laid on the employment of the vernacular as the medium of instruction. Until six years ago, English was the medium of instruction in all middle English schools. But in 1877, when the advantages of a different method had for some time engaged the attention of the Department, the course in English schools was assimilated to that in vernacular schools; English was taught as a language merely, in addition to the full vernacular course; and all substantive instruction in middle schools has since been imparted in the vernacular. In the middle departments of high schools in Bengal the old system still prevails. In these schools, in all of which English is taught from the lowest primary class, the text-books are all English; and arithmetic, history, and geography are taught through the medium of English. A movement, however, has lately been set on foot in Bengal, with the object of confining the use of English as the medium of instruction to the four or five highest classes leading up to the Entrance examination; and the plan has been tried as an experimental measure in a few Government and aided schools. In the North-Western Provinces there is a well-marked class of middle vernacular schools, in which English and algebra are replaced by equivalent subjects in the vernacular. In middle English schools all instruction in the lower classes is conveyed through the vernacular. In the Punjab the same distinction of secondary schools into English and vernacular exists; and it applies not only to middle but to high schools. In middle schools, equivalent subjects are substituted for English; while the course in vernacular high schools is determined by the Entrance standard of the Punjab University. Our returns show only one high school of this class, that at Jalandhar; but in fact the Government high schools at Jalandhar, Ludhiana, and Delhi have both English and Vernacular Departments, to which may perhaps be added the school classes of the Oriental College at Lahore. In middle English schools the vernacular is the medium of instruction. The Central Provinces follow an entirely different system. There are no middle vernacular schools properly so called; and the nearest equivalent is found, as in Bombay, in the addition of a fifth and sixth class to the four classes of an ordinary primary school. Again, throughout the secondary course English is employed as the medium of instruction. Coorg follows the example of Madras, and Assam that of Bengal. In Berar there are no vernacular secondary schools, and English is employed as the medium of instruction throughout.

250. The Vernacular as the Medium of Instruction.—A consideration of the diversities of practice exhibited in the preceding paragraph suggests the following observations with regard to the employment of the vernacular as the medium of instruction in secondary, or at any rate in middle, schools. The opposite practice is defended in the Report of the Central Provinces Committee in the following words: "Instruction [in middle schools] is given usually "through English. Every effort is made to teach English as a living language. "It is felt that a boy well grounded in English and having a good acquaintance "with one of the vernaculars, may, after he leaves school, carry on his own educa-"tion. Boys well grounded in these languages pass more easily and with greater "success through their high school course than those less perfectly acquainted "with English." In the same way, it was formerly contended in Bengal that to convey instruction in history, geography, and science through the medium of English, and with English text-books, was to teach the pupils English as well as the

special subjects of study; and, by enlarging their stock of English words and forms of expression, to prepare them more thoroughly for the Entrance examination and the subsequent University course. The more English reading they got, the better English scholars they would be; while the study of English was continued long enough to enable them to profit by instruction in other subjects conveyed through that language. The force of this argument is denied by some; though it may be accepted so far as it applies to the method of instruction in high schools—understanding that term to signify the upper classes reading for the Entrance examination. By the time a pupil arrives at that stage of instruction, he may be assumed to have advanced so far, both in English and in other subjects, as to be able to profit by instruction conveyed in a foreign tongue. The point is much less clear in the case of middle schools, in which, speaking generally, a pupil enters for the first time upon the study of history, science, and mathematics, concurrently with English. If all these subjects are taught through English, instead of through the pupil's own vernacular,—just as, under earlier systems of instruction, Latin and Greek were taught to English boys, not through English but through Latin,—it is to be feared that his progress in them will be slow. Proficiency in English will, in fact, be gained at the expense of his general education. When, indeed, a pupil passes from the middle to the high school, a compensating condition arises in the fact that his greater familiarity with English will enable him to advance with more rapid steps in his other subjects, which are at that stage to be taught through English. A similar consideration may be held to apply to those high schools in Bengal in which English is taught from the earliest primary stage, and is employed as the medium of instruction almost from the outset. Every pupil in these schools is practically reading for the Entrance examination; and the question of any disadvantage which he might suffer if his education, so conducted, came to an end at an earlier stage, hardly arises. It is different, however, with the course and the pupils in middle schools. The question cannot be argued on the assumption that every pupil in a middle school goes on in due course to a high school; the reverse is notoriously the case. In Bengal, for example, it is known that the great majority of the pupils of middle English schools complete their education therein. Hence it becomes of the utmost importance to consider whether, to such pupils, the use of English or of the vernacular is most advantageous as the medium of instruction. For them, at any rate, it would appear that the employment of the vernacular is preferable. A boy would in such a case receive a sound vernacular education suited to his station in life, and he would acquire a useful, if elementary, knowledge of English in addition. To a boy so educated even an elementary knowledge of English is of unquestionable value, not only by reason of the mental training which its acquisition has involved, but also in regard to his business or other relations with the outer world. It may be added that the experience of the Education Department in Bengal offers a remarkable contrast with that of officers in the Central Provinces, as described in the passage quoted at the beginning of this paragraph. That which led the Bengal Department first of all to consider the feasibility of the change was the marked superiority, at the Entrance examination, of those pupils who had joined the high school with vernacular, compared with those who came with English scholarships. In Calcutta, again, where the freest choice is open, both to pupils in selecting a school, and to managers in determining what constitution will make their school most popular, it is found that all the great middle schools of the city are purely vernacular; and that a large majority of the pupils in the Hindu school, excluding those who have been educated therein from the beginning, come from vernacular and not from English schools. We have dwelt at some length on

the example of Bengal, because it is in that Province that the question has been most fully and frequently discussed, and the widest experience of opposite systems gained. We do not put forward any definite recommendation on this subject, but at the same time we commend its consideration, in the light of the observations above made, both to Local Governments and Departments, and in an equal degree to the managers of aided and unaided secondary schools. It is a question in the decision of which much must depend on local circumstances; and hence the freest scope in dealing with it should be left to the managers of schools, whatever be the view which the Department in any Province may be disposed to adopt.

251. Schools exclusively Vernacular.—It has been shown that in several Provinces of India purely vernacular schools are either recognised or may be regarded as forming part of the secondary system; and that in one Province, the Punjab, recognition is given to high as well as to middle vernacular schools. We entirely concur in the principle which underlies this classification, and which has indeed been explicitly declared in the Despatch of 1854, that schools in which no English is taught may, if their standard of instruction in other subjects is sufficiently high, be placed in the same rank with English schools. One point, however, it seems desirable to notice. In the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, where, as in Bengal, vernacular schools of secondary instruction are expressly recognised, the study of English is replaced by other equivalent subjects, such as a classical language, or a higher standard of mathematics, or both. We are inclined to think that some such equivalent substitution would strengthen the middle schools of Bengal. Under present arrangements, the standard of middle vernacular schools in that Province is lower than that of middle English schools by the whole subject of English; and accordingly, in the examination for middle scholarships, a higher limit of age is fixed for English than for vernacular candidates. We would suggest that such a distinction is unnecessary; and that if vernacular schools (or at any rate the most advanced of the class) are to take their true place in the secondary system, the course should be amplified by the addition of subjects forming a fair equivalent to English,—either Sanskrit or Persian (for a scholarly knowledge of the vernacular), or algebra (with a view to improved arithmetic), or both. These subjects form an important part of the course in Normal schools in Bengal, and no difficulty would arise on that score; indeed, they once formed part of the middle school course, until Sir George Campbell's reforms in 1872 attempted to give a more practical character to the instruction in those schools. At the same time we are far from saying that the final standard for middle vernacular schools in Bengal (to be described in a subsequent paragraph) is not high enough to justify the inclusion of those schools under the head of secondary; and if the suggestion that we have made be adopted, it would be for the Local Government to consider whether it should not be adopted as an alternative merely, so as to allow of that variety in educational institutions which, within necessary limits, is recognised as encouraging private effort and as facilitating educational progress. On this subject, also, we therefore make no definite Recommendation.

252. Middle Schools: their different Aims.—In the preceding paragraphs we have described the character of middle schools at their initial stage; and we have shown that, alike in the standard and in the method of instruction there is no exact correspondence between different Provinces. We shall now show that as the course in middle schools advances towards its higher stages, the divergence continues and is even increased. As has been indicated in a previous paragraph, it arises partly from initial differences in the standard, and

partly too (though in a much lower degree) from differences in the final standard of matriculation; but chiefly from the different views that may be taken of the place and purpose of middle schools in the secondary system. Are they to be regarded as feeders to high schools, their course of instruction being ultimately governed by the requirements of the Entrance examination? or do they occupy an independent position, their studies having no relation to those prescribed by the University, and being determined by the separate requirements of pupils, whose education terminates at that stage? In most Provinces both alternatives are more or less fully accepted. The middle school, in one of its forms, leads on directly to the high school course; and in another (whether that form be explicitly recognised or not as coming within the sphere of secondary instruction), it prepares pupils for a standard independent of the University. The independent status of middle schools is, however, more generally recognised in connection with vernacular than with English education; and for the most part, a pupil learning English in a middle school must learn it in a way determined by the requirements of the Entrance examination. But in some Provinces the course of instruction in middle schools affords their pupils an opportunity of gaining some acquaintance with English independently of University standards. In Bombay, for example, the fifth or final standard of middle schools, the passing of which in the first class qualifies a candidate for the upper grades of the subordinate public service, is theoretically identical with the corresponding standard of high schools, which is governed by the matriculation examination coming two years later. But in practice important modifications are allowed. Thus in those Government Anglo-vernacular schools which are called 'independent,' a standard History of India may be read instead of the prescribed English authors; less time may also be given to the classical language, and more to the vernacular. These provisions, coupled with the requirement of the "Sanitary Primer" from all candidates for the public service, impart a certain degree of elasticity to the standard. In Bengal, English may be optionally added to the course in any middle vernacular school; that course being altogether determined by the requirements of pupils who, without wishing to go on to the University, seek a better education than is given in village schools. But in the middle schools of Madras, the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, and the Central Provinces, there is no standard of English altogether independent of the Entrance examination.

253. Middle Schools independent of University Standards.—Having regard to all these differences of practice, we are of opinion that no advantage is gained by insisting on uniformity in the course of instruction in middle schools; but that the adoption of an alternative standard or standards answers a real need. In paragraph 17 of the Resolution appointing the Commission this question is referred to in the following terms: "The great majority of "those who prosecute their studies beyond the primary stage will never go "beyond the curriculum of the middle, or at furthest of the high schools. "It is therefore of the utmost importance that the education they receive "should be as thorough and sound as possible." The passage quoted touches another question, to be discussed hereafter, namely, the institution of a second standard in high schools for those pupils who do not intend to proceed to the University. But it has an equal bearing on the point which we are now considering, inasmuch as it declares the principle that the instruction in any class of schools should provide for the requirements of those who go no further. Some pupils look forward to a University career; their instruction in the middle stage must, therefore, be governed by University standards. There are others whose education, though going beyond the primary, will terminate at the middle stage; and in their case no such requirement exists. Some of

these last may require elementary instruction in English; others will not value it, or are not in a position to pay for it. In both cases alike the course of instruction should correspond with the social status of the pupils, and the general character of their occupations in after-life. They are above the status of the cultivator or the petty trader, and therefore require, since they have time for it, a course of instruction containing more liberal elements; they are not destined for a professional or literary career, and therefore may rightly look for a more practical training, into which an elementary course of English may or may not enter. In this connection we may refer to the following passage from the evidence of a witness quoted in the Madras Provincial Report, page 94: "There "is a large class of people, such as merchants with native constituents, who "care nothing for English. If there was an examination, not quite so hard at "first as the middle school examination, but gradually raised to such a standard, "serving as a test for admission to vernacular appointments under Government, "a great impetus would be given to vernacular education." The Madras Provincial Committee remarks to the same effect (Report, page 160): "The "middle school examination can be passed by a candidate ignorant of English; "but such candidates are regarded as exceptions, and must obtain special per- "mission. If the scheme were so modified as to give the same facilities to ver- "nacular candidates as to those who know English, it seems probable that a "considerable impetus would be given to middle school education in the verna- "cular, especially for pupils who do not go beyond."

254. Final Standards of middle Schools.—With these observations we proceed to consider and compare the final standards of middles chools, distinguishing vernacular standards from those which include a knowledge of English; and in the latter distinguishing those which are independent of, from those which are dominated by, the University course.

Madras.—In Madras there is a single final standard for middle schools two years below the Entrance examination. It includes the following subjects:—

1. English: Fifth Reader, with dictation, translation, and grammar.
2. Vernacular: composition, translation, and grammar.
3. (*a*) Arithmetic: to compound proportion and simple interest.
   (*b*) Algebra: to end of fractions.
   (*c*) Euclid: Book I.
4. Geography: Asia, Europe, and part of India; map-drawing.
5. History: India (part), and England to Henry VIII.

Bombay.—In Bombay the third standard of middle schools is that for admission to the high school course of four years, and might therefore be supposed to mark the close of the middle school course. But it will be convenient to consider the fifth standard, which in middle schools is that of qualification for the upper grades of the public service, and in high schools comes two years below matriculation, as marking the boundary between the middle and the high stage of instruction. The standard is as follows, the examination being conducted in English throughout:—

1. English: Standard authors; 100 pages of prose, 450 lines of poetry; dictation, grammar, translation, composition, and recitation.
2. (*a*) Vernacular: a standard author, translation, composition, grammar, and recitation.
   (*b*) Classical language: elementary Sanskrit, Latin, or Persian.

3. (*a*) Arithmetic: to square and cube root.
   (*b*) Algebra: the four rules (with integral terms).
   (*c*) Euclid: Book I.
4. Geography: the world, with special knowledge of British Foreign Possessions; general knowledge of other portions of the globe; map-drawing from memory of any country in Asia.
5. History: history of India, and England to Henry VIII.
6. Cuningham's Sanitary Primer.

This is the standard in high schools, and bears a close relation to the Entrance standard two years later. In "independent" middle schools, which read more exclusively for the public service examination, a standard history of India may be read instead of the English text-books, and the classical language may be replaced by a fuller course of the vernacular. There are also optional subjects, such as agriculture, theoretical and practical, and drawing.

The vernacular* standard, qualifying for the lower grades of the public service, which is the sixth or final standard of primary schools, but which we have referred to as belonging in one aspect to the secondary system, includes the following necessary subjects, to which elementary drawing and practical agriculture may be optionally added:—

1. Vernacular: Sixth Reader; grammar and recitation; letter-writing in the local character and reading the current hand.
2. (*a*) Arithmetic: the whole; native accounts and book-keeping.
   (*b*) Euclid: Book I.
3. Geography: general, and elementary physical; India in some detail; map-drawing.
4. History: India and its government.
5. Sanitary Primer.

It may be repeated that the only ground for referring to this standard under the head of secondary instruction lies in the fact that it is two years beyond the standard of admission to middle schools (or ordinary primary standard), and corresponds in point of time to the third standard in such schools. On the other hand, as the latter standard has been treated in the preceding paragraphs as that which marks in Bombay the beginning of secondary instruction, and as there is nothing in the subjects enumerated above which is really inconsistent with primary instruction as commonly understood in its higher stages, there is no actual necessity to regard the standard in question as coming within the secondary system. Moreover, it has always been regarded by the Government of Bombay as marking the highest development of their primary system, and as giving effect to their policy of providing in village schools a good elementary education suited to the wants of a progressive society. Taking this view of the case, there will practically be only one standard for middle schools in Bombay, of which English forms a necessary part.

Bengal.—In Bengal a very different method is pursued. There are three separate standards for pupils in middle schools or departments of schools, of which two include English and one is purely vernacular. One English and one vernacular standard are complete in themselves, and have no relation to any higher course. We shall first describe the standard that marks the close of the middle stage in high schools, two years below matriculation—

1. English: Robinson Crusoe or other similar book; Poetical Reader; translation and grammar.

* For fuller details see paragraph 172, Chapter IV.

2. (*a*) Vernacular; or
   (*b*) Sanskrit: Rijupath, Part II; and Patra-kaumadi, Part II.
   Translation and re-translation of vernacular.
3. (*a*) Arithmetic: to proportion and interest.
   (*b*) Algebra: first four rules.
   (*c*) Euclid: Books I and II.
4. Geography: general; map-drawing.
5. History: Creighton's Rome or other historical primer.

For independent middle schools reading, not for any high school standard but for that of the middle scholarship examination, the following subjects are prescribed:—

1. English: Lethbridge's Easy Selections from Modern English Literature, or any book of a similar standard of difficulty; translation, dictation, grammar, recitation of poetry.
2. Vernacular: composition and grammar.
3. (*a*) Arithmetic: the whole, and native arithmetic.
   (*b*) Euclid: Book I.
   (*c*) Mensuration: to triangular areas.
4. Geography: general and physical, with special knowledge of India; map-drawing.
5. History: India, and outlines of general history.
6. Additional subjects: preservation of health, and the "Sanitary Primer," in addition to one of the following—
   (*a*) Elements of natural philosophy.
   (*b*) „ botany.
   (*c*) „ chemistry.

In middle vernacular schools the course is the same, with the exclusion of English. In schools of both classes, no text-books are prescribed in English or in the vernacular language.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—The following are the subjects of the Anglo-vernacular middle class examination, corresponding to the 7th standard of English schools, and two years below matriculation:—

1. English: Lethbridge's Easy Selections; dictation, translation, and grammar.
2. (*a*) Vernacular; or
   (*b*) Sanskrit or Persian.
   Vernacular translation and composition.
3. (*a*) Arithmetic: to decimals and compound proportion.
   (*b*) Algebra: to easy simple equations.
   (*c*) Euclid: Books I and II.
4. Geography: India and general.
5. History: India to 1857.
6. Additional subjects: physical geography, and the "Sanitary Primer."

In middle vernacular schools, the following are substituted for English and algebra: a fuller course in Persian, Urdu, or Hindi; more advanced arithmetic; mensuration; and a primer of physical science or physiology.

Punjab.—The final standard of middle schools is the third, which as in

previous cases is two years below matriculation. The English standard comprises the following:—

1. English: Lethbridge's Easy Selections; Poetical Reader; translation and grammar.
2. (*a*) Urdu: dictation and essays.
   (*b*) Persian selections.
3. (*a*) Arithmetic: the whole.
   (*b*) Mensuration.
4. Geography: the world.
5. History: India.
6. Optional subjects: Arabic, Sanskrit, or elementary physics.

In the middle vernacular examination, Euclid and algebra are substituted for English. This alternative standard is, it will be remembered, not strictly an "independent" one, as it is governed by the requirements of the matriculation examination of the Punjab University, to be passed two years later.

Central Provinces.—As in Bombay, there are no middle vernacular schools; but the addition of a fifth and sixth standard to the ordinary course in primary schools may be held to supply their place. This standard includes the following subjects, the course in Hindi schools being taken as a type: Selections from the Ramayan, with dictation and grammar; the whole of arithmetic; the first book of Euclid, algebra to simple equations, and mensuration; geography, general and physical, with map-drawing; the history of India, Hindu and English periods; and the elements of physical science. This is a good standard, and the schools in which it is taught may be fairly regarded as coming within the sphere of secondary education.

The middle schools properly so called are those in which the course terminates two years below matriculation. In these schools English is a necessary part of the course, and, as before stated, English is also the medium of instruction. The subjects of instruction are given below:—

1. English: Royal Reader No. III; grammar, dictation, and composition.
2. (*a*) Vernacular: as in the fifth class of primary schools.
   (*b*) Sanskrit or Persian, where the staff is able to teach it.
3. (*a*) Arithmetic: the whole.
   (*b*) Algebra: to simple equations.
   (*c*) Euclid: to I. 33.
4. Geography of the world, and map-drawing; elementary physical geography.
5. History of India: Muhammadan period.

Other Provinces.—The course in middle schools of the other Provinces of India presents no special points of interest. The middle schools of Coorg generally resemble those of Madras, with the exception that Huxley's Introductory Primer of Science forms part of the final standard. Assam follows the lead of Bengal with some modifications, and Berar that of Bombay.

255. Middle Schools: Summary.—On the whole, we find little complaint or cause of complaint with regard to the course of instruction given in middle schools throughout India. Differences there are, but they are only such as naturally follow from the independent growth of separate systems under diverse conditions; and we see no advantage in any attempt to secure uniformity by reducing to a common type systems differing in detail but of acknowledged value. We attach the highest importance to what is described, in paragraph 10 of the Resolution appointing the Commission, as "that freedom and variety of education which is an essential condition in any sound and complete educational "system;" and we entirely concur in the view therein expressed that "it is "not a healthy symptom that all the youth of the country should be cast, as it "were, in the same Government educational mould." We desire to confirm and enforce that principle by repeating the suggestion already made, that the interests of pupils who desire education above the primary standard will be more fully secured, if a difference is recognised between those who look to the matriculation examination and a subsequent career at the University, and those whose education stops short of the matriculation standard. It may be said that in general they represent two different social classes, with different aims in life, and therefore with different requirements in the way of education to fit them for their respective callings. The bearing of these remarks will be more fully seen when we come to consider the question of an alternative standard for high schools different from that of the University.

256. Final Standards of high Schools.—We have now noticed the various points in which the several classes of middle schools throughout India differ from one another, and we have seen that they exhibit nothing like uniformity or approach to a common type. With high schools, however, this divergence comes practically to an end. The course in every high school is determined by the matriculation standard of one or other of the Indian Universities, and it is only in so far as these standards differ from one another that any divergence is found. It remains therefore to compare those standards.

Madras.—The standard comprises the following subjects:—

(1.) ENGLISH.—One paper on the prescribed text-books; the other containing a passage from the text-books for paraphrase, and questions on the language generally.

(2.) OPTIONAL LANGUAGE.—The list comprises five classical languages (Oriental and European) and six vernacular. One paper contains questions on the text-books and on the grammar and idiom of the language selected; the other consists of passages for translation from and to English into and from that language, and in the case of vernacular languages, of original composition.

(3.) MATHEMATICS—
   (*a*) Arithmetic, including proportion, decimals, and interest.
   (*b*) Algebra, to simple equations.
   (*c*) Euclid, Books I—III, with easy deductions.

(4.) GENERAL KNOWLEDGE—
   (*a*) The History of India.
   (*b*) General geography, and India in detail.
   (*c*) Roscoe's Primer of Chemistry.
   (*d*) Balfour Stewart's Primer of Physics.

Bombay.—The standard comprises—

(1.) ENGLISH.—No text-books are prescribed; but the books usually read in a high school are of the following kind: An easy play of Shakespeare; a book of *Paradise Lost* or one of the shorter poems of Milton; a poem of Cowper or Wordsworth, such as the *Task* or the *Excursion*; or a prose work such as an Essay of Macaulay, or Washington Irving's *Sketch-Book*. The paper includes (*a*) one or more passages of English verse for paraphrase, or (as an alternative) one or more passages in the candidate's vernacular for translation into English; (*b*) questions in grammar, composition, and analysis.

(2.) OPTIONAL LANGUAGE.—The list comprises six classical languages (Oriental and European) and five vernacular, with French and Portuguese. No text-books are prescribed; the paper is of a similar character to the above.

(3.) MATHEMATICS—

(*a*) Arithmetic, the whole; the examples to be worked from first principles and not merely by rules.
(*b*) Algebra, to simple equations.
(*c*) Euclid, Books I—IV, with easy deductions.

(4.) GENERAL KNOWLEDGE—

(*a*) History of England and of India.
(*b*) Elementary geography, physical, political, and mathematical.
(*c*) Elementary knowledge of the mechanical powers.
(*d*) Elementary chemistry.
(*e*) Outline of the solar system.

In English every candidate is also examined *vivâ voce*.

Calcutta.—The standard comprises—

(1.) ENGLISH.—A short prose text-book is prescribed, of which candidates are required to show accurate knowledge and understanding; but they are expected to have read a much wider course in English. One paper is confined to the text-book; the other contains general questions on grammar and idiom.

(2.) OPTIONAL LANGUAGE.—The list comprises seven classical languages (Oriental and European) and six vernacular, including Burmese and Armenian. Text-books are prescribed for each language; and, except in the case of those who take up Greek or Latin, every candidate is required to translate, into some vernacular language of India, passages of English of considerable length and difficulty which he has not previously seen.

(3.) MATHEMATICS—

(*a*) Arithmetic, including proportion, decimals, and interest.
(*b*) Algebra, to simple equations.
(*c*) Euclid, Books I—IV, with easy deductions.
(*d*) The mensuration of plane surfaces, including the theory of surveying with the chain.

(4.) HISTORY AND GEOGRAPHY—

(*a*) History of England and of India.
(*b*) General geography.
(*c*) Physical geography.

257. Comparison of the Standards in the different Universities.—We do not think it necessary to go into any detailed examination of these standards for the purpose of estimating their relative difficulty. In past controversies on this question, the Bombay educational authorities have maintained that their standard is more difficult and requires a more advanced course of reading than those of other Universities. We shall hereafter see that the course for the B.A. degree occupies only three years in Bombay, while four years are required in the other Universities. On the assumption, therefore, that the B.A. standards are equivalent in the three Universities, the contention

of the Bombay authorities would appear to be made out. It has also been seen that the course in Bombay, from the alphabet to matriculation, occupies a longer period than in Madras or Bengal; and in comparing the courses of instruction in middle schools and departments, we have generally pointed to a somewhat higher degree of difficulty as characterising the Bombay standards, both initial and final. On the other hand, it is alleged that pupils from schools in the Central Provinces, some of whom attend the matriculation examination of the Bombay and others of the Calcutta University, find the attainment of the B.A. degree a matter of equal difficulty, whether they have matriculated at Bombay or at Calcutta. There is, however, one feature of the matriculation examination in Bombay which is peculiar to that University, namely, the introduction of a *vivâ voce* test; and though that is a question, not of the standard but of its application, yet as it is alleged to be fatal to 20 per cent. of those who have already satisfied the written test, such a requirement certainly increases the difficulty of passing. At the same time, the difficulty of standards is so much a matter of interpretation by individual examiners, that we regard it as an unprofitable task to attempt to compare in detail those of the three Universities. We content ourselves with expressing the opinion that each of them affords a satisfactory course of instruction for students in secondary schools who intend to proceed to the University. We note, however, that the Bengal Provincial Committee have expressed the opinion that "the standard "of the Entrance examination appears to be below that attainable in present "circumstances by high schools, and a reference might be made to the University "as to the advisability of revising and raising it, with the object of strengthening the secondary schools of the country." It will be observed that the course at Calcutta, while it includes mensuration, surveying, and a text-book of physical geography, has nothing of experimental science, differing in this point from the other two Universities. In Bombay a wide range of general knowledge is expected of a candidate, a requirement which has not satisfied all critics; for example, Mr. Justice West remarks, in speaking of this part of the course: "In physics and natural science the deficiency is simply lamentable, and general "information means general ignorance." Any further consideration of these questions must, however, be left to the Universities concerned.

The course in vernacular high schools reading for the Entrance examination of the Punjab University is of a somewhat similar standard of difficulty. The subjects of instruction are—

(1) Persian.
(2) Arabic or Sanskrit.
(3) History of England and of India.
(4) Mathematics and elementary science.

The text-books and the course of instruction are vernacular throughout. Candidates are admitted to the examination without restriction as to their place of education.

258. Proposals for an alternative Standard in high Schools.—Throughout India high schools have hitherto been regarded not only or chiefly as schools for secondary instruction, intended for pupils whose education will terminate at that stage, but in a much greater degree—it may almost be said exclusively—as preparatory schools for those who are to become students of the University. It has been seen that middle schools comprise two well-marked classes,—those in which the scheme of studies is, and those in which it is not, governed by University standards. With one exception which will be presently noticed, no such distinction exists in the case of high schools, in all of which the course of instruction is determined by the matriculation standard, which again is arranged solely with a view to subsequent University studies. One of the questions put to witnesses before the Commission ran as follows:

"Is the attention of teachers and pupils in secondary schools unduly directed "to the Entrance examination of the University?" The replies to this question are singularly unanimous. It has been felt in all Provinces, and urged by many witnesses, that the attention of students is too exclusively directed to University studies, and that no opportunity is offered for the development of what corresponds to the "modern side" of schools in Europe. It is believed that there is a real need in India for some corresponding course which shall fit boys for industrial or commercial pursuits, at the age when they commonly matriculate, more directly than is effected by the present system. The University looks upon the Entrance examination, not as a test of fitness for the duties of daily life, but rather as a means of ascertaining whether the candidate has acquired that amount of general information and that degree of mental discipline which will enable him to profit by a course of liberal or professional instruction. In these circumstances, it appears to be the unquestionable duty of that Department of the State which has undertaken the control of education, to recognise the present demand for educated labour in all branches of commercial and industrial activity, and to meet it so far as may be possible with the means at its disposal. The Honourable Mr. Justice West, Vice-Chancellor of the University of Bombay, has expressed his views on this point in the following terms: "The preparation for ordinary business may with advantage "proceed up to a certain point along the same course as that for literature "and science. It is a defect of our system, as I understand it, that it does "not provide for a natural transition to the further studies which may be the "most proper for a man of business, nor even propose to encourage and conduct "such studies. When a boy reaches the age of about fourteen he may have "plainly shown that he has not the gifts that would make him a good subject "for literary culture. His tastes or his circumstances may disincline him to "be an engineer or chemist. He ought not then to be forced on in a line in "which failure is almost certain. He should be put to work on matters that he "really can master unless quite exceptionally dull, such as arithmetic, rudimentary economics, mercantile geography, the use of manures, or others determined "by the locality of the school and its needs. . . . The extension of this knowledge should be along those lines where it will be grasped and incorporated by "the interests and teachings of active life. Still it should be education, aiming "at making the mind robust and flexible, rather than at shabbily decking it with "some rags of 'business information' or low technic skill. For these different "aims the present system makes no sufficient or distinct provision." We do not attempt to define the course of instruction which might be imparted in schools of the kind suggested. The Departments in many Provinces have dealt satisfactorily with the question of independent courses in middle schools; and it may well be left to them, in consultation with school managers and others interested in education, to determine the character and constitution of similar schools of a more advanced kind. Indeed, to attempt to fix a course for "independent" high schools would be to fall into an error of precisely the same character as that against which the proposal is directed; it would be to substitute one uniform course for another. But what is now chiefly needed is variety; so that the educational system as a whole may be such as more fully to meet the needs of a complex state of society. Nor would the introduction of the proposed alternative course into high schools involve any great expenditure; for the bifurcation of studies need not take place until the student is within two years of the Entrance examination,—that is, until he has been eight or nine years at school. His studies in the middle department will be sufficiently practical to prepare him for those he will take up in the modern side, sufficiently liberal to fall in with those of the academical side. It may be added that, with the establishment of these schools, full recognition would be given to the salutary principle that the course of instruction

in schools of every class should be complete in itself. The Madras Provincial Committee draws attention to the fact that little more than half of those who pass the matriculation examination of that University proceed to the First Arts standard; and though the disparity is less conspicuous in other Provinces—in Bengal, indeed, it is stated that more than 90 per cent. of those who matriculate are admitted to colleges—yet it is probable that in all Provinces the institution of the alternative standard would meet the popular wishes and answer a real need. We therefore recommend *that in the upper classes of high schools there be two divisions; one leading to the Entrance examination of the Universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial or non-literary pursuits.* It will be observed that the considerations which we have adduced in reference to this Recommendation apply with equal force to separate schools and to separate departments of schools.

The single exception to which reference has been made is found in Bombay. In that Province children of agriculturists are encouraged by scholarships of the value of Rs. 4 a month to attend the model farms connected with high schools, for instruction in practical agriculture. The course includes chemistry, physics, botany, physical geography and geology; besides which the student may take up land-surveying and physiology. There are also many drawing-classes, attendance at which is voluntary; they are attached to Government schools alone, but students of other schools are encouraged to attend them. Certificates of two grades are given; and school-masters who hold the qualifying certificates and teach drawing in their own schools receive an additional grant.

259. Recognition by Government of accepted Standards.—As to the encouragement and recognition that may be afforded to the proposed alternative course, different opinions have been expressed. The Bombay Provincial Committee believes that it would not be possible to organise a "modern side" in high schools without the co-operation of the University. On the other hand, a witness, whose opinions are quoted with approval by the Madras Provincial Committee, observes that it would be neither possible nor desirable for the University to modify the matriculation examination so as to make it a test of fitness for the practical pursuits of life. But whatever action may be taken by the Universities on this question (a subject to which we shall recur in our Chapter on Collegiate Education), it is at any rate clear that the Education Department in each Province can give efficient help towards the establishment of such schools, by declaring them eligible for grants-in-aid, and by instituting examinations to test the progress of pupils and giving certificates to those who pass. The success of these schools will, however, practically depend upon the market value of the education which they give. It is because we believe that a practical or commercial education of a high standard would in time acquire a real and independent market value, irrespective of any adventitious aids, such as the recognition of the certificate as qualifying for a Government appointment, that we have advocated the establishment of this class of schools. It is in the last resort not to the University, nor to the Department, nor in any exclusive way to Government as the dispenser of patronage, that these schools must look for support. They will stand or fall according to the view which the employers of educated labour throughout the country may take of their capacity to give a suitable training to youths intended for practical occupations. In this point of view, much might be done to ensure the public acceptance of the standard if the Railway Companies, the Banks, and other commercial associations or firms were consulted as to the kind of education which in their opinion would be most useful to the class of men they require. At the same time it is impossible to ignore the high value which the opinion of the country sets upon any certificate recognised as

qualifying for admission to the public service. The Madras Provincial Committee quotes, as an accurate reflex of native opinion, a reply given by one of the witnesses to the effect that no education will be appreciated unless it leads to an examination qualifying for Government employment. We are, therefore, of opinion that recognition of this kind—not in any exclusive way, but merely to the same extent that is desirable in the case of equivalent standards of instruction—should be accorded to the alternative standard that we propose to establish. In any well-organised system of public instruction, the schools of the country should be capable of meeting the ordinary requirements alike of public and of private employers. In considering what standard should be generally accepted as qualifying for the public service in its subordinate grades, we have formed the opinion that the ordinary school standards are sufficient as a general rule, and independently of any special test that may be required in particular Departments. We therefore recommend *that when the proposed bifurcation in secondary schools is carried out, the certificate of having passed by the final standard, or if necessary by any lower standard, of either of the proposed alternative courses, be accepted as a sufficient general test of fitness for the public service.* It will be understood that this Recommendation refers as a general rule rather to subordinate appointments, than to those offices of responsibility and emolument in which a high degree of intelligence is required, and for which a liberal education has been commonly thought necessary.

260. Misconceptions attaching to the Term 'High School.'—We have already shown at great length what different significations are attached to the term 'high school.' In one Province it is understood as comprising two classes, in another four, while in a third it contains pupils in every stage of instruction from the alphabet to matriculation. We do not propose to alter, as regards these differences, any of the existing school-systems, which have been based on different models and have grown up in different circumstances. Uniformity could not be secured except at a price out of all proportion to the advantages to be gained. It therefore becomes necessary to provide in some other way for the comparison of educational statistics in an accurate and intelligible form. Accordingly we think it desirable to introduce into the educational returns a Table showing the stage of advancement reached by pupils in all schools of general instruction, independently of the names that may be given to those schools in different Provinces. A comparative statement of the number of pupils in high schools is now altogether misleading, since many pupils who in most Provinces would be shown as belonging to primary schools are in Bengal and Assam returned under high schools. The proposed Table will supply the required correction, and enable a true comparison to be drawn between one Province and another. We do not enter into any further detail upon this point, which has been discussed at length in the above sense by the Committee independently appointed for the Revision of Educational Forms.

It is necessary to refer to another misconception to which the use of the term 'high school' is exposed. In the discussions that have taken place in this country and still more in England as to the spread of what is called high education in India, the terms 'high school' and 'high education' have occasionally been treated as correlative. It is hardly necessary to point out that the term 'high education,' so far as it has a fixed signification at all, refers to the education given in colleges, and is synonymous with 'superior' or 'University' education. It seems undesirable to maintain the use of a term which is liable to an erroneous interpretation, especially when it is remembered that in the earlier years following the receipt of the Despatch of 1854, the term 'high school' was applied and confined to institutions teaching to the First Arts standard,—that is, to second grade colleges as they are now

commonly called. In the Despatch itself (para. 43) schools of the class now called high were ranked in the same class with purely vernacular schools, and were carefully distinguished from those institutions in which 'a high degree of education' was imparted, and which were to form the colleges affiliated to the University. The only important division of institutions for general instruction is into the three classes of primary, secondary, and high or collegiate. Each of these main classes can be further subdivided, if necessary, into an upper and a lower section, a division that already exists in the case of primary instruction. Secondary schools may thus be conveniently divided into an upper and a lower branch; and if the 'high schools' of the present classification be henceforward called 'upper secondary' or briefly 'upper' schools, little risk of confusion will arise. Middle schools, which will form the 'lower secondary' class, may retain their present name without inconvenience. We therefore recommend *that high and middle schools be united in the returns under the single term 'secondary schools'; and that the classification of pupils in secondary schools be provided for in a separate Table showing the stage of instruction, whether primary, middle, or upper, of pupils in all schools of primary and secondary education.* This Recommendation will not interfere with the classification of secondary schools as 'upper' and 'middle' respectively, if required by departmental convenience. It only provides that in public returns required by the Government of India, the name 'high school' shall be given to no institution in which the course of instruction does not go beyond the matriculation standard.

261. Results of recognised Examinations.—Having shown in the preceding paragraphs what are the existing standards for middle and high schools, as prescribed respectively by the Department and the University, we subjoin a Table showing the results of the authorised examinations. For those Provinces in which a double standard for middle schools exists, the results are amalgamated. The figures, however, must be understood with the following important reservation. The Table only shows the proportion of passed candidates to the number presented for examination; it does not show the much more significant proportion of the number passed to the total number of students reading in the classes from which the candidates came. This information was asked for by the Commission, but it could not be furnished by every Province. Yet it is clear that the latter proportion alone supplies a sufficient and satisfactory test of the general efficiency of the teaching. Probably in all Provinces a certain number of students are refused admission to the examinations, because they do not satisfy the preliminary test which each school generally applies in order that ill-prepared candidates may bring no discredit on it. The provision is useful in the interests of discipline, but it has its attendant drawbacks. Thus it will often happen that a school in which the candidates for examination are carefully selected will show a better proportionate result than one in which the instruction is much more thorough, but which sends up all or most of its students. It may also happen that in Government schools, where fees are of less importance, boys unlikely to pass withdraw their names before examination more largely than in aided schools, which have a sufficient inducement to keep such students and to make the best of them. Such a difference of practice, wherever it exists, would obviously tend to the disadvantage of aided schools, in any tabulated statements drawn up in the form which we have been compelled to adopt. Reference will again be made to this subject in Chapter VIII, when we come to compare the efficiency of Government and aided schools. It is sufficient here to state that aided schools, both high and middle, in Madras have suffered by the adoption of the imperfect form now given, and that aided high schools in the Central Provinces have benefited; in the other Provinces the two modes of estimating results present but slight comparative differences.

Results of recognised Examinations in 1881-82.

Province and grade of schools.	Number of Institutions sending Examinees.			Number of Examinees.					Number passed.					Percentage of passed scholars to total number examined.					Remarks.
	Departmental schools.	Aided schools.	Other schools.	Total.	Departmental schools.	Aided schools.	Other schools.	Private candidates.	Total.	Departmental schools.	Aided schools.	Other schools.	Private candidates.	Total.	Departmental schools.	Aided schools.	Other schools.	Private candidates.	Total.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
Madras	21	47	50	118	496	1,567	1,037	526	3,626	227	599	291	71	1,098	45·76	32·48	28·06	13·49	30·26	
Middle School Examination	38	96	73	207	880	2,380	1,224	1,952	6,436	457	992	392	570	2,420	51·93	41·68	29·66	29·20	37·60	
Matriculation	1	5	2	8	13	26	3	24	66	7	14	3	8	32	53·84	53·84	33·33	8·33	48·48	
Bombay	18	11	16	45	455	147	229	6	837	172	56	71	2	301	37·80	38·10	31·00	...	35·84	
Middle School Examination	84	25	...	133	1,683	437	205	65	2,450	891	183	181	16	1,271	52·94	47·88	68·30	24·61	51·37	
Matriculation	50	88	67	205	780	454	805	52	2,100	466	178	373	14	1,022	58·30	39·20	46·33	21·15	48·71	
Bengal	164	1,197	...	1,361	615	3,294	...	403	4,312	416	2,291	...	151	2,858	67·64	69·55	...	37·46	66·31	
Middle School Examination	1	...	2	3	4	...	...	16	20	4	3	...	3	10	100	...	...	18·75	50·00	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	25	19	...	46	220	146	10	392	768	103	48	3	3	157	46·81	32·87	...	...	37·50	
Middle School Examination	...	1	2	3	...	1	...	1	2	...	1	...	...	1	...	100	...	...	100	
Punjab	448	32	480	1,609	368	...	2,101	1,511	670	178	...	90	782	41·64	46·06	...	63	47	42·72	
Matriculation	9	2	2	24	142	65	18	152	477	75	77	33	35	220	73·53	20·92	28·57	7·89	46·15	
Middle School Examination	2	11	4	24	23	54	17	9	103	6	30	3	3	45	66·66	40·15	17·64	10·00	43·68	
Central Provinces	165	4	20	205	1,111	200	48	10	1,369	617	123	33	100	1,063	68·75	31·48	16·66	5·88	31·48	
Matriculation	1	...	...	5	32	55	...	4	96	22	29	...	5	53	62·85	32·72	...	6·75	30·20	
Middle School Examination	35	10	...	45	280	103	...	10	393	176	56	1	2	237	54·36	52·72	...	50·00	53·94	
Assam	9	1	1	11	45	1	...	...	50	23	1	...	...	24	51·11	25·00	...	...	48·00	
Matriculation	14	34	1	49	50	112	2	4	168	25	54	1	...	82	50·00	48·21	50·00	...	48·80	
Middle School Examination	1	...	...	1	8	...	...	...	8	4	2	...	...	6	50·00	100	...	...	75·00	
Coorg	1	...	...	1	8	...	...	...	8	9	...	...	...	9	50·00	...	...	...	50·00	
Middle School Examination	1	...	...	1	25	...	...	...	25	4	...	...	...	4	66·00	...	...	...	66·00	
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	2	...	...	2	8	...	...	...	8	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Matriculation	26	...	...	26	200	...	...	...	200	132	...	...	...	132	...	...	...	...	...	
Middle School Examination	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Total for India*	138	140	459	2,218	2,424	2,120	6	17,596	24,364	2,424	2,433	877	2,773	8,507	40·41	35·05	14·67	15·76	34·92	(a) The examinations were held by the Calcutta University and by the Punjab University College.
	1	3	4	8	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	
	1,535	1,535	2,510	6,453	3	3	24	175	11	3	8	8	84	8,854	100	100	100	100	100	(b) The examination was held by the Punjab University College.
	14	14	16	17	8,433	134	2,710	17,596	3,593	8,433	134	877	2,773	8,854	51·98	35·05	32·36	15·76	34·92	
	1,873	1,873	2,989	8,691	2,424	2,120	3,395	25,200	4,702	6,032	982	11,710	48·50	33·33	28·92					
	1,116	975	1,116	975	13,114	3,395	25,200	4,702	6,032	982	11,710	45·99								

* Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

262. The Matriculation Examina.—An inspecti of the Table shows that 7,423 boys from 459 schools presented themselves in he various Provinces, and that 2,773 passed, at the rate of 37·3 per cent. The largest number of candidates came from Madras, which sent 3,626 candidates from 118 schools; Bengal following next with 2,100 candidates from 205 schools. Bombay sent 837 candidates from 45 schools, and the North-Western Provinces 392 from 46 schools. There were altogether 2,218 candidates from 138 Government schools, 2,424 candidates from 181 aided schools, and 2,120 candidates from 140 unaided schools, besides 661 private candidates. Thus the average number of candidates from each Government, aided, and unaided school was 16, 13, and 15 respectively. The average number that passed from each class of schools was respectively 8, 4·6, and 5·3; the proportion of successful candidates being 49·4 per cent. (or nearly one-half) in Government schools, and 35 per cent. (or rather more than one-third) in aided and unaided schools. The Government schools, therefore, maintain the superiority due to the stronger establishments generally employed in them. Of private students, 97, or only 14 per cent., passed. Among Government schools, the proportion of success is greatest in the Central Provinces, with 69 per cent., and in Bengal with 58; and lowest in Bombay, with 38 per cent. Among aided schools, the Central Provinces again stand highest, with 53 per cent. of successful candidates; and Bengal and Bombay follow with 39 per cent. Of unaided schools, those of Bengal are the most successful, passing 46 per cent. of their candidates, while the Punjab comes last, with 17 per cent. The great success of unaided schools in Bengal is explained by the fact that high schools which receive no grants-in-aid are either maintained by some wealthy man, or else are situated in populous centres where there is an active demand for education of that class, and where consequently the fee-receipts are regular and large. In either case the establishment is likely to be strong, and the school well-found. On the other hand, many aided schools less fortunately circumstanced find it difficult, even with the help of a grant, to make both ends meet; and the comparative inefficiency of the staff and general poverty of the school find their necessary result in inferior success at the examination.

263. The Middle School Examination.—The number of boys who presented themselves for examination was 17,596 from 2,510 schools; and of these, 8,854, or 50 per cent., were successful. Madras again takes the lead, sending 6,436 candidates from 207 schools; while Bengal, with 1,361 competing schools, sends only 4,312 candidates. It should of course be remembered that in Bengal the middle departments of the 207 high schools, containing in those departments 19,143 pupils, are not subject to this examination. Bombay, the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab sent respectively 2,450, 2,101, and 1,511 boys to the examination. There were altogether 6,453 candidates from 975 Government schools, and 8,433 candidates from 1,535 aided and unaided schools, besides 2,710 private students. The average number of candidates and of successful candidates from each Government school was about $6\frac{1}{2}$ and 4 respectively; from each school under private management, about $5\frac{1}{2}$ and 3 respectively. The proportion of successful candidates in Government and in private schools was respectively 56 and 52 per cent. It is therefore manifest that Government schools have no conspicuous superiority over private schools as regards the efficiency of the instruction in institutions of this class. Among Government schools, the first place is taken by those of the Punjab, which pass 74 per cent. of their candidates; then follow in order Bengal, Berar, and the Central Provinces, with from 68 to 63 per cent. Of schools under private management, the most successful are,—among aided schools, the Punjab, the Central Provinces, and Assam, with 62,

54, and 48 per cent. success respectively; among unaided schools, the Punjab, Bombay, and Madras, with 69, 68, and 60 per cent. In Bengal, where the results for aided and unaided schools are not separated, the proportion of success is 70 per cent.

264. Examination of Girls.—The above results are for boys only; those for girls may be briefly noticed. For the matriculation examination, one Government and two aided girls' schools in Bengal sent respectively three and two candidates to the examination, of whom all but one (from the Government school) passed. One girl candidate also appeared and passed from a school in the North-Western Provinces. For the middle school examination, 175 girls appeared from 16 schools, 2 Government and 14 aided. Of these, 84 passed, the percentage of success being 65 in Government and 49 in aided schools. The candidates belonged to Madras, Bombay, Bengal, and the North-Western Provinces, the first-named Province being credited with 32 successful candidates, and the last with 30.

265. Race and Creed of Pupils.—The following Table shows the race and creed of pupils in secondary schools for natives. The last two lines of the Table are of chief importance. They show the proportion, for high and middle schools, of each race or creed to the total population and to the school-population respectively. Hindus, who form 73 per cent. of the whole population, comprise 83 per cent. of the pupils at school; while Muhammadans sink from a proportion of 22 per cent. in the population to 11 per cent. at school. The enterprise and the social position of Parsis, and the attention paid to the education of Native Christians, are illustrated by the fact that the former are 35 times and the latter nearly 6 times as numerous in school as in the population. Sikh pupils on the other hand are only one-half, and "Others" only one-fourth, as numerous as their place in the population would lead us to anticipate.

Race and Creed of Pupils in high

PROVINCE AND GRADES OF SCHOOLS.			Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Sikhs.	Parsis.	Native Christians.	Europeans and Eurasians in schools for Natives of India.	Others.	TOTAL.	REMARKS.
1			2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
MADRAS	High Schools	For Boys . English	4,242	117	...	...	331	67	10	4,836	120
		„ Girls . English	...	...	...	...	2	...	...	2	
		„ Boys . English	15,984	723	...	...	1,552	191	103	18,553	
		„ Boys . Vernacular	491	2	...	...	18	...	...	511	
	Middle Schools	„ Boys . English	3	...	...	...	163	22	2	190	
		„ Girls . English	65	1	...	...	127	...	4	197	
		„ Girls . Vernacular	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Training College for Masters in Secondary Schools		23	1	...	...	5	...	...	29	
	Total		20,808	844	...	...	2,258	280	128	24,318	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls			85·57	3·47	...	...	9·28	1·15	·53	...	
BOMBAY	High Schools	For Boys . English	4,416	118	...	1,041	90	23	43	5,731	
	Middle Schools	„ Boys . English	10,386	781	...	1,549	1,268	164	109	14,257	
		„ Girls . English	6	2	...	132	313	95	7	555	
	Total		14,808	901	...	2,722	1,671	282	159	20,543	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls			72·08	4·39	...	13·35	8·14	1·27	·77	...	
BENGAL	High Schools	For Boys . English	39,367	3,831	...	...	281	55	213	43,747	
		„ Girls . English	77	...	...	...	59	15	33	184	
	Middle Schools	„ Boys . English	32,200	5,032	...	...	369	56	202	37,959	
		„ Boys . Vernacular	48,189	7,735	...	...	100	...	417	56,441	
		„ Girls . English	177	4	...	...	147	5	7	340	
		„ Girls . Vernacular	363	6	...	...	148	4	6	527	
	Total		1,20,473	16,608	...	...	1,104	135	878	(a)1,39,198	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls			86·55	11·93	...	...	·79	·10	·63	...	
N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH.	High and Middle Schools	For Boys . English	4,256	892	...	...	157	...	9	5,354	
		„ Boys . Vernacular	3,007	796	...	...	...	...	...	3,803	
		„ Girls . English	...	...	...	...	59	3	...	62	
		„ Girls . Vernacular	...	...	...	...	6	...	...	6	
	Total		7,303	1,688	...	...	222	3	9	9,225	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls			79·16	18·30	...	...	2·41	·03	·10	...	
PUNJAB	High Schools	For Boys . English	296	91	50	...	11	5	...	453	
		„ Boys . Vernacular	55	64	12	...	1	...	...	132	
	Middle Schools	„ Boys . English	1,740	703	199	...	25	...	4	2,671	
		„ Boys . Vernacular	1,499	935	298	...	1	...	1	2,704	
		„ Girls . English	...	...	...	...	7	1	...	8	
	Training College for Masters of Secondary Schools		36	16	5	...	1	...	...	58	
	Total		3,596	1,809	564	...	45	6	5	6,026	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls			59·68	30·02	9·36	...	·76	·10	·08	...	
CENTRAL PROVINCES.	High Schools	For Boys . English	298	17	...	...	2	2	2	321	
	Middle Schools	„ Boys . English	2,139	230	...	...	22	50	10	2,451	
	Total		2,437	247	...	...	24	52	12	2,772	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls			87·91	8·91	...	...	·87	1·88	·43	...	
ASSAM	High Schools	For Boys . English	1,903	302	...	...	39	3	17	2,264	
	Middle Schools	„ Boys . English	2,072	396	...	...	150	13	298	2,929	
		„ Boys . Vernacular	2,462	474	...	...	8	...	40	2,984	
	Total		6,437	1,172	...	...	197	16	355	(a) 8,177	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls			78·72	14·33	...	...	2·41	·20	4·34	...	
COORG	High Schools	For Boys . English	38	...	...	...	...	...	...	38	
	Middle Schools	„ Boys . English	116	2	...	...	1	...	...	119	
	Total		154	2	...	...	1	...	...	157	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls			(b)98·09	1·27	...	...	·64	...	...	...	
H. A. DISTRICTS.	High Schools	For Boys . English	59	1	...	...	...	1	...	61	
	Middle Schools	„ Boys . English	231	7	...	...	3	...	1	242	
	Total		290	8	...	...	3	1	1	(c)303	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls.			95·71	2·64	...	...	·99	·33	·33	...	
TOTAL FOR INDIA.†	High Schools	For Boys	54,970	5,433	62	1,041	972	156	303	62,937	
		„ Girls	77	...	...	...	120	18	33	248	
	Middle Schools	„ Boys	1,20,586	17,816	497	1,549	3,517	474	1,185	1,45,624	
		„ Girls	614	13	...	132	911	127	26	2,823	
	Training Colleges for Masters of Secondary Schools		59	17	5	...	6	...	...	87	
	Total		1,76,306	23,279	564	2,722	5,526	775	2,547	2,10,719	
Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number of pupils on the rolls			83·67	11·05	·27	1·29	2·62	·37	·73	...	
Proportion of each race or creed to total population			73·21	22·36	·62	·04	·45	·08	·3·21	...	

(a) Inclusive of pupils in attached Middle and Primary Departments.

(b) 67·6 per cent. are Coorgs.

(c) Excluding 730 pupils attending 24 Middle Schools attached to Primary Schools.

* Including Government aided and unaided schools under inspection. No details can be given for unaided schools not under inspection.
† Excluding Ajmir, British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education

Languages studied in High and Middle Schools in 1881-82.

Province and Grade of Schools.		Departmental Schools.			Aided Schools.			Unaided Schools.			Rem.
		English.	Classical.	Vernacular.	English.	Classical.	Vernacular.	English.	Classical.	Vernacular.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
...DRAS	High Schools. For Boys. English	1,142	156	986	2,995	485	2,570	699		95	
	" Girls. English	1	...	1	1	...	1	...		...	
	Middle Schools. " Boys. English	5,081	503	4,682	9,824	1,116	8,852	3,590	416	3,378	
	" Vernacular	...	...	35	...	...	83	...	...	...	
	" Girls. English	15	...	15	69	...	61	96	...	393	
	" Vernacular	...	...	10	...	...	77	...	...	90	
	Training College for Masters of Secondary Schools	29	2	27	...	...	...	...	...	110	
	Total	6,268	661	5,756	12,889	1,601	11,644	4,385	551	4,557	
...BAY	High Schools. For Boys. English	3,601	3,153	1,002	1,226	765	577	904	554	251	
	Middle Schools. " Boys. English	7,369	180	5,356	3,780	261	1,810	2,908	242	802	
	" Girls. English	...	...	...	555	...	81	...	...	...	
	Total	11,170	3,333	6,358	5,561	1,026	2,468	3,812*	796*	1,053*	*Exclusive pupils l these lan in una schools no inspectio
...JAL	High Schools. For Boys. English	14,720	5,852	7,286	11,858	4,051	8,367	15,634	5,817	7,508	
	" Girls. English	58	7	93	...	...	...	84	24	73	
	Middle Schools. " Boys. English	932	435	1,027	18,966	269	25,160	4,640	109	6,763	
	" Vernacular	1,387	...	9,794	2,867	189	41,262	165	...	4,351	
	" Girls. English	25	3	199	141	...	141	...	...	...	
	" Vernacular	...	...	...	16	...	492	10	...	19	
	Total	17,122*	6,297	18,399*	33,848*	4,509	75,422*	20,533*	5,950	18,810*	*Inclusive tached P Departme
...PRO-ES AND ...DH.	High and Middle Schools. For Boys. English	2,927	2,360	762	2,350	1,402	1,108	50	21	29	
	" Girls. English	...	1,237	3,545	...	223	29	...	...	...	
	" Vernacular	...	...	...	62	55	62	...	...	...	
	Total	2,927	3,597	4,307	2,416	1,680	1,205	50	21	29	
...AB	High Schools. For Boys. English	312	335	143	118	118	83				
	" Vernacular	...	32	32	...	32	73				
	Middle Schools. " Boys. English	1,897	1,903	1,891	767	760	768	Statistics not available.			
	" Girls. English	...	2,704	2,704	...	...	77				
	Training College for Masters of Secondary Schools	...	...	...	8	8	7				
		27	31	31	...	...	...				
	Total	2,236	5,005	4,801	893	959	935	...	...	...	
...TRAL ...NCES.	High Schools. For Boys. English	149	149	...	172	168	...	...	...	...	
	Middle Schools. " Boys. English	1,952	209	1,898	499	132	452	...	...	...	
	Total	2,101	358	1,898	671	300	452	...	...	...	
...M	High Schools. For Boys. English	1,890	839	1,313	125	37	93	228	55	181	
	Middle Schools. " Boys. English	87	...	123	1,139	46	2,363	201	...	388	
	" Vernacular	...	...	1,382	...	42	1,537	..	...	65	
	Total	1,977‡	839	2,818‡	1,264‡	125	3,993‡	429‡	55	634‡	‡Inclusive tached Pr Departmen
...G	High Schools. For Boys. English	38	...	38	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Middle Schools. " Boys. English	119	...	119	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Total	157	...	157	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...A ...RICTS.	High Schools. For Boys. English	61	59	60	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Middle Schools. " Boys. English	972	247	972	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	Total	1,033	306	1,032	...	...	...	...	...	...	
...L FOR ...DIA.§	High Schools. For Boys.	24,840	12,935	11,622	18,844	7,099	12,875	17,515	6,582	8,645	
	" Girls.	59	7	94	63	55	63	84	24	73	
	Middle Schools. " Boys.	19,996	7,418	33,528	37,842	3,038	32,316	11,504	767	16,146	
	" Girls.	40	3	224	793	8	865	106	...	210	
	Training Colleges for Masters of Secondary Schools.	56	33	58	...	...	...	...	...	...	
		44,991	20,396	45,528	57,542	10,200	96,119	29,209		25,083	

...ollowing Statement summarises the results of the foregoing ...s the languages taught in high and middle schools for boys:—

	Total scholars.	Learning English.	Learning a classical language.	Learning a vernacular.
...CHOOLS.				
. . . . .	24,978	24,840	12,935	11,622
. . . . .	19,814	18,844	7,099	12,875
. . . . .	20,407	17,515	6,582	8,645
Total .	65,199	61,199	26,616	33,142
Middle Schools.				
Government	37,222	19,996	7,418	33,528
Aided	89,767	37,842	3,038	82,316
Unaided	19,818	11,504	767	16,146
Total .	146,807	69,342	11,223	131,990

In Government high schools practically every pupil learns English; in private, especially in unaided, high schools there is a perceptible proportion of scholars not learning English. The Table also shows the varying proportion in which classical languages are studied in Government and in private high schools. In those of the former class more than half the pupils learn a classic; in aided and unaided schools the proportion is only one-third. It will be remembered that in the three Universities of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay, students are allowed the option of taking up either a classical or a vernacular language at the Entrance examination. But while in Madras only one student in six takes up a classical language, in Bombay nearly three-fourths of the candidates do so. It should, however, be stated that the University of Madras allows a vernacular language to be taken up for the higher examinations on the apparent ground that some of the languages still spoken in Southern India possess an ancient literature the study of which, combined with that of English, affords an adequate mental discipline. The Bengal Provincial Committee states that the number of those who take up a vernacular is steadily and rapidly decreasing, and that in a few years the number will probably become so small as to justify the Calcutta University in making a classical language compulsory at the Entrance examination. Middle schools exhibit a similar difference in this respect; the proportion of pupils learning a classical language falling from 20 per cent. in Government to 4 per cent. in private schools. The proportion of pupils learning English is greatest in unaided schools; and there is little doubt that whatever view the Department may take of the proper relation of English to the vernacular in middle schools, the most popular constitution of these schools is that which assigns a prominent place to English instruction. The proportion of pupils learning English is much the lowest in aided schools—a fact which is explained by the large number of middle schools in Bengal in which English is taught to few pupils or none. The vernacular is learnt by 91 per cent. of the pupils in middle schools; and there is no great difference in this respect between Government, aided, and unaided schools.

The following Statement shows for each Province the number of pupils who learn English (*a*) in secondary schools, (*b*) in institutions of all classes. It will be remembered that the secondary schools of Bengal and Assam include

primary departments, and that all pupils in high schools lear the lowest primary class :—

Province.	Pupi. In secon schoo.	
Madras	23,	
Bombay	23,	
Bengal	7	
N.-W. Provinces		
Punjab		
Central Provinces		
Assam		
Coorg	3,670	4,200
Haidarabad Assigned Districts	157	503
	1,033	1,033

268. Text-books in secondary Schools.—There is no serious complaint as to the text-books in use in secondary schools, and we have accordingly no specific Recommendation to offer under this head. The machinery for providing text-books in the different Provinces, the different degrees in which freedom in the choice of books is permitted, and the faults that have been noticed in them, will be fully discussed in Chapter VII of this Report, where the appropriate Recommendations will also be found. The course in high schools is determined by the requirements of the matriculation examination; and accordingly in some Provinces the text-books, at least for the highest class, are settled by the independent authority of the University. The Universities of Calcutta and Madras prescribe for that examination fixed text-books in all subjects. The University of Bombay follows a different system, and prescribes no text-books. The Provincial Reports give full details of the books most generally read. They include such books as Bain's higher English Grammar, Edith Thompson's History of England, and Macmillan's Science Primers, in addition to the text-books in English literature and in the classical and vernacular languages. In middle schools, again, the text-books are selected so as to lead up to the final standards fixed for schools of that class. In English, a graduated series is generally chosen, either Nelson's Royal Reader or Chambers' series, or some other of a similar kind in common use in England; though in Bombay and Madras a provincial series is sometimes used. In nearly all Provinces English grammar is taught throughout the middle course by means of English books exclusively; but in Bengal the alternative and perhaps preferable method of teaching English grammar through the medium of the student's own vernacular, is rapidly gaining ground; and the same plan is generally followed in Assam. In Bombay, Bengal and Assam, the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, vernacular text-books are for the most part employed as the medium of instruction in mathematics, history, geography, and physical science; in Madras and the Central Provinces, English text-books are almost exclusively used.

269. School Libraries.—The necessity for maintaining libraries in secondary schools is obviously not so great as in the case of colleges. It is on all grounds desirable that students, especially the more advanced students, of colleges should supplement by a general and varied course of reading the necessarily limited range of study prescribed by the regulations of the University. But for students whose knowledge of English is bounded by the requirements of the Entrance examination, a supplementary course of general reading is practically out of the question. An English boy at the same stage of instruction will find in the Waverley Novels, in voyages and travels, and in tales

of danger and daring, an unending source of delight for his leisure hours. To the native student relaxation of this kind is largely denied; he has little or nothing corresponding to it in his own vernacular; and his familiarity with English is not generally so great that he can read books in that language for the sake of amusement. Still, comparatively limited as is the use which can ordinarily be made by native students of a library for general reading, it will not of course be supposed that secondary schools, especially high schools, can be regarded as properly equipped without a library. For the teachers, it is essential that they should have access to, at any rate, the leading works of reference in the way of dictionaries, biographies, histories, cyclopædias and the like. And taking a still wider view, we cannot doubt that the more extensive the library to which a teacher has access, the more life-like and effective will be his teaching. Nor should the direct benefit of a library to the pupils themselves be altogether overlooked. Some English books, at any rate, can be found which will be attractive, because not too difficult, to the native student in a secondary school; while illustrated books and periodicals will serve to arouse his interest and stimulate his curiosity. In those Provinces in which vernacular literature flourishes, it may also be possible to make useful additions to the library of a secondary school from that source, the selection of books being strictly confined to those which are instructive in matter and elevating in tone. The Provincial Reports give full information as to the libraries in secondary schools. In Madras they differ widely in extent and character. Some schools have a large collection of books, others a few volumes only. The grant to a departmental high school varies from Rs. 36 to Rs. 100 a year; to a middle school from Rs. 24 to Rs. 36. Library grants may also be made to aided schools under the Director's sanction, although few such grants have been actually given. In Bombay, Government middle schools seldom contain less than 700 volumes, and high schools a larger number; a small annual allowance is granted for their maintenance. In Bengal, the ordinary allowance for the library of a Government high school is from Rs. 60 to Rs. 120 a year, a grant which is found to be quite sufficient for the purpose. Government middle schools have the necessary books of reference, besides some for general reading; and the surplus funds at their credit are expended upon this among other objects. In aided schools, expenditure on the library is reckoned as expenditure qualifying for a grant; and its amount is taken into account in fixing the rate of aid. As a rule, however, aided schools are ill supplied with books. In the North-Western Provinces, the schools generally have little more than is needed for purposes of reference. In the Punjab, a standard list of the books required in a District school has been drawn up; it consists of English books, chiefly works of reference, including the text-books used in the school. Oriental literature was not considered, and is but poorly represented. The Provincial Report observes: "There is very little general reading. Few boys in a District school can "read at sight standard English works; but easy story books are sometimes "popular. The libraries have accumulated in a desultory manner, and though "fairly supplied with books of reference, contain much that is unsuitable;" for example, books that have been purchased for the encouragement of authors, and distributed without reference to their suitability for a school library. The Delhi High School has a good library of standard English and oriental works, which was created for the use of the College. In the Central Provinces every Government middle school has a library. A few aided schools also possess libraries, the best being that of the Bishop's School, at Nagpur. The single high school at Jabalpur shares the benefit of the library attached to the college. In most of the middle schools of Assam, whether Government or private, there is hardly a pretence of a library; a few Government schools

situated at head-quarter stations, are however better off. The Government high schools have fairly good libraries, sufficient for the requirements of masters and pupils; and year by year, as funds admit, additions are made to them. An aided high school in the town of Sylhet is allowed the use of the zila school library. The single high school in Coorg and the two high schools in Berar are well furnished with books of reference and of general reading, amounting to several hundred volumes in each case.

The foregoing summary would appear to show that insufficient provision is too often made for establishing or maintaining libraries in aided schools, and that the necessity for such provision is much greater in high than in middle schools. We therefore recommend *that a small annual grant be made for the formation and maintenance of libraries in all high schools.* By limiting the Recommendation to high schools, and by observing the ordinary requirement that grants to aided schools are made on condition of adequate local contributions, it is obvious that no great burden will hereby be laid upon educational funds.

270. School Accommodation, Apparatus, and Furniture.—Government schools are generally well provided in these important respects; in aided schools, as might be expected, the provision is in general far less satisfactory. In some Provinces the grant-in-aid rules admit of aid being given to secondary schools for the purchase and renewal of furniture and apparatus, as well as for the erection (though not in all cases for the maintenance) of school buildings. It is desirable that a more settled and satisfactory method of assisting aided schools in providing themselves with the necessary apparatus and furniture should be laid down, and with this view we have adopted the Recommendation with which this paragraph closes. It is obvious that to teach geography without a proper supply of maps, elementary physics without models and instruments, or elementary chemistry without the rudiments at least of a laboratory, would be to confirm native teachers and students in those radical faults of instructive method, which it is one of the chief duties of the Education Department to remove. We proceed to consider the accounts given of secondary schools under this head.

Madras.—The high school course includes a primer of chemistry and physics; and accordingly every high school, whether Government or aided, has to be furnished with the necessary apparatus for teaching and illustrating those subjects. The aided schools indeed appear to be somewhat more fully equipped in this respect than the Government schools; and the grants given for that purpose have been liberal. For buildings, the grant-in-aid rules provide that a proportion of one-third of the total cost may be given, or one-third of the rent. A furniture grant may be given once for all.

Bombay.—All secondary schools are furnished with the necessary wall-maps, globes, &c. The high school course includes an elementary knowledge of chemistry, the mechanical powers, and the solar system; and every school possesses the apparatus required for the illustration of these subjects, consisting generally of a telescope, microscope, orrery, magic lantern with astronomical slides, electric machine, air-pump, &c., together with meteorological and chemical instruments. A few of the schools in the Presidency also have museums of natural history. Grants for the purchase of apparatus may be made to aided schools.

Bengal.—The rapid increase in the number of pupils in recent years has necessitated in many cases the erection of new buildings for the zila school,

or substantial additions to the existing buildings. By the orders of the Bengal Government in 1877, the inhabitants of the District are required to co-operate in all expenditure of this kind, the Government contribution being generally limited to one-half, and in most cases being much less. Little difficulty is generally found in raising substantial subscriptions for the zila school, an institution in which the inhabitants commonly take great pride. In still later orders, indefinite extensions of the zila school building are deprecated; and the proper remedy is declared to lie in encouraging the establishment of aided schools. In Government middle schools there is no want of accommodation, light, or ventilation. The rules for building grants to aided schools specify no definite rate of aid; and of late years the practice has been to give a furniture grant in consideration of expenditure on building. The apparatus in high schools consists of a chain and compass, and whatever else is required for practical surveying, in conformity with the inclusion of mensuration in the University course. The middle school course includes an elementary knowledge of either natural philosophy, chemistry, or botany; the first of these being most commonly chosen. But to teach it efficiently a few simple instruments are required; and in aided schools this has long been felt as a great difficulty. The teachers trained in Normal schools have gone through a practical course in each of the subjects named; but without a stock of apparatus, models, or diagrams, their teaching is necessarily defective.

North-Western Provinces.—The high schools are generally large and commodious, and provided with the necessary apparatus. The same is true of the tahsili schools. Grants up to the limit of half the total expenditure may be made for building, enlarging, or furnishing, schools.

Punjab.—An English secondary school usually contains one large room with several class-rooms attached. High schools have been supplied with the apparatus necessary for teaching physics and chemistry according to the science primers. There is a budget allowance of Rs. 2,500 a year for the renewal of furniture in Government schools, much of which is old and unsuitable. In middle schools the apparatus is usually limited to maps and a black-board.

Central Provinces.—The high school of Jabalpur is well accommodated, and additions are made to the building as pupils increase. The aided high schools have good buildings in almost every case. The accommodation in middle schools is generally excellent as regards light and ventilation, and the furniture sufficient. Government schools, both middle and high, are properly furnished with the apparatus of teaching.

Assam.—The high school buildings are generally much too small for the present number of pupils; and though all are fairly well furnished, many of the older buildings are dark and ill-ventilated. Government middle schools at head-quarter stations are fairly well ventilated and furnished. Those in the interior, and private schools generally, are much inferior to these; though many managers of aided schools have of late years begun to build fairly good houses. One of the conditions of obtaining a grant is that a suitable house must be provided for the school. The only apparatus, whether for high or for middle schools, is that required for teaching practical surveying, and this is provided in all Government schools. In aided and unaided middle schools, the head-master either borrows the necessary instruments, or omits the practical part of the middle scholarship course.

Coorg and Berar.—The Merkara School in Coorg and the two schools of Akola and Amraoti in Berar are excellently housed, and well furnished in all respects with school furniture and scientific apparatus.

Summary.—From the foregoing statement it will be evident that aided schools are often insufficiently supplied with furniture and with the apparatus required for giving efficient instruction in the courses prescribed. We therefore recommend *that the grant-in-aid Code of each Province include provision for giving help to school managers in the renewal, and if necessary the increase of their furniture and apparatus of instruction after stated intervals.*

271. Registration of Attendance in secondary Schools.—The keeping of correct registers of attendance is a matter of great importance, and all the evidence that we have received shows that sufficient precautions are taken to secure accurate and honest returns. It is true that wherever the system of payment by results is in force—a system which necessarily takes into account the attendance of pupils—there will be much greater temptation to fraud, and much greater need of precautions against it, than where the rate of aid is not directly determined by that consideration. But in every school, Government or aided, regularity in the attendance of pupils is rightly regarded as a test of good discipline and management, and of the influence which the teacher exercises over pupils and their parents. Without it no steady progress can be made; since the regular pupils are kept back to suit the pace of those who are allowed to stay away from school on any slight pretence. The head-master in a Government school is well aware that the estimate formed of him, and therefore his prospects of promotion, will be largely affected by the discipline which he is able to maintain in this respect. And even under those systems of aid in which the amount of the grant does not directly depend on the attendance, the managers know well that continued irregularity will produce in the Inspector's mind an impression which may tend to their disadvantage in the revision of the grant. Hence it is in all cases important to maintain such regulations on this point as will lessen the temptation to show the attendance of the school as better than it actually is. The precautions in force appear to be generally sufficient for this purpose. Registers of admission and of daily attendance are kept in all high and middle schools by the head and assistant masters, the head-master being responsible for their correctness. In aided schools they are also checked by the local managers; and they must at all times be open to the examination of the inspecting officer, who checks them by the returns he has separately received. One of the first duties of an inspecting officer on visiting a school is to scrutinise the registers of attendance. In Madras, the regulations under this head for result-grant schools are very strict; they have already been described in our Chapter on primary Education. But secondary schools are chiefly aided on the salary-grant system; and for them, as for Government schools, less stringent regulations are judged necessary. The registers in these latter schools are examined by the Inspectors at their annual and other visits. In Bombay, the register is called twice daily for each class. In Bengal an abstract of the attendance in every Government high school is sent to the Inspector quarterly; and in Government middle schools and in aided schools of every class a similar abstract accompanies the monthly bill presented to the Inspector. In the North-Western Provinces, detected falsification is severely punished. In the Central Provinces Report it is stated that falsification of the register is almost unknown in Government schools; and that as the system of payment by results has not been introduced into aided schools there is no temptation to fraud. In Assam, as in Bengal, monthly abstract registers are sent to the Inspector with the bills; and that

officer has no reason to suppose that in any case untrustworthy returns have been submitted from middle schools.

272. Training of Teachers for secondary Schools.—Provision for the training of teachers for schools of secondary instruction exists in very different degrees in different Provinces. In those Provinces in which purely vernacular schools form an important part of the secondary system, adequate provision is very generally made for the Normal instruction of teachers. But in regard to English secondary schools great diversities of practice are found,—diversities which correspond to equally striking differences of opinion. Such a conflict of views is by no means confined to this country. In France, the Normal schools aim at giving the pupil thorough instruction much more in the subjects which he is intended to teach, and in those allied subjects which will enable him to teach them with greater fulness, insight, and power, than in the methods of teaching them and the professional art of the teacher. In the Normal schools of Germany, on the other hand, the science of *Paedagogik* has reached a high degree of development. Mr. Matthew Arnold a few years ago expressed the opinion that if in some countries undue importance was attached to that science, yet there was no justification for treating it with the neglect which it commonly received in England where middle schools were concerned. An educational officer of large experience in England and India has expressed the belief that "the best way to teach a man to teach arithmetic "is to teach him arithmetic; and if he knows arithmetic, and you want to add "tionally qualify him to teach arithmetic, the most efficient way of expenditure "of your extra tuition upon him will be to teach him algebra, rather than "to talk to him about teaching arithmetic." It was in view of such diversities of opinion that we invited evidence on the question—"Does the University "curriculum afford a sufficient training for teachers in secondary schools, or are "special Normal schools needed for the purpose?" On the whole there is on the part of the witnesses (among whom may be specially named the Madras missionary witnesses, and the Honourable Mr. Justice West of Bombay), a preponderating body of opinion in favour either of giving teachers of secondary schools a definite Normal training, or at any rate of requiring them to possess some acquaintance with the principles and methods of teaching. The distinction here pointed out is one of considerable practical importance. The Normal school serves a two-fold purpose; it teaches subjects, and it teaches the best way of teaching them. The teaching of subjects can e sufficiently provided for in ordinary places of instruction, if their standard high enough for it; what specially characterises a good Normal school is struction in the science and practice in the art of teaching. On this int we may quote the evidence of Dr. Duncan, Principal of the Madras esidency College: "When it is said, as it often is, that a young man who s sat under good professors for four years must have learned by force of mple all that a Normal school can teach as to the methods of instruction class management, it seems to be forgotten that there is, or ought to be, difference in the methods adopted in a class of school-boys and those d with young men at college." We have little doubt that a man who een able to supplement a good general education, to a standard conbly higher than that to which his subsequent work as a teacher will be ded, by a short course of instruction in the principles and methods of ork, will be more effective as a teacher than one who is without that age. He will be more effective certainly at the outset; though there loubt that the untrained teacher who has enthusiasm in his work many cases acquire in the course of it, either by natural aptitude or priate reading, an insight into the methods which lead to success

in teaching. And his improvement in this respect will be more rapid if he has the advantage of working under a skilled and experienced teacher. It is also true that some, perhaps most, of the secondary Normal schools in India have no practising school attached to them, in which the students may gain experimental acquaintance with their work. In this case the special instruction of the Normal school will be limited to the science or theory of teaching; and valuable as that is, it may still be acquired to some sufficient extent from books. It will be gathered that we set a high value on that part of Normal school instruction which consists in giving the pupils practical training for a short period with a class, so that they may perform, under the eye and guidance of the teacher, work of the kind which they will afterwards have to do independently. It is in this way chiefly that the future schoolmaster will learn how to engage and keep the attention of a whole class, how to correct and check the wandering or listless scholar, how to put together in their due order the materials of a lesson, and how to select those illustrations which give life to instruction and arouse the interest of the pupil. All this the trained schoolmaster can do, if he has added to natural capacity and enthusiasm a training of the right character. But if opportunities of this kind are wanting, as in many Normal schools they are wanting, we are of opinion that, without requiring every teacher in a secondary school to go through a course of Normal training, we may, as an inadequate but the only practicable alternative, require him to show that he possesses a sufficient acquaintance with the theory and methods of teaching, as developed in the many works which have been produced on that subject. In this way we can at least be sure that he does not enter upon the duties of his profession without any of the equipment necessary for their successful discharge, and that he will bring to his work a mind stored with the knowledge that will help him to appreciate and remove the difficulties by which he will at the outset be surrounded. Bearing these considerations in mind, we recommend *that an examination in the principles and practice of teaching be instituted, success in which should hereafter be a condition of permanent employment as a teacher in any secondary school, Government or aided.*

273. Arrangements for the Training of Teachers in secondary Schools.—We proceed to describe such arrangements as are actually in force for training teachers in secondary schools.

Madras.—The only Normal school in the Madras Presidency for the training of teachers in secondary schools is the Government Normal School established in 1856. For many years this institution gave a general as well as a special education; but of late it was thought desirable to limit its work to the training of teachers, and none are now admitted as students but those who have passed some University examination. In 1881-82, the school contained 3 graduates, 3 students who had passed the First Arts, and 18 the Matriculation examination. The students of the school are either actual teachers, permanent or provisional, or candidates for teacherships. To the former class of students the rate of stipend varies from Rs. 10 to Rs. 20 a month, to the latter from Rs. 5 to Rs. 14; the rate being fixed by reference to the University standing of the students, and to the educational division in which they are to serve. The number of stipendiary students is not to exceed 35, nor the total number 50. The period of training is 12 months, except in the case of Masters of Arts, or of teachers of three years' standing and 25 years of age, when the term may be reduced under special circumstances to six months. Every stipendiary student binds himself under penalties to remain under training during the prescribed period, and to continue for three years in any post which he may be appointed after passing the final examination.

Bombay.—No special college exists for the training of teachers for secondary schools. The head-masters of high schools are generally graduates of the University; those of middle schools are either University men or officers who have distinguished themselves as teachers in lower appointments. The assistant masters of secondary schools are men who have been trained either in high schools or in colleges. Newly appointed teachers in departmental schools are generally required to serve for a year or more in one or other of the larger high schools, in order that they may learn their duties under the eye of the most experienced head-masters of the Presidency. It is therefore urged that the first grade high schools discharge the functions of training colleges; and as this plan is believed to have been successful as well as economical, the Provincial Committee deprecate any change of system.

Bengal.—There is no special institution for training teachers in English schools. A Government high school of the first grade will ordinarily have either an old senior scholar of the pre-University period or a Master of Arts as head-master, and a Bachelor of Arts as second master, together with men of lower University standing in the subordinate appointments. In aid schools the Inspector requires, and mostly secures, the appointment of Bachelor of Arts to the head-mastership of a high school, and of a First Arts student to that of a middle school. For the training of vernacular teachers there are eight Normal schools, the course in which is certainly not below that required for the First Arts examination of the Calcutta University. It comprises vernacular language and literature; Sanskrit; history of England and India, and general history; general and physical geography, with elementary descriptive astronomy; arithmetic, European and Indian, algebra to the binomial theorem, trigonometry to the solution of triangles, logarithms, statics and elementary dynamics; six books of Euclid, mensuration, surveying with the chain, plotting, and plan-drawing; elementary physics, chemistry, botany, and the laws of health; and lastly the art of teaching, with practice in the model school. Candidates are admitted after passing the middle scholarship examination, and the full course extends to three years. A central examination of the students of all Normal schools is held at the end of the first, second, and third year of study, and certificates of different grades are given to those who pass; but no student can ordinarily be appointed to the head-mastership of a middle vernacular school unless he has passed through the full course. Lower certificates qualify for assistant masterships in middle schools or for head-masterships of upper primary schools. The examination is not confined to students of Normal schools, but is open to any teacher who desires to qualify for a certificate. The value of the stipends in Normal schools is generally Rs. 4 or Rs. 5 a month, and an annual grant of nearly Rs. 25,000 is made for this purpose. The stipends are awarded by the Inspector to successful candidates from all the Districts which the Normal school is intended to provide for. The Normal school at Patna is the only one which has a class for the training of English teachers; all students in this class must have passed the middle scholarship examination in English. There were 466 students in the eight Normal schools in 1882; and 266 certificates of different grades were issued on the result of the central examination. A distinctive and valuable element in the Bengal system is that to each Normal school is attached a model or practising school of the middle vernacular standard, in which the pupils are constantly practised in the art of teaching under the head-master's eye. These model schools are found to be amongst the most successful of their class, as tested by the middle scholarship examination.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—There is at the head-quarters of each Commissioner's Division a Normal school for the training of teachers in secondary as well as primary schools. The subjects prescribed for the higher certificate comprise vernacular language and literature, with optional instruction in Persian or Sanskrit, arithmetic, algebra to quadratic equations, four books of Euclid, mensuration of plane surfaces, surveying with the plane table, history and geography of India, general and physical geography and map-drawing, elements of natural science, and the principles of teaching. Every candidate for admission to a Normal school must have passed the middle school examination, and the course extends over two years.

Punjab.—The Central Training College at Lahore, now in the third year of its existence, is designed to train teachers for English and for secondary vernacular schools. It is under the charge of a graduate of St. Andrew's, who has also passed through a Training College. The English class consists, or will hereafter consist, of young men who have passed the B.A. or the First Arts examination of the Calcutta University, or the corresponding examinations of the Punjab iversity, as well as of promising teachers in District schools. The vernacu- class consists of men who have passed through a Normal school with certi- tes of competency, of students who have passed the vernacular Entrance mination of the Punjab University, and of teachers sent in from schools. twithstanding their varied attainments, all these students are taught as one class; the object of the Training College being, not to impart general instruction, but to train for the special work of teaching men otherwise educated. Accordingly, with the exception of elementary science, instruction is confined to the principles of teaching. The number of students in each class is about 30. The chief defect mentioned is the want of a practising school. The aided Normal school of the Christian Vernacular Education Society at Amritsar does not train teachers specially for secondary schools; but the course is sufficiently advanced to qualify the best students for posts in middle schools. A practising school is attached.

Central Provinces.—There is no institution for training teachers; but the masters in middle schools are usually matriculated students at the least, while some have advanced to a higher status in the University. Consequently, it is pointed out, they have spent some 10 or 12 years at school and college; they have observed the methods pursued, and adopt them.

Assam.—The single Normal school at Gauhati for the training of secondary teachers is framed on the Bengal model. The students are drawn from all districts except Sylhet and Cachar, whose requirements are supplied by the Normal school at Dacca in Bengal. A practising school is attached. During the last four years 36 students have gained certificates of competency.

Summary.—From what has preceded, it appears that in Madras there is a training school for English teachers in secondary schools; in Bengal, Assam, and the North-Western Provinces, schools for vernacular teachers; and in the Punjab for teachers of both classes. In the other Provinces no special provision is made. The only further Recommendation that we have to make under this head is based on the principle, in force in Madras, of allowing M.A. graduates in special cases to read for a shorter term than other students of Normal schools, and it involves an extension of that principle. It is, *that graduates wishing to attend a course of instruction in a Normal school in the principles and practice of teaching be required to undergo a shorter course of training than others.*

274. The total Number of Teachers, trained and untrained, in secondary Schools.—From the account given in the preceding paragraph, it will be evident that a large number of teachers of secondary schools in every Province have received no definite Normal training; either because the existing Normal schools have not as yet had time to supply all the requirements of secondary schools, or because a University or high school training is thought to be sufficient. The following figures relating to the different Provinces will illustrate this statement. In Madras, the number of trained masters (excluding vernacular teachers) for secondary schools who have left the Normal school is 527. Some of these have betaken themselves to other callings; some have been appointed Deputy Inspectors; and the number actually employed in secondary schools is comparatively small. Out of 455 teachers employed in Government shcools, 222 are trained. In aided English schools there are about 840 teachers, of whom 130 are trained. In secondary schools of other kinds most of the teachers have received no special training. In Bombay, out of 193 teachers in Government high schools, there are 60 graduates, and 95 have passed either the matriculation or the previous examination. Of 255 teachers in Government middle schools, 2 are graduates, 14 have passed the previous, and 144 the matriculation, examination. In aided schools the upper masters are generally men who have passed some University examination; and it is stated that a large proportion of those who have had no University training are teachers of long standing and experience. In Bengal it will be remembered that high and middle schools contain attached primary departments; and hence the masters in those schools include some who instruct little boys in the alphabet, and others, trained in pathsalas, who teach native methods of arithmetic, a subject which finds a place in middle schools. Sanskrit is taught in high schools either by Normal school students, or by those who have received their instruction in tols. With this explanation the following figures will be understood. Of 1,319 teachers in high schools, 579 have received a collegiate education, 491 have read in high schools to the matriculation standard or below, 97 in vernacular Normal schools, and 152 in indigenous pathsalas, tols, or maktabs. Of 4,087 teachers in middle schools, 1,467 have received a Normal school training; while 323 have been educated in colleges, 817 in high schools, 1,255 in middle schools, and 225 in indigenous institutions. In the North-Western Provinces, of 662 teachers in secondary schools, chiefly vernacular, some 70 per cent. are certificated. In the Punjab, many of the teachers have passed the lower University examinations, while 7 have the degree of B.A. or the equivalent degree of the Punjab University. The Lahore Training College supplied 12 teachers to schools at the end of the first year of its existence. Most of the teachers of middle vernacular schools, as well as several oriental teachers in English schools, hold Normal school certificates. In the Central Provinces, middle schoolmasters are usually matriculated, while some have passed the First Arts examination, and two or three are graduates. In Assam, of 84 teachers in high schools, 64 have passed at or read up to one or other of the University examinations, and there are 12 trained and 8 untrained oriental teachers. Of 199 teachers in middle schools, 152 are trained and 47 untrained. There are no trained teachers in the other two Provinces.

275. Pay and Prospects of Teachers in secondary Schools.—No general complaint is made that the teachers in secondary schools are under-paid. This is a case indeed in which the ordinary laws of supply and demand have full operation. If the salaries offered are not sufficient to attract competent men, competent men will not take the appointments. Here and there, it is true, a man

may be found who, feeling in himself a special calling for the teacher's work will serve for a wage below the market rate. But this impulse, though it may be stronger in the educational than in other fields of professional life, is not one which has any large results or which need be regarded. The executive service, as will hereafter be shown in the Chapter on Collegiate Education, possesses powerful attractions for graduates; but failing that, they are quite willing to take service in Government or in aided schools. The competition is of course keen, but there is certainly no evidence to show that throughout India the supply of educated men is in excess of the demand; and there is indeed ground for believing that the salaries which B.A. and M.A. graduates will accept have in some Provinces been steadily rising in recent years. One considerable element in the value of a post consists in the prospect of future promotion or of transfer to a better-paid service which it holds out. The first of these depends, as regards Government schools, upon the internal organisation of the Department, and the arrangements in force for securing due recognition to long service and proved capacity; and in this respect there are great differences in different Provinces. The second is determined by the estimate in which educational officers are held by the dispensers of patronage in other branches of the Government service, or by other employers of highly remunerated labour; and in this respect, also, wide differences are found to exist. In Bengal the Director of Public Instruction is sometimes asked to recommend men for Deputy Magistracies or other special posts in the executive service of Government; for appointment as tutors or guardians under the Court of Wards; for service in the Jail, Police, Registration, or other Departments. This tendency has been decreasing of late years, because the dispensers of patronage have found it easier than before to make their own selection from candidates independently qualified. Nevertheless, in those Provinces in which special encouragement has been given to men of education, the belief still prevails that service in the Education Department will open a door, however narrow, to other and more remunerative careers; and this fact has its weight with candidates for employment, and puts a somewhat better class of men at the disposal of the Department for service in schools. In other Provinces there has been little if any recognition of educational officers as having any special claim to, or qualification for, public employment; there is no current belief that approved service under the Director's eye will lead to selection for a better post outside the Department; and in applying for educational appointments, men look simply to the market value of their services. These remarks apply with chief force to Government schools. The prospects of teachers in aided schools are determined partly by the liberality of the grant-in-aid rules, and by the degree in which recognition is given to the just principle that, in aided as in Government schools, provision should be made for a progressive increase of salaries; and partly by the readiness of those in authority to reward successful teachers of aided schools by appointments of higher value under Government. We proceed to show how the services of teachers in secondary schools are remunerated in different Provinces. Two facts may, however, be borne in mind. The first is that men will accept appointments at their own homes, or in the Presidency towns where they have (as they believe) greater opportunities of promotion, at lower rates than in distant parts of the country. The second is that distinguished graduates will often accept appointments at low rates in places where they have an opportunity of attending Law Lectures, so as to secure the means of subsistence while qualifying for the legal profession. This is not altogether desirable, since their intention is to abandon the work of education just when they are beginning to be efficient; at the same time, so great is the

competition at the Bar, that many men once appointed are reluctant afterwards to exchange a certainty for a bare and doubtful chance of success; and in this way, if they see any reasonable prospect of promotion, the Department secures the services of many competent officers who would not otherwise have joined it.

In Madras, the grant-in-aid rules are framed on the assumption that the salaries of masters in high schools vary from Rs. 80 to Rs. 240 a month, and in middle schools from Rs. 30 to Rs. 50 a month; but as a matter of fact the salaries are determined by the market rate, and are much lower than those contemplated in the rules. In schools under private managers, except in the case of a head-master, the salary seldom exceeds Rs. 100 a month in a high school, and Rs. 40 in a middle. In departmental schools the rates are higher. Masters in aided schools who prove their efficiency have also a prospect of appointment as Deputy Inspectors, and even to higher posts in the graded service. In Bombay, teachers in Government secondary schools are eligible for promotion to most of the higher appointments in the Department. They have not infrequently been selected for posts in other departments of the public service. In Government high schools, the salaries of head-masters vary from Rs. 125 to Rs. 800, the maximum being that of the head-master of the Elphinstone High School; assistant masters receive from Rs. 30 to Rs. 150. In middle schools the salary varies from Rs. 15 to Rs. 150. In aided high schools the salary of the head-master varies from Rs. 100 to a maximum of Rs. 600 in the case of one European head-master of a mission school; the maximum salary of an assistant master is Rs. 125. In aided middle schools the salaries range from Rs. 60 to Rs. 125. In Bengal, the officers of the Department below the European professoriate and the circle Inspectors are ranged in a subordinate graded service consisting of seven classes, the salaries in which range from Rs. 50 to Rs. 500 a month. All teachers in Government secondary schools with salaries of Rs. 50 and upwards are included in this list and are eligible for promotion, according to qualifications and service, to the highest class. Out of a total number of 327 officers contained in the list, 136 are teachers in high schools. The head-masters of the Hindu and Hare Schools in Calcutta are in the first class of this service, with salaries rising from Rs. 400 to Rs. 500 a month. In aided high schools the pay ranges from Rs. 15 to Rs. 150 a month; in middle schools from Rs. 10 to Rs. 50. The rates include those paid in the primary departments. Successful aided schools are regularly noticed in the Annual Reports of the Department; and their teachers are frequently rewarded by appointment to Government schools. Promotion to other departments of the public service is occasionally but rarely given to teachers in high schools. In the North-Western Provinces, the pay of teachers in Government middle schools ranges from Rs. 8 to Rs. 20 a month; for high schools, and for aided schools generally, no information is given in the Provincial Report. In the Punjab the salaries in district schools range from Rs. 30 to Rs. 400 a month, and in Government middle vernacular schools from Rs. 8 to Rs. 40 a month. In the Central Provinces, many civil appointments have been given for some years past to masters of middle schools and consequently competent men are obtained as teachers. In Assam, where the secondary schools contain primary departments, the salaries in Government high schools range from Rs. 15 to Rs. 200, and in middle vernacular schools from Rs. 10 to Rs. 40. Teachers sometimes, though rarely, obtain more valuable appointments in other departments. The salaries in high and middle schools lie in Coorg between Rs. 30 and Rs. 100, and in the Haidarabad Assigned Districts between Rs. 50 and Rs. 400.

276. Means of improving the Position of Teachers in secondary Schools.—The remarks made at the beginning of the preceding paragraph lead up to the only Recommendation that we have to make under this head, namely, *that the claims of efficient and successful teachers in aided schools be considered in making appointments to posts in the service of Government; and that in cases duly certified by the Education Department the 25 years' rule be relaxed.* We say nothing in this place as to the desirability of rewarding successful teachers by appointments in other departments of the public service; though we have good ground for believing that the effect of such a practice, in those Provinces where it prevails or did prevail in years, has been to raise the character of secondary education by securing the services of more ambitious and capable men. But a policy of that kind must be almost exclusively governed by regard to the qualifications of individual officers, and to their fitness for special appointments. With the course recommended above it is different. Teachers, whether in Government or in aided schools, are doing precisely the same work; and a man who has proved his capacity in one post is necessarily fit for duties of a similar kind in another. Having regard to the immense advantage of raising the standard of instruction in aided schools, we are of opinion that this object can best be attained, with equal benefit to both classes of schools, by rewarding successful teachers in aided schools by appointments in the Government service. It may not be possible to devise any general means of raising the pay of teachers in aided schools; although something to this end may be effected by a generous recognition of the principle that in applying the grant-in-aid rules the claims of old and successful teachers to increased pay should not be disregarded. But their prospects can at any rate be improved by giving them the hope of transfer to an appointment involving greater certainty of employment, with prospective advantages in the way of promotion and pension. There can be little doubt that, if such a policy were declared and followed, a still better class of men than those who now come forward would seek appointments in aided schools. Such a policy, too, would be in full accordance with the object which we have kept in view in all our Recommendations, that departmental and aided schools should in an equal degree claim and enjoy the fostering care of the Department, as portions of a connected system of national education.

The second part of our Recommendation is based on a practice which has been followed for some years with success in Bengal. In that Province it has long been the custom to select efficient teachers in aided schools for appointment either to Government schools or as inspecting officers. The men selected had proved their fitness by successful work for many years; and hence it happened in nearly every instance that they had passed beyond the limit of age prescribed for entrance into the service of Government. Much inconvenience was felt from the necessity of applying to Government in each case for sanction to the particular appointment,—an application required by existing orders. In 1878, therefore, at the instance of the Director of Public Instruction, the Government of Bengal sanctioned the relaxation of that rule in the case of teachers of aided schools; provided that the person appointed was certified by the appointing officer as being in his opinion the most efficient man for the post; that a list of all appointments so made should be forwarded each year to Government; and that the pension admissible on retirement to any such officer should be liable to reduction in proportion to the degree in which the period of his service under Government fell short of 30 years.

277. Fees in secondary Schools.—The following Table shows the percentage of fee income to total expenditure in high and middle schools of all classes in 1881-82 :—

Fees in High and Middle Schools in 1881-82.

PROVINCE AND GRADE OF SCHOOLS.				Percentage of income from fees to total expenditure in Departmental schools.	Percentage of income from fees to total expenditure in Aided schools.	Percentage of income from fees to total expenditure in Unaided schools under inspection.	REMARKS.
1				2	3	4	5
MADRAS	High Schools	Boys	English	37·03	37·76	61·95	
		Girls	English	22·76	92·31*	...	* One school only. The total expenditure was Rs. 13, of which Rs. 12 were met from Fees.
	Middle Schools	Boys	English	48·65	57·83	63·43	
			Vernacular	...	39·35	68·16	
		Girls	English	29·19	5·67	13·73	
			Vernacular	...	8·34	1·97	
BOMBAY	High Schools	Boys	English	44·69	24·17	14·32	
	Middle Schools	Boys	English	44·79	32·41	14·97	
		Girls	English	...	24·68	...	
BENGAL	High Schools	Boys	English	57·81	44·23	48·55	
		Girls	English	22·52	...	...	
	Middle Schools	Boys	English	32·18	24·72	36·09	
			Vernacular	27·96	31·31	18·78	
		Girls	English	...	18·61	...	
			Vernacular	...	2·70	6·79	
N.-W. PROVINCES AND OUDH.	High and Middle Schools.	Boys	English	7·73	2·94	4·72	
			Vernacular	4·17	13·51	...	
		Girls	English	...	6·62	...	
			Vernacular	...	...	...	
PUNJAB	High Schools	Boys	English	8·27	4·84	...	
		Boys	Vernacular	9·45	...	...	
	Middle Schools	Boys	English	12·20	8·24	...	
			Vernacular	7·10	...	...	
		Girls	English	...	14·89	...	
CENTRAL PROVINCES.	High Schools	Boys	English	11·36	9·13	...	
	Middle Schools.	Boys	English	8·78	14·17	...	
ASSAM	High Schools	Boys	English	50·13	46·90	81·39	
	Middle Schools	Boys	English	38·16	24·74	26·94	
			Vernacular	30·48	23·31	6·37	
COORG	High Schools	Boys	English	13·37	...	...	
	Middle Schools	Boys	English				
HAIDARABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS	High Schools	Boys	English	1·20	...	...	
	Middle Schools	Boys	English	1·91	...	...	
INDIA†	High Schools	Boys		40·69	31·41	40·52	
		Girls		22·52	6·96	...	
	Middle Schools	Boys		25·97	32·29	35·73	
		Girls		3·38	15·77	7·36	
			TOTAL	33·85	31·44	37·99	

Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

In high schools for boys, the proportion of the expenditure borne by fees is nearly 41 per cent. in Government and unaided schools, and about 31 per cent. in aided schools. The proportion for Government schools is highest in Bengal and Assam where it reaches 58 and 50 per cent. respectively; for aided schools it is highest in the same two Provinces, being 47 per cent. in Assam, and 44 per cent. in Bengal; and for unaided schools it is highest in Assam and Madras, with 81 and 66 per cent. It will be noticed how high is the place taken by Assam in this comparison. In middle schools of all classes Madras is easily pre-eminent. In the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, and the Central Provinces, the proportion raised from fees is conspicuously low in schools of every class. It might be thought instructive to show for every Province of India the average fee paid by each scholar in high and middle schools. Such a comparison would, however, be misleading on account of the varying number of classes which high schools contain in different Provinces, and of the amalgamation of the figures for high and middle schools in the returns of others. In all Provinces the fee-receipts of Government schools are paid into the Treasury and credited in the public accounts. In the case of middle schools in places distant from any Treasury, the head-master is allowed in some Provinces to use the fees in part-payment of his salary; the amount is, however, shown in his monthly bill, and is credited in the accounts of the Treasury. In aided schools the fees belong to the institution. We proceed to notice some points of special interest in the different Provinces.

Madras.—A definite scale of fees was fixed in 1869 and increased in 1877, in communication with the managers of aided schools, according to which the rates varied for different parts of the country, and were higher for Government than for aided schools. The schedule provides for schools in the town of Madras, and in mofussil towns of the first, second, and third grades. For high schools the highest fee is Rs. 3-8 in Government and Rs. 2-8 in aided schools; the lowest fee is Rs. 2 in Government and Re. 1-8 in aided schools. For middle schools the fee varies from Rs. 2-8 to 12 annas in Government, and from Rs. 1-12 to 8 annas in aided schools. In Government and salary-grant schools 5 per cent. of the whole number of pupils may be free students. Muhammadan and Uriya pupils pay half the ordinary rates. The Provincial Committee is of opinion that the rates might now be revised with advantage; though no great increase could be made without hardship to students and injury to education.

Bombay.—The fee-rates vary for different parts of the Province; thus the highest fee in Government high schools is Rs. 4 in the Central Division, and Rs. 2 elsewhere; the lowest fee is Re. 1-8 in the Central and Southern Divisions and Re. 1 elsewhere. In Government middle schools the rates vary from Rs. 3 to 4 annas. No minimum rate of fee has been prescribed for schools under private management as a condition of receiving aid. In all Government schools 5 per cent. of the pupils may be free students, or 10 per cent. may read at half rates; in the middle departments attached to cess schools, 20 per cent. of the pupils may be free. In aided schools the exemptions are very numerous, and there is no restriction in the rules on this point. No scholarship-holder is exempted from fee-payments unless he also holds a free-studentship. There are no special rates or exemptions for Muhammadan students, and very few of that class are found in Government high and middle schools.

Bengal.—The ordinary rate of fee in a Government high school is Rs. 3 a month in the highest class, descending to 12 annas or Re. 1 in the lowest

class of the primary department. But fees also vary with the locality, so that as in other parts of India, secondary education may be obtained at a cheaper rate in backward parts of the Province. Thus, in the Hindu and Hare Schools of Calcutta, the fee charged is Rs. 5 in the five highest classes, and Rs. 4 in the four lowest; while in remote and backward parts, the fee in the highest class falls to Rs. 2, and in the lowest class to 8 annas or even less. There is, however, no fixed scale prescribed by the Department, and the rates are frequently revised by the District Committees, with the sanction of the Director, almost always in the direction of raising the total fee-income of the school. The average fee paid by students in all Government high schools is Rs. 2-6 in the highest class, and 15 annas in the lowest. In aided schools the fees levied are at less than half these rates. The rate of fees in middle English schools (practically all of which are aided) varies from 4 annas to Re. 1 a month according to class, and in middle vernacular schools from 2 annas to 8 annas a month. There is no rule prescribing certain rates of fees as a condition of obtaining a grant-in-aid. Indeed in 1875 it was decided, after correspondence with the Supreme Government, that the distinction between fee-receipts and subscriptions was of no practical utility, and that if a certain proportion of fee-payments was insisted on, the chief result would be that sums now shown as subscriptions would be returned as fees. Consequently the only stipulation now is that a certain amount of private income from all sources, fees and subscriptions together, shall be guaranteed. No pupils are exempt from the payment of fees except those who hold Government scholarships. Students who hold middle scholarships are also entitled, subject to the condition of satisfactory conduct and progress, to read free for one or two years after the expiry of their scholarships, if they have not by that time passed the matriculation examination. Aided and unaided schools generally allow the same privileges to scholars, though there is no regulation on this point. In aided schools, the managers frequently pay the fees of poor scholars, the amount being shown as subscriptions. In unaided schools there is always a large number of free students. From the income of the Mohsin Endowment Fund a sum of Rs. 18,000 a year is set apart for paying two-thirds of the fees of Muhammadan students in high schools. The concession is confined to students of Government high schools at the head-quarter stations of those districts in which Muhammadans are most numerous; but in Chapter VIII of this Report we shall recommend that the benefits of the allotment be extended to aided schools of approved status.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—Here we at once descend to a much lower scale of fees. In Government high schools the rate varies according to locality, from 8 annas to Re. 1-8 in the highest classes, and from 4 annas to 12 annas in the lowest (or primary department) classes. In middle schools the rate varies from 3 to 12 annas in English, and from 1 to 4 annas in vernacular schools. The fees levied in aided schools vary widely. No minimum fee is prescribed, nor is there any limit to the percentage of free scholars; but a certain sum must be realised from fees, in proportion to the amount of the grant. Notwithstanding the desire that exists for a knowledge of English, the proportion of the total income raised from fees is greater in the case of vernacular than of English schools. The Provincial Report does not state what exemptions are made in the incidence of the fee-rates; nor whether fees are levied from scholarship-holders in aided, as they are in Government schools.

Punjab.—In the Punjab, an attempt is made to regulate the fee-rate in Government schools by the income of the parents. In English schools scholars are divided into six grades, according to income; the lowest grade is for incomes below Rs. 25 a month, and the highest for incomes above

Rs. 200. In aided schools there is no uniform scale. The returns, however, show that the average fee paid by scholars in high schools is within a fraction the same as that paid in middle English schools. No exemptions are allowed, and all scholarship-holders pay the regular fees. On the question of graduating the fees according to income, a large majority of the witnesses are in favour of that principle, and think it should be maintained. Others are of opinion that the difficulty of accurately ascertaining incomes renders the system unworkable, and exposes the head-master to the imputation of being unfairly lenient to some pupils and hard to others.

Central Provinces.—In the Government high school the fee-rate is Re. 1 a month. Owing to the growing efficiency of the middle school, the applications for admissions to the high school at Jabalpur are increasing year by year, and it may be possible to raise the fee. In aided schools the highest fee varies from 12 annas to Rs. 3 a month, an attempt being generally made to regulate the fee by the income of the parents. Accordingly the fee is sometimes as low as 2 annas. In Government middle schools, inferior and superior, the rate is 6 annas and 8 annas a month, except to agriculturists who, as contributors to the school cess, pay only half those rates. It appears possible to raise the fee in the superior middle schools of large towns. In aided middle schools the fee varies from 1 to 8 annas. In the Government high school there are no exemptions, except in very rare cases under special sanction of the Inspector General. In middle schools, five pupils at each may read free. Scholarship-holders in all schools pay fees.

Assam.—The fee-rates in Government high schools in Assam are much the same as in Bengal, varying from Re. 1-8 to Rs. 3 in the highest classes. In aided schools the highest fee is 25 per cent. lower, but the general incidence of fees on each scholar is somewhat higher in aided than in Government schools, owing to the fact that the former have only as yet been established in comparatively populous and wealthy centres. All scholarship-holders are allowed to read free, as in Bengal, and the privilege is continued to them for two years after the expiry of their scholarships, so as to enable them to pass the Entrance examination.

Other Provinces.—In Coorg there are no aided secondary schools. The fee rate in the Government school is one rupee a month. No exemptions are allowed. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts the rate is from 12 annas to Re. 1 in the high school and from 4 to 8 annas in the middle school. Scholarship-holders pay no fees.

278. Recommendations as to Fees.—All our Recommendations under this head have for their object to improve and strengthen the position of aided schools. The first runs as follows: *that the Director of Public Instruction should, in consultation with the managers of schools receiving aid from Government, determine the scale of fees to be charged and the proportion of pupils to be exempted from payment therein.* On this point it was contended by the majority that one of the chief objects of the Despatch of 1854 in insisting on the levy of "some fee, however small," from scholars, was to stimulate and strengthen the principle of self-help; and thus, by the gradual increase of fees in every class of institutions, to make education as far as possible self-supporting. It was therefore, in the opinion of the majority, desirable to adopt some definite system by which, with due regard to the circumstances of each locality or tract of country, the scale of fees to be charged as a condition of receiving aid might be determined authoritatively, and yet with

sufficient elasticity, for schools of every class. One great advantage resulting from such a system would be that of strengthening the hands of managers of aided schools in their endeavours to increase the private income of those institutions. It was true that managers constantly allow poor boys to read free, increasing their subscriptions so as to make good the loss of fees. There was no objection whatever to such a practice; but it was desirable that (subject to any sanctioned exemptions) a fee should be shown for every scholar, and there would be no difficulty in bringing into the accounts, by transfer to the head of fees, sums that were really intended to be so applied. In this way a salutary principle would be maintained. Another advantage would be the protection of aided schools against injurious competition with each other. In the absence of such a provision there was great danger, as experience showed, that schools near enough to be in competition would go on reducing their rates in order to attract each other's pupils. To reject the proposal would be to take a long stride towards destroying discipline, and would encourage parents to plead poverty in order to escape the payments of fees. Lastly, the experience of Madras, in which such a system had been in force for 13 years with the universal approval of the managers of aided schools, was altogether in favour of its extension to other Provinces. Aided schools would not regard the action of the Department in this matter as an interference, but as a help. There was no ground for the suspicion that the Department would use the power thus placed at its disposal so as to cripple aided schools by requiring them to levy extravagant fees. The educational policy of the future must be based on the explicit assumption that the Department would, on the one hand, regard all classes of schools with a favourable eye, and on the other be looked up to by aided schools with respect and confidence. Some of the arguments here adduced were directed against positions taken up by those who opposed the Recommendation, and whose views will now be stated. The Recommendation was opposed on a variety of grounds. It was urged, in the first place, that it involved an unnecessary and unprecedented interference with the freedom of aided schools. The managers were the persons best able to determine how far their schools could be made self-supporting; nor did the Recommendation make any provision for cases in which the managers and the Department might differ. Further—and this was a point on which great stress was laid by several native members of the Commission—the proposal aimed at breaking down the traditional rule, common to Hindus and Muhammadans, that education should be imparted without payment, the teachers depending on free-will offerings. There was no sort of foundation for the theory that gratuitous education involved any loss of self-respect; and testimony to this effect might be adduced from the West no less than from the East. If schools were subjected to the interference proposed, there was reason to fear that many would decline aid altogether. Lastly, it was argued, the whole difficulty arose from the disturbing presence of Government schools; and if that injurious influence were removed, the price of education would find its level like that of any other marketable commodity. In that point of view the proposal was objectionable, because it countenanced the continued existence of Government schools. Such were in brief the conflicting views; and the Recommendation was carried by only a narrow majority.

Our second Recommendation is *that in order to encourage the establishment of aided schools, the managers be not required to charge fees as high as those of a neighbouring Government school of the same class.* This is the necessary complement of the first Recommendation. Subject to a few exceptions, it is in accordance with the practice of the Department in every Province, and is designed to give aided schools a fair chance of attaining stability.

If effect is to be given to the principle of gradually substituting aided schools for Government schools in all places in which the conditions for such transfer of management are favourable, it is essential that every reasonable advantage should be offered to aided schools in their attempts to establish themselves on a permanent footing. The Government school will, it is believed, always possess attractions of its own, sufficient to counterbalance the drawback of charging higher fees. The further bearings of this question may, however, be reserved for discussion in a later Chapter.

Our third Recommendation is *that scholarship-holders, as such, be not exempted from payment of the ordinary fees.* It has been shown that in some Provinces they are so exempted. The effect obviously is that if aided schools are to admit scholarship-holders, who are the best and most promising of the students, they are compelled to admit them on similar terms, and thus to lose the fees which the scholars would otherwise pay. The loss to the scholars might, if necessary, be made up by increasing the value of the scholarships to an equivalent extent. In Government schools, the fees paid back by the scholars would make good the excess; and the only difference to Government in a financial point of view is that the scholarship assignment would be increased by the trifling amount of the fees paid by pupils holding their scholarships in non-departmental schools. But it would be easy so to fix the value of the scholarships that even this small loss could be avoided. At the same time it must be admitted that in one respect the payments of fees by scholarship-holders is apt to lead to misapprehension. When the amount paid in scholarships is large and the fee-rates low, as is the case in the Punjab, a considerable proportion of the fees consists merely of deductions from scholarships, and a false idea is thus conveyed as to the income and expenditure under both heads.

279. Scholarships in secondary Schools.—In many passages of the Despatch of 1854, the necessity and advantage of establishing a chain of scholarships "as a connecting link between the different grades of institutions" (paragraph 63) is insisted on. Of indigenous schools it is said (paragraph 46) that "the most promising pupils of these schools might be rewarded by scholar-"ships [tenable] in places of education of a superior order." Of the secondary schools it is said (paragraph 42) that "their pupils might be encouraged by "scholarships being instituted at other institutions which would be tenable as "rewards of merit by the best of their number;" and again (paragraph 38) that "scholarships should be attached to" the colleges affiliated to the University, "to be held by the best students of lower schools." Again, in reference to aided schools it is said (paragraph 55) that "the foundation, or assistance in "the foundation, of scholarships for candidates from lower schools will also be "a proper object for the application of grants-in-aid." And in summing up the scope and objects of the scholarship system, the Despatch urges (paragraph 63) the development of the system in such a way "that the best pupils of the "inferior schools shall be provided for by means of scholarships in schools of "a higher order, so that superior talent in every class may receive that encourage-"ment and development which it deserves." The amount of the scholarships was to be "fixed at such a sum as may be considered sufficient for the main-"tenance of their holders at the colleges or schools to which they are attached, "and which may often be at a distance from the homes of the students." The scholarship system was therefore one to which the Court of Directors attached the highest value, but they add (paragraph 63) the important injunction:— "We think it desirable that the system of scholarships should be carried out "not only in connexion with those places of education which are under the im-

"mediate superintendence of the State, but in all educational institutions "which will now be brought into our general system."

220. Scholarship Systems in different Provinces.—It thus appears that it was intended, first, to establish a continuous chain of scholarships, connecting the lowest class of institutions with the highest; and secondly, to throw open scholarships on equal terms to pupils of all schools, whether Government or other. Free competition for scholarships has been found to be one of the most effectual means of encouraging and stimulating private effort in education. Further, in any general system of scholarships, it is plain that they should be more liberally bestowed in those Provinces where education is least advanced and where secondary schools are least numerous, so that pupils of ability in elementary schools may have the opportunity of carrying on their education in schools of a higher class. Without such a provision, the most capable students of backward Districts would be unable to prosecute their studies with such success as to fit them for the higher professions and the public service, which as a necessary consequence would then be filled by strangers from a distance. From the subjoined review it will be seen that in only four Provinces have the provisions of the Despatch been carried out with anything like completeness. These are Bengal, Assam, the Central Provinces, and Berar.

Madras.—In Madras the scholarship scheme contemplated in the Despatch has not been brought into effect. In each District in Madras where there is a high school but no college, there is one scholarship of Rs. 10 a month for a matriculated student, to enable him to proceed to a college to read for the First Arts examination. There are also six special Muhammadan scholarships. Except in Ganjam, there are no Government scholarships that may be held by pupils passing from a middle to a high school, nor are there any scholarships tenable at middle schools for boys in primary schools. Free students to the extent of five per cent. of the numbers enrolled at any secondary school are allowed, but the mere exemption from fee payments can hardly be said to be a scholarship in the sense of the Despatch of 1854. The actual expenditure in 1881-82 on scholarships in schools for general education was only Rs. 544, of which Rs. 301 were from Provincial revenues. It is evident that, as remarked by the Director of Public Instruction of Madras, the whole question of scholarships needs careful revision, in order that pupils in outlying primary schools, Government and private, may be enabled to pursue their studies in middle schools, and pupils of middle schools in high schools.

Bombay.—In Bombay there are 12 scholarships tenable by primary school boys in Government middle schools, and 21 tenable by farmers' sons in the agricultural classes of high schools. There are also 235 scholarships awarded and tenable in Government high schools, and 60 similarly attached to Government middle schools of the 1st grade. These ordinary scholarships of high and middle schools are intended not so much to connect middle schools with high schools and high schools with colleges, as to offer incentives to exertion to the students of the school in which the scholarships are given and held. They however serve to attract scholars from distant places to the Government schools. There are 12 University or junior college scholarships given to the best of the matriculated students. These scholarships may be held at any college affiliated to the Bombay University, and are tenable by matriculated students of aided as well as of Government high schools. There are also 8 scholarships open for competition to pupils of three years' standing in any Government or aided school in Sind, and tenable for four years in any college

affiliated to the Bombay University. Aided schools are left to provide scholarships for themselves. Any scholarships that aided school managers may give, they pay for from their own funds. To scholars studying in aided high and middle schools no Government scholarships are open, except the twelve University scholarships and the eight Sind scholarships.

From the system described it is clear that the policy of the Despatch of 1854 has not been carried out. Primary schools are not fully and completely linked to middle schools by means of scholarships, nor middle schools to high schools. The chain of scholarships is confined to Government schools. Thus the clever but poor boy who resides in a town or village remote from the site of a Government middle or high school must obtain admission to a Government school before he can hope by means of the scholarship system to climb from a primary school to a college. The Bombay Government maintain, however, that the intention of the Despatch is practically met by their system of free studentships, and still more by the high development of their primary schools. They urge that the great mass of poor students in primary schools, who in Bengal require scholarships to enable them to proceed to a secondary school, do so in order to reach that standard of education which qualifies for the lower grades of the public service. In Bombay the bifurcation of the course in primary schools enables the village schoolboy to enter the public service without leaving the village school. The provision of free studentships in primary schools is very liberal, and a further small provision of them in secondary schools, coupled with the few existing scholarships, enables at any rate the most promising of the poor scholars who aim higher than the second class certificate of the public service, to proceed to a secondary school. There is much force in these arguments. But useful as a system of free studentships undoubtedly is, they do not provide the special assistance by which the Despatch of 1854 proposed to enable not only poor but clever scholars to advance to the highest kind of education by means of a system of scholarships of substantial value. Neither does it meet the requirement of the Despatch that the pupils of schools under private managers should derive full advantage from the scholarship system.

Bengal.—In Bengal the secondary scholarship system connects upper primary with middle schools, middle schools with high schools, and high schools with colleges. All scholarships are awarded according to the results of public examinations, are open to scholars of all schools, and are tenable in colleges and secondary schools, whether departmental, aided, or unaided. Relatively to the number of schools and scholars, they are more liberally given in backward than in advanced Districts. The provisions of the Despatch have been very fully carried out in Bengal, where the Department has all along maintained that no portion of the Government assignment for education is more usefully spent.

The scholarships awarded in 1881-82 may be thus shown for schools above the lower primary standard:—

Class of Scholarships.	Where tenable.	Period.	Monthly value.	Number awarded.	Government scholarship assignment.
		Years.	Rs.		Rs.
Upper Primary	Middle Schools	2	3	217	15,000
Middle Vernacular	High Schools	4	4	221	
„ English	Ditto	3	5	122	34,000
Junior	Colleges	2	10, 15, 20,	155	45,600

Nine thousand rupees are also spent annually from the Mohsin Endowment Fund on scholarships for Muhammadans, of which amount Rs. 1,872 is the cost of scholarships tenable in high schools, and Rs. 1,632 the cost of 8 junior scholarships tenable in colleges. There are several scholarships, endowed from private funds, among which may be mentioned the Vizianagram scholarships offered to boys in middle schools for proficiency in surveying. The examinations for upper primary and middle scholarships are conducted for each circle by the Inspector, who selects as examiners inspecting officers of the Department, and teachers of Government and other schools. The total fee-receipts from candidates amount to about Rs. 5,000, which is supplemented by a grant of Rs. 1,000 from Government, and this amount is divided among the examiners, at the rate of about Rs. 100 to each. The junior scholarships are awarded to pupils of high schools according to the place which they take in the University matriculation examination, a certain number being allotted beforehand to each Division and District.

The North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—Forty scholarships, each of the value of Rs. 3 a month, are given annually on the results of the middle class vernacular examination to scholars of Government vernacular or tahsili schools. They are tenable for four years in English schools. Forty scholarships, each of the value of Rs. 4, are given to those boys who stand highest in the middle school Anglo-vernacular examination, and are tenable for two years in high schools. Scholarships are given to those scholars of high schools who stand best at the matriculation examination of the Calcutta University, provided they pass in the first division. The scholarships awarded at matriculation are considered to form a part of college expenditure, though given for the encouragement of high school education. The sum spent on scholarships in Government schools, from funds controlled by Government officers and from endowments, was Rs. 34,012. There was no expenditure from local rates on scholarships tenable in aided schools. In recommending the institution of scholarships from such sources, the Provincial Committee observe: "Amongst "a progressive people it is felt to be no less a hardship that a boy of great "natural capacity should be debarred by poverty from prosecuting his studies "as far as his bent will take him, than that a boy of ordinary ability should "be debarred from that modicum of instruction which his equals in rank and "intellect enjoy. In India, where instruction has always been free of cost, this "sentiment is peculiarly strong. It will therefore be quite in accordance with "rational sentiment that provision should be made by Local Boards for scholar-"ships."

Punjab.—The Provincial Report does not state the number of scholarships awarded to students of primary and middle schools respectively. It appears, however, that Rs. 49,256 were spent on scholarships tenable in Government secondary schools of both classes. Nearly the whole sum was paid from public funds; namely, Rs. 13,181 from Provincial revenues and Rs. 33,547 from Local and Municipal Funds; only Rs. 1,650 being derived from endowments. In the opinion of our Provincial Committee, the District Committees are inclined to carry liberality to excess in their provision of scholarships, which, though partly awarded by merit, are commonly of the nature of subsistence allowance, A considerable portion of the fees realised in Government middle schools are merely deductions from scholarships. Until after the appointment of this Commission, no scholarships gained at the middle school examination were open to students in aided high schools. We are of opinion that the instructions of the Despatch have been as largely exceeded in the case of Government schools as they have been neglected in that of aided schools.

Central Provinces.—In the Central Provinces, 70 middle school scholarships tenable for two years in high schools are awarded on the results of the middle school examination, in addition to five scholarships specially attached to the Sagar middle school. The scholarships are open to every boy who has studied at any school in the Central Provinces for three years before the examination, and who is under 17 years of age; they are tenable for two years at any high school, Government or aided. As there are no high schools except at Nagpur and Jabalpur, it is necessary to give scholarships with fair liberality, in order to enable poor but clever students of middle schools to continue their education at a distance from their homes. The value of the scholarships varies from Rs. 5 to Rs. 8 a month, according to the class gained by the scholar at the middle school examination; and its amount is less if he holds his scholarship at his own home than if he has to go to a high school at a distance. Scholarships varying in value from Rs. 9 to 10 a month, and tenable in any college, Government or aided, are also given to the best candidates at the matriculation examination. In 1881-82, 27 scholarships were thus awarded. The foregoing system of scholarships links superior middle schools to high schools and high schools to colleges. To unite inferior with superior middle schools there are also 23 scholarships, tenable for one or two years.

Assam.—In Assam there are 12 middle English scholarships, each of the value of Rs. 5 a month and tenable for two years in a high school; and 23 middle vernacular scholarships, each of the value of Rs. 4 and tenable for four years in a high school. There is also the Vizianagram scholarship, of the monthly value of Rs. 7, given annually to the pupil who passes highest at the middle scholarship examination, and tenable for two years in any high school where surveying is taught, or in an Engineering College. The middle school scholarships connect middle schools with high schools. To connect primary with middle schools, there are also 103 scholarships of the value of Rs. 3 a month, awarded after examination to pupils of primary schools, and tenable for two years in middle schools. To those high school students who stand highest at the matriculation examination of the Calcutta University, 20 scholarships are annually awarded. The scholarships are of two grades,—eleven of Rs. 20 and nine of Rs. 15 a month; and they are tenable for two years at any college in Bengal. The higher scholarships are reserved for the sons of persons actually resident or employed in the Brahmaputra valley Districts; the lower for pupils resident in the more advanced Districts of Sylhet and Cachar. Four of these scholarships are specially reserved for poor and deserving students.

Other Provinces.—A sum of Rs. 25 a month is given in scholarships to deserving students of the single high and middle school in Coorg. In the Haidarabad Assigned Districts, there is a liberal provision of scholarships, tenable in upper primary schools, in middle schools, or in the high or middle departments of the two high schools. Each is of the value of Rs. 5 or 6 a month. Nine scholarships of the value of Rs. 20 a month are given to those boys who stand highest at the matriculation examination of the Bombay University, and are tenable at any college affiliated to that University. All scholarships are open to students of private as well as of Government schools; but no scholarship is awarded to a student in a school situated in the town in which he resides.

281. Recommendations as to Scholarships.—Our Recommendations under this head will be fully understood in connection with what has preceded, and need no further elucidation in detail. They stand as follows:—

(a) That in all Provinces the system of scholarships be so arranged that, as suggested in the Despatch of 1854, they may form connecting links between the different grades of institutions;

(b) That scholarships payable from public funds, including educational endowments not attached to a particular institution, be awarded after public competition without restriction, except in special cases, to students from any particular class of schools;

(c) That scholarships gained in open competition be tenable, under proper safeguards to ensure the progress of the scholarship-holder, at any approved institution for general or special instruction;

(d) That the attention of the Government of Bombay be invited to the fact that, while the Despatch of 1854 provides for the creation of both free and stipendiary scholarships tenable in Government and private schools alike, almost exclusive stress is now laid in that Presidency upon free studentships, and that stipendiary scholarships are confined to students of Government schools;

(e) That the Government of Madras be invited to consider the necessity of revising the system of scholarships in secondary schools in that Presidency, with a view to bringing it into harmony with the provisions of the Despatch of 1854.

282. Recommendations as to Examinations.—Connected with the subject of scholarships is that of departmental examinations. It being understood that scholarships will in future be thrown open to candidates from all classes of schools, Government or private, it becomes a matter of importance to secure the co-operation of managers of aided and unaided schools in the conduct of these examinations. No imputation of unfairness, it should be clearly understood, has been made or suggested against the officers of the Department in the treatment of scholars from non-Government schools as regards these examinations; but the proposal that we have to submit on this point may be supported on two grounds. In the first place, it is desirable to enlarge the area from which competent examiners may be selected; and in the second place, we have little doubt that managers of non-Government schools would see, in the desire of the Department to secure their co-operation, an intention on its part to treat them as friends and allies, to take them into council, and to profit by the suggestions of their experience. We therefore recommend *that in the conduct of all departmental examinations, managers and teachers of the various non-Government schools be associated as far as possible with the officers of the Department.* Again, nothing in this connection is more important than the adoption of any means that are calculated to secure the impartiality and thoroughness of examinations for scholarships or certificates. Such examinations involve heavy additional duties, which are imposed not upon all officers as part of the ordinary routine of work, but upon men selected on account of their special competence. Those duties, we are strongly of opinion, should be remunerated; and men who are thought fit for the work of an examiner should not be compelled to undertake that duty, from which inferior men are exempt, without the satisfaction of feeling that their services are appreciated and rewarded. An examinership should be regarded as a coveted distinction, not as a duty to be shirked or inefficiently discharged in the hope of escaping it in future. The source from which examiners may be paid, either chiefly or wholly, will be found in the fees to be levied from candidates; and we are of opinion that it will often be desirable to supplement that provision by a moderate Government grant, as is done with great advantage even in Bengal where the fee-receipts are large. We therefore recommend *that in order to secure the*

efficiency of departmental examinations, examiners, whether officials or non-officials, be remunerated from the fees levied from candidates, increased when necessary by a grant from Government.

283. Recapitulation of Recommendations.—In all our discussions on the subject of secondary education, and in the Recommendations which we make with regard to it, we have been governed by the conviction that, while the strenuous efforts of the State should be directed in a still larger measure than heretofore to the improvement and extension of the elementary education of the masses, it is no less essential to the welfare of the community that provision should be made for the maintenance and development of colleges and schools of the higher class. At the same time we have indicated a distinction in the claims which primary and secondary education respectively have upon the support of the State, in the Recommendation which follows: *that it be distinctly laid down that the relation of the State to secondary is different from its relation to primary education, in that the means of primary education may be provided without regard to the existence of local co-operation, while it is ordinarily expedient to provide the means of secondary education only where adequate local co-operation is forthcoming; and that therefore, in all ordinary cases, secondary schools for instruction in English should hereafter be established by the State preferably on the footing of the system of grants-in-aid.* The principle herein declared is consistent with the establishment by Government, in exceptional cases, of secondary schools in places where they may be required in the interests of the people, and where the people themselves may not be advanced or wealthy enough to establish such schools for themselves with a grant-in-aid.

Our Recommendations stand as follows:—

(1) That in the upper classes of high schools there be two divisions,—one leading to the Entrance examination of the Universities, the other of a more practical character, intended to fit youths for commercial or other non-literary pursuits;

(2) That when the proposed bifurcation in secondary schools is carried out, the certificate of having passed by the final standard, or if necessary by any lower standard, of either of the proposed alternative courses, be accepted as a sufficient general test of fitness for the public service;

(3) That high and middle schools be united in the returns under the single term "secondary schools," and that the classification of students in secondary schools be provided for in a separate Table, showing the stage of instruction, whether primary, middle, or upper, of pupils in all schools of primary and secondary education;

(4) That a small annual grant be made for the formation and maintenance of libraries in all high schools;

(5) That the Grant-in-aid Code of each Province include provision for giving help to school-managers in the renewal, and if necessary the increase, of their furniture and apparatus of instruction after stated intervals;

(6) That an examination in the principles and practice of teaching be instituted, success in which should hereafter be a condition of permanent employment as a teacher in any secondary school, Government or aided;

(7) That graduates wishing to attend a course of instruction in a Normal school in the principles and practice of teaching be required to undergo a shorter course of training than others;

(8) That the claims of efficient and successful teachers in aided schools be considered in making appointments to posts in the service of Government, and that in cases duly certified by the Education Department the 25 years' rule be relaxed;

(9) That the Director of Public Instruction, in consultation with the ers of schools receiving aid from Government, determine the scale of be charged and the proportion of pupils to be exempted from payment n;

(10) That in order to encourage the establishment of aided schools, the gers be not required to charge fees as high as those of a neighbouring nment school of the same class;

(11) That scholarship-holders, as such, be not exempted from payment of rdinary fees;

(12) That in all Provinces the system of scholarships be so arranged that, ggested in the Despatch of 1854, they may form connecting links between ifferent grades of institutions;

(13) That scholarships payable from public funds, including educational wments not attached to a particular institution, be awarded after public petition without restriction, except in special cases, to students from any icular class of schools;

(14) That scholarships gained in open competition be tenable, under proper guards to ensure the progress of the scholarship-holder, at any approved tution for general or special instruction;

(15) That the attention of the Government of Bombay be invited to the that, while the Despatch of 1854 provides for the creation of both free stipendiary scholarships tenable in Government and private schools alike, ost exclusive stress is now laid in that Presidency upon free student-s, and that stipendiary scholarships are confined to students of Government ols;

(16) That the Government of Madras be invited to consider the necessity evising the system of scholarships in secondary schools in that Presidency, h a view to bringing it into harmony with the provisions of the Despatch 1854;

(17) That in the conduct of all departmental examinations, managers l teachers of the various non-Government schools be associated, as far as sible, with the officers of the Department;

(18) That in order to secure the efficiency of departmental examinations, aminers, whether officials or non-officials, be remunerated from the fees levied m candidates, increased when necessary by a grant from Government;

(19) That the importance of requiring inspecting officers to see that the aching and discipline of every school are such as to exert a right influence on e manners, the conduct, and the character of pupils, be re-affirmed;

(20) That continuous instruction in school without a break do not extend, a rule, beyond three hours;

(21) That in the Punjab the course in Persian of high schools do not tend beyond the standard of the Entrance examination;

(22) That promotions from class to class be left entirely to the discretion the school authorities;

(23) That it be distinctly laid down that the relation of the State to condary is different from its relation to primary education, in that the means primary education may be provided without regard to the existence of local -operation, while it is ordinarily expedient to provide the means of second-y education only where adequate local co-operation is forthcoming; and that erefore, in all ordinary cases, secondary schools for instruction in English be ereafter established by the State preferably on the footing of the system of rants-in-aid.

CHAPTER VI.

COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

284. Review of the Growth of Collegiate Education.—In reviewing the growth of collegiate education in India, it will be convenient to treat separately the two periods before and after the establishment in 1857 of the Universities of Calcutta, Madras, and Bombay. For, though the present scheme of collegiate education had even at an earlier period been worked out in its more important principles, it was affiliation to the University that definitely fixed the aims and shaped the course of collegiate study. Lord William Bentinck's Resolution had, indeed, long before determined the character of the colleges. But it was not at once possible entirely to abandon the old oriental methods for others so strange to a people so conservative. Nor did a number of colleges unconnected with each other constitute a system of collegiate education. There needed some central body to generalise the instruction, and to stamp with its recognition the acquirements of those who should submit themselves to its examinations. By the Universities projected in the Despatch of 1854 these wants were met, and since their foundation the colleges have been able to look upon themselves as component parts of an organised system.

285. The earlier Colleges and their Objects.—The earliest Indian colleges, of whatever foundation, were designed for the cultivation of the classical learning of the Hindus and Musalmans, more especially in so far as that learning bore upon their religion, laws, and customs. Such were the Madrasa at Calcutta, the Sanskrit colleges at Calcutta and Benares, the Arabic and Persian colleges at Surat and Delhi. This preference, however, for the study of oriental classics was one which quickly gave way to an appreciation of the larger benefits to be derived from a knowledge of the English language and of Western modes of thought. Thus, twenty years before Lord William Bentinck's Resolution decided the controversy between the Anglicists and the Orientalists, the Hindus of Calcutta had founded a college "for the education in English "of the children of superior castes;" and when, in 1824, the Committee of Public Instruction decided upon establishing the Calcutta Sanskrit College, it was "against the expressed wishes of a body of native memorialists, with Raja "Ram Mohun Roy at their head, who prayed that the college might be for "English and not Sanskrit learning."

286. Bengal Proper.—In Bengal Proper, the colleges established previous to 1857 were fourteen in number. Of these the earliest was the Calcutta Madrasa founded by Warren Hastings in 1782, and for some years maintained at his expense. The original course of study included not only Arabic and Persian literature, but Muhammadan theology in all its branches, and was designed "to "qualify the Muhammadans of Bengal for the public service, chiefly in the Courts "of Justice, and to enable them to compete, on more equal terms with the Hin-"dus, for employment under Government." At the outset the annual cost of the college was between Rs. 7,000 and Rs. 8,000; in 1785 lands estimated at Rs. 29,142 annually were assigned to it; in 1819 its expenditure was fixed by Government at Rs. 30,000, provided by the public treasury. Benevolent as were the intentions of the founder, and notwithstanding the modifications of

the original plan made from time to time, the college did not prosper. In 1829 an English Department had been constituted, and in this the Bengali language was also taught. Twenty years later an Anglo-Arabic class was added to the Arabic Department, but after a trial of three or four years the Council of Education declared that the measure had "proved quite inadequate to the object." The Council, indeed, confessed that the endeavour to impart a high order of English education to the Muhammadan community had been a complete failure. They, therefore, proposed entirely to remodel the college; and with the assent of Lord Dalhousie it was made to consist of two main divisions—the "Arabic College" for students of the higher branches of the Arabic language and literature (exclusive of science), and a "Junior Department." Upon this footing the Madrasa was maintained till 1869, when fresh changes were made which will be noticed in another part of this Report. The first college, then, founded in Bengal after its conquest by the British, owed its origin to the generosity of a Governor-General, and had for its object the cultivation of oriental learning. The next in order of time was founded by the voluntary contributions of the native gentry of Calcutta for the teaching of the English language and European science. This was in 1817. Subscriptions were collected to the amount of Rs. 61,000 towards the maintenance of the college, but the experiment was at first made upon a small scale and for some years the Hindu College did not number more than sixty or seventy students. It would, indeed, have shortly ceased to exist had not the Government encouraged its continuance by a grant of money and by salutary advice. The appointment as Visitor of Mr. Horace Hayman Wilson, the famous Sanskrit scholar, was one which commended itself to the approval of the native community; and his energetic interest soon "threw new life into "the system." The number of students rapidly increased, and in 1830 they are put down at four hundred, the annual expenditure at that time being over Rs. 26,000. Moreover, although the Committee of Public Instruction still adhered in the main to its preference for orientalism, it was able to recognise the importance and value of this new phase of education. Thus in its report for 1831 we find the Hindu College spoken of in the following terms: "In addition to the measures adopted for the diffusion of English in the pro-"vinces . . . the encouragement of the Vidyalaya or Hindu College of Calcutta "has always been one of the chief objects of the Committee's attention. "The consequence has surpassed expectation,—a command of the English "language and a familiarity with its literature and science have been acquired "to an extent rarely equalled by any schools in Europe. A taste for "English has been widely disseminated, and independent schools conducted "by young men, reared in the Vidyalaya, are springing up in every direction. "The moral effect has been equally remarkable, and an impatience of the "restrictions of Hinduism, and a disregard of its ceremonies, are openly "avowed by many young men of respectable birth and talents, and entertained "by many more who outwardly conform to the practices of their country-"men. Another generation will probably witness a very material alteration "in the notions and feelings of the educated classes of the Hindu community "of Calcutta." From this date the success of the institution was continuous. In 1855 it was merged in the Presidency College then founded by Lord Dalhousie with an establishment of a Principal and eleven Professors at an annual cost of Rs. 1,01,140, and comprising in its course of study Arts, Medicine, Law, and Civil Engineering. Next in order of time was the College established at Serampur in 1818 by the Baptist Missionaries, Drs. Carey, Marshman, and Ward. "The professed object of this

"institution was conversion, and to this end instruction in the tenets of "Christianity was to be combined with Sanskrit and Arabic literature, so as to "give the student a thorough knowledge of the doctrines he was to teach, as "well as of those he was to oppose." "In 1821 it received a munificent "donation from the King of Denmark, consisting of certain premises to the "north-west of the college, and this act of liberality was followed in 1828 by "the grant of a royal charter, giving perpetuity to the institution and its "endowments. At the cession of Serampur to the East India Company, "this charter was confirmed at the especial request of the Danish sovereign. "The ground on which the college stands was purchased chiefly by subscrip-"tion; the entire expense of the buildings, amounting to about £15,000, was "met out of the private funds of the Serampur Missionaries, who were the "first promoters of the undertaking." In 1830, Dr. Duff, who for so many years laboured in the cause of education in India, founded the General Assembly's Institution of the Church of Scotland with the object "of imparting the "highest forms of knowledge, including sound Christian instruction, through "the medium of the English language. Valuable help in the way of procuring "pupils was given at the commencement by the famous Rajah Ram Mohun "Roy;" and shortly afterwards "the Governor General declared publicly that "the college had produced 'unparalleled results.'" The division in the Scottish Church in 1843 led to the establishment of the Free Church Institution, supported by the Free Church of Scotland; while the General Assembly's Institution, temporarily closed in 1844, was reopened in 1846. The two institutions have continued to flourish up to the present date, and are among the most important of the colleges affiliated to the Calcutta University. The four last-mentioned colleges, whatever else the difference of their constitution, had this much in common that they both aimed at imparting "useful learning." Against none of them could it be charged that their promoters bound themselves "to teach "a great deal of what was frivolous, not a little of what was purely mischiev-"ous, and a small remainder indeed in which utility was in any way con-"cerned."* In the Calcutta Sanskrit College, which the Committee of Public Instruction established in 1824, the case was different. There, as in the Benares Sanskrit College, the only science taught was science in accordance with the fairy tales of Hindu imagination. But to such teaching, provided it was accompanied by the study of Sanskrit literature, the Committee had no objection. Themselves accomplished oriental scholars, they believed that no better education could be given to the natives of India than one which familiarised the student with the literary treasures which his forefathers had heaped up. Such learning might conduce nothing to practical success in life. It might not promote good citizenship. It was certain to stereotype error. Yet, in the eyes of the Committee, "the still vigorous pre-"judices" "of both Muhammadans and Hindus" rendered it necessary for the present to adhere to that order of things which was so eloquently denounced in the Despatch of the Court of Directors, dated February 18th, 1824. It was to no purpose that Ram Mohun Roy, the ablest representative of the more advanced members of the Hindu community, expressed "deep "disappointment on the part of himself and his countrymen at the resolution "of Government to establish a new Sanskrit college instead of a seminary "designed to impart instruction in the Arts, Sciences, and Philosophy of "Europe." His letter of protest was treated as scarcely deserving notice, and "it took twelve years of controversy, the advocacy of Macaulay, and the "decisive action of a new Governor General, before the Committee could, as "a body, acquiesce in the policy urged by him."† That the Sanskrit College

* Despatch of Court of Directors, 18th February 1824.
† Howell's Note on Education previous to 1854.

has since done useful work it would be unjust not to acknowledge. But its usefulness began only when, abandoning the idea of employing Sanskrit as a medium of instruction in science and general knowledge, it confined its study of that language to points literary and philological. To such study perhaps hardly sufficient attention has of late years been paid in India; and though in its original constitution the college may have been ill adapted to modern requirements, the existence in Calcutta of the numerous institutions which impart western knowledge by western methods justifies the retention of a special college for the study of a language of such varied importance. The foundation of the Hugli College a few years later was due to circumstances of a special nature. In the year 1806, a Muhammadan gentleman, resident in the Hugli District, died leaving an estate worth Rs. 45,000 a year in trust for "pious uses." Among these "pious uses" were the performance of certain religious rites and ceremonies, the repair of a place of worship, the maintenance of certain establishments, and the payment of certain pensions. A few years later, the trustees of the estate were accused of malversation, and were ultimately dismissed. "The Government then constituted "itself a trustee, and assumed the management of the estate and the superintend-"ence of the disbursements in conjunction with another trustee appointed by "itself."* This was in the year 1816, and for a considerable period the proceeds of the estate seem to have been devoted to the "pious uses" already specified. In however, it was decided to devote a portion of the trust funds to the lation of a college at Hugli. This appropriation "was at the time justi-d on the ground that the maintenance of an educational institution was a ous use, and so within the testator's intentions. The college was opened on e 1st August 1836, and within three days counted 1,200 pupils in the Eng-sh, and 300 in the Oriental Department; the proportion of Muhammadans to Hindus being 31 to 948 in the former, and 138 to 81 in the latter. The "reports for 1836, and the few following years, contain a full account of the "progress of this institution; but nowhere does it appear to have been suffi-"ciently borne in mind that the interpretation placed on the declared intention "of the founder was only applicable to Muhammadan education." This fact has long been a grievance to the Musalman community, and it is only in late years that an effectual remedy has been applied. "But it is only fair to remem-"ber that the Oriental Department, as constituted in 1836, was quite adequate "for the number of students who came forward to avail themselves of it, and "that the Committee of Public Instruction would certainly have enlarged this "Department, had the demand for the kind of education it offered increased."* Besides the above-mentioned institutions there were at Dacca, Berhampur, and Krishnagar Government colleges, to the buildings of which private liberality also contributed; the Doveton, La Martinière, and St. Paul's, private foundations, and the Bhowanipur College maintained by the London Missionary Society. Thus, of the fourteen colleges in existence prior to 1857, six were established by Government, while eight were the result of private effort chiefly on the part of English associations.

287. North-Western Provinces of Bengal.—Turning to the North-Western Provinces of Bengal, we find that four colleges had come into existence before the year 1857. Of these the earliest, that founded at Benares in 1791, was "designed to cultivate the laws, literature, and religion of the "Hindus," and "specially to supply qualified Hindu assistants to European "judges." The funds assigned for its maintenance were "a certain portion of "the surplus revenue of the province" [of Benares], the expenditure sanctioned

* Howell's Note on Education previous to 1854.

for the first year being Rs. 14,000,—a sum which in the following year was increased to Rs. 20,000. For the first thirty years of its existence, the college was little better than a failure. Under its original management it quickly fell into every kind of irregularity and disorder, and the first Superintendent, being charged with embezzlement of funds, was dismissed in 1799. His successor, another Pandit, if more honest, was scarcely more capable. In 1820, therefore, an English officer, Captain Fell, was appointed Superintendent. Certain reforms were introduced, and some progress was made, more especially by the addition of an English Department in 1830. But the real reformers of the college were Mr. John Muir, appointed Principal in 1844, and his successor, Dr. Ballantyne, whose labours continued till 1860. At the outset, the instruction given was confined to the Sanskrit language and literature; Hindus only were admitted, and all the pupils were stipendiaries. The addition of the English Department quickly altered the character of the institution. The purely Sanskrit classes dwindled in numbers as the study of English became more and more popular; non-stipendiary students sought admission, and in 1832 formed about half the attendance. A year or two later stipends were abolished, and fees began to be levied. The natural consequence was a fall in the numbers. This depression, however, did not last long. Before 1854 the muster roll was nearly as high as it had ever been, strict discipline had taken the place of the early laxity, the English Department had classes scarcely inferior to those now reading for the B.A. degree, and the study of Sanskrit was as thorough and as scientific as it had once been antiquated uncritical. The changing conditions of society had of course acted powerfully upon the college, but it was chiefly to Dr. Ballantyne's energy, skill, and learning that Benares owed the quickening of her intellectual life. Whether because of the scanty measure of success which attended the experiment at Benares or because of the unsettled state of the country, we meet with no extension of collegiate education in the North-Western Provinces till the years 1823–25. The colleges then founded at Agra and Delhi differed in some important respects from the older institution. In the first place, admission was unrestricted. In the second, the course of studies was of a more practical character. Though the Sanskrit, Arabic, and Persian languages formed part of the course, these subjects were secondary in importance to the vernaculars, through which Science, Philosophy, and Mathematics were taught. An English Department was early formed in each of the colleges, and the ebb of pupils from the Oriental Department quickly indicated the value placed upon the acquisition of European knowledge. A partial and temporary arrest of the growth of both colleges followed, as at Benares, upon the abolition of stipends and the exaction of fees. At Delhi, indeed, the former measure was so severely felt that for a time the Local Committee found it advisable to revert to the old system. The General Committee, however, though making certain concessions, pronounced firmly against stipends, and their wisdom justified itself; for, if the oriental classes never again reached their former numbers, the more modern education was fast becoming recognised as a necessity, and before 1857 Delhi and Agra boasted of colleges which in point of management, discipline, and the attainments of their scholars, fell but little behind the most successful institutions of Calcutta and its neighbourhood. It should be mentioned that both colleges, though nominally supported by Government, owed a great deal to private liberality. Thus to the maintenance of the Agra College there was appropriated "a fund "amounting to about a lakh and a half of rupees, consisting of collections from "villages formerly held by Gungadhar Pandit, the receipts from which, together "with the annual collections, would exceed Rs. 20,000 per annum." Scarcely less munificent was the bequest of the Nawab Itimad-ud-daulat, Prime Minister to the King of Oudh, who in 1829 endowed the Delhi College with the sum of Rs. 1,70,000. To the colleges already mentioned has to be added that at Bareli, which in 1850 arose out of the high school founded in 1836.

288. Madras.—Collegiate education in the Madras Presidency needs but a comparatively brief account: for while Bengal and Bombay started with the attempt to cultivate the classical languages of the East, and to educate their students in the theological and legal lore of the faith to which they belonged, in Madras it was recognised from the first that the only sound basis for the higher education lay in a training according to European methods. One reason of this difference is to be found in the date at which that higher education was set on foot. Of the institutions in Madras which previous to 1857 had a claim to be called colleges, none date further back than 1837; none, that is, came into existence till the controversy between the Anglicists and the Orientalists had been finally decided. Another reason was that the old religious literature had less hold on the affections of the people, and that the importance of conciliating religious feeling had not impressed itself so strongly upon the Madras Government. The colleges, therefore, from their first beginning were in character much what they now are, though in efficiency and completeness great strides have since been made. To a Missionary body belongs the honour of having founded the first institution of the kind, the General Assembly's Institution, as its earlier title was, the Madras Christian College, as it is now called. Here alone, for several years, could a native of Southern India obtain a liberal education. The Presidency College which came into existence as a High School in 1841, and in a few years was practically a college, did not receive the higher title till 1855; while St. Joseph's College, which was founded at Negapatam in 1846 by the Jesuits in charge of the Madura Mission, only entered upon its enlarged field of operations some years after the establishment of the Madras University.

289. Bombay.—In the Bombay, as in the Bengal, Presidency, the earlier collegiate education was of the oriental type, the first college, that founded at Poona in 1821, being designed "for the encouragement of the study of Sanskrit and of ancient Hindu literature and science." The college opened with early a hundred students, the annual outlay being Rs. 25,250. So small, however, was its success that in 1823 the Court of Directors had all but determined to cut short its existence. From this fate it was saved by the protest of Mountstuart Elphinstone, who urged that when once the college had become an established place of resort for Brahmans, it would be easy to introduce such gradual improvements in its organisation as would make the institution a powerful instrument for the diffusion of knowledge and for the encouragement of the learning of the country. In 1834 the constitution of the college was remodelled, and from 1837, when Captain Candy was appointed superintendent, steady progress began to be made. Certain branches of Hindu learning were dropped, the study of the vernacular and of English was introduced, and the college was opened to all classes. About the same time the medical class, which had been closed, was reopened; and European medical works were studied in conjunction with the more useful portions of the Sanskrit treatises which had originally formed the course of instruction. In 1851-52 the separate English and Normal (Vernacular) Schools at Poona were amalgamated with the Sanskrit and Vernacular College, and thus was laid the foundation of the present Arts College, which began working in 1857 and was affiliated to the Bombay University in 1860. The Presidency, or Elphinstone, College had its origin in a fund raised in 1827 for the foundation of "one or more "professorships (to be denominated the Elphinstone professorships, and to be

"held by gentlemen from Great Britain until the happy period arrive, when "natives shall be perfectly competent to hold them)."* The control of these professorships was to be vested in the hands of the "Bombay Native Education "Society for teaching the English language, and the arts, sciences, and litera- "ture of Europe." The subscriptions, with accumulations, ultimately reached the sum of Rs. 4,43,901, and the Court of Directors, glad to give effect to a desire which had expressed itself in so practical a manner, authorised the founda- tion of the Elphinstone College. "Mr. Elphinstone was empowered to select "the first professors, and in 1834 the Bombay Government undertook the "general superintendence of the college, and to defray all expenditure in excess "of the income derived from the fees and endowment funds. The amount of "this subsidy was Rs. 22,000 per annum, and it was continued at this rate "down to the year 1864. The immediate control of the college was vested "in a council of nine trustees. Suitable professors were selected. Dr. "Harkness arrived from England in 1835, and at the beginning of the follow- "ing year, with Mr. Bal Gangadhar Shastri as Assistant Professor, the first "lectures were delivered in English literature and modern science. In its first "year the college was endowed with twelve scholarships, founded in honour "of Sir Edward West, a former Chief Justice of Bombay. Notwithstanding "these endowments and the éclat of its foundation, the Elphinstone College "did not prosper. It was not placed under the management of the Native "Education Society, and thus the college and the Society's central English "schools, which were its main feeders, necessarily exhibited the usual results "of divided counsel and dual management. Government resolved, therefore, "to unite the two classes of institutions, and in April 1840 the school and "college classes were united into one institution, called the Elphinstone Insti- "tution, and placed under a Board of Education, which consisted of three "members appointed by Government and three by the Native Education "Society as its final act. The English classes of the institution after the "amalgamation contained 681 pupils, of whom 341 paid a fee of one rupee "monthly."† In 1844 a class was added for instruction in Surveying and Civil Engineering under a Professor specially engaged by the Court of Directors, and two years later a Professor of Botany and Chemistry was added to the staff. The Poona and Elphinstone Colleges, though differing in their original object, had thus, before 1857, become colleges of the purely modern type. The Surat Arabic College, on the other hand, maintained through its original constitution. Founded in 1809 by Muhammadans of the Borah class, it had in 1824 acquired considerable repute and was attended by 125 students, of whom came from distant parts of the country and were boarded on college premises. The annual expenditure at this date is stated to have been Rs. 32,000. Thirty years later it was still in a flourishing condition; "secular studies never forming more than a nominal part of the college "curriculum, the institution was never considered to be entitled to any aid "from Government,"† and recently, for various reasons, it has fallen into complete decay.

290. Collegiate Education from 1857 to 1882.—Collegiate education in the pre-University period was so various in its types, and so changing in its character, that it has been necessary to illustrate it by reference at some length to individual colleges. From the foundation of the Universities it became more nearly uniform; and in tracing its history from 1857 to the present date, we may confine ourselves pretty closely to statistics. The one great feature

* Record of a Meeting held in Bombay, in August 1827.
† Bombay Provincial Report, pp. 8, 9.

that marks the quarter of a century with which we are now dealing is the large increase in the number of non-Government colleges. Of these the Missionary bodies, of whatever denomination, have been the chief founders. But there is also a goodly proportion of highly successful colleges which owe their existence to the enterprise of native societies or to the liberality of native Princes and Chiefs.

291. Madras.—In Madras, between 1854 and 1871, there were five Government colleges with an attendance at the latter date of 288 students. The non-Government colleges were seven with 151 students. Two of the Government colleges and the Free Church Mission Institution taught up to the B.A. standard. Between 1872 and 1881 there were ten Government and fourteen non-Government colleges, of which latter twelve received grants-in-aid. The number of students in the twenty-four colleges had risen from 439 in 1872 to 1,521 in 1881; and during the ten years, 1,624 candidates had passed the F.A., 726 the B.A., and 17 the M.A. examinations of the Madras University.

292. Bombay.—In Bombay at the incorporation of the University two colleges only, both maintained by Government, were affiliated. A year later their number was increased by the addition of the Free General Assembly's Institution, and in 1869 St. Xavier's College came on to the list. In the four years from 1861 to 1864 the average of students who each year passed the F.A., B.A., and M.A. examinations was respectively 14, 7, and 1. The corresponding averages for the years 1865 to 1870 were 31, 15, 4, and for the years 1871 to 1881, 63, 30, 3. At the latter date the colleges were six* in number, of which two were maintained by Missionary bodies. Four of these colleges were of the first grade, two of the second.

293. Bengal.—As might be expected, the greater wealth of the province and its earlier commercial intercourse with England have combined to make Bengal foremost in the number of its students. Omitting institutions for professional or special training, Bengal had in 1854-55 six Government colleges with 192 students, and eight non-Government colleges, the number of whose students is not stated. Eight years later there were fifteen colleges, of which the seven maintained by Government had in them 579 students. From 1862-63 to 1870-71, the number of Government colleges increased from seven to eleven, five non-Government colleges received grants-in-aid, and there were three unaided colleges. At the end of the next decade the Government colleges were twelve in number with 1,260 students; while the five aided and three unaided colleges had together almost precisely the same total. Of the Government colleges seven were of the first grade, and five, including the college classes of the Bethune Female School, of the second.

294. North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—By the transfer of the Delhi District to the Punjab at the close of the Mutiny, the North-Western Provinces lost one of their most successful colleges. The remaining three continued to prosper, and between 1862 and 1871 they passed 96 candidates at the F.A., 26 at the B.A., and 5 at the M.A. examinations of the Calcutta University. Besides the Government colleges there were also in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh five aided colleges, from which during the same period 24 candidates had been successful at the F.A. examination and 3 at the B.A. Between 1872 and 1881, the Government and aided colleges

* Excluding the Grant Medical College and the College of Science at Poona, both of which prepare candidates for the degree of Bachelor of Science.

varied from 6 to 10; in the first of these years there were 9, in the last 8.* The total number of students at the end of the period was 339,* and during the ten years the successful candidates at the University examinations were in the F.A. 365, in the B.A. 130, in the M.A. 34. The Muir College, Allahabad, which began working in 1872, had its origin in a desire to centralise the higher education, English and Oriental. It was expected that the new college would "gradually draw to itself all the young men of the" (North-Western) "Provinces who may wish to obtain the Calcutta University degrees "of B.A. or M.A., and especially such as read for Honours." . . . . It should "also become a centre of education in another aspect, as the focus of an im-"proved system of vernacular education. It is intended to affiliate with the "Allahabad College all vernacular schools in the Provinces by means of annual "examinations, and to transfer pupils thus selected for advanced instruction in "science through the medium of the vernacular, and in oriental classics, with a "view to the conferment of appropriate titles or Orders of Merit, suited to the "usages of the country."† To provide funds for the staff required for such an institution, it was found necessary to reduce the number of European Professors in the three other colleges at Agra, Bareli, and Benares. Thus weakened, these colleges fell off in efficiency; while the declaration that no scholarships would be given in them to students reading for any examination higher than that for the B.A. degree, the feeling that the central college was the object of especial favour, the fact that its staff of Professors was more numerous than that of the other colleges and so afforded greater option in the course of studies, the richer endowment of local scholarships, and the belief that Government would before long withdraw from the support of any but this one college, combined to impoverish and depreciate the less favoured colleges, one of which, that at Bareli, had to be closed in 1876. If, then, the Muir College has partially succeeded in one of its two objects, that of drawing to itself the more promising students of the Province, its success has not been without drawbacks, and we cannot be surprised that dissatisfaction should be felt in many quarters at such an outlay, while the various claims upon the State purse for help towards other kinds of education still remain unsatisfied. The only logical sequel, as it appears to us, of the policy adopted in the North-Western Provinces in founding, under the circumstances described, a new college at Allahabad, was to close the other colleges as soon as it came into working order. To allow their continuance in impaired strength and with a prospect of eventual disestablishment, was to ensure their gradual decay.

295. Punjab.—The Delhi College, which had been closed after the Mutin was revived by the Punjab Government in 1864, when a second college wa established at Lahore; an aided college was also maintained at the former plac by the American Mission from 1865 to 1868. In 1877 the college class at Delhi were closed in order that the staff of the Government College at Laho might be strengthened without an increase of expenditure. Previous to the abolition the Delhi College had passed 61 candidates at the F.A., 18 at the B.A and 4 at the M.A. examinations: the average number of students on the rol in its last year was 37. During the 18 years of its existence, the Lahore Colleg has passed 84 candidates at the F.A. examination, 25 at the B.A., and 7 at the M.A. Its students in 1882 numbered 103. Reference to the constitution of the Punjab Oriental College has already been made, and a fuller description will be found later on. Shortly after the abolition of the Delhi College a effort was made to resuscitate it on the basis of an aided college. Some sixty

* Excluding Oriental Departments.

† Extract from letter of Mr. Kempson, Director of Public Instruction, to the Secretary to Governmen North-Western Provinces, dated 5th January 1872.

thousand rupees were promised, but the Lieutenant-Governor considered this sum quite insufficient and was, moreover, unwilling to recognise annual subscriptions as a stable source of income. Under these circumstances, the Cambridge Mission, which was preparing to form a college class for students connected with the Mission, offered to establish an aided college for the benefit of the public at large. This offer was accepted by Government, and a grant-in-aid of Rs. 5,400, together with a special grant of Rs. 2,000 for scientific apparatus, was sanctioned for the first year.

296. Central Provinces.—In the Central Provinces there is only one Government college, which is situated at Jabalpur, and which, though affiliated up to the B.A. standard, has not as yet sent up candidates for that examination. Students, therefore, wishing to proceed to the B.A. or M.A. degree have hitherto joined one or other of the colleges in the North-Western Provinces. But so satisfactory has been the progress of the college since in 1870-71 it began to compete for University distinctions, that in our Recommendations we have invited the attention of the Local Government to the subject of sanctioning a staff adequate to the full University course. During the past year several well-attended meetings were held in various parts of the Province with the object of securing the establishment of at least one first grade college, and it is hoped that the liberality of the wealthier classes will second in a substantial manner such measures as may be taken by the Government to meet their wishes. An aided college has also been established in the current year by the Mission of the Free Church of Scotland at Nagpur.

297. Ajmir.—The high school at Ajmir was in 1868 raised to the status of a college, which since that time has sent up candidates to the F.A. examination of the Calcutta University, and also, of late years, to the High Proficiency examination of the Punjab University.

298. Colleges needing special Notice.—Of the colleges established between 1857 and 1882, there are three whose origin and character seem to need some special notice. These are the Canning College at Lucknow, the Oriental College at Lahore, and the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh.

299. The Canning College, Lucknow.—First of these in order of time comes the Lucknow College founded in 1864 by the talukdars of Oudh in grateful memory of the generous treatment they received from Lord Canning at the close of the Mutiny. In order to ensure the permanence of the institution the talukdars bound themselves and their heirs, by a special deed, to allow the half per cent. cess on the land revenue to be levied by Government for the benefit of the college. Originally the amount derived from this source was Rs. 25,000 a year, and an annual grant of the same value was then made by the Government of India, and has been continued up to the present date. Since the revision of settlements, the average income from the talukdars' endowment has for the last five years been Rs. 40,918. In addition to the endowment and the grant-in-aid, the receipts from fees average Rs. 5,000 a year. The college, which is managed by a Committee of six Government officers and an equal number of talukdars, has two departments, the English and the Oriental. In the former it is affiliated to the Calcutta University, at whose examinations it has since 1869 passed 116 candidates for the F.A., 45 for the B.A., and 9 for the M.A. Progress on its Oriental side, in which the studies are exclusively Arabic, Sanskrit, and Persian, has been principally tested by the examinations of the Punjab University College, and here again its success has been considerable. In everything connected with the college, and its oriental branch

more especially, the talukdars take the deepest interest. Looking on the institution as one founded by themselves, they are not unnaturally jealous of Government interference; but they welcome improvements, provided they themselves are associated with the agency for carrying them out.

300. The Oriental College at Lahore.—The Oriental College at Lahore is one of the most important constituents of the Punjab University College. Originally a school, it was in 1870 raised to its present status, and now consists of the following classes: two Sanskrit classes, two Arabic, two Persian, two Punjabi; four for Proficiency * and High Proficiency * in Arts in Urdu and Hindi, and one for Honours in Arts in Urdu. Since 1871-72, 21 candidates have passed the Proficiency, 2 the High Proficiency, and 1 the Honour examination in Sanskrit, 27 have passed the Middle and 10 the Higher examination; in Arabic, 31 the Middle and 15 the Higher; in Persian, 69 the Middle and 26 the Higher; in Punjabi, 4 the Middle. At the end of the year 1881-82, the number on the rolls was 122, of whom 43 were Hindus, 71 Musalmans, and 8 Sikhs. Persian was studied by 25, Arabic by 37, Sanskrit by 19, and Gurmukhi, or Sikh literature, by 10. Students in the College Department have passed the Entrance or some other University examination, or are studying for one of the higher examinations of the University, but otherwise there is no strict line of separation between the college and school. For the Urdu and Hindi classes translations from European works have been published in such subjects as arithmetic, algebra, Euclid, trigonometry, the elements of statics, history (ancient and modern), geography, psychology, political economy, chemistry, physics, descriptive astronomy, hydrostatics, dynamics, logic (deductive and inductive), &c. Whether these translations are adequate to the purpose is a matter of controversy on which no opinion can here be given, since the dispute has not yet been referred to any competent tribunal for adjudication. The essential point in which this college differs from other oriental colleges is, that while it cultivates the oriental classical languages, it also claims to impart the higher branches of European knowledge and science through the medium of the Indian vernaculars.

301. The Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh.—The circumstances that gave rise to the foundation of the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh are thus described in a letter from the Honourable Sayyid Ahmad Khan, Bahadur, Honorary Secretary, Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College Fund Committee, to the Director of Public Instruction, North-Western Provinces, dated June 1881: "It will be sufficient to say that a body of "influential Muhammadan gentlemen, who interested themselves in education, "being mournfully aware of the backwardness of the Muhammadan popula "tion in the matter of English education, regarded the circumstance as a grea "evil, not only to the immediate moral, social, and political welfare of their own "co-religionists, but to the country at large. Their enquiries roused the most "serious apprehensions in regard to the future of their co-religionists under the "British rule, and they formed themselves into a committee to raise funds for "establishing the present college. The original object of some of the supporters of the committee was to confine the college to the Muhammadans for whose special benefit educational facilities were to be provided. But so much good-will, sympathy, and generosity were displayed by the Hindu nobility and gentry, that the committee in establishing the college declared it open to Hindu students also, especially as the curriculum (beyond religious in-

* The terms given by the Punjab University to examinations equivalent in difficulty to the F.A. and B.A. of other Indian Universities.

"struction) pursued in the college suited Hindus and Muhammadans alike, "and the former showed a readiness to join the college. In the matter of scho-"larships, prizes and other college rewards, the rules of the college show no "partiality to either Hindus or Muhammadans, whilst the committee has pro-"vided separate boarding-houses for Hindu students. The college is conducted "upon the most advanced principles of toleration, and whilst the immediate "control of it is vested in a European Principal and a European Head-Master, "the staff of Professors and Teachers consists of Hindus and Muhammadans. "The committee can congratulate themselves upon the circumstance that they "have never observed the smallest indication of any feeling other than friendly "spirit between the Hindu and Muhammadan students, and they are sincerely "convinced that the college (though naturally a place of exceptional attrac-"tion to Muhammadan students) may, as an educational agency, be regarded "as suited alike to Hindus and Muhammadans." The committee formed for the collection of funds began its work in 1872, and up to the present time the amount realised is something over three lakhs of rupees, exclusive of the contributions to the building fund. The annual income of the college is Rs. 34,000, while the expenditure for the last year exceeded the income by Rs. 2,538. Fully to carry out the scheme of the college, it is calculated that the income must be raised to Rs. 60,000 per annum; but it may reasonably be expected that the Government will before long find it possible to increase the amount of its grant-in-aid (now only Rs. 6,000* out of Rs. 34,000), and a considerable addition will accrue from the fees as soon as a larger number of quarters is completed for the residence of boarders. For the college buildings, including 164 rooms for boarders, a sum of Rs. 5,31,000 will ultimately be required, and of this Rs. 1,62,963 has already been subscribed. At present the buildings completed consist of eleven class rooms, and one central hall; twenty-five rooms for first class boarders, and forty-nine for those of the second class; a house for the head-master; a small dispensary and some temporary boarding-houses. Besides these, the foundations of the entire college have been sunk, a park has been laid out, and the wall on one side of the college grounds has been finished. Beginning with about 20 students in June 1875, the school and college now contain nearly 300, of whom 29 are in the latter department. Since 1877, 55 candidates have gone up for the Entrance examination, of whom 36 have passed; 10 out of 17 have succeeded in the F.A. during the three years the college has been affiliated up to that standard; and there are now 8 students reading for the B.A. degree. As originally constituted, the college had two departments, the English and the Oriental. In the former, all subjects were taught in English; Arabic, Persian or Sanskrit, being taken up as a "second language;" in the latter, either Arabic or Persian was studied for its literature; while history, geography, mathematics, &c., were taught in Urdu, and English became the "second language." But this Department, which has never attracted many students, and now numbers 15 only, will probably be abolished before long. At the head of the college is a European Principal, with seven Native Professors, three of whom are Masters of Arts in the Calcutta University; the school has a European Head-Master, seven Native English Teachers, and six Arabic, Persian, and Hindi Teachers. In scholarships the college awarded Rs. 3,764 during the past year. Of these, some were from permanent endowments for special purposes, such as the Patiala and the Northbrook scholarships, some from yearly donations by private gentlemen, and some from the college income. Religious instruction is given to Sunnis by a Sunni Teacher, to Shias by one of their own sect, in either Arabic or Persian, according as the one language or the other has been chosen by the student for his college course; and the managing commit-

* The grant has since been raised to Rs. 12,000 a year.

tee is willing that similar instruction should be given to Hindu students in their own sacred books. The business of the college is managed by two committees; one, composed of Native and European gentlemen, dealing with matters of instruction only; the other, composed entirely of Native gentlemen, which regulates the general concerns of the institution. Much of the popularity of the college is due to the provision for the residence of students belonging to families of the upper classes. The rooms of the first class boarders are scarcely less comfortable than those of an undergraduate at Oxford or Cambridge, and the Musalmans take their meals together in a dining hall. To a first class boarder the cost of living at the college is about Rs. 300 a year, which includes rent, board, medical attendance, and tuition fees: a second class boarder pays about Rs. 190. Of the two classes there were, in 1881-82, 171 in residence, of whom 16 were Hindus. At the outset, the undertaking met with very great opposition from many Musalmans of the old school. All sorts of rumours were spread abroad as to the character of the institution and the heterodoxy of the supporters. Fortunately, however, the originator of the scheme, the Honourable Sayyid Ahmad Khan, was not to be daunted by opposition, or deterred by want of sympathy. In the esteem of the more liberal minded of his co-religionists he held the highest place; and his perseverance was before long rewarded by the hearty co-operation of powerful friends. Chief among those who came forward to his support was Sir Salar Jung, Prime Minister to the Nizam. His lead was followed by many influential Musalmans in all parts of the country; and though the college funds are at present insufficient for the complete working of the scheme, the number of students is now limited chiefly by the want of accommodation. If, then, the Musalmans are to be reproached for not having availed themselves at an earlier stage of the benefits of the education offered them by Government, they have certainly set an example to the generality of the population by founding and maintaining, almost without State aid, a college in some respects superior to any educational institution in India, and one which bids fair to be of the greatest importance from a political as well as from an educational point of view.

302. Colleges maintained by Native Princes and Chiefs.—The following colleges owe their existence to the enlightened liberality of Native Princes and Chiefs: The Haidarabad College, maintained by His Highness the Nizam; the Mysore and Bangalore Colleges, and the Shimaga High School maintained by the Mysore Government; the Trevandram College, maintained by His Highness the Maharaja of Travancore; the Vizianagram College maintained by His Highness the Maharaja; the Kerala Vidyasala, Calicut maintained by His Highness the Zamorin Maharaja Bahadur; the High School Cochin, maintained by the Cochin Government; the College at Puddukotta maintained by the Maharaja; the Rajaram College, maintained by the Kolhapur State; the Baroda College, maintained by His Highness the Gaekwar; the Kathiawar Rajkumar College at Rajkot; the Bardwan College, maintained by the Maharaja; the Jaipur College, maintained by His Highness the Maharaja; the Sehor High School, maintained by Her Highness the Begum of Bhopal and the neighbouring Chiefs; the Patiala College, maintained by His Highness the Maharaja; the Rajkumar College in Bundelkhand, maintained by the Chiefs of that territory; and the Residency College at Indore. Most of these are in Native States, and do not appear in our statistical Tables; but they deserve mention here as a striking proof that educational progress is not confined to British India.

303. Statistics from 1857 to 1871, and from 1871 to 1882.—The two

owing Tables exhibit in a summary form some of the more important results collegiate education from 1857 to 1882:—

Collegiate Education in 1857—1870-71.

Province.	Maximum number of English Arts Colleges during 1857-1870-71.	Number of Students who passed the F.A., B.A., and M.A. Examinations.			Remarks.
		F.A.	B.A.	M.A.	
Madras	12	784	152	6	
Bombay	4	244	116	28	
Bengal	17	1,495	548	112	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	9	96	26	5	
Punjab	4	47	8	...	
Total	46	2,666	850	151	

Collegiate Education in 1871-72—1881-82.

Province.	Maximum number of English Arts Colleges during 1871-72-1881-82.	Number of Students who passed the F.A., B.A., and M.A. Examinations.			Remarks.
		F.A.	B.A.	M.A.	
Madras	25	2,032	890	22	
Bombay	6	709	340	34	
Bengal	22	2,666	1,037	285	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	9	365	130	33	
Punjab*	2	107	37	11	
Central Provinces	1	90	...	...	
Total	65	5,969	2,434	385	

* Passes in the Calcutta University only are shown in this table. Honours in degrees gained in the Punjab University College and University are excluded.

304. The Scope and Character of collegiate Instruction.—In scope and character, collegiate instruction is now almost uniform throughout India. Purely Oriental colleges must, of course, be excepted. These, however, are so few in number that they scarcely enter into a consideration of collegiate education in its modern development. With the exception, indeed, of the Oriental College at Lahore, and of the Oriental department of the Canning College, Lucknow, they are but relics of that order of things which existed previous to the publication of Lord William Bentinck's famous Resolution. The college of to-day aims at giving an education that shall fit its recipient to take an honourable share in the administration of the country, or to enter with good hope of success the various liberal professions now expanding in vigorous growth. It follows, therefore, that the advancement of learning in India is in large measure through science, and altogether according to the scientific method. The English and Oriental classics, of course, occupy an important place in the college scheme; but, apart from the refinement of character and elevation of thought which are incidental to their study, their chief function is to discipline the intellect. In history, philosophy, mathematics, and physical science, English is the medium of instruction and the passport to academic honours. The dialectics of Hindu philosophy and the subtleties of

Muhammadan law have naturally disappeared from a course of studies intended to be of so practical a character; the profound scholarship and lifelong devotion to learning which India once boasted, are sacrifices made to the appreciation of an active career. Few regrets are felt on this score, though there are those who hold that the present exclusive use of English is neither beneficial nor necessary. Through the vernaculars, to some extent already and largely in the near future, they believe that general knowledge of the higher kind might be imparted, and that an education of wider national profit would be the certain result. Meanwhile we are dealing with things as they are.

305. Duration of College Courses, and Standards of Examination.—In Bengal, the college course extends over five years from matriculation to the M.A. degree. In Madras, there is a course of four years up to the B.A. degree, and those who appear for the M.A. examination commonly spend at least two years more in study, though none of the colleges have regular classes beyond the B.A. standard. In Bombay, three years is the period; but, on the other hand, the school course is one year longer, and the Entrance examination of a somewhat more difficult character. The usual age at which an Indian student seeks admission to the University is between sixteen and eighteen years. Having by that time completed the high school course, he is examined by means of printed papers (and, in the Bombay and Punjab Universities, orally) in English, a classical or vernacular language, history, geography, mathematics, and, in Madras and Bombay, in elementary physical science. The exact standard in each of these subjects need not be stated here. But, roughly speaking, the knowledge required is about that which at the age of sixteen an English boy of average intelligence will be found to possess. Success in this examination admits a student to any of the affiliated colleges. There, after attendance for two years (for one year in Bombay), he is permitted to present himself for the First Examination in Arts, or the Previous Examination as it is styled in Bombay. At the Calcutta University the subjects of examination are English, a classical language (Oriental or European), history, mathematics, logic, and either psychology or elementary chemistry. In Madras, human physiology holds the place of logic, psychology, or chemistry in the Calcutta course. In Bombay the scheme is identical with that in Calcutta, except that natural science takes the place of the optional subject. Two years later again (in Bombay there is an intermediate examination) comes the examination for the B.A. degree. Of this examination it may be as well to give the exact subjects taken up in 1882 by undergraduates of the Calcutta University, the standard being almost precisely the same in the three Universities. Those subjects in the two alternative courses, which correspond with the courses for the B.A. and the B.Sc. of the Bombay University, were as follows:—

A. COURSE.

I.—Languages.

(a) *English.*—King Lear, Julius Cæsar, Merchant of Venice: Paradise Lost, books III to VI: Hyperion: Burke's Reflections on the French Revolution: Morley's Life of Burke: Church's Spenser (English Men of Letters): Stopford Brooke's Prime of English Literature.

(b) One of the following languages:—

Greek.—The Philoctetes and the De Corona.

Latin.—Georgics, III and IV: Pro Cluentio: Germania.

Sanskrit.—Kumar Sambhava I-VII: Meghaduta: Sakuntala.

Hebrew.—Deuteronomy; Psalms, I-XII; Isaiah, I-XXXIX; Daniel, I-VII; Proverbs.

Arabic.—Tarikh-i-Yamani: Hamasah, Mutanabi.

Persian.—Veqai Niamat Khan Ali (the first-half): Durra-i-Nadiri (50 pages): Qasaid Khaqani (50 pages): Qasaid Badar Chachi (50 pages).

Pali.—Kacchayano: Abhidhamma Sangaha.

II.—Mixed Mathematics.

Mechanics; Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, and Pneumatics; Astronomy, Descriptive (as distinguished from Practical and Physical Astronomy); the Solar System, Phenomena of Eclipses.

III and IV.

Two of the following three subjects marked (*a*), (*b*), and (*c*):—

(*a*)

1. Mental Philosophy, Hamilton's Lectures;
2. Moral Philosophy, as in Fleming;

or

2. Butler's Analogy, Part I; Dissertation on Virtue, Sermons, I, II, III;

or

2. Logic, as in Fowler's Inductive Logic;

(*b*)

1. History of England, Green's Short History;
2. History of India, during the Hindu, Muhammadan, and British periods down to 1835;
3. Arnold's Lectures on Modern History;

or

3. Mill on Representative Government;

or

3. The History of the Jews, from the beginning of the monarchy to the Destruction of Jerusalem by Titus;

(*c*)

Algebra, Plane Trigonometry (as laid down in the course for Honours), Analytical Conic Sections.

B. COURSE.

I.—English, as in the A Course:

II.—Mathematics, as II of the A Course:

III.—Inorganic Chemistry, as in Roscoe:

IV.—Physical Geography, and one of the following to be selected by the candidate:—

(a) Acoustics, Thermotics, Optics, Magnetism, Electricity (as in Ganot).

(b) General Physiology, Animal Physiology, Zoology.

(c) General Physiology, Vegetable Physiology, Botany.

(d) Geology, Mineralogy, Palæontology.

306. Subjects for the M.A. Degree.—The B.A. degree is followed by the M.A. degree. Here the examination is practically confined to one or other of the following branches of knowledge: (1) Languages; (2) History; (3) Mental and Moral Philosophy; (4) Mathematics, pure and mixed; (5) Natural and Physical Science. At Calcutta the candidate is allowed to take up one or more of these branches either in the same or in different years; in Madras and Bombay a classical language (Oriental or European) is coupled with English, and Philosophy with History and Political Economy. With the M.A. degree the college course comes to an end, though in the Calcutta University the Premchand Roychand Studentship is the final goal of academic distinction. Even to the M.A. degree only a very small proportion of students have hitherto persevered. Thus, in 1881-82, the successful candidates in the various examinations were as follows:—

	First Arts or Previous Examination.	B.A.	M.A.
Calcutta	356	105	32
Madras	366	125	5
Bombay	71	36	3
TOTAL	793	266	40

307. Grades of Colleges and tuitional Staff.—The affiliated colleges are of two grades; those whose students go no further than the First Arts, or Previous Examination, and those in which they proceed to the B.A. and M.A. degrees. The strength of the teaching staff varies with the wealth of the institution, the number of the students, and the class of examinations for which candidates are sent up. Thus the Presidency College in Calcutta has a Principal, eleven Professors, and two teachers of Sanskrit and Arabic. This staff provides for lectures being given in all the various subjects of all the examinations. A smaller college will be content with a Principal, two Professors, a Pandit, and a Maulavi; but with no larger staff than this, restrictions are necessary as to the choice of subjects in the alternative courses, and but little help can be afforded to students reading for the M.A. degree.

308. Boarding-Houses.—In their scheme of discipline, and in the academic life of their students, Indian colleges have but little analogy with those of the older of the English Universities, their resemblance being closer to those of Scotland and Germany. Residence in college buildings is not only not generally compulsory, but the colleges are few in which any systematic provision is made for control over the students' pursuits out of college hours. Boarding-houses are, indeed, attached to certain institutions, and their number increases year by year. But, unless the student's home be at a distance from the collegiate city and he have no relatives to receive him, it is seldom that he will incur the expense which residence involves. Two principal reasons account for this feature in our system. First, the initial outlay upon buildings is one from which Government and independent bodies alike shrink. For so poor is the Indian student that it would be impossible to demand of him any but the most moderate rent—a rent perhaps barely sufficient to cover the cost of the annual repairs. The second obstacle lies in the religious and social prejudices which fence class from class. Not only does the Hindu refuse to eat with

the Musalman, but from close contact with whole sections of his own co-religionists he is shut off by the imperious ordinances of caste. Experience, however, has already proved that the barriers of custom are giving way. In the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, where the residential system has been widely tried, the success has been considerable; and nothing but want of funds stands in the way of a fuller development. In the more important Bombay colleges, also, a considerable number of the students are in residence; in Bengal and Madras the system has been less fully recognised. Yet it is the one thing which will give the Departmental officer a hold upon the lives of those whose intellects he trains with such sedulous elaboration. From any attempt to touch the religious side of the student's character, the Government Educational officer is debarred by the principle of religious neutrality. All the more important therefore is it that he should be able to exercise the moral influence of a close and watchful discipline.

309. Oriental Colleges.—We have mentioned "purely oriental colleges." Of such, strictly speaking, there now-a-days remain but three, *viz.*, the Oriental College at Lahore, the Oriental Department of the Canning College, Lucknow, and the Sanskrit Department of the Benares College. In the two former, Sanskrit, Arabic, and Persian literature are the subjects of instruction; at Benares, Sanskrit alone. The once purely Oriental colleges in Calcutta now include in their studies a certain admixture of English. Thus in the Sanskrit College, though the cultivation of Sanskrit scholarship is the main object, students are also prepared in all the subjects of the First Arts Course of the Calcutta University: in the Madrasa, side by side with the Arabic Department, in which Arabic and Persian Literature, Logic, Rhetoric, and Muhammadan Law are taught to some two hundred students, is the Anglo-Persian Department with twice that number reading for the Matriculation Examination. The four Madrasas established from the income of the Mohsin Endowment Fund teach in their highest or "collegiate" classes a course in Arabic identical in standard with that of the Calcutta Madrasa; and the pupils in all the five Madrasas are subjected yearly to a central examination.

310. Collegiate Education in 1882.—Of the nine following Tables, No. I gives particulars as to the number of colleges throughout India in 1881-82, as compared with those existing in 1871-72, and their attendance of students; No. II, the race or caste of those students, divided into Hindus, Musalmans, Europeans or Eurasians, Native Christians, Sikhs, Parsis, and others; No. III, the results of the University examinations in Arts; No. IV, the number of undergraduates studying optional languages; No. V, the number graduating in a literary and in a scientific course, respectively, in those Universities in which such a distinction exists; No. VI, the expenditure on education in Arts Colleges; No. VII, the average annual cost of educating each student; No. VIII, the statistics of fees; No. IX, an estimate of the number of graduates from collegiate institutions who between 1871 and 1882 joined (*a*) the Public service; or, in a private capacity, (*b*) the Legal, (*c*) the Medical, (*d*) the Civil Engineering professions.

TABLE No. I.

Comparative Statistics of Attendance in Arts Colleges (a) for the official years 1870-71 and 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	1870-71.								1881-82.								REMARKS.
	DEPARTMENTAL		AIDED		UNAIDED		TOTAL		DEPARTMENTAL		AIDED		UNAIDED		TOTAL		
	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	Colleges.	Students.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
MADRAS	5	288	6	130	...	...	11	418	10	742	11	803	3	124	24	1,669	* Including 6 matriculated pupils (girls) in the College Department of the Bethune School, and 23 non-matriculated students in the Sanskrit College reading for the title examination.
BOMBAY	3	250	2	47	...	...	5	297	3	311	2	139	1	25	6	475	† Exclusive of the 3 matriculated students (girls) reading for the F. A. examination in the Free Church Normal School.
BENGAL	11	980	5	394	§	...	16	1,374	12	1,305*	5	895†	4	538	21	2,738	‡ There are two other unaided colleges in this province from which no returns have been received.
NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH	‖ 3	76	5	** 1,299	...	...	8	** 1,375	3	172	2	††157	1‡	20	6	349	§ Two unaided colleges, with 24 pupils, have not been returned.
PUNJAB	2	102	...	...	...	...	2	102	1	103	...	...	...	...	1	103	‖ Excluding the Ajmir College, which, with its attached collegiate school, contained 246 pupils.
CENTRAL PROVINCES	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	65	...	...	...	...	1	65	¶ Excluding the Ajmir College and attached collegiate school, which were attended by 225 pupils.
TOTAL FOR INDIA ‡‡	24	1,696	18	** 1,870	...	...	42	3,566	¶ 30	2,698	20	†† 1,994	9	707	59	5,399	** Including the pupils of attached collegiate schools. The number of under-graduates in the aided colleges of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh is roughly estimated at 80. The total number of under-graduates in the aided colleges in India in the year 1870-71 was therefore about 660.

†† Excluding the pupils of attached collegiate schools.

‡‡ Excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

(a) The statistics for Oriental Colleges are given separately in Tables 1a to 4a and are excluded from Tables 1—8.

TABLE No. II.

Classification of College Students by Race or Creed for the official year 1881-82.

PROVINCES.		DEPARTMENTAL COLLEGES.							AIDED COLLEGES.							UNAIDED COLLEGES.							TOTAL.							GRAND TOTAL.*	REMARKS.
		Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Sikhs.	Parsis.	Native Christians.	Europeans and Eurasians. (a)	Others.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Sikhs.	Parsis.	Native Christians.	Europeans and Eurasians. (a)	Others.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Sikhs.	Parsis.	Native Christians.	Europeans and Eurasians. (a)	Others.	Hindus.	Muhammadans.	Sikhs.	Parsis.	Native Christians.	Europeans and Eurasians. (a)	Others.		
1		2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31
MADRAS	Number of pupils of each race or creed	704	12	...	...	16	10	...	688	18	...	...	89	6	2	110	...	...	...	12	2	...	1,502	30	...	...	117	18	2	1,669	
	Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number on the rolls	94·88	1·62	...	...	2·15	1·35	...	85·68	2·24	...	...	11·08	·75	·25	88·71	...	...	...	9·68	1·61	...	89·99	1·80	...	...	7·01	1·08	·12	...	
BOMBAY	Number of pupils of each race or creed	249	6	...	55	1	...	...	75	1	...	48	8	5	2	25	...	...	...	...	...	...	349	7	...	103	9	5	2	475	
	Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number on the rolls	80·06	1·93	...	17·69	·32	...	...	53·95	·72	...	34·51	5·78	3·60	1·44	100	...	...	...	...	...	...	73·48	1·47	...	21·69	1·89	1·05	·42	...	
BENGAL	Number of pupils of each race or creed	*1,214	75	...	...	‡7	†5	§4	807	30	...	...	21	34	3	509	1	...	...	...	...	28	2,530	106	...	...	28	39	35	2,738	* Including 23 nonmatriculated students of the Sanskrit College.
	Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number on the rolls	93·03	5·75	...	...	·54	·38	·30	90·17	3·36	...	...	2·34	3·80	·33	94·61	·19	...	...	...	...	5·20	92·41	3·87	...	...	1·02	1·42	1·28	...	
N. W. P. AND OUDH.	Number of pupils of each race or creed	155	14	...	...	3	...	...	133	21	...	....	2	1	...	15	1	...	...	3	1	...	303	36	...	...	8	2	...	349	† Of this number one is a girl.
	Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number on the rolls	90·12	8·14	...	...	1·74	...	...	84·71	13·38	...	...	1·27	·64	...	75	5	...	...	15	5	...	86·82	10·32	...	...	2·29	·57	...	...	‡ Do. do.
PUNJAB	Number of pupils of each race or creed	84	13	3	...	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	84	13	3	...	3	...	...	103	§ All are girls.
	Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number on the rolls	81·55	12·63	2·91	...	2·91	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	81·55	12·63	2·91	...	2·91	...	...	...	
CENTRAL PROVINCES.	Number of pupils of each race or creed	59	5	...	...	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	59	5	...	...	1	...	...	65	
	Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number on the rolls	90·77	7·69	...	...	1·54	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	90·77	7·69	...	...	1·54	...	...	...	
TOTAL FOR INDIA.(b)		2,465	125	3	55	31	15	4	1,703	70	...	48	120	46	7	659	2	...	...	15	3	28	4,827	197	3	103	166	64	39	5,399	
	Percentage of pupils of each race or creed to the total number on the rolls	91·38	4·63	·11	2·04	1·15	·55	·14	85·41	3·51	...	2·41	6·01	2·31	·35	93·21	·28	...	...	2·12	·43	3·96	89·41	3·65	·06	1·91	3·07	1·18	·72	...	
	Proportion of each race or creed to total population	73·21	22·36	·62	·04	·45	·08	3·24	73·21	22·36	...	·04	·45	·08	3·24	73·21	22·36	...	...	·45	·08	3·24	73·21	22·36	·62	·04	·45	·08	3·24	...	

(a) Attending colleges for Natives of India.
(b) Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE No. III.

Results of the Higher University Examinations in the official year 1881-82.

Province and class of colleges.	M.A. Exd.	M.A. Passed.	B.A. Exd.	B.A. Passed.	1st B.A. Exd.	1st B.A. Passed.	F.A. Exd.	F.A. Passed.	Previous examination.* Exd.	Previous examination.* Passed.	B.Sc. Exd.	B.Sc. Passed.	1st B.Sc. Exd.	1st B.Sc. Passed.	Total Number examined.	Total number passed.	Percentage of successful candidates in all examinations.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Madras — Departmental	9	5	107	71	...	...	230	144	...	...	...	...	...	...	857	496	57·88
Madras — Aided			78	48	...	...	258	156	...	...	...	...	...	...			
Madras — Unaided			...	...	...	...	48	34	...	...	...	...	...	...			
Madras — Private students			36	6	...	...	91	32	...	...	...	...	...	...			
Bombay — Departmental	4	1	95	28	66	24	...	...	182	41	6	1	2	2	355	9	27·32
Bombay — Aided	4	2	30	8	22	10	...	...	81	26	1	1	...	...	138	47	34·06
Bombay — Unaided	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	15	4	...	...	...	...	15	4	26·67
Bengal — Departmental	51	22	148	59	...	...	378	171	...	...	...	...	...	...	577	252	43·67
Bengal — Aided	15	4	100	24	...	...	304	80	...	...	...	...	...	...	419	108	25·78
Bengal — Unaided	1	...	43	8	...	...	124	36	...	...	...	...	...	...	168	44	26·19
Bengal — Private students	...	...	18	4	...	...	27	8	...	...	...	...	...	...	45	12	26·66
North-Western Provinces and Oudh — Departmental	6	4	27	5	...	...	36	20	...	...	...	...	...	...	69	29	42·03
North-Western Provinces and Oudh — Aided	1	...	11	3	...	...	36	19	...	...	...	...	...	...	48	22	45·83
North-Western Provinces and Oudh — Unaided	...	...	...	...	...	...	10	3	...	...	...	...	...	...	10	3	30·00
Punjab — Departmental	2	2	4	2	...	...	10	8	...	...	...	...	...	...	16	12	75·00
Punjab — Aided	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Punjab — Unaided	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central Provinces — Departmental	...	...	...	...	...	...	17	10	...	...	...	...	...	...	17	10	58·82
Central Provinces — Aided	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central Provinces — Unaided	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...
Central Provinces — Private students	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	1	100
Total for India†	93	40	697	266	88	34	1,570	722	278	71	7	2	2	2	2,735	1,137	41·57

* The Previous examination in Bombay takes place one year after the student has matriculated, the 1st B.A. or B.Sc. two years after matriculation, and the B.A. three years after such examination. In the Madras and Calcutta Universities the F.A. examination takes place two years and the B.A. four years after the Entrance Examination.

† Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE No. IV.

Number of Undergraduates studying each optional language in the official year 1881-82.

Provinces.	Sanskrit.	Arabic.	Persian.	Hebrew.	Greek.	Latin.	Vernacular.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Madras	248	2	11	...	20	24	1,384	
Bombay	301	...	103	3	1	63	...	
Bengal	2,196	15	114	...	1	125	...	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	112	86	69	...	...	3	...	
Punjab	29	14	56	...	...	...	...	
Central Provinces	48	...	17	...	...	...	...	
Total for India*	2,934	117	370	3	22	215	1,384	

* Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE No. V.

Return of Students graduating in a literary or scientific course at the Bachelor of Arts Examinations held in the official year 1881-82.

Provinces and Class of Colleges.	Literary. Examined.	Literary. Passed.	Scientific.(a) Examined.	Scientific.(a) Passed.	Total. Examined.	Total. Passed.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras — Departmental	101	68	6	3	107	71	* In addition to these, 19 out of 40 students in colleges in Native States passed in the literary course.
Madras — Aided	50	27	28	21	78	48*	
Madras — Unaided	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Madras — Private students	34	5	2	1	36	6	
Bombay — Departmental	78	24	23	5	101	29	
Bombay — Aided	21	4	10	5	31	9	
Bombay — Unaided	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Bengal — Departmental	55	16	93	43	148	59	
Bengal — Aided	82	19	18	5	100	24	
Bengal — Unaided	35	5	8	3	43	8	
Bengal — Private students	12	2	6	2	18	4	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh — Departmental	5	...	22	5	27	5	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh — Aided	1	...	10	3	11	3	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh — Unaided	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Punjab — Departmental	4	2	...	...	...	2	
Punjab — Aided	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Punjab — Unaided	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Total for India†	478	172	226	96	704	268	

(a) The figures for Bombay include students who graduated in a purely or partly scientific course. In Madras and Bengal, there is no *purely* scientific course.

† Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE No. VI.

Expenditure on Education in Arts Colleges in the official year 1881-82.

Province and Objects of Expenditure.	Departmental Colleges.				Aided Colleges.				Unaided Colleges.			Total.			Grand Total.	Total expenditure on education from Public Funds (Provincial, Local, and Municipal)*	Percentage of expenditure on Colleges from Public Funds to total expenditure on education* from Public Funds in the Provinces concerned.	Percentage of Provincial expenditure in column 13 to total expenditure in Arts Colleges.	Percentage of Provincial expenditure in Arts Colleges to the total Provincial expenditure on education* in the Provinces concerned.	Percentage of the total expenditure on Arts Colleges to the total expenditure on education* in the Provinces concerned.	Remarks.
	Provincial Revenues.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Provincial Revenues.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Provincial Revenues.	Fees.	Other sources.							
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	22
	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹					
Madras . . . Establishments †	1,30,246	28,435	1,190	1,59,871	20,399	20,495	45,347	86,241	3,205	7,126	10,331	1,50,645	52,135	53,663	‡2,56,443	16,32,345	9·23	56·49	15·34	7·40	
Scholarships	4,693	...	2,821	7,514	2,740	...	...	2,740	...	...	...	7,433	...	2,821	10,254		4·5	2·79	·75	·29	
Total	1,34,939	28,435	4,011	1,67,385	23,139	20,495	45,347	88,981	3,205	7,126	10,331	1,58,078	52,135	56,484	2,66,697	...	9·68	59·28	16·09	7·69†	
Bombay . . . Establishments and buildings	88,626	25,405	28,081	1,42,112	5,100	8,378	25,100	38,578	1,062	6,234	7,296	93,726	34,845	59,415	1,87,986	19,82,535	4·88	46·61	8·23	5·48	
Scholarships	11,794	...	‡1,292	13,086	...	...	...§	...	...	...§	...	11,794	...	1,292	13,086		·59	5·86	1·03	·38	
Total	1,00,420	25,405	29,373	1,55,198	5,100	8,378	25,100	38,578	1,062	6,234	7,296	1,05,520	34,845	60,707	2,01,072	...	5·47	52·47	9·26	5·85	
Bengal . . . Establishments †	2,55,828	1,03,831	17,675	3,77,334	21,450	41,354	78,985	1,41,789	2,077	2,965	5,042	2,77,278	1,47,262	99,625	†5,24,165	26,80,510	10·34	44·35	10·48	8·36	
Scholarships	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	83,206	...	17,803	1,01,009		3·10	13·31	3·14	1·61	
Total	2,55,828	1,03,831	17,675	3,77,334	21,450	41,354	78,985	1,41,789	2,077	2,965	5,042	3,60,484	1,47,262	1,17,428	6,25,174	...	13·44	57·66	13·62	9·97†	
N.-W. Provinces and Oudh. Establishments †	88,733	7,117	30,021	1,25,871	15,215	2,248	25,051	42,514	335	1,679	2,014	1,03,948	9,700	56,751	†1,70,399	15,77,695	6·59	57·48	11·20	8·29	
Scholarships	7,972	...	...	7,972	...	...	2,447	2,447	...	...	...	7,972	...	2,447	10,419		·50	4·41	·86	·50	
Total	96,705	7,117	30,021	1,33,843	15,215	2,248	27,498	44,961	335	1,679	2,014	1,11,920	9,700	59,198	1,80,818	...	7·09	61·89	12·06	8·79†	
Punjab . . . Establishments †	45,803	2,099	...	47,902	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	45,803	2,099	...	†47,902	12,31,047	3·72	75·64	7·27	2·94	
Scholarships	6,816	...	a5,839	12,655	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	6,816	...	5,839	12,655		·55	11·25	1·08	·77	
Total	52,619	2,099	5,839	60,557	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	52,619	2,099	5,839	60,557	...	4·27	86·89	8·35	3·71†	
Central Provinces. Establishments and buildings	9,575	1,178	...	10,753	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	9,575	1,178	...	10,753	5,28,802	1·81	51·85	2·64	1·60	
Scholarships	7,604	...	108	7,712	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	7,604	...	108	7,712		1·44	41·18	2·12	1·14	
Total	17,179	1,178	108	18,465	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	17,179	1,178	108	18,465	...	3·25	93·03	4·76	2·74	
Total for India‖ Establishments and buildings.	6,18,811	1,68,065	76,967	8,63,843	62,264	72,475	1,74,483	3,09,122	6,679	18,004	24,683	6,80,975	2,47,219	2,69,454	11,97,648	96,32,934	7·10	59·33	10·20	6·83	
Scholarships	38,879	...	10,060	48,930	2,740	...	2,447	5,187	...	...	...	1,24825	...	30,31 0	b1,55,135		1·29	9·23	2·01	·88	
Total	6,57,690	1,68,065	87,027	¶9,12,782	64,904	72,475	1,76,930	3,14,309	6,679	18,004	24,683	8,05,800	2,47,219	2,99,764	13,52,783	...	8·39	59·56	12·21	7·71	

* Including expenditure on all professional and technical institutions and on schools for Europeans and Eurasians.
† The expenditure on college buildings has not been returned by Madras, Bengal, the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab.
‡ Excluding Rs. 429 from a private endowment in the Gujarath college.
§ The following expenditure on scholarships has not been returned to the Department :—

	Rs.
Aided colleges	1,262
Unaided colleges	1,080

‖ Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
¶ Excluding the expenditure of the Ajmir college and attached collegiate school, which amounted to Rs. 27,949.
a Including the expenditure incurred on scholarships by the Punjab University college.
b Excluding Rs. 4,513 expended on college scholarships by the Educational Department in Assam and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts.

TABLE No. VII.

Statement showing the average annual cost (a) of educating each Student in Arts Colleges in the official year 1881-82.

Provinces.	Departmental Colleges.		Aided Colleges.		Unaided Colleges.	Remarks.
	Total average annual cost.	Average annual cost to Provincial Funds.	Total average annual cost.	Average annual cost to Provincial Funds.	Total average annual cost.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	₹ a. p.	₹ a. p.	₹ a. p.	₹ a. p.	₹ a. p.	
Madras	257 13 8	210 1 2	125 2 8	29 9 8	93 1 2	
Bombay	446 12 8	274 13 0	271 10 9	35 14 7	331 10 2	
Bengal	320 9 5	217 5 8	185 5 6	28 0 7	*48 7 8	*Only two of the four unaided colleges have furnished returns of expenditure.
North-Western Provinces and Oudh . . .	758 4 2	534 8 6	312 9 8	111 14 0	125 14 0	
Punjab	498 15 8	477 1 10	...	...	...	
Central Provinces	186 3 1	165 8 5	...	...	...	
Average for India(b) . .	354 9 1	253 9 9	178 7 7	35 14 3	97 8 2	

(a) Calculated on the average monthly number of the students enrolled.
(b) Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE No. VIII.

Tuition-Fees in Arts Colleges in the Official year 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	Departmental Colleges.		Aided Colleges.		Unaided Colleges.		Percentage of income from Fees to total expenditure(a) in Departmental Colleges.	Percentage of income from Fees to total expenditure(a) in Aided Colleges.	Percentage of income from Fees to total expenditure(a) in Unaided Colleges.	Remarks.
	Highest Fee.	Lowest Fee.	Highest Fee.	Lowest Fee.	Highest Fee.	Lowest Fee.				
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
	R	R	R a.	R	R	R				
Madras*. . . .	5	3	4 0	2	3	R	17·78	23·76	31·02	*Muhammadans and Uriyas pay half fees, and five per cent. of the students may be exempted from the payment of fees in Departmental and aided colleges alike. †In Departmental colleges 5 per cent. of the pupils are exempted from the payment of fees. In Aided colleges the number exempted is limited to 25 per cent. In Departmental and Unaided colleges the fees chargable to holders of scholarships are 40 or 50 per cent. lower than the ordinary rates.
Bombay†	10	3	8 0	4	5	...	18·28	21·72	14·56	
Bengal‡	12	3	6 0	5	3	...	27·51	29·16	41·19	‡In the Sanskrit College 20 sons of pandits are allowed to read at a reduced fee of Rs. 2 instead of Rs. 5. In the Hooghly College Muhammadan students read at a fee of Rs. 1 instead of Rs. 2. In all colleges other than Hooghly Muhammadan students are allowed to read at one-third of the regular fees, the difference of two-thirds being paid, in the case of Departmental colleges, from the Mohsin Endowment Fund. In the case of the private colleges of Calcutta, from Provincial revenues.
North-Western Provinces and Oudh . . .	5	2	5 0	1	4	1	5·65	5·29	16·63	§The Provincial Committee state that it is doubtful whether the Sanskrit College is of any use, as it is practically pupil of students. All, it is understood, are entirely exempted from the payment of fees.
Punjab§	5	2	...	...	...	...	4·38	...	...	
Central Provinces . . .	2	2	...	...	...	...	11·09	...	...	
Average for India (b) .	12	2	8 0	1	5	1	19·53	23·44	27·05	

(a) Excluding the expenditure on buildings and scholarships, of which the majority of the Provinces have sent no return.
(b) Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE No. IX.

Provinces.	Number of graduates between 1871-82.	(a) Having entered the public service, British or Native.	(b) Legal profession.	(c) Medical profession.	(d) Civil Engineering profession.
Madras	808	296	126	18	...
Bombay	625	324	49	76	28
Bengal	1,696	534	471	131	19
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	130	61	33	...	6
Punjab	38	21	5	...	...
Central Provinces . .	14	8	...	...	...
Total . .	3,311	1,244	684	225	53

The last tabular statement gives only a partial idea of the after-career of our Indian graduates. A statement submitted by the Registrar of the Madras University, and quoted in the Report of the Provincial Committee (page 119), shows that out of 971 students who graduated in Madras up to the 31st March 1882, 796 are known to be holding remunerative employment in fourteen or fifteen different professions. On the other hand, a letter from the Principal of the Civil Engineering College in Madras states that no graduate in Arts or Engineering who has passed through the Civil Engineering College has joined the Civil Engineering profession in a strictly private capacity between 1871 and 1882. From the Bombay Report we gather that 74 graduates of the Bombay University have found employment in Native States, and 78 others have chosen private careers either in education or in commerce. The Reports of Bengal, the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab, mention a certain number of graduates in private service, the numbers being respectively 180, 39, and 12. The Report of the Central Provinces can only inform us of the after-life of 14 native gentlemen who, being born in those Provinces, graduated in one of the neighbouring Universities. Seven of these serve under the British Government, and one holds an important office in Haidarabad.

311. Fees in Colleges.—In stating the main facts about the fees in colleges, it is necessary to bear in mind that in all Provinces to a certain extent, and in some Provinces to a very large extent, the scholarships awarded to a certain portion of the students enable them to pay their fees. The amount, therefore, of the fees charged in the colleges of each Province must be considered in connection with the provision made for scholarships in that Province. Also in all Provinces, except Bengal and the Central Provinces, in addition to the provision for scholarships, a greater or smaller number of the students are either wholly or in part exempted from payment of the college fees. Thus, the fee shown in the Tables as paid on the average is less, and in some cases very greatly less, than it would be if fees at the appointed rate were paid by all.

Madras.—In Madras there is a somewhat complicated arrangement by which fees at varying rates are charged according as the college is Government or aided, and according as it is situated in the Presidency town or in Mofussil towns that are regarded as backward or advanced in an educational point of

view. It may be enough to say that the highest fee charged is Rs. 5 a month in Government colleges, and Rs. 4 in aided colleges; the lowest Rs. 3 in Government and Rs. 2 in aided colleges. Muhammadans are required to pay only half the usual fee, and it is provided that the number of free scholars shall not exceed 5 per cent. of the total number on the roll in either Government or aided colleges. The average fee actually paid during the year 1881-82 was Rs. 45-13 in Government colleges, and Rs. 29-11 in aided. In the unaided colleges, which are under no rule in regard to fees, the average amount paid for the year by each student was Rs. 29.

Bombay.—In Bombay the fees in Government colleges vary from Rs. 10 a month to Rs. 5 in the case of ordinary students, or to Rs. 3 in the case of holders of junior scholarships. In the two aided colleges the fees are Rs. 8 and Rs. 6 a month. In Government colleges only five per cent. of the students on the rolls may be exempted from payment of fees. In aided colleges there is no restriction as to the number of the students that may be admitted free. The average fee actually paid in Government colleges for the year 1881-82 was Rs. 81-11, and in aided colleges Rs. 59.

Bengal.—In Bengal the highest fee charged is Rs. 12 a month in the Presidency College. In other Government colleges it ranges from Rs. 3 to Rs. 6 a month. In one aided college it is Rs. 6, in the others Rs. 5 a month. No students are admitted free in Government or aided colleges. In unaided colleges the ordinary rate is Rs. 3. The average fee actually paid in Government colleges for the year 1881-82 was Rs. 88-3, and in aided colleges Rs. 54. In the only unaided college which has furnished returns on this point the average fee paid for the year was Rs. 31-8.

North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—In the North-Western Provinces the rate of fees is Rs. 5 a month in the degree classes of Government colleges, and Rs. 3 in the classes preparing for the First Examination in Arts. In aided colleges the rate varies from Rs. 5 to Re. 1 a month. In Government colleges there are no exemptions from the payment of fees; and the same practice is generally followed in aided colleges, though there is no definits regulation on the point. The average fee actually paid in Government colleges for the year 1881-82 was Rs. 42-14, and in aided colleges Rs. 16-8.

Punjab.—In the Government College, Lahore, the only college in the Punjab for which full information is available, a uniform fee of Rs. 2 a month is charged, although there is a standing order that fees from Rs. 2 to 5 should be levied according to the income of the parent or guardian; and a small number of students are admitted free. The average fee actually paid for the year 1881-82 was Rs. 21-14.

Central Provinces.—In the only college in the Central Provinces the rate of fee is Rs. 2 a month. There are no exemptions, and the average fee actually paid in the year 1881-82 was Rs. 20-10.

Summary.—It appears from this review that the fee paid in aided colleges is less by about one-third than is paid in those maintained by Government. This seems about the ratio at which it is possible for both classes of institutions to thrive. It is also the ratio that is fixed in Madras by a formal regulation.

In Government colleges fees are paid into the Treasury. In other colleges they are retained by the managers. Practically, in both cases they are a contribution towards the expense of the colleges. The extent to which they

actually meet the cost of collegiate education in the different Provinces may be shown thus:—

	Government.	Aided.
Madras	17·78 per cent.	23·76 per cent.
Bombay	18·28	21·72
Bengal	27·51	29·16
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	5·65	5·29
Punjab	4·38	
Central Provinces	11·09	

The following percentages show for each Province the proportion borne by the amount raised in fees to the total expenditure on the colleges from public funds:—

	Government.	Aided.
Madras	21·83	100·47
Bombay	28·71	164·27
Bengal	40·58	192·79
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	8·02	14·77
Punjab	4·58	
Central Provinces	12·48	

It must be noted, however, that in the outlay from public funds in Government colleges only current expenditure controlled by the Education Department is included, no allowance being made for the cost of pensions.

312. Payment of Fees: Opinions of Witnesses.—Many witnesses have discussed the question whether fees in colleges should be paid by the month or by the term. The opinion of a good many Principals and managers of colleges is in favour of payment by the term, but the opinion of the general body of witnesses against it. This mode of payment appears to have been actually tried in Arts colleges only in Bombay, where it is said to work well. Our Recommendation (No. 12) shows the decision at which we have arrived on this point. Another question that has been discussed is whether college fees should be graduated according to the means of parents or guardians. Many witnesses are in favour of this, and in the North-Western Provinces it was the universal method for several years. In one college, where, as stated above, this scheme of graduated fees prevails in theory, it has been entirely given up in practice and the head of a college in which the system was tried at one time states that "its general effect was demoralising." The evidence of practical experience seems, on the whole, to show that, however defensible this system may be in the abstract, it is one that it is difficult, if not impossible, to carry out in colleges that have a large number of students. Attention has been drawn by many witnesses to the practice of charging only a reduced fee to scholarship holders, an arrangement which seems to prevail to a large extent in Bombay, and to a very limited extent in one of the colleges in Bengal. The question has also been raised whether a minimum fee should be prescribed for aided colleges, as is done in Madras and Bengal; and if so, what proportion it should bear to the fee in Government colleges. It should in any case be clearly understood that neither Government nor aided colleges are prevented from raising their fees above any minimum that may be fixed. There ought, on the contrary, to be a generous emulation between all colleges as to which should raise the fee to the highest point consistent with stability and usefulness. By the steady increase of fees till the largest attainable amount of self-support is reached many of the problems of higher education will be practically solved. On the question as to the proper proportion of free scholars in colleges, it is at least plain that so long as any colleges are ready to exempt an unlimite

number of their students, there is little to stimulate the growth of those endowments to help poor students which are one of the most graceful and most useful tributes that wealth can pay to learning.

313. Arts College Scholarships.—Most colleges, if not all, have scholarships which are their own exclusive property, having originated from private endowments or subscriptions. Thus, the Presidency College, Calcutta, has Rs. 4,500 a year of endowed scholarships; and the other endowed scholarship funds, attached to different colleges in Bengal, yield an income of Rs. 6,452 a year. This is exclusive of University scholarships, and also of the Mohsin scholarships of Rs. 9,000 a year. The Elphinstone College, Bombay, has endowed scholarships to the amount of Rs. 6,360 a year, and the colleges of the North-Western Provinces together about the same amount. The Aligarh College also is richly endowed in this respect. But regarding scholarships of this class there is no full information before the Commission, and the only scholarships that can be adequately dealt with here are those that are paid from funds managed by the Education Department and those that belong to the Universities but are held in the Arts colleges affiliated to them. There is a striking difference in the amount spent on college scholarships in the various Provinces. The following is the amount of funds controlled by the Education Department that is spent in each Province on college scholarships, and the proportion which the sum thus expended bears to the whole amount spent from all sources on education of every kind:—

	R	Percentage of total expenditure.
Madras	10,254	·29
Bombay	13,086	·38
Bengal	1,01,009*	1·61
North-Western Provinces	7,972	·50
Punjab	12,655	·77
Central Provinces	7,712	1·14

Madras.—In Madras, 15 Government scholarships of Rs. 15 a month are given on the results of the First Examination in Arts. They are thus apportioned: There are 13 out of the 22 Districts that have second-grade colleges, and a scholarship is given to the student who stands highest on the University list from each of these Districts. One scholarship is given to the Muhammadan student and one to the Uriya student who stands highest in the University list. These scholarships are tenable at any first-grade college in the Presidency for the two years between the F.A. and B.A. examinations. Twenty Government scholarships of Rs. 10 a month are given on the results of the Matriculation Examination. These are tenable for four years, at any college in the Presidency, provided the holder pass the First Examination in Arts at the end of two years, and are thus apportioned: One is given to the student who stands highest from each of the eight Districts that have no college of either grade, six are given to students of one particularly backward District, and six are reserved for Muhammadans from any District. The University disposes of three scholarships tenable at Arts colleges, all of which are restricted to natives of certain Districts. There is also a system in virtue of which the first twenty at the F.A. examination and the first twenty at the Matriculation examination, if they have failed to receive stipendiary scholarships, may be admitted free into any Government, or, with the sanction of the managers, into any aided, college. Concerning this, the Provincial Committee remark: "It certainly seems that it would be fairer—in

* Inclusive of Rs. 12,000 for scholarships attached to the Medical and Engineering Colleges.

"every way better—if rewards given by Government were given impartially to "all schools, and if, instead of free scholarships, an allowance equivalent to the "fee were made, which the pupil enjoying it might draw whether he attended "a Government or non-Government institution."

Bombay.—In Bombay, the Scholarship Fund controlled by the Education Department is thus apportioned: There are two annual scholarships of Rs. 20 a month restricted to Sind students, and tenable for four years. These seem to be the only scholarships of this class that may be held at any college preferred by the holder. In the Elphinstone College there are 45 scholarships of the aggregate value of Rs. 660 a month. Of this amount, Rs. 530, though administered by the Education Department, are the proceeds of private endowments, and only Rs. 130 are directly contributed from Provincial Funds. In the Deccan College the aggregate Government expenditure on scholarships is Rs. 275 a month. The Provincial Committee consider that the circumstances under which this large provision was made by Government for scholarships restricted to these two colleges, were such that it might be regarded unfair to throw them open to other colleges now, and they recommend no change except "that as far as practicable they should be awarded to poor students who, but "for the stipends, might be unable to continue their studies at college." Mr. Wordsworth, however, the Principal of the Elphinstone College, says in his evidence: "I think it would be more fair if the money which the Government "devotes to college scholarships were open to general competition, or given away "in connection with the University examinations. The successful candidates "should have the choice of joining any college for which they felt a preference. "This is a point on which I can understand that the aided colleges may feel "that they are not quite fairly treated." The Bombay University disposes of fifteen endowed scholarships tenable at any affiliated Arts College. Their aggregate value is Rs. 451 a month. Seven are restricted to special Districts, and some of the others are for the encouragement of special studies. Some are held for one year only, but most for a longer term.

Bengal.—In Bengal, there are provided from public funds 49 scholarships awarded on the results of the First Examination in Arts. Ten of these, of the value of Rs. 25 a month, are given to the students who stand highest at the examination. The remaining 39, each of the value of Rs. 20 a month, are distributed among the colleges of particular Districts. There are also 152 scholarships awarded on the results of the Matriculation Examination. Ten of these, of the value of Rs. 20 a month, are given to the students who stand highest at the examination. The remainder, *viz.*, 47 of the value of Rs. 15 a month, and 95 of the value of Rs. 10 a month, are distributed to each Division and District in some proportion to the average number of candidates, and with reference to the educational advancement of the locality. All scholarships, except a few which must be held at a college in the District to which the student belongs, may be held at any affiliated college where instruction is given in the subjects of the examination for which the holder is preparing. Provision is further made for paying two-thirds of the fee of every Muhammadan student in whatever college he may be studying. The fund from which this provision is made, though managed by the Department, is derived from a private endowment. Of the 2,738 students in the colleges of Bengal, 402 may be holders of scholarships provided directly by the State, in addition to those who hold scholarships originally derived from private sources. The University of Calcutta awards five scholarships tenable at Arts colleges. They are all held for one year, and their aggregate value is

Rs. 112 a month. Of the total amount spent upon scholarships in Bengal, Rs. 17,803 are derived from endowments.

North-Western Provinces.—In the North-Western Provinces scholarships tenable at any college in the Province are awarded on the results of the Matriculation, First Arts, and B.A. Examinations. Their number is not fixed, but they are not to be more than one-fourth the number of candidates successful in these examinations, and they are given only to students who pass in the first class. In 1881-82, fifty-nine Government scholarships, aggregating Rs. 5,094, and Local scholarships to the value of Rs. 5,754, were held by students in the various colleges, Government and non-Government.

Punjab.—In the Punjab, scholarships of Rs. 12 a month are given from State funds to one-fourth of those who pass the Entrance Examination of the Punjab University, and scholarships of Rs. 16 a month to those who pass with credit the Proficiency, or Intermediate, Examination. Up to the end of 1881-82 these scholarships were tenable only in a Government college, but they are now open to any other college in the Province. In the year 1881-82 a sum of Rs. 12,655 was drawn in scholarships of all kinds by students of the Lahore College. Of the 103 students attending it, 76 were scholarship-holders, and only 27 non-stipendiary. In the Oriental College, as a rule, all the students hold scholarships, which are paid partly from the general funds of the University, and partly from endowments at its disposal. The sum thus spent in 1881-82 was Rs. 5,933. The fact should be noted that the Punjab colleges have depended always upon a system of scholarships, which is inconsistent with the declared policy of the Government of India. A few years after the establishment of the Government colleges exception was taken by that Government to the high cost of educating students who were paid for their attendance, and the proportion of scholarships was limited as stated above.

Central Provinces.—In the Central Provinces, junior scholarships tenable at the only college in the Province are assigned yearly on the results of the Matriculation Examination. They vary in amount from Rs. 7 to Rs. 10 according to place in the University list, and the District from which the student comes. Thus residents in Jabalpur, where the college is situated, draw the lowest rate. Senior scholarships are given on the results of the F. A. examination, and are tenable at any college in India where the holder can carry on his studies to a higher stage. Their value is Rs. 20 a month for a student who passes in the first class and Rs. 15 for one who passes in the second. The sum spent on scholarships in 1881-82 was Rs. 7,955; Rs. 5,419 on students at Jabalpur, and Rs. 2,536 on those in other colleges. Of the 65 undergraduates at Jabalpur, 51 held scholarships.

314. Social Position of Students.—As regards the social position of the students, it would appear from the returns given in the Provincial Reports, that a very considerable majority belong to the middle classes. Among these, the sons of Government officials, as might be expected, largely preponderate over any other section of the community. The great landed proprietors are scarcely, if at all, represented; trade and commerce contribute something like one in ten; in Madras about one-third are put down as the sons of farmers or landholders; in Bengal the incomes of more than half the parents are assessed at sums varying from £20 to £200 a year. Further particulars in various forms will be found in the Provincial Reports, but these, as there given, do not admit of any uniform classification.

315. Colleges and their Staff.—A general view of the different grades of colleges has already been given: we here subjoin fuller particulars.

Madras.—In Madras there are six first-grade colleges, three Government and three aided; and eighteen second-grade colleges, seven being Government, eight aided, and three unaided. In first-grade colleges, the largest staff is seven Professors and one Assistant Professor; and the smallest, one Professor and three Assistant Professors. In second-grade colleges the staff consists in all cases of one Professor and one Assistant Professor. This staff does not, however, include the Pandits or Munshis who are employed to teach the various second languages. In some colleges there are as many as eleven of these; but in most cases, or probably in all, they do duty in the school departments as well as in the colleges.

Bombay.—In Bombay there are four first-grade colleges, two Government and two aided; and two second-grade colleges, one Government and one maintained by the Kolhapur State. In first-grade colleges the largest staff is eight Professors and nine subordinate officers who give a portion of their time to college work as lecturers, Pandits, or instructors in some special subjects, for example, in drawing. The smallest staff consists of four Professors and one Assistant Professor, with four officers whose time is partly given to the college. In both the second-grade colleges the staff consists of three Professors and an assistant whose time is partly given to the college.

Bengal.—In Bengal there are eleven first-grade colleges, seven Government, three aided, and one unaided; and ten second-grade colleges (exclusive of the College Department of the Bethune Female School), four Government, two aided, and four unaided. In first-grade colleges the largest staff is eleven Professors, besides three Professors who teach the second languages; and the smallest is two Professors, one Assistant Professor, and two lecturers. In second-grade colleges the largest staff consists of three Professors with three assistants; and the smallest (excluding one college which is not yet in full work), one Professor with three assistants.

North-Western Provinces.—In the North-Western Provinces there are six first-grade colleges, three Government, two aided and one unaided, and one second-grade college, which is unaided. The Agra College, here reckoned as a Government college, is now being placed on the aided footing. The largest staff consists of four Professors with one Assistant Professor; and the smallest, of three Professors with three teachers of the second languages. The second-grade college has a staff of four Professors, but two of these give only a portion of their time to work in the college.

Punjab.—In the Punjab there is but one college in regard to which detailed information has been obtained. It is of the first grade, and is maintained by Government. Its staff consists of four Professors, with two assistants and two teachers of the second languages. There are also the Oriental College in which the teaching staff consists in part of stipendiary fellows and scholars; and the Delhi Missionary College officered by the gentlemen of the Cambridge Mission with two or three native assistants who are also masters in the school Department.

Central Provinces.—In the Central Provinces there is but one college. It is of the second grade, and is maintained by Government. Its staff consists of three Professors with four assistants; but all these gentlemen devote a portion of their time to the high school connected with the college.

Summary.—By far the strongest staff is that of the Presidency College, Calcutta, with eleven Professors and one Assistant Professor. Next come the Elphinstone College, Bombay, with eight Professors; and the Madras Presidency College with six Professors and one Assistant Professor. As a rule, the staff is considerably larger in Government than in non-Government colleges; but St. Xavier's College, Bombay, has ten Professors, and St. Xavier's, Calcutta, nine. It is understood, however, that most of these gentlemen give only a portion of their time to the colleges with which they are connected. Three non-Government colleges in Calcutta have each nine Professors and assistants, but whether their whole time is given to college work does not appear. Elsewhere, the staff of non-Government colleges is considerably smaller.

316. Salaries of Professors.—Information can be given with precision as to the salaries of Professors in Government colleges, but some aided colleges have supplied no information upon this point, and in one or two of the cases where information is supplied, it is not clear whether a deduction has or has not been made for extra collegiate work. A special difficulty arises also in the case of colleges maintained by the Jesuit Fathers, from the fact that regular salaries are not paid to their Professors. On this account no statement of salaries has been received from St. Xavier's College in Bombay; and the statements furnished by St. Xavier's College in Calcutta and St. Joseph's at Negapatam, are understood to be estimates of the salaries the Professors might receive if they were employed in colleges where regular salaries are paid. In stating the main facts concerning salaries of Professors, the salaries of all Assistants are left out of view, as these range from full Assistant Professors who are virtually Professors in all but name, to gentlemen who receive a small compensation for a single hour's work daily, or it may be even less. The main facts, with these explanations, may be stated as follows.

Madras.—In Madras, in Government colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 1,250 a month, and the lowest Rs. 750. In aided colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 450 and the lowest Rs. 365. In Government colleges of the second grade the highest salary is Rs. 500 and the lowest Rs. 165. In aided colleges of the second grade, the highest salary is Rs. 400 and the lowest Rs. 200. In unaided colleges the highest salary is Rs. 425 and the lowest Rs. 350.

Bombay.—In Bombay, in Government colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 1,500 a month, and the lowest Rs. 200. In aided colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 400 a month, and the lowest Rs. 70. In second grade colleges, one of which is partly maintained by the British Government and the other by the Kolhapur State, the highest salary is Rs. 800 a month, and the lowest Rs. 250.

Bengal.—In Bengal, in Government colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 1,500, and the lowest Rs. 300. In aided colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 610 and the lowest Rs. 75. In unaided colleges of the first grade the highest salary is Rs. 225, and the lowest Rs. 60. In Government colleges of the second grade, the highest salary is Rs. 900, and the lowest Rs. 150. In aided colleges of the second grade, the highest salary is Rs. 350 and the lowest about Rs. 70. For unaided colleges of the second grade detailed figures have not been obtained, but the salaries are believed to be on a somewhat lower scale than those in the unaided first-grade colleges.

North-Western Provinces.—In the North-Western Provinces, in Government colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 1,250 and the lowest Rs. 200. In aided colleges of the first grade, the highest salary is Rs. 1,000, and the lowest Rs. 175. For the unaided colleges no figures have been obtained.

Punjab.—In the Punjab, in the only college for which detailed information is available, the highest salary is Rs. 1,250, and the lowest Rs. 500.

Central Provinces.—In the Central Provinces, in the Government college, which is of the second grade, the highest salary is Rs. 500 and the lowest Rs. 180.

Summary.—Of first-grade colleges maintained by Government, the total expense varies from Rs. 1,20,498 per annum, which is the gross annual outlay on the Presidency College in Calcutta, through Rs. 92,472 on the Elphinstone College in Bombay, and Rs. 68,875 on the Presidency College in Madras, down to Rs. 16,662 at Rajshahye in Bengal. Of aided first-grade colleges, the expense ranges from Rs. 41,383, the annual outlay on the Canning College at Lucknow, down to St. Xavier's in Bombay, which costs annually but Rs. 12,000. The total annual cost of second-grade colleges maintained by Government varies from Rs. 20,626 per annum in the Sanskrit College at Calcutta down to Rs. 3,646 per annum at Madura; while the annual outlay on aided colleges of the second grade ranges from Rs. 13,287 in the London Mission Institution at Bhowanipore down to Rs. 2,738 in the Hindu College at Vizagapatam. This great variation in the expense of colleges springs from various causes. One is the different degrees in which the staff of each consists of the graduates of Indian Universities, who are naturally obtainable at a cheaper rate than graduates from Europe. The question how far Indian graduates should be employed as Professors is one on which widely different opinions are held by witnesses, and on a point of this kind it is obviously impossible to lay down a stringent rule. That they may be safely employed more generally than hitherto has been the case in the great Government colleges at the Presidency towns, we have no doubt: on the other hand, every encouragement should be given to the employment of European graduates in colleges under native management. The variation in expense arises partly also from the large salaries paid to some of the European Professors in Government colleges; and to these large salaries some of our witnesses have raised objections. But from the point of view of academic standing the Professors as a body certainly deserve salaries as high as any that are given. The graded service, with liberal rates of pay, was instituted with the express object of attracting distinguished graduates from the English Universities, and thus of entrusting the higher education of Indian students to a body of men whose position and attainments would ensure work of a high degree of excellence. Nor has experience failed to bear out the expectation entertained; for education in India owes a great debt to the zeal and ability of the many distinguished men who have attached themselves to its service. At the same time it may be fully admitted that if Government colleges are in all respects to be a model to the native colleges that ought to spring up around them, they must be conducted on principles of strict economy; and from this point of view it is clear that efforts should be made to provide suitable men at the most economical rates consistent with the maintenance of full efficiency. Yet another cause of the variation of expense is the different amount of actual teaching given by Professors in different colleges. It is plain that this varies considerably in different Provinces and different colleges, but the information afforded is not sufficient to determine what the limits of variation are. In the several Provincial Reports will be

found complete lists of the staff of each college and of the salary attached to each professorship.

317. College Libraries, and the Extent to which they are used.—

Madras.—The Report of the Madras Provincial Committee gives (page 116) the number of books for each college library; but the figures, though taken from official returns, seem, in some cases, to fall short of the real number. It is hardly credible that the S. P. G. first-grade college at Tanjore has only five books in its library, while the S. P. G. second-grade college at Trichinopoly has 1,120. The number of books in the library of St. Joseph's College is not 600, but approximates to 2,000, as may be seen from its printed catalogue. The best furnished library among the Government institutions is that of the Presidency College, which contains 3,289 volumes, and receives from Government an annual grant of Rs. 1,000. The Christian College, an aided institution, has 3,105. Only two aided colleges have ever received any grant for their libraries. In the last-mentioned college there is an arrangement which is worthy of notice and of imitation. Some 700 of the volumes are books of reference and are arranged as a consulting library to which the students have access the whole day and also on holidays. The fact mentioned in the Provincial Report that there are about 11,000 references a year shows how greatly the privilege is valued. No plan seems better fitted to encourage students to rely upon their own exertions.

Bombay.—All the Government colleges in Bombay have libraries. Those of the Elphinstone and Deccan colleges are of considerable value and receive annual additions, Rs. 500 being spent on purchases of new books every year. The two aided institutions, the Free General Assembly's and St. Xavier's, have also their libraries. But the former contains mainly works of theological literature, and the latter is chiefly for the use of the Professors.

Bengal.—In Bengal the Presidency College, which for many years has received a monthly grant of Rs. 300, has accumulated a comprehensive library of modern literature in all branches of knowledge. Annual grants, varying from Rs. 300 to Rs. 400 a year, are given with the same object to six other Government colleges of the first grade, and smaller sums to second grade colleges. No mention is made in the Report of the Bengal Committee of libraries in aided colleges, from which, however, it should not be concluded that they have none worthy of notice. St. Xavier's College library, for instance, is supplied with a large number of well-selected books.

North-Western Provinces.—The libraries of the Government colleges in the North-Western Provinces are excellent. There are libraries too, though not quite so considerable, in the aided institutions.

Punjab.—The library at the Lahore Government College contains about 1,400 books on all branches of literature, both English and European. The Oriental section is poor, and is said to contain much that is valueless.

Central Provinces.—The college library at Jabalpur possesses upwards of 1,000 volumes, many of which, however, are said to be but ill-suited for the students and to be seldom used by them.

Summary.—As regards the extent to which college libraries are used, the information obtained seems to show that among the students of some colleges a perceptible taste for general reading has sprung up. Yet, the Bombay, the Bengal, and the North-Western Provinces Reports agree in saying that the general reading of students is confined to a very narrow range, being almost entirely limited to the books which have some bearing on the subjects of examinations; though an exception to a limited extent is made in Bombay in the case of the students of the Elphinstone college. In Bengal, it is expected that the new scheme of studies, which is to come into force in 1884, will help to develope among the best students a taste for private reading.

318. Laboratories and Apparatus for Instruction: Madras.—

The value of the laboratories and apparatus for instruction in the colleges of the Province of Madras is given at page 117 of the Provincial Report, and is, on an average, much lower in most Government than in non-Government institutions. Moreover, nothing is said of the laboratories and apparatus of the two principal Government colleges, *viz.*, the Kombakonum and the Presidency Colleges, though the Commission, when sitting in Madras, was able to satisfy itself that the latter is well supplied with appliances for physical and chemical instruction and for the study of natural science, &c. Seven of the aided colleges received grants from Government. It may be observed that grants for apparatus required for instruction in science or art are given only once in Madras.

Bombay.—In Bombay the Elphinstone College and the two aided colleges are fairly equipped with scientific apparatus, for which the last two received of late a grant of Rs. 3,000 from Government. But the Deccan and the Rajaram Colleges are insufficiently provided, while the Gujarat College has no apparatus at all. And it may be said that not a single college in the Province of Bombay is furnished with a set of appliances altogether commensurate with the requirements of the science course newly adopted by the University.

Bengal.—In Bengal four Government colleges are reported to be well supplied with chemical and physical laboratories. That of the Presidency College is thoroughly complete. All other Government institutions possess what is strictly necessary for imparting instruction. When the alternative courses in science were adopted, the sum of Rs. 5,000 was allotted to each first-grade Government college for the purchase of scientific apparatus, and many additional grants have since been made. The Report of Bengal makes no mention of any laboratory in aided colleges. Yet the Revd. Father Lafont states in his evidence that St. Xavier's College has a collection of apparatus which he considers one of the best in Calcutta, and the value of which he estimates at Rs. 20,000. He adds that liberal grants have occasionally been given to that institution by Government for the purchase of instruments.

North-Western Provinces.—In the North-Western Provinces, the Allahabad, Agra, and Benares Government colleges, and the aided Canning College at Lucknow, have laboratories.

Punjab.—The Lahore College has as yet no special laboratory; but the acquisition of one has been sanctioned. It is sufficiently provided with apparatus for Physics and Chemistry for instruction up to the B.A. standard, and has a fairly complete cabinet of specimens in Geology.

Central Provinces.—The college at Jabalpur has only a small set of chemical apparatus. Application has been made for the purchase of a complete set of apparatus for teaching Physical Science.

319. Oriental Colleges.—

Of the general character and objects of these colleges, an account has already been given. It must be remembered, however, that in their course of studies they are far from uniform. In some, such

as the Calcutta Madrasa, there is an admixture of English; in others, such as the Oriental Department of the Canning College, Lucknow, the Oriental methods of teaching are still observed. Not being affiliated to the Universities, except in the Punjab, they have no general standard of examination: the students attending them are generally poorer and more dependent upon scholarships: in fact, in the Oriental College, Lahore, nearly every student receives help of this kind. In the four following Tables will be found statistical information as to the more important points, though in regard to one point by no means unimportant, *viz.*, the rates of fees, we have received no detailed returns:—

ORIENTAL COLLEGES.

TABLE No. 1 *a*.

Comparative Statistics of Oriental Colleges in British India in 1870-71 and 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	1870-71. Department-mental Colleges.	1870-71. Department-mental Students.	1870-71. Aided Colleges.	1870-71. Aided Students.	1870-71. Unaided Colleges.	1870-71. Unaided Students.	1870-71. Total Colleges.	1870-71. Total Students.	1881-82. Department-mental Colleges.	1881-82. Department-mental Students.	1881-82. Aided Colleges.	1881-82. Aided Students.	1881-82. Unaided Colleges.	1881-82. Unaided Students.	1881-82. Total Colleges.	1881-82. Total Students.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
Madras	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	38	...	...	...	...	1	38	
Bombay	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Bengal	2	173	...	...	...	...	2	173	6	1,089	...	...	...	...	6	1,089	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	...	...	1	155	...	...	1	155	1	427	2	130	...	...	3	557	
Punjab	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	1	122	...	...	1	122	
Central Provinces	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
TOTAL FOR INDIA*	2	173	1	155	...	...	3	328	8	1,554	3	252	...	...	11	1,806	

TABLE No. 2 *a*.

Number of Pupils studying each optional language in the Oriental Colleges in 1881-82.

PROVINCES.	Sanskrit.	Arabic.	Persian.	Hebrew.	Greek.	Latin.	Vernacular.	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Madras	38	...	...	...	...	...	...	
Bombay	...		...	...	...	...	...	
Bengal	...	776	...	...	...	...	131	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh.	448	54	14	...	...	...	41	
Punjab	19	37	25	...	...	...	41	
Central Provinces	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	
TOTAL FOR INDIA*	505	861	39	...	...	...	213	

* Excluding Ajmir, British Burma, and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

TABLE No. 3*a*.

Expenditure on Education in Oriental Colleges in the official year 1881-82.*

PROVINCES.	Department-mental Colleges. Provincial Revenues.	Department-mental Colleges. Fees.	Department-mental Colleges. Other sources.	Department-mental Colleges. Total.	Aided Colleges. Provincial Revenues.	Aided Colleges. Fees.	Aided Colleges. Other sources.	Aided Colleges. Total.	Unaided Colleges. Fees.	Unaided Colleges. Other sources.	Unaided Colleges. Total.	Total. Provincial Revenues.	Total. Fees.	Total. Other sources.	Grand Total.	Total expenditure on education from Public Funds (Provincial, Local and Municipal).†	Percentage of expenditure on Oriental Colleges from Public Funds to total expenditure† on education from Public Funds in the Provinces concerned.	Percentage of Provincial expenditure on Oriental Colleges to total expenditure in Oriental Colleges.a	Percentage of Provincial expenditure in Oriental Colleges to total Provincial expenditure† on education in the Provinces concerned.	Percentage of total expenditure on Oriental Colleges to total expenditure† in the Provinces concerned.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹	₹				
Madras	...	...	453	453	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	453	453	16,32,345				10
Bombay	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	19,82,535				...
Bengal	12,304	3,580	32,629	48,513	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	12,304	3,580	32,629	48,513	26,80,510	·45	25·36	·46	·77
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	13,075	...	282	13,357	3,547	127	5,638	9,312	...	...	...	16,622	127	5,920	22,669	15,77,695	1·05	73·32	1·79	1·70
Punjab	...	...	...	...	21,000§	16,013§	29,146§	66,159§	...	...	...	21,000	16,013	29,146	66,159	12,31,047	2·22	31·74	3·33	4·06
Central Provinces	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	...	5,28,802	...	...	...	...
TOTAL FOR INDIA‡	25,379	3,580	33,364	62,323	24,547	16,140	34,784	75,471	...	...	...	49,926	19,720	63,148	1,37,794	96,32,934	1·02	36·35	1·19	1·02

* The expenditure on scholarships in Oriental colleges has not been returned. In the Punjab Oriental College nearly all the students hold scholarships. In the Oriental colleges of the other Provinces scholarships are more sparingly given.

† Including expenditure on all professional and technical institutions, and on schools for Europeans and Eurasians.

‡ Excluding Ajmir, British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.

§ Including inseparable expenditure incurred by the Punjab University College and by the school attached to the Oriental College. The fee-receipts in the Oriental College and school amounted to Rs. 72 only for the year 1881-82.

a Exclusive of the Madras Oriental College.

TABLE No. 4*a*.

Statement showing the average annual cost of educating each student in Oriental Colleges in 1881-82.*

PROVINCES.	Departmental Colleges.		Aided Colleges.		Unaided Colleges.	Remarks.
	Total average annual cost.	Average Annual Cost to Provincial Funds.	Total average annual cost.	Average Annual Cost to Provincial Funds.	Total average annual cost.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	R a. p.	
Madras	11 0 9	.....	.....	.....	.....	
Bombay	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	
Bengal	53 2 2	13 7 7	.....	.....	.....	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	33 6 3	32 11 0	85 6 10	32 8 7	.....	
Punjab	.....	.....	337 8 8‡	107 2 3‡	.....	
Central Provinces	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....	
Average for India†	46 0 6	19 5 3	247 7 1	80 7 8	.....	

* Calculated on the average monthly number of the students enrolled.
† Excluding Ajmir, British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education.
‡ Inclusive of inseperable expenditure incurred by the Punjab University College and by the school attached to the Oriental College.

320. Moral Training in Colleges.—The subject of moral training in colleges is replete with difficulties—difficulties, however, that are mainly practical. For there is no difference of opinion as to moral training being as necessary as intellectual or physical training, and no dissent from the principle that a system in which moral training was wholly neglected would be unworthy of the name of education. Nor, again, is there any difference of opinion as to the moral value of the love of law and order, of the respect for superiors, of the obedience, regularity, and attention to duty which every well-conducted college is calculated to promote. All these have, by the nearly universal consent of the witnesses, done a great deal to elevate the moral tone and improve the daily practice of the great bulk of those who have been trained in the colleges of India. The degree in which different colleges have exerted a moral influence of this kind is probably as various as the degree of success that has attended the intellectual training given in them, and has doubtless been different in all colleges at different times, depending as it does so largely on the character and personal influence of the Principal and Professors who may form the staff at any given period. So far all the witnesses, and probably all intelligent men, are substantially agreed. Difficulties begin when the question is raised whether good can be done by distinct moral teaching, over and above the moral supervision which all admit to be good and useful, and which all desire to see made more thorough than it is at present. In colleges supported by Missionary Societies, in the Anglo-Muhammadan College, Aligarh, and in at least one other college under native management, the attempt has been made to give such moral teaching on the basis of religion. In Government colleges there has been no attempt at direct moral teaching. In them, entire reliance has as a rule been placed on such moral supervision as can be exerted during college hours, and on such opportunities for indirect moral lessons as are afforded by the study of the ordinary text-books and by the occurrences of ordinary academic life Religious education, and the possibility of connecting it with Government colleges, we shall consider separately. The present point is the possibility or wisdom of introducing distinct moral teaching in places where there is no religious instruction. The question that was put to bring out the views of our witnesses on the point stood thus:—"Does definite instruction in duty and the principles of moral conduct occupy any place "in the course of Government colleges and schools? Have you any suggestions "to make on this subject?" None of the witnesses raised any objection in principle to such instruction being given. A considerable number held that there is no need for such instruction, and two of these, the Principals of Government colleges in Bombay and Madras, held that no good result can flow from devoting a distinct portion of time to the teaching of duty and the principles of moral conduct. Some also held that the practical difficulties in the way of introducing moral instruction into Government colleges are so great that it is expedient to leave matters as they are. The great majority, however, of the witnesses that dealt with the question at all, expressed a strong desire that definite moral instruction should form part of the college course. If we may judge by the utterances of the witnesses, there is in the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab a deep-seated and widespread feeling that discipline and moral supervision require to be supplemented by definite instruction in the principles of morality. The feeling seems not to be so strong in the Provinces where Western education has been longer and more firlmy established; but some of the witnesses in every Province and some of every class, Native and European equally, have asserted that there is urgent need that the principles of morality should be definitely expounded. A review of the evidence seems to show that moral instruction may be introduced into the course of Government colleges without objection anywhere, and in some Provinces with strong popular approval. Those who wish definite moral instruction to be introduced generally advocate the teaching of some moral text-book. No one, however, has pointed to any text-book that he is prepared to recommend for immediate introduction. One witness has indicated a difficulty that requires consideration, *viz.*, that if morality be introduced as a definite subject of study, a demand will certainly arise for testing proficiency in it by means of examinations, and that while on the one hand acquaintance with theories of morality implies no moral improvement, on the other examinations can never test actual growth in practical morality. The difficulty thus suggested is that students will not pay serious attention to the moral instruction given them unless it is made to tell in their favour at University or other public examinations. It is certainly undesirable to attempt to gauge morality by means of the University, but it seems too unfavourable an estimate of Indian students to hold that they care for nothing beyond passing or standing well at examinations; or even if such a state of feeling be too prevalent at present, it seems premature to argue that no better state of feeling can be induced. One of the Provincial Reports quotes the head of an aided college as testifying that no complaint had ever reached him of the appropriation of four hours a week to religious instruction, a subject which counts for nothing at University examinations. Our Recommendation (No. 9) will be found in the last paragraph of this Chapter.

321. Religious Teaching in Colleges.—Government having deliberately adopted the policy of religious neutrality, there is no religious teaching in the colleges managed by the Department of Education. The grant-in-aid system is based upon the same policy, and it might therefore seem that the subject of religious teaching in aided colleges has no place in the Report of this Commission. Nor would it if the question had not been raised by some of the witnesses whether another policy than the present be not equally consistent with the religious neutrality of Government colleges, the policy, namely, not of excluding all religions, but of giving equal facility for instruction in them all. This has been advocated by several native witnesses, especially in the Punjab. The argument adduced in favour of such a policy seems generally to be that the minds of students

are so filled with their secular studies that religion drops out of view and ceases to influence them, and that home influence has been found in practice too weak to counteract the anti-religious, or rather non-religious, influence which exclusive attention to the subjects studied at college is exerting. This is expressed as follows by one who pleads strongly for a change in this respect: "Children are "sent to school as soon as they are able to talk and move about freely, and they "spend a number of years in school, until in fact they are passed out as full-"blown B.A.'s or some such thing..... Their whole time and attention being "devoted to school-books, they fall very little under what is called the home "influence..... The unfavourable impressions which the children receive in "the school for a series of years at the early part of their age sit deep in their "hearts and exert a very demoralising influence upon them in after-life, to the "prejudice of themselves and of those who come in their way. Will Govern-"ment tolerate such a state of things? Will it still persist in a policy which "excludes religion from the State education, but encourages something which is "anti-religious, though in the most indirect manner?" The remedy proposed is that Government should employ teachers of all prevalent forms of religion to give instruction in its colleges, or should at least give such teachers admission to its colleges if their services are provided by outside bodies. We are unable to recommend the adoption of any plan of this kind. However praiseworthy the feelings that underlie such a proposal, we are satisfied that no such scheme can be reduced to practice in the present state of Indian society. The system of grants-in-aid was in part designed to meet the difficulty complained of, and those who regret the absence of religious teaching from Government colleges are at liberty to set up colleges giving full recognition to the religious principles they prefer. In doing this they should be most liberally helped, and it may be worth while to point out that the successful establishment of a college in which any form of religion is inculcated would not lose its effect even though the Government college in which religion is not taught should continue to be maintained beside it. Students cannot be kept apart, and cannot but affect one another. Any influence, whether good or bad, that is felt among the students in one college spreads rapidly to those of another that is near it. Thus, those who regard any particular form of religious teaching as a good thing may be sure that by establishing a college in which such teaching is imparted, they are influencing not only the students their own college may attract, but the students in Government colleges as well. This question will, however, be fully discussed in Chapter VIII, and need not detain us here.

322. Physical Training.—In most colleges some attention has been paid to the question of physical training. Despite a climate which for six or eight months of the year renders out-door exercise almost impossible during the heat of the day, games, such as cricket, lawn-tennis, croquet, are played with much eagerness and no little skill. In many colleges gymnastics are regularly taught according to Maclaren's system; and in running, jumping, wrestling, in fact in almost every pastime in which agility and suppleness are of avail, the Indian youth shows to great advantage. If not generally of a muscular build, he is by no means wanting in endurance and pluck. Games which, like cricket, especially test such qualities, are most appreciated by the hardier races of the North-West and Punjab, and by the enterprising Parsi. But the Bengali, though supposed to be so averse to physical exercises, has shown a spirit that was not expected of him. In some parts of the Province he is found bringing an eleven to meet the European residents of a station, and not seldom defeating his opponents. What is needed is a more systematic encouragement on the part of the college authorities; for, as a rule, it has hitherto depended upon

the accident of character whether the Principal and Professors take any interest in promoting manly games. In most cases, too, the poverty of the students is greatly in the way, while the instances are rare in which Government has given any pecuniary help. The value of a single B. A. scholarship would, at all events in the smaller colleges, suffice for the maintenance of a cricket club or gymnasium during the whole year.

323. The University Entrance Examination.—Although the function of the University Entrance examination has more properly to do with secondary education, to which it is the goal, its bearing upon collegiate education needs some consideration here. The subjects of examination, which are very nearly the same in all Indian Universities, have already been stated. The method of examination differs in one not unimportant particular. In Calcutta and Madras it is by papers alone. In Bombay and the Punjab, the papers are supplemented by an oral examination in certain of the subjects. That the combined method is in itself the more perfect one, there can be no doubt. But the difficulties where the number of examinees is so large, as in the Calcutta and Madras Universities, are, under a centralised system of examination, practically insuperable. In 1881-82, 2,937 candidates presented themselves at the Entrance examination of the Calcutta University; at that of the Madras University, 3,725. In Bombay the numbers were 1,374; in the Punjab only 249. The difficulty of numbers is increased by the fact that the examination is held at local centres fixed by the University, although the papers are examined by a Central Board. Of such centres the Calcutta University has no less than forty, from Rangoon in the extreme east to Peshawar in the extreme west, from Simla in latitude 31 N. to Colombo in latitude 7 N. Distances so enormous render it impossible for an oral examination to be conducted by any single Board of Examiners, or even by a dozen such Boards. If a separate Board were constituted at each centre, there would still remain two disadvantages which would far more than counterbalance the advantages. In a large number of cases the examiners would examine their own pupils; and, however just and fair their examination, they would always be suspected of unconscious partiality. A difficulty even greater would be that of maintaining uniformity of standard. Oral examination must always be less precise than examination by means of papers; but an oral examination conducted by a number of different Boards could scarcely pretend to anything but the very roughest accuracy. It may, therefore, be accepted that where the candidates are so numerous, no other system is possible than that of papers. It may also be argued that such a system, although imperfect, affords a sufficiently accurate test when the question merely is whether a young man shall be admitted to a certain course of study preliminary to any University distinction. There are some, indeed, who would have no Entrance examination at all as a qualification for admission to colleges. In their view, it should be enough that a lad has reached a certain point in his school education, and that those who have trained him see in his capacity and industry good promise of further progress. They would, in fact, be satisfied by such assurances as are accepted in the many colleges of our English Universities that have no matriculation examination of their own. The analogy, however, is here more apparent than real. A very large number of those who go up to the English Universities do so for the sake of the collateral advantages which attach to the English University system. Association with a large body of his equals taken from various classes of society, representing various interests, and destined to various careers; the discipline which goes with residence in college; the generous rivalry stirred up by a love of manly exercises; the pride felt in belonging to a body so rich in its traditions;

all these are important elements in the education of an English undergraduate: and that such advantages may be shared by the many for whom the higher learning has no great attraction, it has been wisely ordained that admission to the University shall be easily obtained. In India at present such collateral advantages can scarcely be taken into account. University life, in fact, has hardly any existence. The colleges are isolated institutions, in many cases small in their numbers, and with little that belongs to a corporate community. There is, therefore, no similar motive for throwing open their doors for all to enter. On the other hand, the objections to doing so are of serious weight. In the first place, if Principals of colleges were compelled to admit every candidate whom the headmaster of a high school considered to have reached a college standard, their classes would be composed in a large proportion of students whose unfitness would greatly hinder the advance of the more promising remainder. That this is no imaginary evil, may be shown by the percentage of unsuccessful to successful candidates at the Entrance examination. Thus in 1881-82, of 2,937 who went up for that examination of the Calcutta University, no less than 1,528 failed to pass. Yet, presumably all of these were students whom their respective headmasters considered to be sufficiently prepared. Another objection is that the University Entrance examination serves a very useful purpose in fixing a standard whereby to gauge the attainments of those who carry their education no further. In a country in which so large a proportion of such students at once seek Government employ, the certificate of a recognised body like the University is obviously of more weight than one granted by the Head of a college, however just his estimate may be of the student to whom he grants it. Moreover, there is nothing to prevent a Principal from admitting in his college classes a student whose qualifications seem to him sufficient, though he cannot, of course, give permission to appear at the higher University examinations to such as have not cared to subject themselves to those of a lower degree. In this respect the Entrance examination corresponds not with the Matriculation examination of an English college, but with the little-go or previous examination of the University. And the restriction, we believe, will be admitted on all hands to be a wise one. If it be true that it occasionally excludes from college life young men of high social standing, on the other hand it obviates the anomaly of giving the same advantages to those who have, and those who have not, satisfied the University on points which it considers of importance; while it involves no real hardship to any considerable number of students. On the whole, therefore, we see no reason to advocate the removal of what is little more than a fancied disability.

324. Objections to the Entrance Examination of the Calcutta University in particular.—With reference to the Entrance examination of the Calcutta University in particular, a complaint has been made of "undue centralisation," or, in other words, of the unsuitability of its tests to the educational wants of the North-Western Provinces. It is asserted that the hard-and-fixed line drawn by so distant a body as the Calcutta Syndicate, has excluded, among others, the sons of the Native nobility and landholders. The time may have been when this objection had some slight force, though the classes supposed especially to feel the grievance can scarcely be said to have had any just cause of complaint. So small, indeed, was the interest taken by the Native nobility and landholders in any system of education, that the plea put forward on their behalf looks rather like an after-thought. At worst, the alleged defects did not touch such classes more acutely than any other classes. But if this "hard-and-fixed line" was ever one which formed a barrier to students in the North-Western Provinces, it is one which exists no longer. In the earlier days of the Calcutta

University, the complaint was no doubt sometimes made, perhaps with truth, that the educational authorities of the North-Western Provinces had no sufficient voice in the management of the University, and that consequently little effort was made to adapt the examination to peculiarities of study due to nationality or religion. This complaint is no longer heard; and in the tacit acquiescence of all whose interests are concerned we have the clearest proof that on this score at all events no valid accusation lies against the University. If there be disadvantages on any other score, these, it is hoped, will be removed at no distant date by the establishment of a University for the North-Western Provinces.

325. A general Objection.—Another objection to the Entrance Examination of the different Universities is made on the ground of its narrowness. It fixes, say the objectors, one standard as the goal of all secondary education, whereas two standards are really required, namely, a standard for those who go through the University course, and a standard for those who desire to enter direct into business or practical life. The objection is a valid one, and yet one which can hardly be made the subject of a complaint against the Universities. That which has rendered desirable such a double standard is a growth of education not contemplated when the Universities were first established, their legitimate function then being to test the merits of students who aimed at a liberal education. For the vast numbers who now set a goal to themselves in the Entrance examination they were not prepared. Like the Universities in England, they had, till lately, no sufficient motive for concerning themselves with middle class examinations. That they may do so now with advantage is the opinion of many. "At present," it has been remarked,* "no "attempt has been made in the High Schools to organise what is called in Eng"lish public schools a 'modern side'; nor would it be practicable to organise "it without the co-operation of the University." This may be true; but while the high schools are waiting for the University, the University may reply that it is waiting for the high schools. A proposal has been made by Professor Oxenham, one of the Bombay witnesses, that the present Entrance examination should be reconstituted and be conducted by the colleges, while a second examination should be instituted on the model of the "Middle Class" examinations of the English Universities. The latter part of this proposal has been adopted by the Commission and forms the subject of a Recommendation in Chapter V. The former part of it, however, does not seem to us to be without its objections. There would, if the colleges admitted, be some danger of a varying standard. This in the long run would tend to lower the general level, and so to affect the aims and character of the high schools. Again, as we have already pointed out, an Entrance examination conducted by a University supplies a gauge of capacity and attainment highly useful in a country in the present condition of India, and one which would not be accepted with the same confidence if the colleges were the examining bodies. For it may be safely assumed that a considerable number of those who elected for a University career would not continue their studies even to the F. A. examination. Such, therefore, as for any reason found it necessary to desist, would have no other certificate than that of admission to a college. Moreover, if it proved easier to enter a college than to pass the middle class examination, the inducement would be to pursue a course of study which, though less useful in after-life, afforded a more immediate prospect of obtaining employment of some kind or other. If, however, the Universities are to take upon themselves the general duty of gauging the progress made in education not strictly of a University type, it may be worth while to consider whether the higher vernacular schools also might not fitly come

* Bombay Provincial Report, page 133.

under their scrutiny. To such schools it is difficult to attach too much importance. For throughout the rural districts they afford the kind of education best suited to the more literary classes among a rural population, and their character largely influences that of primary vernacular schools by supplying them with competent teachers and by raising up a class of men to whom the value of education has been made clear. It has been endeavoured in various parts of the country to meet the object we have in view by means of provincial examinations; but such examinations, even if equally thorough, cannot hope to carry with them the same recognition as those conducted by a University Board.

326. The Effect of collegiate Instruction upon the Enlightenment of the People.—An estimate of the effect which collegiate instruction has had upon the general education and enlightenment of the people must in fairness be accompanied by a reference to the objects which it sets before itself. The reformers of 1835, to whom the system is due, claimed that only by an education in English, and after European methods, could we hope to raise the moral and intellectual tone of Indian society and supply the Administration with a competent body of public servants. To what degree, then, have these objects been attained? Our answer is in the testimony of witnesses before this Commission, in the thoughtful opinions delivered from time to time by men whose position has given them ample opportunities of judging, and in the facts obvious to all eyes throughout the country. And that answer is conclusive: if not that collegiate education has fulfilled all the expectations entertained of it, at least that it has not disappointed the hopes of a sober judgment. Many mistakes in the methods employed have been pointed out and corrected by maturer experience. Much done has had to be undone. Not a little yet remains for gradual re-consideration. So, too, of the recipients of our college education it is by no means pretended that they are the very crown and flower of Indian humanity. Many unlovely defects of character still give occasion of scorn to those who are nothing if not critical. Of superficial learning, and of pretentious self-assertion manifested in a variety of ways, there has no doubt been plenty. It would be strange if it were otherwise. For in no country under any circumstances has there been equal or similar encouragement to the development of such and other faults. The surroundings of the Indian student are not always favourable to the development of a high type of character. Neither in the labour nor in the recreations of those about him does he find much that sorts with his intellectual pursuits. Living in an atmosphere of ignorance, his sense of superiority is in danger of becoming conceit. Reverence for the current forms of the religion of his country seems difficult to him when face to face with dogmas which science has exploded, and a disposition to scoff does not beautify his nature. Nor is it possible, at least in Government colleges, to appeal in a large and systematic manner to that religious teaching which has been found to be the most universal basis of morality. Again, his intercourse with the ruling race is not wholly without its drawbacks Unwise enthusiasts flatter him with hopes and prophecies. The advantages he enjoys give him a distorted idea of claims to be urged upon a Government that has done so much for him. His self-reliance weakens with encouragement, or he is irritated and rebuked by the chilly courtesies of English reserve. The narrow circle of his life; the absence of facilities for travel, whereby his sympathies and experience might be enlarged; the strong temptation to lay aside his studies so soon as employment supplies his moderate necessities; the scanty inducement to fit himself for higher duties,—all help to dwarf the moral and intellectual growth, and to foster those faults against which satirists, good-humoured or bitter, have directed so many shafts.

All the greater, therefore, is the credit due to him when he rises above the influences by which he is surrounded; and, whatever his weaknesses, it may be safely said that they who best know the educated native have the most to urge in his favour. It may also be safely said that many of the faults charged against the earlier generation of college students are disappearing as an English education is less regarded in the light of a rare distinction. Some of those faults were born of the time and the circumstances; some had root in a system of instruction now everywhere becoming more thorough and more scientific.

327. The Professions which the Majority of educated Natives adopt.—Of the professions to which a student takes on leaving college, the most favourite are Government service and the Law. In the latter will generally be found those whose talents are brightest, and in whom self-reliance is most strong; in the former, those who, from narrowness of circumstances or from a doubt of their own powers, have been glad to accept employment, sometimes of a very humble kind. As a Government servant, the ex-student is found everywhere and in all branches of the Administration; as a clerk, as a subordinate Judicial, Revenue, or Police officer; as a Professor in a college or teacher in a school; in various capacities in the Department of Public Works, the Forest Department, the Telegraph, the Railway, the Medical service. In all he holds appointments involving considerable trust and exercising zeal, energy, activity. And in some Provinces he has attained his present position despite strenuous antagonism on the part of his countrymen brought up in the old school, who were naturally anxious to keep in their families posts regarded, from length of tenure, as hereditary possessions. That this antagonism was for so long so efficient resulted, in a considerable measure, from an unwillingness on the part of Civil officers to employ a class of men with whom they had but slight acquaintance, and who were without the necessary apprenticeship to official life. Such unwillingness is now becoming a thing of the past. Throughout the country Civil officers have begun to discover and readily to acknowledge, that in integrity, capacity for work, intelligence, industry, the subordinate trained in college excels his fellow brought up according to the traditions of the past. At the Bar, a profession which in many ways is eminently suited to the bent of the native mind, the ex-students of our colleges have made their way with honourable success. Even in the Presidency towns, though pitted against distinguished English lawyers, they carry off a large share of the practice, acquitting themselves with especial credit in civil cases. If their legal acumen has, for its very subtlety, sometimes been the subject of doubtful compliment, many of their number are conspicuous for grasp of subject, and breadth of view. Though pleading in a foreign tongue, they not seldom display an eloquence and power of debate which would command admiration before any English tribunal. Some of the ablest of them have attained to the Bench of the Calcutta High Court; and last year, during the absence of the Chief Justice, his high post was filled by Mr. Justice Romesh Chandra Mittra. Madras and Bombay tell the same tale, and though in the more backward Provinces the number of distinguished advocates is not large, a Musalman gentleman, once a student of the Benares College, was recently called to fill a vacancy in the Allahabad High Court. In the District Courts, where of old chicanery and many questionable devices so largely prevailed, the influence of the educated native pleader has generally been of a healthy kind. And when this is the case it is especially creditable to him. For, away from the eye of those whose disapproval would mean loss of professional caste, and exposed to influences and temptations such as perhaps advocacy in no other country confronts, he has need of a strong moral rectitude and

much earnestness of purpose. But with the support of the wholesome pride which the members of his profession feel in so honourable a career, it every day becomes easier to him to emulate the dignity and self-respect which are so pre-eminently characteristic of the English Bar. Government service and the Law, as we have said, engage the attention of the majority of our graduates and undergraduates. A smaller number betake themselves to private service as clerks, assistants, or managers. Some engage in trade. They are, however, comparatively few in number. For commerce needs capital, and hereditary aptitude for business, neither of which is usually possessed in any sufficient degree by those educated in our colleges. Where, indeed, a commercial career is chosen by them, the general testimony is of the same purport as that borne to the credit with which they fill other positions in life. Such testimony coming from various quarters, and having reference to a variety of occupations, we might easily quote at great length. It may be enough to cite the opinions of a few gentlemen of high position and varied experience. In such a list no one perhaps has a better right to a foremost place than Sir M. R. Westropp, who, first as a Puisne Judge of the High Court and afterwards for nearly twenty years as Chief Justice of Bombay, had daily opportunity of gauging the capacity and character of men trained in the colleges of the Presidency. In reply to an address presented to him last year on his retirement from the Bench, his Lordship remarked:—"In tone, in learning, in every thing that was important for profes-"sional men, the pleaders of the High Court were pre-eminent, and they were "now, whatever their predecessors in the Sadr Adalat might have been in a "by-gone generation, a highly honourable body. This had been proved by "their own acts; and, what was more, they had proved themselves liberal and "generous, as circumstances which he had had the opportunity of noticing, "would show. It had been a great pleasure to him to see so much of them and "to notice their daily conduct for so many years, and the feeling of satisfac-"tion which he experienced was shared by all the Judges. The educational "institutions now in existence in Bombay contributed greatly to the class of "men who succeeded in passing the examination for the career of High "Court pleaders and Subordinate Judges. He trusted the improvement "in education might go on. It had penetrated to a considerable extent among "the pleaders in the mofussil also; but the soldiers of the old garrison were "too firmly in possession to be dislodged speedily. . . . . In the mofussil the "old practitioner had a stronghold, but his place was being gradually filled by "the alumni of the Elphinstone High School and of the University of Bombay. "That they might go on and prosper was the earnest desire of himself and "brethren." Of similar tenour was the evidence given before the Commission by Sir William Wedderburn. In Madras, Chief Justice Sir Charles Turner, whose many years' acquaintance with the North-Western Provinces has varied his experience, remarked in his Convocation address delivered in 1881 before the University of Madras:—"Modern India has proved "by examples that are known to, and honoured by, all in this assembly "that her sons can qualify themselves to hold their own with the best "of European talent in the Council Chamber, on the Bench, at the "Bar, and in the mart. The time cannot be far distant when she will "produce her philosopher, her moralist, her reformer." Of the morality of our ex-students question has sometimes been made; not so much perhaps because experience justified an accusation, as because it was pre-supposed that those who received no definite religious instruction must necessarily have but little reverence for a moral law to which were attached no divine sanctions. There is, however, no reason whatever why a scientific education should lower

the standard of conduct. It is true that such an education tends to weaken and destroy primitive beliefs, but morality is independent of those beliefs, and a young man's studies at college are certainly not calculated to weaken his appreciation of moral truths. Nor in estimating the effect which collegiate education has had upon religious belief, ought we to forget the large extent to which students have joined the Brahmo Somaj and other theistic associations of the same character, or the constant prominence given in their public writings and discussions to the subject of a reformed faith. In the restricted sense of integrity, the higher level that prevails is certified by the evidence of facts and the evidence of words. It is not merely the Government officer who now feels himself able to place reliance upon the uprightness of his subordinate. The same is the case with commercial men, with managers of banks, with Railway companies. Dishonest servants are, of course, sometimes found among highly-educated natives of India, as they are sometimes found among highly-educated natives of England. And equally, of course, the most has been made of such instances to discredit an education novel in kind and therefore disliked by many. If, again, under the term morality, we include those qualities which tend to the general welfare of a people, then in a larger sense has the highly-educated native vindicated his claim to our respect. For it is he whose enterprise and enthusiasm have done much to rouse self-effort in education, and whose munificence has not seldom made that effort possible. It is he who has created the native press in its most intelligent form. His are the various societies, literary and scientific, societies for religious and for social reform. To his activity it is due that vernacular literature is so rapidly multiplying its utility. From his number have come men who have guided the policy of Native States at critical times, and filled with dignity important offices under the British Government. Still, desirous as we are fully to acknowledge the good effects of collegiate education, we do not shut our eyes to certain deficiencies of result and certain positive evils ascribed to various defects of system. We cannot affirm that in education has been found a sufficient cure for the comparative absence of lofty motive and of a sense of public duty which for long centuries has been an admitted drawback on so much that is attractive in the character of natives of India. We cannot deny that though the standard of morality is higher than it was, it is still a morality based to a large extent upon considerations of a prudent self-interest rather than upon any higher principles of action. Moral strength of purpose under circumstances in which such strength has nothing but itself to rely upon is too often conspicuous for its absence; and great intellectual attainments are by no means always accompanied by great elevation of character. On the other hand, however, it must not be forgotten that improvement in this matter, especially under the conditions imposed by the past history of the country, must be the work of several generations. In the minor matter of courtesy and good manners, it is also objected that there has been a distinct deterioration; that in their desire to cast off the reproach of subservience, educated natives have mistaken rudeness of behaviour for dignified independence. This charge within certain limits admits of no dispute. Still, it is a result at which we cannot greatly wonder when we take into account the ugly faults and unpleasant symptoms that accompany a period of transition. Again, those who most fully recognise the general improvement, ascribe it to influences of which education is but one, and by no means the most prominent one; though to this it may perhaps be replied that it is education which has brought about a state of mind upon which alone those other influences could work. There is another respect, of a different, and more special character, in which collegiate education has as yet certainly failed. With a few brilliant exceptions, no eminent scholars are to be found in the long list of

University graduates. Two reasons, however, go a great way to account for this fact. One is to be found in the character of the academic system in its earlier days. That system aimed rather at giving a general education than at encouraging special knowledge. The more recent reforms all tend towards the substitution of a small number of subjects for the multifarious requirements which experience has condemned. A second reason is the poverty of the Indian student. To one out of five hundred, perhaps, it is a matter of indifference whether, when he goes out into the world, he can at once earn his livelihood. With the rest, employment in some shape or other is a necessity; and that employment rarely leaves him leisure or inclination to carry on studies of which he has but come to the threshold. Private liberality has done much for education in many directions. But the endowment of research is not one of those directions. A life of learned ease is almost unknown to the Indian student; his success must be success of a practical character; his ambition waits upon his daily wants.

In judging of the results already attained, many allowances have to be made; above all the allowance of time. Even in the most advanced Province of India, collegiate education of the present type is barely fifty years old; in some parts of the country its life measures less than half that span; in some it has not yet begun. It must be remembered, too, that that education is of exotic growth, or, rather, that it has been imposed upon the country by an alien power. If the advent of the philosopher, the moralist, the reformer, of which Sir Charles Turner is so hopeful, be still "a far-off adorable dream," it is but a sober estimate which declares that, directly or indirectly, collegiate education has been beneficial in a variety of ways to an extensive portion of a vast empire.

328. Recommendations.—The Recommendations which we have to make with regard to the general question of collegiate education cover a somewhat wide field, though we have been careful to exclude from their scope any principles which fall under the direct cognisance of the University rather than of the Education Department and of Government. Our Recommendations refer to the provision of increased facilities for collegiate instruction; to the principles on which grants to aided colleges should be regulated; to the means of increasing the efficiency, without increasing the cost, of the professorial staff in Government colleges; to the regulation of studies; to the rates of fees and the methods of levying them; and to the establishment of scholarships for collegiate students on a systematic and, in some Provinces, extended basis.

329. Extension of collegiate Education.—We regard the provision of increased facilities for collegiate education, wherever reasonable grounds have been shown for their necessity, as a necessary complement of those Recommendations which we shall hereafter have to make for closing, or for transferring to private management, other colleges whose continuance at all, or whose continuance as Government institutions, experience has shown to be unnecessary. But, on account of the variety of conditions involved, we have thought it sufficient to recommend each case to the attention of the Local Government concerned, to be dealt with in the light of the considerations that will be adduced in Chapter VIII. The Commission is unanimous in the opinion that where additional means of collegiate instruction may be expected, on reasonably sufficient grounds, to increase the welfare of a Province or to advance the progress of its people, the provision of such additional facilities should be an object of solicitude to Government, preferably by means of the system of grants-in-aid, but in exceptional cases, and subject to necessary financial limitations, by the direct instrumentality of Government. At the same time we are of opinion that the principle should be kept in view, that a small number of colleges, thoroughly efficient and suitably situated, are likely to be of more permanent benefit to the interests of higher education than a larger number of colleges less efficient and less numerously attended. But we are not prepared to make any definite Recommendation on this point with regard to the future since we feel that every proposal for the establishment of a new college must be determined by careful reference to the circumstances of each case.

330. Grants-in-aid.—Whatever opinion may be held as to the advisability of regulating the grants to aided schools by reference solely to the results of examination, we are unanimously of opinion that such a system is altogether inapplicable to aided colleges. We regard it as essential to the stability of those institutions that their grants should be fixed for a term of years, so that their managers may be able to estimate with accuracy their various sources of income. The causes which lead to success or failure at the examinations of the University are various, and by no means solely dependent on the efficiency or inefficiency of the teaching in any particular institution. If a college by the maintenance of an efficient staff, and by a liberal rate of expenditure, gives solid guarantees of its desire and intention to succeed, those guarantees should certainly be taken into account in determining the rate of aid, altogether antecedently to, and irrespectively of, the success which its students may attain at subsequent examinations. Such success or failure through a term of years should, however, be taken into account when the grants to aided colleges come up for revision. Our Recommendations on this point are *that the rate of aid to each college be determined by the strength of the staff, the expenditure on its maintenance, the efficiency of the institution, and the wants of the locality;* and *that provision be made for special grants to aided colleges whenever necessary, for the supply and renewal of buildings, furniture, libraries, and other apparatus of instruction.*

331. Professorial Staff and Pensions.—We are strongly of opinion that, in order to secure the maintenance of a high standard of efficiency in the professorial staff of Government colleges, especially in the European professoriate, all such officers should be eligible for good-service pensions at a considerably earlier date than that fixed under existing rules. If an officer should be incapacitated by sickness for further service, he is eligible for pension at different rates after 15 and after 25 years; and if he has entered the service after the age of 25, he is required to serve three years less than in other cases; but subject to these two exceptions, every officer has to serve the full period of 30 years before he can hope to obtain any pension. We are convinced that the efficiency of the Department is not promoted by attaching so long a term of compulsory service to appointments in which, above all others, energy and even enthusiasm are essential qualities; and we strongly recommend that opportunities should be afforded, by a graduated scale of pensions, for the earlier retirement of those officers who feel that they have reached the limit of useful work. We also recommend the more extended employment of competent Natives of India as Professors of colleges, a system which has been adopted in many Provinces with the best results in point both of efficiency and of economy. Our Recommendations are, therefore, *that in order to secure a due succession of competent officers in the Education Department, the period of necessary service qualifying for pension should be reduced, and that a graduated scale of pensions based on length of service, and obtainable without medical certificate, should be introduced;* and *that Indian graduates, especially those who have also graduated*

in European Universities, be more largely employed than they have hitherto been in the colleges maintained by Government.

332. Salaries.—Along with the increased employment of native Professors, we have taken into consideration the question of fixing the initial and final salaries of the appointments to be held by Europeans at higher rates than those for which Natives will be eligible, with the object of securing the services of specially qualified experts in their several branches of learning. We believe that the principle is a sound one, and that the whole question deserves the attention of Government; but we are not prepared to submit any definite Recommendation on this point.

333. Subjects of Study.—With regard to the subjects of study, we are of opinion that wherever the University has prescribed alternative courses for any examination, the requirements of education cannot be satisfactorily met unless students are allowed a large option between such courses. It does not promote diversity of culture, nor does it allow differently constituted minds a fair opportunity of development on the lines best suited to them, if all the students of one college are compelled to take up a literary course, and all the students of another to study science. We are aware that this necessity is occasionally forced upon the Department and other managers by the limited staff of Professors at their disposal; but we incline to the opinion that, even with the existing staff, the course proposed could be more completely followed than in some instances we find it to be. We have therefore recommended that in all the larger Government colleges, students should be allowed such option; and we think that, if our proposals for the increased appointment of Native Professors are carried out, the difficulty of establishing alternative courses in such colleges will be greatly lessened. This Recommendation implies that liberal aid should be given to those non-Government colleges which make provision for the teaching of alternative courses. Our Recommendation is *that in order to encourage diversity of culture, both on the literary and on the physical side, it is desirable in all the larger colleges, Government and aided, to make provision for more than one of the alternative courses laid down by the Universities.*

334. Admission to college Lectures of Students who have not passed the Examinations of the University.—Connected with this proposal is another, that of admitting to certain courses of lectures students who have not passed the examinations required by the University. A student who has not passed the Entrance or the First Arts Examination, and who is therefore unable to continue the course of studies prescribed by the University, may nevertheless desire to attend lectures in subjects which he can study with profit, even though no University examination in these subjects awaits him at the end of his course. It is not probable that many students will avail themselves of such a permission, since to most the attainment of a University certificate is practically the chief object of their studies. But the concession would be a definite boon to some students who are not compelled to work for their living; and in this way we might succeed in bringing the sons of rich men under the wholesome influences of a college life. Principals of colleges, we may point out, are not prohibited from admitting such students; but we think it desirable to draw attention to the advantages of their occasionally exercising the power that they possess, and we recommend *that the discretionary power of Principals of colleges, to admit to certain courses of lectures in special cases students who have not passed the examinations required by the Universities, be affirmed.*

335. Moral Teaching.—The proposals we have to make on the subject of moral teaching are contained in our Recommendations Nos. 8 and 9. Regarding the former, the preparation of a moral text-book, there was considerable difference of opinion. On the one hand, it was argued that moral and religious instruction was the necessary complement to secular instruction; that to the people of India, so instinctively religious, such instruction would be thoroughly congenial; that the necessity of it had been forcibly pressed upon the Commission by a number of witnesses, and its absence been the subject of many complaints; that in spite of the principle of religious neutrality, or of the variety of religious belief among the various sections of the Indian Community, there would be no difficulty in basing moral training upon the principles of natural religion, since in those principles all men are agreed; that if virtue could not be taught, it would be possible to impress upon students the necessity of practising virtue; and that there would be no insuperable difficulty in compiling a moral treatise acceptable to all classes which would serve as a corrective to the material, or, at least, to the exclusively intellectual, character of collegiate instruction. A letter from Dr. Meurin, R.C. Bishop of Bombay, offering to draw up a moral text-book of this kind, had already been received by the Commission, and it was also understood that Dr. V. French, Bishop of Lahore, contemplated the publication of a similar work. The arguments in opposition were to the effect that moral teaching is out of place, and likely to fail in its purpose, at a time of life when the obligation of duty is thoroughly known, and when the chief requirement is not to inform the conscience but to train the will. In all colleges, and under all courses of instruction, the most effective moral training consists in inculcating habits of order, diligence, truthfulness, and due self-respect combined with submission to authority, all of which lessons a good teacher finds useful opportunities of imparting. The formation of such habits is promoted by the study of the lives and actions of great men, such as the student finds in the course of his English reading; and, it may also be hoped, by the silent influence upon his character of constant intercourse with teachers whom he is able to regard with respect and affection. Nor, again, is there reason to believe that collegiate education of the present type has any injurious effect upon the life and character of the students. On the contrary, the nearly unanimous testimony of those who have had the best opportunities of observing goes to show that in integrity, in self-respect, in stability of purpose, and generally in those solid qualities which constitute an honourable and useful character, the University graduate is generally superior to those who have not enjoyed the advantages which college training confers. A further objection was expressed to the effect that, even supposing it was found possible to produce a moral text-book which should find acceptance with all, there was some danger, in examining the foundations of duty from any other than a religious standpoint, of weakening its binding force as a motive to action. The interests of morality would not be promoted by inculcating a habit of analysis in regard to moral questions. Our Recommendation on this point is *that an attempt be made to prepare a moral text-book, based upon the fundamental principles of natural religion, such as may be taught in all Government and non-Government colleges.* A Recommendation was also carried to the effect *that the Principal or one of the Professors in each Government and aided college deliver to each of the college classes in every session a series of lectures on the duties of a man and a citizen.* This proposal was adopted almost unanimously, though the fear was expressed that there would be a danger of such lectures being delivered in a perfunctory manner in case of those Professors who felt that they had no aptitude for the work.

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335. Moral Teaching.—The proposals we have to make on the subject of moral teaching are contained in our Recommendations Nos. 8 and 9. Regarding the former, the preparation of a moral text-book, there was considerable difference of opinion. On the one hand, it was argued that moral and religious instruction was the necessary complement to secular instruction; that to the people of India, so instinctively religious, such instruction would be thoroughly congenial; that the necessity of it had been forcibly pressed upon the Commission by a number of witnesses, and its absence been the subject of many complaints; that in spite of the principle of religious neutrality, or of the variety of religious belief among the various sections of the Indian Community, there would be no difficulty in basing moral training upon the principles of natural religion, since in those principles all men are agreed; that if virtue could not be taught, it would be possible to impress upon students the necessity of practising virtue; and that there would be no insuperable difficulty in compiling a moral treatise acceptable to all classes which would serve as a corrective to the material, or, at least, to the exclusively intellectual, character of collegiate instruction. A letter from Dr. Meurin, R.C. Bishop of Bombay, offering to draw up a moral text-book of this kind, had already been received by the Commission, and it was also understood that Dr. V. French, Bishop of Lahore, contemplated the publication of a similar work. The arguments in opposition were to the effect that moral teaching is out of place, and likely to fail in its purpose, at a time of life when the obligation of duty is thoroughly known, and when the chief requirement is not to inform the conscience but to train the will. In all colleges, and under all courses of instruction, the most effective moral training consists in inculcating habits of order, diligence, truthfulness, and due self-respect combined with submission to authority, all of which lessons a good teacher finds useful opportunities of imparting. The formation of such habits is promoted by the study of the lives and actions of great men, such as the student finds in the course of his English reading; and, it may also be hoped, by the silent influence upon his character of constant intercourse with teachers whom he is able to regard with respect and affection. Nor, again, is there reason to believe that collegiate education of the present type has any injurious effect upon the life and character of the students. On the contrary, the nearly unanimous testimony of those who have had the best opportunities of observing goes to show that in integrity, in self-respect, in stability of purpose, and generally in those solid qualities which constitute an honourable and useful character, the University graduate is generally superior to those who have not enjoyed the advantages which college training confers. A further objection was expressed to the effect that, even supposing it was found possible to produce a moral text-book which should find acceptance with all, there was some danger, in examining the foundations of duty from any other than a religious standpoint, of weakening its binding force as a motive to action. The interests of morality would not be promoted by inculcating a habit of analysis in regard to moral questions. Our Recommendation on this point is *that an attempt be made to prepare a moral text-book, based upon the fundamental principles of natural religion, such as may be taught in all Government and non-Government colleges.* A Recommendation was also carried to the effect *that the Principal or one of the Professors in each Government and aided college deliver to each of the college classes in every session a series of lectures on the duties of a man and a citizen.* This proposal was adopted almost unanimously, though the fear was expressed that there would be a danger of such lectures being delivered in a perfunctory manner in case of those Professors who felt that they had no aptitude for the work.

In connection with the subject of moral training it may be stated that an

to assign for scholarships tenable in Arts colleges a larger proportion of the Provincial grants for education than 2 per cent. We must add that in making this Recommendation we are far from unanimous. On the other side of the question it was urged that the contemplated saving would in no way touch the grave question of primary education. For that class of education independent provision was made. For the last three years an addition of a lakh of rupees a year had been made to the primary assignment in Bengal, so that for the next financial year it stood at seven lakhs; and, this being so, there was absolutely no justification on this ground for crippling the scholarship system in the way proposed. Though the present expenditure upon scholarships might look excessive, it was not so in reality. If scholarships were meant as an encouragement to students and an incentive to learning, they must bear some equitable proportion to the total number of students. The real influence and effect of a system of scholarships was to be estimated by comparing their number, not with the total number of college students, but with that of the Entrance candidates, among whom the competition lay. For every student who gained a scholarship there was a much larger number who came within range of the competition and whose energies and industry were stimulated by the hope of success. The Bengal system, moreover, was a self-acting one, and gave little where little, and much where much, was required. Each Division had a number of scholarships allotted to it, and as education advanced in any part of the country, the proportion of scholarships became *ipso facto* less and less. It was further urged that the wealth of Bengal was no argument so far as concerned the classes attending the colleges. About 84 per cent. of the undergraduates in Bengal belonged to the struggling middle classes, while as many as 12 per cent., though generally of respectable position, were steeped in poverty, and it was only by the help of scholarships that many of them were enabled to go on with their studies. Moreover, liberality towards colleges in the matter of scholarships was felt not only by the colleges themselves, but throughout every stage of education; and the character and progress of Primary schools were indirectly more beneficially affected by the present order of things than could possibly be the case if the insignificant amount saved were directly expended upon them. It was pointed out that among the many witnesses examined, there had been an absolute silence as to any need for curtailing the present grant; and that there was no advantage to be gained by laying down a hard-and-fast line for all Provinces. Finally, it was stated that the Local Government was satisfied with the present state of things, and that the experience of the Local Government was best able to decide the question.

On the subject of additional scholarships, our Recommendations are confined to the creation of scholarships tenable by graduates. Such scholarships exist in some Provinces, but they are mostly confined as endowments to students of particular Government colleges; and we are of opinion that similar advantages should, if possible, be offered to distinguished students without regard to their place of education. The object of these scholarships would be to enable deserving students to proceed to the M.A. degree, and, in special cases, to visit Europe in order to acquire practical acquaintance with some branch of mechanical industry. The latter is an object which the Commission are inclined to regard as of the highest importance, as connecting education with the material progress and prosperity of the country. We have also affirmed the principle that scholarship-holders, as such, should not be exempted from the payment of fees; and that, in general, scholarships, even though of small amount, if tenable in any college, are to be preferred to free studentships confined to particular institutions. Our Recommendations are, therefore—

That the Local Governments and Administrations be invited to consider whether it is necessary to assign for scholarships, tenable in Arts colleges, a larger proportion of the provincial grant for education than two per cent.

That scholarship-holders, as such, be not exempted from payment of the ordinary fees.

That the Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of appropriating, where necessary, a certain sum for the establishment of scholarships tenable by graduates reading for the M.A. degree.

That the Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of establishing scholarships for distinguished graduates to enable them to proceed to Europe for the purpose of practically studying some branch of mechanical industry.

That in place of the system existing in Madras, according to which the first twenty students at the University Entrance and F. A. Examinations are allowed to read free in any Government college, liberal provision be made for a system of scholarships open to general competition and tenable in any college.

That the Government of Bombay be requested to consider whether all or some of the scholarships now restricted to the Elphinstone and Deccan Colleges may, with due regard to the circumstances under which they were originally founded, be made tenable at any affiliated college; and that if these scholarships cannot fairly be opened to general competition, they be awarded as far as possible to poor students who, but for the stipends, would be unable to continue their studies at college.

338. Recommendations.—The Recommendations adopted by the Commission are as follows:—

(1) That the attention of the Local Governments be invited to the recommendations made in the several provincial reports with regard to providing or extending the means of collegiate education in the province of Sind and at Ahmedabad in Bombay, at Bhagalpur in Bengal, and at Jabalpur in the Central Provinces; and also to the question of the establishment of an aided college at Delhi under native management.

(2) That the rate of aid to each college be determined by the strength of the staff, the expenditure on its maintenance, the efficiency of the institution, and the wants of the locality.

(3) That provision be made for special grants to aided colleges, whenever necessary, for the supply and renewal of buildings, furniture, libraries, and other apparatus of instruction.

(4) That in order to secure a due succession of competent officers in the Education Department, the period of necessary service qualifying for pension should be reduced, and that a graduated scale of pensions based on length of service, and obtainable without medical certificate, should be introduced.

(5) That Indian graduates, especially those who have also graduated in European Universities, be more largely employed than they have hitherto been in the colleges maintained by Government.

(6) That in order to encourage diversity of culture, both on the literary and on the physical side, it is desirable, in all the larger colleges, Government and aided, to make provision for more than one of the alternative courses laid down by the Universities.

(7) That the discretionary power of Principals of colleges, to admit to certain courses of lectures in special cases students who have not passed the examinations required by the Universities, be affirmed.

(8) That an attempt be made to prepare a moral text-book, based upon the fundamental principles of natural religion, such as may be taught in all Government and non-Government colleges.

(9) That the Principal or one of the Professors in each Government and aided college deliver to each of the college classes in every session a series of lectures on the duties of a man and a citizen.

(10) That while it is desirable to affirm the principle that fees at the highest rate consistent with the undiminished spread of education should be levied in every college aided by the State, no aided college should be required to levy fees at the same rate as that charged in a neighbouring Government college.

(11) That no college, Government or aided, be allowed to receive more than a certain proportion of free students; the proportion to be fixed by the Departments in communication, where necessary, with the managers.

(12) That to secure regularity of attendance at colleges, the principle be affirmed that fees, though levied monthly for the convenience of students, are to be regarded as payments for a term, and that a student has no right to a certificate from his college for any term until the whole fee for that term is paid.

(13) That as the fees in the Presidency College of Madras are considerably lower than those which it is found practicable to levy in the Presidency Colleges of Calcutta and Bombay, the Government of Madras be invited to consider the advisability of enhancing the rate of fees in that college.

(14) That the Local Governments and Administrations be invited to consider whether it is necessary to assign for scholarships, tenable in Arts colleges, a larger proportion of the provincial grant for education than two per cent.

(15) That scholarship-holders, as such, be not exempted from payment of the ordinary fees.

(16) That the Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of appropriating, where necessary, a certain sum for the establishment of scholarships tenable by graduates reading for the M.A. degree.

(17) That the Local Governments be invited to consider the advisability of establishing scholarships for distinguished graduates to enable them to proceed to Europe for the purpose of practically studying some branch of mechanical industry.

(18) That in place of the system existing in Madras, according to which the first twenty students at the University Entrance and F. A. Examinations are allowed to read free in any Government college, liberal provision be made for a system of scholarships open to general competition and tenable in any college.

(19) That the Government of Bombay be requested to consider whether all or some of the scholarships now restricted to the Elphinstone and Deccan Colleges may, with due regard to the circumstances under which they were originally founded, be made tenable at any affiliated college; and that if these scholarships cannot fairly be opened to general competition, they be awarded as far as possible to poor students who, but for the stipends, would be unable to continue their studies at college.

CHAPTER VII.

INTERNAL ADMINISTRATION OF THE EDUCATION DEPARTMENT.

339. Introductory.—In the present Chapter we shall describe the constitution of the Education Department in the different Provinces of India; and shall consider the extent and character of its functions under the three heads of Direction or Control, Inspection, and Instruction. The question of control will lead us to examine the means that may exist for bringing the Department into closer relations with independent persons or bodies interested, equally with itself, in the progress of education; and for rendering accessible to it the fruits of their experience. Under inspection will be considered the possibility of associating with the officers of the Department such other voluntary agency as may prove to be available for that object; and we shall discuss the subject of examinations in the same general sense. The question of instruction involves that of text-books, which will be reviewed in the light of the Resolution of the Government of India, dated the 10th January 1881; and it will be considered what arrangements have been made, or are possible, "for teaching such subjects as may store the minds of the pupils in "secondary schools with useful and practical information." In the course of the enquiry we shall suggest the measures that seem to us best calculated to promote the objects set forth in the various Educational Despatches, as well as those to which later and independent experience has pointed as worthy of attainment in regard to the internal constitution and administration of the Department. All these measures will be set forth in specific Recommendations at the close of this Chapter.

340. Constitution of the Education Department.—In the second Chapter of this Report we have given some account of the establishment and constitution of the Education Department in the various Provinces of India. We proceed to describe it as it now exists. The Education Department in each Province consists of a Director of Public Instruction (under that or some other title); a staff, varying in strength in different Provinces, of inspecting officers of various grades; and a teaching staff rising from assistant teachers of primary schools up to Professors and Principals of colleges. The superior officers of the Department in each Province are arranged in a classified list, the particulars of which are given in the subjoined Table. Educational officers in Bengal were first graded in the year 1865, and within the next five or six years the same system was extended to the other Provinces of India. The list does not include the Provincial Directors of Public Instruction, who receive salaries, in Bombay and Bengal, of Rs. 2,000 a month rising to Rs. 2,500 in ten years; in Madras, of Rs. 2,000 rising to Rs. 2,250 in five years; in the North-Western Provinces, of Rs. 2,000 fixed; and in the Punjab, of Rs. 1,500 rising to Rs. 2,000 in five years.

Province.	1st class; Rs. 1,250 to Rs. 1,500.	2nd class; Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,250.	3rd class; Rs. 750 to Rs. 1,000.	4th class; Rs. 500 to Rs. 750.	Total.
Madras	1	2	5	7	15
Bombay	2	3	5	6	16
Bengal	2	6	11	20	39
North-Western Provinces and Oudh	1	4	3	6	14
Punjab	...	2	3	3	8
Other Provinces	1	1	3	1	6
Total	8	18	30	43	98

The Table supplies the means of estimating the average value of a graded appointment in the Education Department throughout India, and the average expectation of income which a graded officer may entertain on entering the service. According to the method of calculation adopted by the Financial Department, the value of a graded appointment, the salary of which rises by annual increments, is the minimum salary *plus* two-thirds of the difference between the minimum and the maximum. It follows that the average value of a graded educational appointment is rather less than Rs. 900 a month. At this rate of pay it has been found possible to attract to an educational career in India many men of considerable distinction at the English Universities, and some of the highest academical rank. It will be seen, however, that the prospects of promotion of educational officers, as estimated by the proportion of appointments in the lowest class to those in classes above the lowest, vary greatly in different Provinces. In Bombay, for example, where there are ten appointments in the three higher classes to six in the lowest, an officer's chance of promotion is nearly as 2 to 1. In Bengal, where there are 20 appointments in the lowest class and only 19 in the higher classes, he has scarcely an even chance of promotion. This inequality arises from the fact that the additional appointments made in recent years to the classified list of the Bengal Department have been nearly all in the fourth class. The point is one that appears to deserve attention in any reorganisation of the graded service. We have no information to show what are the ordinary prospects of promotion in other departments of the public service, and we therefore abstain from submitting any Recommendation on this point.

341. Conditions of Service of Graded Officers.—We have already, in our Chapter on Collegiate Education, referred to the anomaly of requiring men, most of whom have received at the Universities of the United Kingdom a professional training of a special kind, to serve except in isolated cases the full term of 30 years before they are eligible for a good service pension. Educational officers come under the general designation of "uncovenanted servants," and their term of service for pension is governed by the rules generally applicable to that comprehensive class of public officers. There is no doubt that educational officers have suffered in this respect by the application to them of a name originally intended to denote a body of men with far other qualifications and duties. There appears to be some hardship in requiring the English graduate, selected by the Secretary of State and employed in this country as a Principal of a College or an Inspector of Schools, to serve (unless he has been appointed after the age of 25) for the same term as an uncovenanted servant who is a native of India. The latter begins his public life at an earlier age; he does his work in the country in which he was born and in a climate congenial to his constitution; and when he retires from service there will be no revolution in his mode of living. With the former all these things are very different; and if the conditions of service are to be at all equalised, it would follow that the European officer should enjoy the right of retiring to his native country at an age when the harassing circumstances of life in India have not impaired his health or destroyed his energy. We have already, in Chapter VI, recommended the reduction of the term qualifying for a good service pension in the case of Professors of Colleges; and we only recur to it here as being applicable in the same sense and on the same grounds to other officers of the graded educational service.

342. Admission of Natives of India to the Graded Service.—The graded service was at the outset intended to attract competent men from the English Universities; but as natives of India have shown themselves qualified for higher work in the Education Department, they have of late years been promoted to the graded service in increasing numbers. In Bengal, out of a total of 39 officers, 7 are natives of India; and one of them has shown such eminent capacity for educational work of the most responsible kind that he has won his way to the first class of the service. In other Provinces the number of native graded officers is smaller; but in all the larger Departments some are found. We have already recommended the more extended employment of Indian graduates as Professors of Colleges, and we shall hereafter make a similar Recommendation with regard to Inspectorships. Meanwhile, there is one suggestion of a general character which we wish to offer, in the hope of removing what appears to be an unintended hardship, and has certainly been the cause of much disappointment. According to recent orders of the Secretary of State, a native officer when appointed to the graded service is allowed to draw only two-thirds of the ordinary pay of the grades. It has happened in more than one instance that the officer so promoted already draws a salary of Rs. 500 a month, which is the minimum pay of the fourth class on the ordinary scale. Consequently, his promotion to that class on the reduced scale involves a considerable reduction in his income. We accordingly recommend *that when an educational officer enters the higher graded service of the Education Department, his promotion should not involve any loss of pay.*

343. Subordinate Graded Service in Bengal and Bombay.—In Bengal not only the higher but the subordinate officers of the Department are formed into a graded service. This change was made in 1878, when 316 officers, drawing salaries of Rs. 50 a month and upwards, were arranged in the following classified list:—

	Number of Officers.	Salary. Rs.
Class I	6	400 to 500
„ II	10	300 „ 400
„ III	25	200 „ 300
„ IV	40	150 „ 200
„ V	60	100 „ 150
„ VI	75	75 „ 100
„ VII	100	50 „ 75

The list contains teaching and inspecting officers in not very different proportions, and a certain number of ministerial officers as well. Additions are made to the list as new appointments are created; and promotion takes place on the combined grounds of seniority, good service, and fitness for higher duties.

In Bombay, since the year 1864, all the subordinate officers of the Department in the receipt of salaries ranging from Rs. 30 to Rs. 300 a month have been graded in five classes. The Deputy Inspectors, 30 in number, form a separate graded service, and each of them is *ex-officio* accorded the title of "Rao Sahib" or "Khan Sahib."

344. Directing Staff of the Department.—At the head of the Education Department in each Province is an officer generally styled the Director of Public Instruction. In the Central Provinces he is called the Inspector General of Education, and in Assam the Inspector of Schools. In every Province except Coorg, where the Education Department is now administered directly by the Chief Commissioner, the general control of education in all its branches is in the hands of the Director. He prepares the educational estimates, controls the distribution of the grant-in-aid allotment, makes or recommends appointments and transfers of officers within the Department, and is the constituted adviser of Government in all matters connected with education. Outside the ordinary business of administration, in which the functions of the Director are com-

monly well-defined, any questions of special importance or involving points of educational policy, are referred by him for the decision of the Local Government. But a further and a much more complete opportunity of declaring its general policy in educational matters is afforded to the Local Government in the annual review of the Director's Report on Public Instruction. This review is widely published, and is discussed with close attention in the newspapers both native and European. There is probably no subject in which the native public takes a keener or more intelligent interest; and in this way the Government is periodically brought into contact with public opinion upon its educational policy. In the Punjab there is a special means by which one section of public opinion is brought to bear upon educational questions. The Senate of the Punjab University is regularly consulted by the Government of that Province upon all matters relating to education, including primary instruction.

345. Proposed Changes in the System of Control.—It has been suggested by the Hon'ble Mr. Justice West that "in order to bring about a complete understanding between the University and the Department of Public "Instruction, there ought to be a central Educational Board for each great Province, to which all important questions of principle should be referred. On "this Board in Bombay there should be two or three representatives of the University, as well as two officials (one the Director of Public Instruction) and two "others appointed either by co-optation or at the discretion of Government in "order to make room for the casual possessor of special qualifications. To this "Board the proposed courses of instruction in the higher secondary schools should "be submitted each half-year, in order, without excluding local and personal initiative, to preserve a general balance of studies. To the same Board reports of "the history and progress of each college and superior school should be submitted "from time to time for consideration. Its advice should be taken on every proposed alteration of system. It should be consulted on the allocation of funds "amongst institutions and subjects. Through the University and a Board thus "constituted public opinion would be brought to bear with due force on the "educational system in its more general features." Dr. Leitner in his evidence before the Commission has suggested that the State, after making provision for aiding every variety of sound instruction, should leave "the conduct of higher "education to the Universities, who should not be mere examining bodies but, "like the Punjab University College, supreme teaching and literary bodies, and "the consulting bodies of Government in all matters of education; and the more "direct control and supervision of primary and secondary education to local Educational Boards. This course is the most economical one, and will develope a "true educational growth in the country." In another portion of his evidence, Dr. Leitner expresses an opinion, that, "with the abolition of the Directorship "and the Inspectorships, a new spirit would come over the land. Schools "would spring up in every direction by local munificence, and all that is "good in Eastern civilisation would ally itself by a natural process with "all that is adaptable in Western progress." The Anjuman-i-Islamiya in the Punjab has likewise proposed that the duties of the Director should be transferred to "District Boards under the direction of the Senate of the Local "University." The Anjuman also proposes that the present Inspectorships and Assistant Inspectorships should be abolished, but adds that "an Inspector, with "the designation of Educational Secretary to the Government of Punjab, must "be retained to represent the Education Department and to act as a medium "between the Government and the Local Boards." Certain Missionaries in the Punjab, who have sent in a joint statement containing answers to some of the questions proposed by the Commission, suggest "that the Provincial "Directorship should be abolished, and one Minister of Education appointed for

"the whole of India. The Senior Inspector of each Province, in addition to his "inspection duties, might have special powers granted him for dealing with "special provincial difficulties." The Revd. G. Shirt, of Haidarabad in Sind, also suggests the abolition of the office of Director of Public Instruction, and the substitution of "an Educational Under-Secretary to Government on a "less salary." Dr. Rajendralal Mitra, writing about the Presidency of Bengal, is of opinion that the functions of the Director, as authoritatively laid down by Sir George Campbell, are such that there is no longer any necessity for maintaining that office. Dr. Mitra thinks that the Universities should now be the advisers of Government on higher education; that the Principals of colleges—in consultation with College Committees in the case of Mofussil colleges—should have full power to manage the details connected with the institutions under them; and that primary and secondary schools should be made over to the charge of Local and District Boards, which should appoint their own inspecting officers. The central educational office, he considers, should form part of the Secretariat and be presided over by an Under-Secretary to Government.

346. Character of the proposed Changes.—The proposals made in the foregoing extracts are chiefly four:—(1) the association with the Director in each Province of a Consulting Board of Education; (2) the transfer to the Universities of a large portion of the control now exercised by the Department; (3) the similar transfer of control to District Boards or other local bodies; (4) the abolition of the Provincial Directorships. Of these proposals the last two may be briefly dismissed. The transfer of control to local bodies is discussed at length in Chapter IV, and will be further referred to in Chapter VIII. The proposal to abolish the Provincial Directorships found no support in the Commission, and was not even suggested as a matter for discussion. In fact our Recommendations are based on the explicit assumption that the office and the independent position of the Provincial Directors will be maintained; and throughout our Report we have laid stress on the necessity of allowing the widest discretion to Local Governments, and of avoiding every attempt to centralise educational administration.

347. Extension of the Functions of the University.—The advantage of giving to the Universities wider powers, whether of advice or of control, is a larger question. In the Punjab, as we have seen, the functions of the newly-constituted University are not confined, as they are elsewhere, to the single duty of examination. The Punjab University is also a teaching and controlling body, and is a recognised adviser of the Government in all matters connected with education. An endeavour to enlarge the functions of the Calcutta University was made some years ago under the following circumstances, though without final success. In 1868 Sir William Muir, Lieutenant-Governor of the North-Western Provinces, addressed a letter to the Government of India in which he urged the desirability of extending and increasing in those Provinces the influence of the Calcutta University, of offering greater encouragement to the study of oriental literature, and of conducting some part of the examinations in the vernacular. The letter was forwarded to the University for consideration; and the Vice-Chancellor, Sir E. C. Bayley, proposed, with the object of giving effect to the Lieutenant-Governor's views, that the Entrance examination should be held optionally in the vernacular, and that a classical language should be made alternative with English at that examination. Neither of these proposals was ultimately adopted; but after prolonged discussion and consultation with the various Local Governments, the educational officers subordinate to them, and the heads of affiliated institutions, the following Resolution was in December 1871 adopted by the Senate:—"That for the

"better encouragement of vernacular education and literature, an examin-"ation in vernaculars be instituted by the University, on the plan of the "middle-class examinations conducted by the British Universities." The holding of this examination, with the rules for its conduct, was sanctioned by the Governor General in Council in January 1872, and it was decided to hold the first examination in November 1873. The standard comprised the following subjects, all being confined to the vernacular. The compulsory subjects were (1) a vernacular language; (2) the history and geography of India, with general geography; (3) elementary mathematics, including arithmetic, algebra to simple equations, and two books of Euclid with easy deductions. The optional subjects, not more than two of which might be taken up, were (1) Sanskrit; (2) Arabic; (3) Persian; (4) mensuration and surveying, with practical geometry; (5) the elements of statics, hydrostatics, and pneumatics; (6) physical geography and the elements of astronomy. Had these arrangements been carried out, the influence of the University would have been brought to bear on the whole field of vernacular education; and it was hoped that the standard, popularity, and success of vernacular schools, when thus taken under the protection of the University, would exhibit a rapid and marked improvement which could not fail to re-act beneficially on vernacular literature. But before any steps could be taken for carrying out these measures, the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal, Sir George Campbell, expressed in strong terms the objections that he felt to transferring to the University the control of middle-class education, the cost of which was provided by the Local Government. The examinations, he also showed, could not be carried out without the assistance of the Bengal Educational officers, and he was reluctant to give his consent to their employment in carrying into effect a scheme of the advantages of which he was far from convinced. In the face of the opposition thus raised by the Government most largely affected by the proposed measure, the scheme dropped; and nothing further in this direction has since been attempted either by the University of Calcutta or, so far as is known to the Commission, by the other two Universities. A question was also raised at the time whether any such extension of their functions was in accordance with the provisions of the Act of Incorporation, which declares the object of their institution to be that of "ascertaining by "means of examination the persons who have acquired proficiency in different "branches of Literature, Science, and Art, and of rewarding them by Academical "Degrees." This however is a matter beyond the scope of our enquiries; and we have only referred to the discussions that took place some years since in Bengal, with the object of showing what has actually been done towards extending the functions of the University to the regulation and control of education below the collegiate stage.

348. Consulting Provincial Boards of Education.—Of the four proposals cited above, the only one which was made the subject of a definite Recommendation before the Commission, and which received full discussion, was that for the appointment of a Board of Education to assist and advise the Director of Public Instruction in each Province. The subject was debated at our meeting of the 23rd February 1883, when it was proposed "that a consultative Board of "Education, consisting of representatives of the University, of the Department "of Public Instruction, and of the community at large, be established in each "Province, for the consideration of any general questions relating to education "which may from time to time be referred to it by the Local Government, or which "the Board itself may desire to bring to the notice of Government." On behalf of the proposal it was urged that a Government department was by its constitution ill-adapted to follow with quick and sympathetic appreciation the varying movements of public opinion, or to make a ready response to new demands or

new impulses which would force it out of the traditional and official groove. The appointment of the proposed Board would be attended with a double advantage. It would, on the one hand, bring about and maintain a complete understanding between the Department and the University; and on the other, it would be in a position, as representing the feelings and wishes of the community at large, to aid the Department with information and advice on educational questions of every kind. The value of allying public opinion with the operations of Government was admitted on all hands, but that opinion was now without organisation; the proposed Board would organise it on all matters relating to education. The Board would not interfere with the administrative powers of the Director of Public Instruction, but would be a consultative body merely. It was also thought desirable that a Central Board should be established, to which the various local Boards now to be constituted in each Province might look up for guidance.

The motion was opposed on the following grounds: It was urged that the appointment of a Central Board, whether vested with actual authority or merely consultative, was at best an unsatisfactory expedient. In the first place, to give the proposed Board any real power over higher education would be premature, and over lower education dangerous. The day might come when the people of India would manage their own educational systems, and rely less on the direct instrumentality of Government. But at present, since the chief provision for higher education was made by the Government, the Department must express the voice and the decisions of Government, and not those of a Central Board. With regard to primary education the case was different. The Government proposed to transfer its control to a number of Local Boards, which were to have real authority over funds for the most part locally raised. To overshadow these Boards by the authority of an external body, which would reflect the opinion of the metropolis and not that of the rural districts, would be to stifle local independence. Direct departmental control was a better alternative than control by a Central Board, inasmuch as the former would at any rate be based on that wide local information which a Government department alone could command. In the second place, if the functions of the Board were to be merely consultative, the objections to it were equally strong. Whatever other advantages might attend it, the establishment of a Board whose duties were limited to advising the Director was incompatible with the conditions under which alone a great department of Government could be administered. It was in the highest degree essential that the Education Department should on the one hand work in full co-operation with the University, and on the other that it should respond to the movements of educated opinion and to the reasonable desires of different sections of the community, scattered over the Districts and towns of the Province. The first object could be attained without the intervention of a Board, on which many interests besides those of the University were represented. The second promised indeed to be secured by the appointment of a representative Board, but the benefit would be purchased at the price of efficient administration. To interpose a consultative Board between the Government and its responsible officer would be to destroy responsibility and to replace expedition by delay. A Board such as that proposed must contain representatives of many conflicting interests; its members must include men of various creeds; advocates of the higher and advocates of the lower education; representatives of departmental agency, and representatives of private effort; delegates from the Districts as well as residents in the Presidency Towns. A Board so composed would be perpetually engaged in the discussion of first principles; and if action were to wait on their settlement by the Board, prompt action would be impossible.

It was essential to efficient administration that the responsibility of the head of the Department to the Government should be absolute. But with the intervention of a Board between the Director and the Government, the responsibility of the former would practically disappear. These arguments prevailed; and the proposal was rejected, though only by a narrow majority. It may be added that in our opinion the true remedy for the evils pointed out is for the Department to regard it as its first duty to keep touch with public opinion; to maintain a vigilant and at the same time a sympathetic watch upon the various movements taking place outside the departmental system; to recognise the fact that "departmentalism" is, or may easily become, an evil; and to seek to imbue all its officers with the liberal spirit conformable to these principles. When there are conflicting interests, it is for the Department to steer a clear course among them; recognising what is good in each, and treating all on broad grounds of justice and liberality. If it fails in that great duty, the Government is at hand to correct its deficiencies. The Government is already brought into effective contact with public opinion on all great questions of educational policy; and it may be fairly anticipated that one result of the Commission's labours will be to infuse into the policy of the future still greater liberality and vigour.

349. Educational Conferences.—At the same time we are fully convinced that nothing but good can result from the occasional or even frequent association, in a somewhat formal way, of departmental officers with others interested in education. Under present arrangements, the relations of departmental officers to each other and to persons outside the Department are too exclusively confined to official correspondence; and no opportunity is given for that free interchange of ideas which personal intercourse can alone or can best secure. To aid in the attainment of the latter object, and to bring the Department into healthy contact with outside opinion, we recommend the institution of periodical conferences, at which educational officers and others may meet and exchange their views. We do not propose to define what degree of authority should attach to these conferences; but it is clear that any conclusions to which they may be led will possess more weight if they receive the formal recognition of Government. We therefore recommend *that conferences* (1) *of officers of the Education Department, and* (2) *of such officers with managers of aided and unaided schools, be held from time to time for the discussion of questions affecting education, the Director of Public Instruction being in each case* ex-officio *President of the conference. Also that Deputy Inspectors occasionally hold meetings of the schoolmasters subordinate to them, for the discussion of questions of school management.*

350. Provision of other educational Facilities.—Connected with the last Recommendation is another, having for its object the establishment in each Province of an educational library or museum; at which might be collected, for purposes of reference by those interested in the subject, works relating to education in all countries, the chief text-books used in the schools of England and of the different Provinces of India, and specimens or models of the apparatus and appliances of instruction chiefly in vogue. The utility of such a collection to educational officers and to managers of schools is obvious. To all these it would be a great advantage to have an opportunity, such as is afforded in England by the Kensington Museum or the National Society's Depository at Westminster, of comparing different grammars and histories, of looking at the newest copy-book, and of inspecting models of school furniture. Nor is it anticipated that the establishment of such a central library and museum would be attended with

any great expense. These institutions once known, it is believed that authors, publishers, and those engaged in the production of school appliances, would readily send specimens of their publications and apparatus, in view of the advantages offered by such a mode of advertising. We therefore recommend *that a general educational library and museum be formed at some suitable locality in each Province.* It has also been pointed out that educational newspapers and magazines in the vernacular are often of great service to managers of schools, especially vernacular schools of the better class, in making them acquainted with new text-books or new methods and appliances of teaching, or with recent orders of Government on educational matters; and that such newspapers often languish for want of moderate support. We have therefore added to the foregoing Recommendation the following clause: *and that encouragement be given to school papers or magazines conducted in the vernacular.*

351. Relation of the Department to Schools in Competition.—An important and delicate part of the functions which the Department must discharge, if the different agencies at work in education are to be duly co-ordinated and harmonised, has now to be considered. One main intention of the Despatch of 1854 was to secure for the educational efforts of the State the help of private individuals and private bodies, and to give every scope and encouragement to the work of these agencies. Such a scheme is fitted to do and has done much for the spread of education; but, like all other schemes, it must be taken with the defects of its qualities. A defect inseparable from it is its tendency to cause schools to spring up, not always where they are most required, but rather where men or bodies happen to exist that are ready to exert themselves for the public good. Thus there is some danger of a clashing of interests and a waste of power; some danger of disorganisation through excessive supply of the means of education in one place and deficiency of such means in others. Some regulating authority is indispensable if this danger is to be minimised. The Department is the only body that can possibly exert such controlling power, and the Provincial Reports indicate that it is everywhere regarded as the proper regulating authority. The Bombay Report mentions that one at least of the reasons for withdrawing the grant offered for passing the matriculation examination was that the hope of obtaining the grant sometimes led one school to use questionable means for attracting clever pupils from another. The Bengal Report says that to a new school that is set up beside an old one, the Department gives or refuses aid according as it judges that the establishment of a second school will be beneficial or hurtful in its effects. And in the Report for the Central Provinces it is said that if one aided school was found to be injuring another by undue lowering of fees, the Department would feel bound to interfere. Thus it is understood that the Department possesses the regulating power that is required, though in its peculiar position as directly managing one class of schools and only indirectly controlling others, it has naturally been somewhat reluctant to exert it.

352. Regulations in Force, and Opinions of Witnesses.—We shall recur again to the subject of fees; but there are other ways in which the mutual relations of schools need to be regulated with care. In towns where there are several schools,—and it is only in them that competition need be considered,—there is a danger of discipline being injured and the tone of education lowered by too keen a competition for pupils. The desire also that pupils commonly feel to be placed in the highest class they can get admitted to, causes considerable danger of their changing their schools so often that steady progress is greatly interfered with. This danger is recognised and some provision made against it in all Provinces. In the town of

Madras and in some other large towns of that Province, the heads of most of the leading institutions act upon a code of rules for the admission and transfer of pupils; and their action is so far recognised by the Department, that the Director's standing orders enjoin that wherever schools are in competition, endeavours be made to introduce the Madras rules with such modifications as local circumstances require. In Bengal, the Department has prevailed on the managers of a large number of schools to adopt a similar code, and, when once adopted, any infringement of it renders the pupils of the offending school liable to exclusion from Government junior scholarships. In the North-Western Provinces a similar arrangement exists, though generally confined to Government institutions. In the other Provinces the arrangements appear to be less precise, though in most colleges and high schools there seems to be either a declared agreement or a tacit understanding that pupils are not admitted without a certificate from their former place of education, or some other satisfactory proof that there is no improper reason for their seeking admission.

The question intended to bring out the opinion of witnesses on this point was: "Are there any arrangements between colleges and schools of your "Province to prevent boys who are expelled from one institution, or who leave it "improperly, from being received into another? What are the arrangements "which you would suggest?" The question has been answered by above sixty witnesses, all of whom except some nine or ten speak more or less strongly of the need of systematic arrangements to prevent irregular admission. But even of those who do not altogether favour such arrangements, not more than three or four decidedly oppose them. The rest merely doubt whether proper rules can be practically enforced, or they express the fear that rules may be so strict as to infringe on the proper liberty of pupils and their guardians. Of this there is obviously some danger. It is far from desirable to allow no change in the place of education, or to give teachers the power of forcibly retaining pupils whose guardians wish them to be transferred. In any code of rules that may be enforced this danger should be guarded against. In Bengal the Inspector of Schools is the constituted referee in cases of dispute, and his decisions have been readily accepted. The following is the general character of the definite rules that have been tried and found to work well. They provide that at certain times—once or twice in the year—pupils may go, without leave asked or given, to any school they please; that changes are allowed at other than the specified times only at the express desire of guardians and with permission from the head-master of the school that is left; that in ordinary circumstances a pupil is not to be placed in a higher class in the school he joins than he would have belonged to had he continued in his former school; and that before his admission to a new school the fees due to his former school are all paid up. The rules aim at leaving sufficient freedom, and yet at securing the maintenance of discipline and the discouragement of unreasonable changes.

353. Recommendation for definite Rules.—The weak point of all the arrangements at present in force is that they are voluntary or semi-voluntary, and that thus a new manager or head-master who does not feel himself bound by the engagements of his predecessor may introduce confusion at any time. Again, in the absence of any definite rule or agreement to the contrary, a head-master may often find himself practically compelled to admit a boy to his school, with the full knowledge that his action may turn to his own disadvantage in similar circumstances hereafter. Thus the hold of all head-masters upon their pupils is relaxed, and discipline suffers. It would obviate these dangers if all institutions connected in any way with the Department could be brought to accept a definite set of rules. No doubt much tact and patience would be needed when such rules first came into operation; but in a few years they might become a well-understood part of school management, and would require little or no trouble to enforce. Indeed we believe that, in the vast majority of cases, head-masters would cordially welcome any rules which, by limiting their discretion as to admissions, would greatly strengthen their position. The gain in teaching lessons of steadiness and perseverance to pupils and in improving discipline would be very great. Also—what we value even more—the enforcement of such rules would draw schools under all kinds of management closer together, would make their relations with the Department more intimate, and would tend powerfully to develope the feeling that all schools are working for a common end and should have no rivalry except in promoting the interests of the entire community. We therefore recommend *that managers of schools in competition be invited by the Department to agree to rules providing, as far as the circumstances of the locality allow, (1) that, except at specified times, a pupil of one school be not admitted to another without a certificate from his previous school; (2) that any fees due to that school have been paid; and (3) that he do not obtain promotion to a higher class by changing his school.*

354. Policy of the Department in regard to Fees.—The advisability of raising the rates of fees to the highest point consistent with the continued spread of education has been repeatedly acknowledged. It is, if not only, yet chiefly, by this means that Government institutions of the higher class will be enabled to approach the self-supporting stage, a result to which many educational Despatches look forward; and also that privately-managed institutions will attain to greater efficiency and success. It is a case, moreover, in which the initiative of the Department is essential. We have elsewhere maintained the principle that of two schools of the same standard of instruction and in the same locality, the departmental school should as a rule charge higher fees; and any general increase in the rates will be subject to this condition. If the Department shows the way, private managers will in general be eager to follow; if the Department is supine, they can take no active steps to increase their income without risk of serious injury. The policy which we recommend has its natural and necessary limits in the fact that any increase in fees beyond the capacity of the people to pay them will result in a loss of pupils, and thus defeat the object it is intended to secure; and this condition is sufficiently provided for in our Recommendation, which refers chiefly to the higher class of institutions. We recommend *that it be an instruction to the Departments of the various Provinces to aim at raising fees gradually, cautiously, and with due regard to necessary exemptions, up to the highest amount that will not check the spread of education, especially in colleges, secondary schools, and primary schools in towns where the value of education is understood.*

355. Classification of Schools: Statistical Returns.—Our attention has been drawn to the multiplicity of the annual and other returns that are required from schools in some Provinces; and the necessity for such requisitions has been variously attributed to the local Departments and to the general orders of the Government of India. But the orders of the Supreme Government on this subject in 1879 were issued with the declared object of simplifying educational forms; and though reasonable exception has been taken to them in other respects, there appears to be no ground for ascribing to those orders the unnecessary complexity which is alleged to exist. Again, strong opposition has been raised to the use of the term "private institutions," when applied to those schools and colleges which conform in every respect to the regulations and standards of the Education Department. The term is held to convey an invidious distinction, and to imply that these schools are not only under private management but that they serve no public purpose. We therefore propose to apply in future the

term "public schools" to all schools which form a regular and recognised part of the system of public instruction. Hence a school which is not under the management of the Department or of a Local or Municipal Board, and which has hitherto been classed as a "private school," should now, if it forms part of the recognised State system, be classed as a "public school under private "management." All privately-managed schools that are in receipt of aid or are regularly inspected by the Department will come within this class. The class will also include any institutions which, though neither aided nor inspected, regularly send pupils to the examinations of the Department or of the University, participate in the benefits of the scholarship system, and therefore form an essential part of the system of public instruction. The Metropolitan Institution of Calcutta, a college which is neither aided nor inspected, which teaches the full course for the B. A. degree, and whose pupils are nearly as numerous as those of the Government Presidency College, has, it is held, as good a right as the latter to the title of a public institution. Under this definition, private institutions will include all indigenous schools which have not accepted the departmental standards of instruction; and all others in which the course of instruction, however advanced, does not conform to the standards prescribed or accepted by the Department or by the University, and which submit to no public test. All such schools should be shown in a class by themselves, nor do we think it necessary that the returns should exhibit any statement of their financial condition. We need not dwell at any greater length on these proposals, since they have been made the basis of the Report independently submitted by the Committee appointed for the Revision of Educational Forms. Our Recommendations under this head are as follows:—

(*a*) *That the Education Department of each Province limit its call for returns* (*1*) *to such as the Government may require, and* (*2*) *to such others as are indispensable for information and control;*

(*b*) (*1*) *That all schools managed by the Department or by Committees exercising statutory powers, and all other schools that are regularly aided, or inspected, or that send pupils to the examinations of the University or of the Department* (*other than examinations which are conducted by the Department for admission to the public service*), *be classed as public schools, and sub-divided into departmental, aided and unaided*; (*2*) *that all other schools furnishing returns to the Department be classed as private schools; and* (*3*) *that all other details of classification be referred to the Statistical Committee appointed by the Government of India;*

(*c*) *That no attempt be made to furnish financial returns for private schools.*

We may call attention to the fact that we propose to exclude from the class of public schools those which merely prepare pupils for the examinations which in some Provinces regulate admission to the public service; since these examinations, though often conducted by the Department, have not in all cases any definite relation to the ordinary standards of instruction.

356. Inspecting Staff of the Department.—The number of departmental inspecting officers of different classes, the number of schools under their charge, and the work done by them in each Province of India, are shown in the subjoined Table. Besides the officers of the Department, there are also other agencies more or less systematically engaged in the inspection of schools. They consist of officers of Government outside the Education Department; of local bodies and school committees of various kinds; and of different forms of private agency. These will be exhibited in detail in the account to be presently given of the inspecting agency in each Province.

Inspection of Schools in 1881-82.

NAME OF PROVINCE.	Designation of Inspecting Officers.	Number of Inspecting Officers.	Average area in square miles allotted to each Inspecting Officer.	Average number of Schools under the charge of each Inspecting Officer.	Average number of Schools examined in 1881.	Average number of Schools examined at centres.	Total average number of Schools examined.	Total average number of Scholars examined.	Average number of days spent on tour.	Average number of miles travelled.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
MADRAS*	Inspectors	7	23,108	2,545	187	...	187	7,500	103	2,405
	Deputy Inspectors	55	3,046	266	not returned	not returned	not returned	not returned	184	1,726
BOMBAY†	Inspectors	5	38,128	1,124	120	53	173	7,535	244	2,705
	Deputy Inspectors	30	7,646	111	115	11	126	3,089	228	1,591
	Assistant Deputy Inspectors	19	3,824	101	109	18	127	3,687	210	1,259
BENGAL‡	Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors	10	18,722	197	102	not returned	102	not returned	122	2,560
	Deputy Inspectors	43	3,539	1,301	177	260	437	ditto	150	2,058
	Sub-Inspectors	173	874	312	189	152	341	ditto	201	1,935
NORTH-WESTERN PROVINCES AND OUDH	Inspectors	8	12,246	735	106	293	399	7,734	159	1,313
	Assistant Inspectors	1	24,246	1,343	167	67	234	6,994	157	1,345
	Deputy Inspectors	44	2,256	140	270	27	297	6,538	267	2,554
	Sub-Deputy Inspectors	34	2,259	129	272	...	272	5,485	245	1,868
PUNJAB	Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors	7	15,427	206	not returned	...	206	not returned	140	2,809
	District Inspectors and Chief School Moharirs	30	3,560	46	184	...	184	2,170	200	1,500
CENTRAL PROVINCES	Inspector-General	1	84,445	1,444	120	...	120	not returned	157	2,430
	Inspectors	3	28,148	481	319	...	319	...	210	2,950
	District and Joint Inspectors	20	4,232	72	219	...	219	...	249	2,101
ASSAM	Inspector	1	4,534	1,455	not returned	not returned	not returned	not returned	201	not returned
	Deputy Inspectors	9	4,032	158	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	144	1,855
	Sub-Inspectors	14	1,783	73	ditto	ditto	ditto	ditto	184	2,235
COORG	Inspector§	1	1,583	63	40	...	40	not returned	not returned	472
	Sub-Deputy Inspector	1	1,583	51	51	...	51	2,032	178	969
HAIDERABAD ASSIGNED DISTRICTS	Inspector	1	17,711	22	22	...	22	1,959	154	2,142
	Deputy Inspectors	7	5,060	139	117	...	117	4,999	163	1,961
TOTAL FOR INDIA‖	Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors¶	45	24,417	884	137	137	189	6,686	169	2,113
	Deputy Inspectors¶	238	4,211	207	130	99	230	4,178	168	1,878
	Sub-Deputy Inspectors	441	2,133	133	140	135	125	3,934	203	1,665

* No returns available to show the work done by the Deputy Inspector of Muhammadan Schools and by the Inspectress and Deputy Inspectress of Schools in Madras.
† No returns available to show the work done by the Inspectresses of Schools in Bombay.
‡ No returns available to show the work done by the Inspectress of Schools in Bengal.
§ The Inspector is also the Principal of the Merkara High School.
‖ Excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own systems of education.
¶ Excluding the Inspector and Deputy Inspectors of Schools in Ajmir.

357. Work done by Inspecting Officers.—In all India there are 45 Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors, 238 Deputy Inspectors, and 241 Sub-Inspectors. Each Inspector or Assistant Inspector, whose jurisdiction extends over many Districts, has an average of 882 schools under his charge. Deputy Inspectors are commonly in charge of Districts, and Sub-Inspectors or Sub-Deputy Inspectors in charge of sub-divisions of Districts; and, except in Bengal, where the Deputy Inspector has 1,300 schools, under his general supervision, though they do not all come under his immediate inspection, each of these officers is entrusted with the superintendence on an average of 133 schools. The returns of work done are not complete; but so far as they go, it appears that each inspecting officer examined in 1881-82 an average of from 140 to 180 schools *in situ*, besides in many Provinces a further number at central gatherings. The total number of schools thus coming under the immediate inspection of each officer was about 200 in the year. Each Inspector and Assistant Inspector also spent about 170 days on tour, and travelled more than 2,000 miles; while each subordinate officer spent on an average 200 days on tour, travelling something less than 2,000 miles. As will be seen from the Table, there are differences in detail between different Provinces and different classes of officers; but the summary just given exhibits the broad facts of inspectional work in India, and also furnishes a convenient if rough test of activity. It may be noticed that in the Punjab, owing to accidental interruptions, the number of days spent by the Inspectors on tour in 1881-82 was considerably below the average of ordinary years, which for the three preceding years was 180 days. Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors have the general superintendence of a large tract of country and a large number of schools, only a small proportion of which they can personally inspect. The detailed inspection of these schools is carried out by the local officers, the Deputy and Sub-Inspectors; and, speaking generally, it may be stated that, except in Bengal, all the schools under their charge come under their personal inspection at least once a year. In Madras and Bombay there is a definite Code of rules for the guidance of inspecting officers in the examination of schools. In other Provinces the method and character of the examination is governed by general instructions that have been issued from time to time by the Department, and much is left to the discretion of individual officers.

358. Inspecting Agency in Madras.—The staff consists of 7 Inspectors of Circles and 55 Deputy Inspectors. There is also a class of officers termed "inspecting schoolmasters," whose duty is rather to assist village teachers in their work than to inspect; and they would more correctly be described as "itinerating circle schoolmasters." There is no regular inspection by other officers of Government; nor is there any inspection by school committees. The only bodies that can be so styled are Local Fund Boards and Municipalities. These manage the schools that they maintain, but they do not inspect or report upon them. No private agencies are engaged in the work of inspection. Government institutions and those maintained from Municipal and Local Funds are visited once a year by the Circle Inspector, who, aided by the Deputy Inspector, examines the primary classes and reports upon them to the Director. In middle schools the classes are examined at shorter intervals by the Deputy Inspector. Those classes which are to be subjected during the year to any of the public examinations are not usually examined by the Inspector. In aided high and middle schools the Inspector examines all classes, with the exception of those reading for the middle school and the matriculation examinations. His examination of high and middle schools, whether departmental or aided, is to be such as will enable him "to form a judgment on the conduct "of instruction in each class, its discipline and tone." In primary schools aided

on the results-system, a careful examination under the several standards is carried out by the Inspector in the presence of the managers. For those aided on the salary-grant system a much less detailed examination is prescribed. The annual examination of the more elementary schools is conducted by the Deputy Inspector, who is also required to visit them at least once in the interval between two examinations. The inspecting schoolmaster should visit the elementary schools under him once a quarter, in order to give the teachers frequent help in adapting their instruction to the authorised standards and methods; but the staff is as yet insufficient to carry out this scheme in its integrity. No formal examination is made of superior schools "not under "inspection"; but it is the practice of the departmental officers to visit such schools should the managers desire it, and to aid them by advice. It is also the duty of the Deputy Inspectors and their assistants to visit indigenous schools and to endeavour to bring them under inspection by the offer of books and other help.

359. Inspecting Agency in Bombay.—In Bombay the departmental staff comprises 5 Inspectors, 30 Deputy and 19 Assistant Deputy Inspectors. The Director of Public Instruction personally inspects a considerable number of primary and secondary schools in the course of his tour; and the Professors and Fellows of the Elphinstone and Deccan Colleges annually examine the upper classes of the Government high schools at Bombay and Poona. Outside the Department all District officers, from the Collector to the Mamlatdar, are required in the course of their annual tours to pay frequent visits of inspection to the primary schools situated within their respective charges; and they are occasionally present at the annual examination of the schools by the Deputy Inspector. School committees also take some part in the work of inspection. Every primary cess school is under the local supervision of a committee, consisting of the chief officers of the village or town and of other influential persons. The functions of the committee are to visit and occasionally to examine the school; to strengthen the hands of the master and keep him up to his work; to superintend the repairs of buildings; to collect subscriptions; and generally to secure the co-operation and support of the people in the maintenance of the school. Every cess-school is supplied with a book in which revenue officers and other visitors record the results of their inspection or examination. The missionary bodies that are engaged in educational work inspect their own schools, independently of any visits paid by departmental officers. They also occasionally visit the Government schools, and have in that way rendered valuable assistance to the Department.

Every cess-school and every Government secondary school is annually examined *in situ* by one or more of the educational officers, under the standards prescribed by the Department for each class. Aided schools, primary and secondary, are similarly examined by the Department, except that in every alternate year the examination is shorter and much less searching. The examination of primary schools is chiefly oral. That of secondary schools, being more elaborate, is for the most part conducted in writing. The order and discipline of the classes, as well as the efficiency of the teaching staff, are points to which the Inspector is required to attend. He also audits the school-accounts, and examines the state of the furniture and building, the library and apparatus. But the duties of the Inspector are not limited to the examination of secondary schools. The greater portion of his time is devoted to the control of primary education; and in his annual tour he is usually able to visit 150 of the cess and indigenous schools. The local committee generally attend the examination of the cess-school, and the visit is made the occasion of conferring with the

people upon school-matters. Much good is found to result from these informal conferences. When the examination of cess-schools is conducted by the Deputy Inspector, the results are forwarded to the Inspector through the District Collector. The results of the examination of secondary schools are submitted by the Inspector to the Director. The head-master of the school examined is furnished with a copy of the Inspector's report. The aided indigenous schools are annually examined by the inspecting officers; and the Inspectors and Deputy Inspectors take every opportunity, while on tour, of visiting the schools that are not aided by the Department.

360. Inspecting Agency in Bengal.—The regular departmental staff consisted on the 31st March 1882 of 5 Circle and 5 Assistant Inspectors, 43 Deputy and 173 Sub-Inspectors. One of the Circle Inspectors and all the Assistant Inspectors were natives of India. Two more Assistant Inspectors were sanctioned towards the end of the year, though not appointed until after its close. The Circle Inspector is the chief administrative officer of the Department in matters of secondary education, and is generally in charge of two Divisions, to each of which an Assistant Inspector is also commonly appointed. The Deputy Inspector is the chief educational officer in each District. He is subordinate to the Inspector in regard to secondary, and to the Magistrate in regard to primary education. His connection with primary schools is limited to general control, to organising and conducting the central examinations, and to seeing that the orders of the District Magistrate are carried out by the Sub-Inspectors. Of the last-named officers there are about four in each District. They are directly subordinate to the Magistrate, and are in immediate charge of primary schools, each of which they are generally required to visit *in situ* once a quarter. In many Districts the number of primary schools is too great for this requirement to be carried out; and in 1881-82 there were no fewer than 16,000 indigenous schools which were not visited *in situ* by any officers of the regular inspecting staff. Accordingly, where the staff is insufficient, further provision for the local inspection of schools is made by the subordinate agency of "inspecting pandits" or "chief gurus," these last being teachers of superior primary schools who are charged with the additional duty of supervising all schools within a radius of five or six miles. This auxiliary supervision is described by the Government of Bengal as supplying a close network of organisation; it has been the means of bringing under departmental control a large number of indigenous schools; and though at best an imperfect substitute for a larger staff of regular inspecting officers, it will always have its uses. Outside the regular inspecting staff, the Magistrate of each District distributes and administers the primary grant under the general authority of the Director, to whom he furnishes an annual report on the primary education of the District. Schools of every class are also occasionally inspected by the revenue officers, from the Commissioner to the Assistant or Deputy Magistrate. The zila school of each District is under the general supervision of the District Committee of Education, and its members inspect and occasionally take part in the annual examination of the school. Every aided secondary school is under the management of a local committee. Officers of the Department are required to pay particular attention to the remarks and suggestions made by visitors of all these classes. An important element in the Bengal primary system, as initiated by Mr. Harrison in Midnapur and adopted in many other Districts that follow the method of payment-by-results, is the appointment of village committees to assist the inspecting officers of the Department in supervising and conducting the central examinations. These committees not only lend importance to the proceedings, and secure impartiality in the awards, but they also take a useful part in the examination and in the distribution of the rewards earned. When visiting secondary schools, inspecting officers are required to note and report on the state of the school-building; the furniture and apparatus; the attendance of pupils and teachers; the finances of the school; the account books and registers; the state of the library; the salaries of the teachers, including the date up to which they have been paid; the discipline and organisation of the classes; the progress of pupils since the last visit; the success of the school at University or departmental examinations; and the competence of the teachers. When time allows, the examination is made individually boy by boy and class by class throughout the school. Quarterly inspection returns are submitted to superior officers in a prescribed form. Deputy Inspectors are required to be on tour for 15 days, and Sub-Inspectors for 20 days, in each month.

361. Inspecting Agency in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—The staff consists of 8 Inspectors, 1 Assistant Inspector, 44 Deputy and 34 Sub-Deputy Inspectors. The duty of the Inspectors is to visit and report to the Director of Public Instruction upon aided schools (excepting certain schools for girls which are not open to their inspection); to manage and inspect zila and Normal schools; to inspect during the course of their annual tour, either *in situ* or at centres, all vernacular schools which are under the administrative charge of District Education Committees, that is, tahsili and halkabandi schools; and to report to the Committees the result of their examinations, with suggestions for improvement and for future guidance. It is the duty of the Deputy Inspector, as the executive officer of the District Committee, to manage and control all vernacular schools; and as the representative of the Inspector, to examine such schools and report on their condition. There is a Deputy Inspector to each District except Benares and Mirzapur, in which the number of vernacular schools is small. Sub-Deputies are appointed to assist the Deputy Inspectors in the larger Districts of the North-Western Provinces only. They have nothing to do with management, and can pass no order in any school. Generally it may be said that the departmental agency provides for the inspection of all aided and zila schools once a year, and of all vernacular schools from four to five times a year. During the hot weather, when the Inspectors are at head-quarters, they pay special attention to the Normal schools. Though all gazetted officers, from the Commissioner to the Tahsildar, are expected by Government to interest themselves in the progress of education, the extra-departmental bodies that the Government has most fully recognised and empowered for this purpose are the Education Committees, whose powers are defined by rule. The actual management of primary vernacular schools is in the hands of the official secretary and the Deputy Inspector, the duties of the Inspector being restricted to the direction of studies and to giving advice. There are no such committees in Oudh, where an Inspector and an Assistant Inspector are in direct charge of all departmental schools. The missionary bodies engaged in educational work in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh maintain some agency for the inspection and control of the schools under their charge; but beyond sending to the Director an annual return for such schools as receive aid, they make no report to the Department upon the working of their controlling or inspecting agency, nor do they take any part in general instruction.

362. Inspecting Agency in the Punjab.—There are in the Punjab four Inspectors of Circles, three Assistant Inspectors, 20 District Inspectors, and 10 chief school muharrirs. Few schools except the District schools are under the direct management of the Department, and the control of these is now being localised. The duty of the Inspectors and Assistants is to manage and inspect the District schools, to inspect and assist in the management of the schools,

chiefly vernacular, that are maintained from District and Municipal Funds, and to inspect schools under private management that receive grants-in-aid. The District Inspectors and school muharrirs are subordinate to the Deputy Commissioner, and their duty is to manage and inspect the schools which are under his charge as President of the District or Municipal Committee. As a rule, each District has either a District Inspector or a chief school muharrir, the latter being an officer of inferior rank to the District Inspector, but with the same duties. Each District school is visited three times a year by an Inspector or an Assistant Inspector, and each aided school once. Every school is examined once in the year by an Inspector or an Assistant Inspector, either *in situ* or at centres. The schools are also inspected *in situ* once a quarter by the District Inspectors and school muharrirs. Schools are also occasionally visited by Deputy Commissioners and subordinate District officers, but the negligent way in which tahsildars discharge this duty is a common subject of complaint.

363. Inspecting Agency in the Central Provinces.—The departmental staff consists of one Inspector General, 3 Inspectors of Circles, and 20 District Inspectors. The title of the head of the Department is intended to show that he is an inspecting, at least as much as a controlling officer. The Government College, and all Normal schools, high schools, and superior middle schools that are maintained by the Department are under the direct administration of the Inspector General and the Circle Inspectors. The duties of the latter officers are chiefly those of inspection, though they directly manage all superior schools, and have other administrative duties. The administrative control of all Government schools with the exceptions above noted, and the inspection of all indigenous schools that submit to inspection, are entrusted to the Deputy Commissioners, who are assisted in their educational work by the District Inspectors subordinate to them. Every Government school of whatever kind is under a school committee, of which the Deputy Commissioner is *ex-officio* President. The whole committee visits the school monthly, and one member is chosen by rotation to visit it weekly. In some cases the members examine the boys, but they are often too illiterate for this. Still their presence is said to have a useful effect in enabling them to look after attendance, to settle matters of discipline, and to arrange within certain limits the rates of fees. A very complete Code of rules has been issued for the guidance of school committees. The members of the various Missionary Societies throughout the Province also give great and valued help in educational work. The Free Church Mission conducts the middle school and the Entrance examinations for all the Marathi-speaking Districts of the Central Provinces. All inspecting officers are required not merely to examine schools, but to correct faulty methods of teaching and to see that the discipline of the school is good. They record fully in the minute-book of the schools the results of the examination, and add their remarks upon the discipline and the state of the building, furniture and apparatus. Each Circle Inspector after completing his tour in a District sends his report of the schools seen to the Deputy Commissioner. Both Circle and District Inspectors send monthly to the Inspector General an inspection report showing fully the schools visited, their state, and the qualifications of the teachers.

364. Inspecting Agency in the other Provinces.—The system in Assam is organised on the same plan as that of Bengal. There is one Inspector of Schools, 9 Deputy and 14 Sub-Inspectors. The Sub-Inspectors are required to visit each primary school once a quarter. The Deputy Inspector visits each middle school once a quarter, and as many primary schools as he has time for. In Coorg and the Haidarabad Assigned Districts there is nothing in the system which calls for special notice.

365. Inspection of Girls' Schools.—Provision is made in some Provinces for the independent inspection of girls' schools by ladies. Thus in Madras, in Bombay and in Bengal, an Inspectress of Schools is employed; and at Poona and Ahmedabad in Bombay, the Lady Superintendents of the Training Colleges have the entire control of the local girls' schools. Travelling Inspectresses were formerly employed in the North-Western Provinces and the Punjab, but these appointments no longer exist. In a few of the larger cities and in their neighbourhood the girls' schools are inspected by ladies, most of whom belong to missionary societies. In the Central Provinces, where the seclusion of women is not generally enforced by public opinion, there is less need than elsewhere for the services of a travelling Inspectress.

366. Employment of Inspecting Officers at Head-quarters.—In addition to the duty of inspection, a large amount of administrative work involving considerable correspondence falls to the share of the superior officers of the Department. When they return to head-quarters at the close of their cold-weather tour, inspecting officers have much to occupy them in writing their annual reports, in the examination of Normal schools and the inspection of other schools at head-quarters, in conducting the public examinations prescribed by the Department, in preparing the educational estimates, in the revision of text-books, and in disposing of any of the larger questions that arise during the year. Frequent complaints have been made that the time of inspecting officers, especially of the superior officers, is too much taken up with office-work and correspondence. There appears to be solid ground for these complaints, and it is unquestioned that duties of the kind referred to have greatly increased of late years. At the same time it must be remembered that such duties are a necessary part of the Inspector's work when he is not only, as in England, an Inspector, but also the administrative officer of a large Department. In most parts of India, too, travelling with tents is impossible during many months of the year, and the Inspector is compelled either to remain at head-quarters, or to confine his journeys to places which can be reached by rail. This does not apply to certain parts of Bengal, where the Inspector travels by boat, and is consequently on tour in almost every month of the year. But in other parts of India it is necessary to utilise the time which the Inspector has to spend at his head-quarters, and with regard to that portion of his time there does not appear to be much to complain of. The true cause for complaint arises when time, which might otherwise be spent in inspecting schools, is devoted to work in the office; or when, as is stated to be the case in Bombay, the Inspector has so much correspondence to deal with while on tour that he has too little leisure for conferring with the people. The most jealous care should be exercised to prevent his office engagements from trenching unduly on the far more important duty of actual inspection. But the circumstances and systems of different Provinces are so diverse that it is difficult to offer any suggestions of general application on this point. We recommend the subject to the careful consideration of the Local Governments and Departments.

367. Cost of Inspection and Control.—The particulars of expenditure under these heads are shown in the following Table:—

Cost of Inspection and Control in 1881-82.

Name of Province.	Number of Officers.	Officers of each class.	Yearly Salaries.	Travelling allowance.	Contingent expenditure.	Total.	Percentage of provincial expenditure to total expenditure on education* from Provincial Funds.	Percentage of total expenditure (column 7) to total expenditure on education.*	Remarks.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
			R	R	R	R	R	R	
Madras.	1	Director of Public Instruction	Details not available			40,475	4·12	1·17	(a) Includes expenditure on office-establishments and contingencies.
	19 (a)	Director's Establishment	67,845	20,955	...	88,800			
	7	Circle Inspectors	4,800	1,919	...	6,719			
	1	Inspectress	1,100	317	...	1,417			
	1	Deputy Inspectress	59,115	41,255	...	1,00,370	20·29	7·92	
	55	Deputy Educational Inspectors	840	1,081	...	1,921			
	157	Inspecting Schoolmasters	...	...	...	‡			(b) Undistributed charges on account of inspect.
	152 (c)	Establishments of Inspecting Staff	...	...	...	75,460(b)			
Total	393		1,33,700	65,527(a)	...	3,15,166	24·42	9·09	‡ Charges included in the expenditure shown above against inspecting officers.
Bombay	1	Director of Public Instruction	27,750	866	2,278	30,894	3·42	1·14	(c) Includes Clerks and Peons.
	14(c)	Director's Establishment	7,776	284	...	8,060			
	5	Educational Inspectors	54,162	5,122	5,443	64,727			
	3	Inspectresses	39,556	8,714	8,230	56,500			
	24	Deputy Educational Inspectors	10,718	4,454	766	15,938	15·11	6·17	
	14	Assistant Deputy Educational Inspectors	39,674	4,797	50	44,521			
	159(c)	Establishments of Inspecting Staff in British Districts	...	...	...	20,091			
	11	Deputies and Sub-Deputies employed in Native States							
Total	231		1,79,636	24,237	16,767	2,50,631	18·53	7·31	
Bengal	1	Director of Public Instruction	25,594	271	10,186	72,405	2·69	1·14	(d) The figures enclosed in square brackets are taken from the Accountant General's Statement of expenditure and exceed the total expenditure as shown by the Department by R 10,857.
	39(c)	Director's Establishment	18,190	...					
	41	District School Committees' Clerks	17,164	...					
	5	Circle Inspectors	[84,744](d)	[11,248](d)					
	5	Joint or Assistant Inspectors							
	1	Inspectress	[1,69,925](d)	[86,131](d)	[10,858](d)	[3,79,100](d)	[14·26]	[6·04]	
	43	Deputy Inspectors				3,68,333	13·85	5·88	
	173	Sub-Inspectors	[16,254](d)	...					
	42 (c)	Establishments of Circle Inspectors							
Total	350		3,31,872	97,650	21,074	4,39,758	[16·95] 16·54	[7·18] 7·02	
North-Western Provinces and Oudh.	1	Director of Public Instruction	33,791	877	872	35,540	3·83	1·73	
	16(c)	Director's Establishment							
	9	Divisional Inspectors							
	44	Deputy Inspectors	1,73,658	25,450	16,807	2,15,915	22·59	10·51	
	34	Sub-Deputy Inspectors							
	165(c)	Establishments of Inspecting Staff							
Total	269		2,07,449	26,327	17,679	2,51,455	26·42	12·24	
Punjab	1	Director of Public Instruction	38,152	927	3,373	42,452	6·73	2·60	
	19 (c)	Director's Establishment	46,035	5,221	3,214	54,470			
	7	Circle Inspectors	9,134	2,095	...	11,229			
	6	Assistant Inspectors	31,785	4,354	1,526	37,665	11·21	7·80	
	30	District Inspectors	6,654	1,670	224	8,548			
	1	Chief School Muharrirs	15,032	242	...	15,274			
	75 (c)	Establishments of Inspecting Staff							
Total	132		1,46,792	14,509	8,337	1,69,638	17·94	10·40	
Central Provinces.	1	Inspector General of Education	17,679	1,037	...	18,716	7·32	3·93	
	11 (c)	Inspector General's Establishment	5,430	64	2,296	7,790			
	3	Circle Inspectors	33,632	4,585	...	38,217	21·33	11·45	
	20	District and Joint Inspectors	18,322	5,238	...	23,560			
	41 (c)	Establishments of Inspecting Staff	10,234	563	4,558	15,375			
Total	76		85,317	11,487	6,854	1,03,658	28·65	15·38	
Mysore	1	Inspector	Details not furnished		...	48,781	34·46	15·63	(e) The expenditure on Direction in Mysore and Coorg is a charge on the Mysore Revenues only. (f) The Inspector is also Principal of the Merkara High School and receives no separate emoluments as Inspector. (g) Exclusive of the expenditure of R 324 on the establishment of the Inspecting Staff.
	9	Deputy Inspectors							
	14	Sub-Deputy Inspectors							
	43 (c)	Establishments of Inspecting Staff							
Total	67		...	...	...	48,781	34·46	15·68	
Coorg	1	Director of Public Instruction(e)	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	...	Director's Establishment	...	821	...	821	6·20	5·72	
	1	Inspector(f)	480	...	...	480			
	1	Sub-Deputy Inspector	...	...	...	...	...	...	
	...	Establishments of Inspecting Staff							
Total	3		480	821	...	1,301(g)	6·20	5·72	
Ajmere and Assigned Districts.	1	Director of Public Instruction	12,000	838	1,140	18,421	7·82	5·22	
	8 (c)	Director's Establishment	4,443						
	1	Inspector	4,800						
	7	Deputy Educational Inspectors	13,591	3,395	2,430	29,251	12·23	8·29	
	26 (c)	Establishments of Inspecting Staff	5,035						
Total	43		39,869	4,233	3,570	47,672	20·05	13·51	
Total for India†			Direction			2,73,757	3·87	1·50	
			Inspection			13,54,283	16·58	7·44	

* Including the expenditure on all professional and technical institutions and on schools for Europeans and Eurasians.

† Excluding British Burma and all Native States that administer their own system of education. The cost of inspection...

In the six larger Provinces the proportion of the expenditure on direction and inspection to the total educational expenditure from Provincial revenues varies from 16½ per cent. in Bengal, and 18 or 18½ per cent. in the Punjab and Bombay, to between 24 and 28½ per cent. in Madras, the North-Western Provinces and the Central Provinces; the proportion for all India being rather more than 20 per cent. Separating the cost of direction and inspection, that of direction varies from 2·69 per cent. in Bengal and 3·42 per cent. in Bombay, to 6 and 7 per cent. in the Punjab and the Central Provinces. The cost of inspection varies from 11½ per cent. of the Provincial expenditure in the Punjab and 14 per cent. in Bengal, to about 22 per cent. in the North-Western and the Central Provinces.

368. Increase of the Inspecting Staff.—Of nearly every Province it may be stated that the inspecting staff has not kept pace with the increase in the number of schools, though in some Provinces the deficiency is greater, in others less. There can be no doubt that the systematic inspection of schools by regular or trained inspectors is one of the most important branches of educational work. The extension of the means of education and its direct control may be largely entrusted to private agency; but it is and will always remain one of the chief functions of the Department to supervise and test by an efficient staff of Inspectors the education so provided. We are fully sensible of the importance of securing the assistance of persons who are not members of the regular inspecting staff both for the conduct of public examinations and for the superintendence of individual schools; but we are satisfied that voluntary agency can never supply the place of regular professional inspection, and that the increase of the inspecting staff should keep pace with the extension of education. We accordingly recommend *that native and other local energy be relied upon to foster and manage all education as far as possible; but that the results must be tested by departmental agency, and that therefore the inspecting staff be increased so as to be adequate to the requirements of each Province.* Another point appears to us to deserve attention. It is admitted that with the large extension of primary education, the duties and responsibilities of the subordinate officers of the Department have greatly increased, generally without any improvement in their position. Efficient work can only be secured by adequate pay, and we recommend *that the remuneration of subordinate inspecting officers be reconsidered in each Province with due regard to their enhanced duties and responsibilities.*

369. Organisation of the Inspecting Staff.—Our next Recommendation has for its object to guard against the unnecessary or too frequent transfer of the superior officers of the Department from Inspectorships to Professorships, and *vice versâ*. It has been pointed out that occasionally, just when an officer is beginning to make himself useful as an Inspector of Schools, he is transferred to a college, and an inexperienced man put in his place. Sometimes the exigencies of the Department no doubt demand such a transfer; sometimes a good officer will be all the better for a change in the character of his work; and on these grounds it appeared to some of us undesirable to make any definite recommendation on the subject. It is obvious that no rigid rule can be laid down; but so far as may be possible, an endeavour should be made to keep the inspecting and the professorial branches of the Department distinct, so as to promote the formation of specialists in each branch. We therefore recommend *that, as a general rule, transfers of officers from Professorships of colleges to Inspectorships of schools be not made.* On another point we were more nearly unanimous. Our Recommendation on this head has been referred to in a previous paragraph of the present Chapter, and it is the complement of one which we have already made, in dealing with collegiate educa-

tion, for the larger employment of Indian graduates as Professors of colleges. It stands thus:—*that it be distinctly laid down that native gentlemen of approved qualifications are eligible for the post of Inspector of schools, and that they be employed in that capacity more commonly than has been the case hitherto.* The duties assigned to Circle and Divisional Inspectors also engaged our attention. In one Province an attempt is made to bring every school, even of the lowest grade, at least once a year under the eye of an Inspector. A system of this kind may have been necessary in the beginning; but as numbers increase and the standard of instruction is raised, such inspection tends to become more and more superficial. It is no longer difficult to find competent and trustworthy Deputy Inspectors, who are quite capable of conducting examinations and of assisting in the direct management of primary schools; and it appears to be now quite unnecessary to require Inspectors to occupy themselves with duties which may be satisfactorily discharged by a less highly trained and costly agency. On this point we recommend *that the detailed examination of scholars in primary schools be chiefly entrusted to Deputy Inspectors and their assistants; and that the main duty of the Inspectors in connection with such schools be to visit them, to examine into the way in which they are conducted, and to endeavour to secure the cordial support of the people in the promotion of primary education.* The success that is generally admitted to have attended the appointment of Inspectresses of Schools leads us to recommend *that Inspectresses be employed where necessary for the general supervision of Government, aided, and other girls' schools desiring inspection.* Lastly, we believe that the work of inspection would be facilitated and rendered more efficient, if the instructions that have from time to time been issued on the subject of inspection were gathered into a provincial Code for the guidance of inspecting officers. Such a Code, drawn up to suit local requirements, should prescribe in detail the routine which an officer should follow when visiting a school, the manner in which his examination should be conducted, the points to which his attention should be directed apart from the examination of scholars, and the form in which his inspection-report should be drawn up. Attention to these requirements would not only make inspections more systematic and thorough, but would enable the superior officers, to whom the reports are submitted, to gain a much clearer insight into the condition of schools. A chapter under this head has recently been inserted in the English Code. We accordingly recommend *that in every Province a Code be drawn up for the guidance of inspecting officers.*

370. Enlistment of voluntary Inspection.—We have seen that, in addition to the trained agency of the departmental staff of Inspectors, other persons and bodies engage themselves, more or less systematically in different Provinces, in the inspection of schools. In the Resolution appointing the Commission it was suggested that if there was to be any great extension of primary schools, arrangements should be made for securing a large amount of voluntary agency in the work of inspection and examination. Our enquiries have led us to set a high value on extra-departmental assistance of this kind, and to urge that every encouragement should be offered it. It is true that inspection by an untrained person is not so effective as that by a professional expert; and that it cannot be generally counted on to remedy those defects of organisation and method which a trained Inspector at once discovers and seeks to remove. But there are benefits of another kind to be gained from enlisting the services of official and other visitors in the inspection of schools. The influence of the District Officer at any rate is so great, and the advantages of showing the people that he interests himself in their education are so manifest, that it is very desirable that his official connection with all the schools in his District should be definitely declared, in accordance with the existing rule in Bombay.

HRD 173

We therefore recommend *that it be recognised as the duty of the revenue officers to visit the schools within their jurisdiction, communicating to the executive officers or the boar[illegible] to which each school is subordinate any recommendations which they may desire to make.* The official influence of other visitors, whether officers of Government or not, is less; but we think it desirable that visits of inspection by such persons also should be encouraged. These visits serve at any rate to show interest and sympathy; and every one who has travelled much in the interior of the country knows with what alacrity the visit of a passer-by is welcomed by the head-master; what pride he takes in seeing his best pupils acquit themselves well before the stranger; and how eager he is to make the most of an occasion which breaks the monotony of his daily task. We have already referred to the use that is made, in some Districts of Bengal, of village committees appointed to assist the officers of the Department in conducting the central examinations of primary schools. We therefore supplement the last Recommendation by the following:—*that voluntary inspection by officers of Government and private persons be encouraged in addition to the regular inspection of departmental and revenue officers.*

371. System of Departmental Examinations.—In our Chapters IV and V we have explained that under present orders the pupils in schools throughout India are subject to three examinations, the lower primary, the upper primary, and the middle school examinations, the standards of which have been defined with greater or less precision by the Government of India. Besides these general examinations, others have been instituted in different Provinces, either to determine promotions, or for admission to the public service, or for the award of scholarships. We proceed to give an account of the systems in force.

Madras.—In addition to the three named above, there are two other general departmental examinations; one for the fifth or pre-matriculation class, and one for the lower fourth or that below the class reading for the middle school examination. The fifth class examination is conducted by the Director for the whole Presidency; that for the lower fourth is managed by each Inspector for his own Division. The examinations, however, are "general" for Government schools only, though they are open to such aided schools as desire to take advantage of them. Strictly speaking, these two are the only "general "departmental" examinations. The middle school examination is in Madras not a departmental but a "service" examination, conducted by the Commissioner for the Uncovenanted Service examinations. It does, however, answer a departmental purpose, inasmuch as passing it qualifies for promotion from the middle to the high school. The two primary school examinations, again, are conducted independently for each school; in Government schools by Deputy Inspectors assisted by the masters; in aided schools by the masters alone. In Government schools promotions are strictly regulated by these five examinations; in aided schools only the middle and the two primary examinations necessarily determine promotion. Managers of aided schools may, however, avail themselves of the other two departmental examinations, on agreeing to regulate promotions by the result. In doubtful cases, considerable discretion is allowed to the managers or the head-master.

Bombay.—In Bombay there are two departmental examinations held at centres, namely, the first and second class public service certificate examinations. The former is the final test of the middle school course; the latter is the final test of the course in primary schools. These examinations are annual, and are held at the chief town of every District. They are super-

intended by committees consisting of the Inspector of Schools as President the head-master of the high school, the Deputy Inspector, and other gentlemen. All schools in the same Division are examined by the same papers. All other examinations are of individual schools and are held *in situ*; each class being examined, pupil by pupil, under definite standards prescribed by the Department. Promotions depend partly upon these examinations, and partly upon the marks gained by the pupils in class during the twelve months preceding the examination.

Bengal.—Promotions from class to class throughout a high school are made upon the results of annual examinations, which in Government schools are conducted by the head-master and the school staff, assisted in some instances by members of the District School Committee. No definite standards have been prescribed by the Department for these examinations, but under the orders of Government they are required to be very strict and searching. In schools under private management the examinations for promotion are held by the head-master. In the special reports which Inspectors furnish to the Director after the examination of each Government or aided high school, they are required to take special notice of the organisation of the different classes, so as to check the promotions made by the head-master at the close of the previous session. The pupils in high schools are subject to no general examination below that for matriculation. In middle schools, English and vernacular, the only general examination is that for middle scholarships, which all the pupils in the highest classes have to attend at the head-quarters of each District. The examination is for certificates as well as for scholarships; and the success or failure of the pupils is one of the recognised means of testing the efficiency of the school. The examination has hitherto been held by each Inspector for all the schools in his circle; henceforward it is to be conducted by the Director for all schools in the Province. The upper primary school examination is held by the Inspector for all the schools in a Division; the lower primary is a District examination. Both are held at fixed centres by means of common papers. Scholarships and certificates are awarded on the results of each examination; but they do not serve as examinations for promotion. Such a course would be incompatible with the special characteristics of the Bengal school system, in which the standard of primary and of middle schools is independent of that of schools of a higher class. Promotions are made, not by a common examination, but in every case by the local authorities of the school.

Other Provinces.—In the other Provinces of India except Berar, which follows the lead of Bombay, there are no general departmental examinations beyond those prescribed by the Government of India. In all except Assam, which has adopted the Bengal system, the upper primary and middle school examinations are the test for admission to a middle and a high school respectively. In the North-Western Provinces, the Punjab, and Assam, the middle school examination is two-fold, so as to suit the course in English and in vernacular schools.

372. Limitation of compulsory Examinations.—We have already recommended in Chapter IV that the upper and lower primary examinations be not made compulsory in any Province. We have seen that these examinations are not suited to the necessarily varying circumstances of all Provinces. In one Province, a pupil may advance from the lower to the upper primary, or from the primary to the middle stage, without passing these examinations, since they are not related to the course of instruction in his school. In another, the

examination is enforced in every case as a condition of promotion. In a third, again, the particular examinations selected have no special relevancy, since the existing system includes a much more comprehensive series into which the prescribed standards can only with difficulty be fitted. We do not recommend the abolition of these examinations where they have been adopted with advantage, or where, as in Bengal and Assam, they are utilised for the award of scholarships. But if in any Province the examinations conflict with the established system, or are in other ways a source of difficulty, we think that they should not be enforced. The object which they were designed to attain can be otherwise secured. That object was to determine the stages of instruction which pupils in primary schools had reached, and to separate the less advanced from the more advanced pupils in such schools. It is undesirable for such a purpose to require all pupils to pass by a fixed standard in order to secure promotion, and thus to practically compel every school to adopt the departmental course without variation. The imposition of so rigidly uniform a system has been condemned by many private managers, as interfering with the freedom which they claim in the conduct of their schools. It has also been virtually superseded by the Resolution of the Government of India, dated the 10th January 1881, in which the Governor General in Council declared that it was undesirable "to "lay down as an invariable rule that no pupil shall be allowed to enter upon the "secondary stage without passing an examination in the subjects of primary in- "struction." The necessary separation can be effected, quite accurately enough for practical purposes, by means of a return to be furnished by each school showing the number of pupils in each stage. This is a matter which has been independently considered by the Committee appointed for the Revision of Educational Forms, and it is therefore unnecessary for us to discuss it at any greater length. We should, however, here recall attention to our Recommendation No. 22 of Chapter V, "that promotions from class to class be left "entirely to the discretion of the school authorities." We recommend, in amplification of these Recommendations *that the general upper and lower primary school examinations be not compulsory, but that the annual reports show the number of scholars in each stage of education.*

373. Examinations for the Public Service.—It has been pointed out in previous Chapters that in some Provinces there is instituted a regular system of examinations for admission to the public service, these examinations being for the most part conducted by the Department. In Bombay the examinations for the lower grade certificate are confined to vernacular subjects; and thus it is possible to maintain a high standard of instruction in primary schools, and to offer a career to the most promising of those village pupils who learn no English. We approve of the principle of that system; and we accordingly recommend *that in every Province in which examinations for the public service are held, they be so arranged as to give encouragement to vernacular education.* In Chapter V we have recommended that, in the conduct of all departmental examinations, the managers and teachers of non-Government schools should be associated with the officers of the Department. The same practice should, we think, be followed in the examinations now under notice; and we recommend *that the Committees appointed to conduct the public service examinations and other examinations of a similar kind, include representatives of non-Government schools as well as departmental officers.*

374. Teaching Staff.—The provision of teachers for the different grades of institutions has been fully considered in our Chapters on Primary, Secondary, and Collegiate Education, and with regard to girls' schools will be discussed at length in our Chapter on Female Education. In Chapters III and IV we

have insisted on the necessity of adequate local provision of Normal schools being made for each Inspector's Division. In Chapter V we considered the question of requiring all teachers of secondary schools to pass through a regular Normal school course; and we were of opinion that such a requirement was unnecessary, provided that such teachers were called upon to pass an examination in the principles and practice of teaching. At the same time we are of opinion that full encouragement should be given to the establishment of Normal schools of a superior class, such as will afford to intending teachers of secondary schools an opportunity of acquiring a complete training for their duties, including practice in an attached model school. We therefore recommend *that Normal schools, Government or aided, for teachers of secondary schools be encouraged.* On the subject of the employment of pupil-teachers we have no specific Recommendation to make. The importance of such a provision in any complete scheme for the training of teachers will however be admitted, and we commend it to the consideration of the Education Departments in the several Provinces.

375. Text-books: Appointment of a Committee.—The question of producing improved text-books for Indian schools has for some years past been under the consideration of the Government of India. A Resolution on the subject was issued in 1873, when Local Governments were requested to appoint committees for the examination of existing school-books, in order to discover defects of either form or substance and to bring them into harmony with the principles declared in the Resolution. On receiving the reports of the Local Governments, the Government of India in 1877 convened a small general committee comprising representatives of the several Provinces. The instructions to the Committee were (1) to consider the provincial reports in detail; (2) to ascertain how far the recommendations conveyed in the reports had been locally carried into effect and with what success, and how far their operation might be usefully extended; (3) to carry the enquiry further, with a view to the production of vernacular text-books, on such subjects as law, jurisprudence, the principles of evidence, and the like, in a form thoroughly adapted for the training of native candidates to official employment or public life under Government; and (4) to report to the Government of India how the various measures recommended might be best combined, so as to form a complete scheme which, when approved, might be prescribed for general observance.

376. Report of the Text-Book Committee.—The recommendations made in the Committee's Report may be thus briefly summarised :—

(1) That school-books should be based upon some uniform classification of studies throughout India, and that, with this view, education throughout India should be divided into primary, secondary, and collegiate instruction;

(2) That primary instruction should always be given in the mother-tongue of the student and should consist of essentials, that is to say, reading and writing the mother-tongue grammatically, simple arithmetic (not excluding local and professional modes of calculation), the elements of geography with special reference to the pupil's own district, and a knowledge of the most ordinary natural phenomena;

(3) That secondary instruction should include all instruction from the conclusion of the primary stage up to the matriculation examinations of the various Universities, any further education being classed as collegiate instruction;

(4) That no pupil should be allowed to enter upon the secondary stage of instruction without passing an examination in the subjects included in primary instruction;

(5) That secondary instruction should be sub-divided into vernacular, Anglo-vernacular and English, according as it is conveyed through the medium of a vernacular language only, or partly in such a language and partly in English, or wholly in English;

(6) That as the objections to the promulgation of an Imperial series of English text-books for the whole of India outweighed the arguments in favour of such a course, the Government of India need not take steps to secure results which would probably in time be brought about without any exertion on its part by means of private effort and enterprise; and that the objections to an Imperial series of English text-books applied with additional force to vernacular text-books;

(7) That a Standing Committee of reference should be appointed in each Province to choose, or if necessary to prepare, appropriate vernacular text-books; and that the Committee so constituted should draw up a list of suitable books divided into two classes—the first class comprising books to be used in Government and aided schools, the second dealing with aided schools;

(8) That no book not included in one or other of these lists, unless it be a book such as the Bible or the Koran, used in purely denominational schools for purposes of religious instruction, should be read in any school supported or subsidised by the Government;

(9) That the Standing Committee of each Province should present a report at the end of every year, together with a revised list of books, to be published in the *Government Gazette* with the orders of Government thereon;

(10) That the Directors of Public Instruction should, in their annual reports, notice how far the orders of Government have been carried out;

(11) That when no suitable text-book exists in any specified subject legitimately included in school or college instruction, the Standing Committee should take steps to have such a work prepared;

(12) That the Standing Committee should make it their business, under the direction of their respective Governments, to encourage by all means in their power the development of vernacular literature;

(13) That an English Text-book Committee should be established in every Province with similar powers and duties;

(14) That arrangements should be made to furnish each Provincial Committee with the lists of approved works published by the others; and that each Standing Committee should be ordered to procure copies of all the text-books sanctioned in other Provinces in order to form the nucleus of a text-book library of reference;

(15) As regards the principles which should guide the local Committees in the preparation and selection of text-books, it was recommended that every series of vernacular readers for primary instruction should contain lessons on the following subjects :—

(1) Reverence for God, parents, teachers, rulers, and the aged;

(2) A simple sketch of the duties of a good citizen, and universally admitted principles of morality and prudence;

(3) Cleanliness of habits, politeness of speech, kindness of conduct to other human beings and the brute creation;

(4) The dignity and usefulness of labour, and the importance of agriculture, commerce, the various trades, professions and handicrafts;

(5) The advantages of bodily exercise;

(6) The properties of plants, the uses of minerals and metals;

(7) The habits of animals, the characteristics of different races, common natural phenomena, fables, and historical and biographical episodes chiefly derived from Oriental sources.

It was added that simple poetical extracts should be introduced into the vernacular readers for primary instruction; and that the secondary series should go over much the same ground, only in a more thorough manner and at greater length, and should also include lessons on money matters, on manufactures, on the mechanical arts or sciences, and on the laws of health.

(16) The main principles which the Committee recommended for adoption in the selection of text-books in English were:

(1) That readers should be graduated according to increasing difficulty of idiom, not, as is too often the case, according to increasing length of words;

(2) That readers intended for the lower classes of schools should be provided with notes and a glossary in the vernacular; and

(3) That works intended to teach the English language should be entertaining rather than instructive, the subjects of the earlier lessons being such as are familiar to Indian boys, in order that time which ought to be spent in teaching the language should not be wasted in explaining ideas.

(17) A further suggestion made by the Committee was that treatises might advantageously be prepared in the principal vernacular languages on the subjects mentioned in the margin, it being left to the several Provincial Standing Committees, under the direction of their respective Governments, to encourage, by such means as they might think fit, the production of treatises on those subjects wherever they might seem to be required.

(1.) The laws of health or hygiene.
(2.) Political economy.
(3.) The principles of jurisprudence.
(4.) The principles of evidence.
(5.) The theory and practice of land revenue systems.
(6.) Arts and manufactures.

(18) The question of terminology was discussed at length, and the opinion at which the majority of the Committee arrived was that transliterations of European scientific terms should be employed in all cases where precise vernacular equivalents are not already in current use;

(19) Lastly, the Committee made various recommendations on minor points, as, for instance, the proper method of teaching history and geography, and the desirability of supplying schools with wall-maps and instructive engravings.

377. Resolution of the Government of India on the Report.—After receiving the opinions of Local Governments, the Government of India issued a Resolution, dated the 10th January 1881, on the Committee's Report. The Resolution declared that in some respects, chiefly those relating to the classification of schools, the recommendations of the Committee were inapplicable to the circumstances of the different Provinces. For example, there was no such well-marked division between primary and secondary instruction as to make it desirable or even possible to attempt a precise definition of those terms, or to lay down as an invariable rule that no pupil should be allowed to enter upon the secondary stage without passing an examination in the subjects included in primary instruction. It was unreasonable to seek uniformity at the cost of hindering the further development of particular systems on their own lines, or of rendering them unsuitable to the circumstances of the Provinces in which they had grown up. Again, the proposed sub-division of secondary education into vernacular, Anglo-vernacular, and English need not be attempted. It was sufficient to maintain the broad division of instruction into primary, secondary, and collegiate, the definition and scope of primary instruction being left to the Local Governments to determine. This division would serve as a useful basis for the systematic preparation and classification of text-books.

The opinion expressed by the Committee in favour of maintaining separate Provincial series of English and vernacular text-books, in preference to a single Imperial series, met with the entire concurrence of the Government of India. Not only had the Supreme Government no suitable machinery at its disposal for the preparation of such a single series, but it seemed most desirable that the preparation of suitable school books, especially of those in the vernacular, should be left to Local Governments, assisted by Standing Committees if necessary. These committees should contain a fair intermixture of independent members, whose choice of books could not be set down to sectarian, professional, or departmental bias. The suggestions that intercommunication between the Standing Committees of the several Provinces should be encouraged, in order that each might benefit by the experience of the others, and that each Provincial Committee should procure copies of all the text-books approved in other Provinces, in order to form the nucleus of a text-book library of reference, were fully approved by the Government of India. It was also intimated that the Directors of Public Instruction, who would probably be *ex-officio* Presidents of the Committees, should devote a separate section in their annual reports to the subject of text-books, noticing how far the orders of the Government had been carried out, and showing what books had been revised during the year, and what new books had been added to the authorised lists. There was no necessity to restrict aided schools to the use of the text-books authorised for Government institutions. Any such interference with schools under private management would be inconvenient, and was clearly opposed to the general educational policy of Government. The principles advocated for the guidance of local committees in the preparation of vernacular and the selection of English text-books were fully approved; and the suggestion that vernacular treatises might advantageously be prepared on the subjects mentioned in the 17th clause of the last paragraph was recommended to the consideration of Local Governments. In regard to the vexed question of terminology, the Government of India endorsed the opinion of the majority of the Committee that transliteration of European scientific terms should be employed in all cases where precise vernacular equivalents were not in current use. The question of terminology was, however, one which must ultimately be settled by a process of natural selection; or, in the words of the

Committee, "those terms which are found practically most convenient will be "victorious."

378. Action taken in the different Provinces.—The general effect of the Resolution, therefore, was that the preparation and the periodical revision of text-books for schools was a matter which must be mainly left in the hands of the Local Governments and Administrations, and that "independent Pro-"vincial effort" was a safer guide to follow than "centralised Imperial control." It may be mentioned that the only instance in which this principle has since been departed from is in the issue by the Government of India of an authorised "Sanitary Primer," written in English by Dr. J. M. Cuningham, and translated by the Local Governments into their various vernaculars, for use in all primary and middle schools. On the publication of the Resolution, Standing Committees were appointed in every Province of India; and the preparation, revision, and selection of text-books have since been carried on with commendable activity. It remains to show what arrangements are now in force for the supply and distribution of text-books in the different Provinces. We shall also take the opportunity of summarising the opinions that have been expressed by witnesses who have given evidence before the Commission as to the character of the text-books in use.

379. Text-books in Madras.—Many years ago there was established in this Province a central book depôt, with nineteen District depôts, under the control of the Education Department. These are no longer considered necessary, and orders have been issued to close them. The general revision of vernacular and English text-books by the Committee appointed under the orders of Government is actively proceeding, and before long will be completed. The salary formerly assigned to the Government Tamil translatorship is now reserved for the payment of separate editors, nominated by the Department from time to time for special work. Besides the Government depôt, there are two other valuable agencies for supplying school books. These are the Madras School Book and Vernacular Literature Society, and the Christian Vernacular Education Society. A full account of the work done by these societies in the preparation and revision of school books is given in the Provincial Report. Of the books in use in Government schools no great or general complaint was made by the witnesses examined before the Commission. Some were considered in need of further revision; their defects being a want of variety of subject, the absence of moral instruction, and their dryness. Against others, used not only in departmental but also and chiefly in mission schools, it was objected that they were too difficult both in matter and in language, that they were distasteful to certain sections of the community, too European in their character, and sometimes not impartial in regard to religious questions.

380. Text-books in Bombay.—The supply and distribution of text-books in this Province is effected by means of a Government central book depôt at Bombay, and of branch depôts in the Districts. For some time past the book depôt has been self-supporting; and while it involves no loss to Government, it enables the Department to sell books at a cheaper rate than would be possible to any private trader. This is a matter of no small importance in the poorer districts of the Deccan. For the preparation and revision of text-books, and for the award of prizes for original works, there is a Text-Book Committee in each Province of the Presidency. Under this Committee the instructions of the Government of India on the subject of text-books are being fully carried out. The Text-Book Committee appointed to examine class-books in Bombay expressed their "high approbation" both of the Gujarathi

and of the Marathi series. The witnesses before the Commission have generally admitted the books in use to be good, but faults have been found on certain points. More Persian was suggested, and a good Urdu series was said to be wanted. Some of the books were thought too abstruse and scientific: others were not suited to the agricultural classes, who required instruction of a more practical character. The typography in certain cases was said to be bad; different books were needed for boys and for girls; some of the witnesses wished to see moral-lessons and instruction in the laws of health included in the courses; others advocated the larger use of illustrated manuals. It was suggested that private authors should be invited to prepare text-books, and that managers of schools should submit for approval those which seemed to them especially good. One witness thought that no text-books should be prescribed, their choice being left to managers and teachers.

381. Text-books in Bengal.—The production and distribution of English and Indian school books is mainly effected through the Calcutta School Book Society, which was established in 1817 and now has about 150 agents, chiefly officers of the Education Department, at different stations in the Districts. For sixty years the society received from Government a grant of Rs. 500 a month, now reduced to Rs. 200. The business done by this society has been very large, but of late years private competition has rendered it less necessary for the schools to depend upon any single agency. Independent provincial effort, as advocated by the Simla Text-Book Committee in 1877, has free play, and the Education Department is not directly concerned with either the production or the distribution of school books. The Provincial Text-Book Committee, composed of official and non-official members, selects from the list of published books any that are of sufficient merit to justify their introduction into school of different classes. The further selection from this list, after it has received the confirmation of the Director of Public Instruction, is left to the local managers of schools, subject to the limitations imposed by the standards of the several examinations, which are prescribed by the Department. Very little criticism upon the books in use was offered by the witnesses examined. In the case of certain books the "get-up" was said to be bad, and more illustrations were suggested. The absence of moral instruction was regretted by one witness, who also thought that the books should be more Indian and should have more reference to the lives of men of action. Another witness considered parts of some of the books unsuited for girls. A larger objection was brought against the language, Hindi, as the medium of instruction in the primary schools of Behar. This was said to be a language not understood at all by the boys in many parts of that Province, and but little understood even by their teachers. The essence of the objection is that the Hindi of the text-books is what is known as "high Hindi;" and that while this form is closely allied with the dialects of Northern India from Allahabad to Delhi, it is too far removed from those of the eastern group—that is, chiefly, the dialects of Behar—to be safely used in schools as the standard or literary form of the language. The practical result, it is urged, is to impose on the children a foreign tongue before teaching them their own vernacular. The existing practice is defended on the ground that it is unnecessary and unwise to keep up in our schools those divisions which militate against the general tendency of civilised rule towards unity of speech, or to give artificial support to those dialects which have no such inherent vitality as will enable them to resist supersession by the current literary language. In another and very important respect the requirements of village schools in Behar have been met by the production, at the Bengal Government Press, of a fount of Kaithi type, Kaithi being that current form of Nagari which is used in every village. Many thousand copies of the "Sanitary

"Primer" in Hindi have been issued in this character; Government offers to supply the type at cost price to any private press; and text-books printed in this character are rapidly superseding all others in the primary schools of Behar.

382. Text-books in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh.—The usual sources whence English text-books are obtained for schools in the North-Western Provinces and Oudh are the Calcutta booksellers, the Calcutta School Book Society's depôt, and its up-country agencies. Vernacular books are usually obtained from the Allahabad Government Depôt and from the Newal Kishore Press at Lucknow. All those vernacular school-books of which Government has purchased the copyright are printed and published at the Government Press; and the Curator of the Allahabad Depôt, who is the Superintendent of the Government Press, always keeps a large stock of such books on hand. Vernacular books of which the copyright does not belong to Government, but which the Director of Public Instruction has approved as suitable for use in schools or for prizes, are for the most part obtained from their authors or publishers. The distribution of school-books to schoolmasters and scholars is managed by means of auxiliary depôts, kept at District head-quarters by head-masters of zila schools and by Deputy Inspectors. To facilitate the distribution still further and to render school texts easily procurable in towns and villages, the Deputy Inspectors keep a small stock of books at each tahsili school for the teacher to sell. The village schoolmaster, coming in every month for his pay, can at that time purchase from the tahsili school teacher all the books that his own scholars may require. A large number of objections were brought by the witnesses against the vernacular books in use in these Provinces, those in Hindi being especially condemned. Many of them were stigmatised as pedantic, childish, pretentious, inane, bad in point of idiom and language; some of them were said to need expurgation; some to be too difficult. Moral instruction was greatly needed; the subjects might be made more interesting and more suitable to Indian children.

383. Text-books in the Punjab.—A book depôt for the sale of school books, and a lithographic press for printing vernacular text-books, were established in connection with the Director's office when the Department was first organised. At first the text-books which had been in use in the North-Western Provinces were commonly adopted, but a Punjab series was gradually introduced. Up to 1873, school-books were chosen and compiled under the orders of the Director with the assistance of his subordinates. A committee was then appointed by the Punjab Government to report upon the text-books adopted by the Department; and in accordance with their recommendations, the preparation of a new set of English Readers was referred for the consideration of the Government of India, and certain improvements in the vernacular series were ordered to be carried out at once. In 1877 a Standing Committee was created to deal with English text-books only, and to recommend a selection of books for school and college libraries; and in 1881 this committee was reconstituted, with power to deal with school-books of all kinds. The present committee consists of 16 members, only a few of whom are educational officers. One-half were nominated by the Government, and the other half by the Senate of the Punjab University College. They are divided into numerous sub-committees for different branches of the subject; and considerable activity has been manifested, both by the sub-committees and by private persons, in preparing and revising a series of school-books on a systematic plan. Though much improvement has thus taken place in the books in use, many of them, according to the witnesses, still need revision. The objections urged against them were their bad typography; their want of interest; the difficulty of some; the

want of variety of subjects in others; the absence of moral instruction; faultiness of idiom; and in some cases the violation of religious neutrality. Besides the Government book depôt at Lahore, two agencies in the Punjab have an important share in the supply of school-books: the Bible and Religious Book Society at Lahore, and the American Mission Press at Ludhiana. These two institutions work in concert.

384. Text-books in the Central Provinces.—There are one central and two other large book depôts. There are also 18 smaller depôts, one in each District. English and vernacular text-books are purchased from England, from the Government book depôts of Bombay, Madras, the North-Western Provinces, and the Punjab, and from the Calcutta School Book Society. Vernacular school-books are prepared under the supervision of the Inspector General of Education, assisted when necessary by the advice of the Text-book Committee appointed with that object. The Provincial report furnishes a long list of the school-books written, compiled, and translated of late years under this system. These books are printed by the Education Society's Press at Bombay, the Newal Kishore Press at Lucknow, and by other presses. A private vernacular press at Nagpur has just been opened. All zila Inspectors having charge of branch book depôts are required to keep in hand a stock of books sufficient for the wants of scholars and masters. In the main, those now in use were admitted to be generally good; though a complaint was made that in some cases the work of translation having been undertaken by European officers with little spare time for the work, the style was not quite satisfactory. It was also urged that books of a more practical nature were needed for girls' schools.

335. Text-books in the other Provinces.—In Assam the supply of Bengali text-books, which are used in the majority of the Assam schools, is chiefly drawn from Bengal; some, however, have been published by masters and Pandits in the Assam schools and have received the approval of the Standing Committee. In Assamese there are but few good text-books for primary schools, though year by year authors are coming forward, and, with encouragement in the shape of rewards for original works, it is hoped that before long there will be a sufficient supply of text-books in the local vernacular. For the supply and distribution of text-books in Berar, a central book depôt has been maintained at Akola, and 24 branch depôts at other stations and towns. English books and books printed and sold by the Bombay Education Department are obtained from the Bombay depôt, and Urdu books from the North-West Provinces and the Punjab. A text-book committee was formed in 1881, consisting of three European and six native members. The Committee has revised two out of the three reading books of the Berar Education Department, and fresh editions of them have been printed. To supply the wants of Coorg there is a book depôt at Bangalore, whence local and other publications are supplied to the branch depôts, of which there is one in each taluka. The Basel Mission has also a depôt at Merkara for the sale of its own publications.

386. General Suggestions regarding Text-books.—It has been shown above to what extent Text-book Committees have been constituted to carry out the instructions of Government. Where these Committees have been steadily at work, we see no reason to doubt that fair progress has been made towards securing the end in view. It is obvious, however, that the creation of a literature, even though it be but a literature of school-books, is a work of many years, and after all depends only in a minor degree upon the machinery which may be employed for the purpose. Taking all this for granted, it may not be superfluous for us to express our desire that text-books on

general subjects should aim at being interesting rather than didactic, that they should not be too scientific in their phraseology or subject-matter, and that, especially in primary schools, they should deal with common things familiar to the every-day life of their readers, and should be calculated to set the mind to work upon what is seen by the eye. Nothing can be more fallacious than the ordinary method of adapting English elementary readers to the supposed needs of Indian boys by changing apples into mangoes, pence into pice, or Harry into Ram. Adapted or unadapted, the books that are most suitable, because conveying the most familiar ideas, to English children, are most unsuitable to natives of India. Though often compelled to read about such things, the Indian learner knows nothing of hedge-rows, birds-nesting, hay-making, being naughty and standing in a corner. We need in an elementary reader, not the language of the nursery or the play-ground (the most difficult of all to a foreigner), but easy sentences conveying simple ideas that can be readily translated into the pupil's own tongue. In the next stage, the pupil should read instructive and interesting stories, with easy verse, always advancing in difficulty of idiom. In the third stage his reading books should treat, among other subjects, of history, natural history, and popular science. With this view we should like to see practical steps taken for the introduction of Science Primers adapted to Indian schools. A series of reading books intended for Indian students should not necessarily follow the same plan as one adapted for English boys; the object of English teaching being very different in the two cases.

The use of spelling-books seems also to be frequently misunderstood, and needs a word of caution. The combination of letters into words, which is the basis of spelling, should certainly be first learnt in the pupil's own vernacular; and then it would follow that English spelling, which is necessary in readers for the use of English boys, would have no place in those intended for Indian students; all the practice the latter would need would be that of spelling English words, not sounds; the principles of spelling being the same in English as in any Indian vernacular.

387. Special Text-Books for Village Schools.—In Chapter IV we expressly reserved the consideration of text-books for primary schools. On this subject we may call attention to the fact that the necessity of teaching the cultivators to value and preserve their rights was the motive which first induced the Court of Directors to interest itself in primary education. The local cess is chiefly paid by the agricultural classes; and in all Provinces the claims of those classes have been strongly pressed upon the consideration of the Department. It is urged that text-books intended for primary schools should be specially prepared so as to supply the Indian ryot with such information as will be useful to him in his ordinary occupations, and that they should be periodically revised with that object. The matter is one of great importance, and we put together two extracts from the Reports of our Provincial Committees, to show that the question has arisen in two Provinces whose systems of land tenure differ so widely as those of Bengal and Bombay. The Bengal Provincial Committee write*:—The upper primary scholarship course should "include a brief "manual descriptive of the rights and powers of the police, and the mutual "relations of landlord and tenant. It would be necessary to guard against the "danger to which the use of any brief manual treating of a complex subject is "liable, namely, that the imperfect knowledge conveyed by it may increase "litigation and lead to other evils." The Bombay Provincial Committee deal with the same subject at greater length. After acknowledging that great

* Paragraph 440, III 5 (*b*).

progress has been made, they remark*:—"Much still remains to be done: "famine relief and forest conservancy are after all modern inventions, and "constant alterations of the law, especially such Acts as the Deccan Agriculturists Relief Act, require revisions of existing books." They go on to recommend that short lessons, illustrative of actual events that have occurred in the real life of a peasant, should be incorporated in the text-books and that in compiling these the Education Department should invite the co-operation of the District revenue or forest officers, so that the practical man of business in each Department might contribute to the school text-book some small lesson from his own experience. The suggestion is one that deserves the consideration of every Local Government, though we have not made it the subject of a specific Recommendation. There seems to be no doubt that the village school would be much more effective of good to the masses of the people, if the text-books looked more habitually to their daily life and wants.

388. Future Action with regard to Text-books.—Our Recommendations regarding text-books are fewer in number than the importance of the subject might seem to require, because we see no reason to repeat in detail what has already been declared after mature consideration by the Committee appointed for this special purpose, and by the Government of India in reviewing their suggestions. Two of our Recommendations are, however, designed to bring into prominence certain leading principles of the Government Resolution which have not in every case been completely followed out. They relate to the inclusion of independent members in the Standing Committees, and to the interchange of information between the Committees of different Provinces. We recommend accordingly (1) *that the Text-book Committees include qualified persons of different sections of the community not connected with the Department, and that to these Committees should be submitted all text-books, both English and vernacular, that it is proposed to introduce into schools, and all text-books now in use that may seem to need revision;* and (2) *that the Text-book Committees of the several Provinces act as far as possible in concert; and that they communicate to each other lists of English text-books, and (in the case of those Provinces which have any common language) of vernacular text-books, which are satisfactory, and lists of books which they consider to be wanting or inadequate.* Our few remaining Recommendations on this subject refer to points which are not touched upon in the Resolution, but to which our enquiries have led us to attach importance. The supply and distribution of English books should be left as far as possible to the agency of private trade, with which the operations of the Government book depôts are said materially to interfere; and we recommend *that the operations of the existing Government depôts be confined as soon as may be practicable to the supply and distribution of vernacular text-books.* Complaints have also reached us that sufficient care is not always taken, in the selection of text-books, to see that they contain no matter which is likely to give offence to any class of pupils; and we accordingly recommend *that care be taken to avoid as far as possible the introduction of text-books which are of an aggressive character, or are likely to give unnecessary offence to any section of the community.* Lastly, it has been pointed out to us that many of the books now in use are so badly printed as to injure the eyesight of pupils, and this complaint is especially marked in the case of lithographed Urdu school-books. We therefore recommend *that in the printing of text-books, especially vernacular text-books, attention be paid to clearness of typography.*

On the subject of encouragement to authors, we have no definite sugges-

* Chapter III, Section B, paragraph 13.

tions to make. A prize may advantageously be offered to ar[illegible] design or to students for an essay; but it is unreasonable to [illegible] a dozen authors will undergo the labour of writing a grammar or a [illegible], with the certainty that eleven out of the twelve manuscript works will be set aside. Either competent persons must be employed to prepare the text-books which are required, or, preferably, the demand may be met by the voluntary agency of qualified persons who have confidence in their own ability to supply what is needed, and who look for their reward to the patronage of the market.

389. Recapitulation of Recommendations.—The Recommendations adopted by the Commission stand thus:—

(1) That when an educational officer enters the higher graded service of the Education Department, his promotion should not involve any loss of pay.

(2) That conferences (1) of officers of the Education Department, and (2) of such officers with managers of aided and unaided schools, be held from time to time for the discussion of questions affecting education, the Director of Public Instruction being in each case *ex-officio* President of the conference. Also that Deputy Inspectors occasionally hold local meetings of the schoolmasters subordinate to them, for the discussion of questions of school management.

(3) That a general educational library and museum be formed at some suitable locality in each Province, and that encouragement be given to school-papers or magazines conducted in the vernacular.

(4) That managers of schools in competition be invited by the Department to agree to rules providing, as far as the circumstances of the locality allow, (1) that, except at specified times, a pupil of one school be not admitted to another without a certificate from his previous school; (2) that any fees due to that school have been paid; and (3) that he do not obtain promotion into a higher class by changing his school.

(5) That it be an instruction to the Departments of the various Provinces to aim at raising fees gradually, cautiously, and with due regard to necessary exemptions, up to the highest amount that will not check the spread of education, especially in colleges, secondary schools, and primary schools in towns where the value of education is understood.

(6) That the Education Department of each Province limit its calls for returns, (1) to such as the Government may require, and (2) to such others as are indispensable for information and control.

(7) That all schools managed by the Department, or by Committees exercising statutory powers, and all other schools that are regularly aided or inspected, or that regularly send pupils to the examinations of the University or of the Department (other than examinations which are conducted by the Department for admission to the public service), be classed as public schools, and be subdivided into departmental, aided, and unaided; (2) that all other schools furnishing returns to the Department be classed as private schools; and (3) that all other details of classification be referred to the Statistical Committee appointed by the Government of India.

(8) That no attempt be made to furnish financial returns for private schools.

(9) That native and other local energy be relied upon to foster and manage all education as far as possible, but that the results be tested by departmental agency, and that therefore the inspecting staff be increased so as to be adequate to the requirements of each Province.

(10) That the remuneration of subordinate inspecting officers be reconsidered in each Province with due regard to their enhanced duties and responsibilities.

(11) That, as a general rule, transfers of officers from Professorships of colleges to Inspectorships of schools, and *vice versâ*, be not made.

(12) That it be distinctly laid down that native gentlemen of approved qualifications are eligible for the post of Inspector of Schools, and that they be employed in that capacity more commonly than has been the case hitherto.

(13) That Inspectresses be employed where necessary for the general supervision of Government, aided, and other girls' schools desiring inspection.

(14) That in every Province a Code be drawn up for the guidance of inspecting officers.

(15) That it be recognised as the duty of the Revenue Officers to visit the schools within their jurisdiction; communicating to the executive officers or Board to which each school is subordinate any recommendations which they may desire to make.

(16) That voluntary inspection by officers of Government and private persons be encouraged, in addition to the regular inspection of departmental and revenue officers.

(17) That the detailed examination of scholars in primary schools be chiefly entrusted to the Deputy Inspectors and their assistants; and that the main duty of the Inspectors in connection with such schools be to visit them, to examine into the way in which they are conducted, and to endeavour to secure the cordial support of the people in the promotion of primary education.

(18) That the general upper and lower primary school examinations be not compulsory, but that the annual reports show the number of scholars in each stage of education.

(19) That in every Province in which examinations for the public service are held, they be so arranged as to give encouragement to vernacular education.

(20) That the committees appointed to conduct the public service examinations and other examinations of a similar kind include representatives of non-Government schools as well as departmental officers.

(21) That Normal schools, Government or aided, for teachers of secondary schools be encouraged.

(22) That the Text-book Committees in the several Provinces include qualified persons of different sections of the community not connected with the Department, and that to these Committees be submitted all text-books, both English and vernacular, that it is proposed to introduce into schools, and all text-books now in use that may seem to need revision.

(23) That the Text-book Committees of the several Provinces act as far as possible in concert; and that they communicate to each other lists of English text-books, and (in the case of those Provinces which have any common language) of vernacular text-books, which are satisfactory, and also lists of books which they consider to be wanting or inadequate.

(24) That the operations of the existing Government depôts be confined as soon as may be practicable to the supply and distribution of vernacular text-books.

(25) That care be taken to avoid, as far as possible, the introduction of text-books which are of an aggressive character, or are likely to give unnecessary offence to any section of the community.

(26) That in the printing of text-books, especially vernacular text-books, attention be paid to clearness of typography.