

PROBLEMS OF
PRIMARY EDUCATION IN INDIA

A STUDY

BY

S. C. BASU, M.A.,

District Inspector of Schools, Calcutta

With An Introduction By

E. F. OATEN, M.A., LL.B. (CANTAB)

Director of Public Instruction, Bengal

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AUTHOR'S PREFACE.

This study of the problems of primary education in India is based on official reports and the publications of Christian Missions, and is intended for those who are interested in the subject but have not the time to go through the literature referred to. Where different views exist I have presented them faithfully, and have refrained from subscribing to any particular view.

Certain fundamental difficulties are already manifest in carrying out the programmes adopted in different provinces for a fight against illiteracy under the voluntary system of education, and careful experiments alone can show the way out. Christian Missions, which led the way in higher education in this country and interested themselves in the organization of primary education a quarter of a century before the State assumed responsibility in this direction (*vide* First report on primary education in Bengal, by E. E. Biss, P. 12), appear also to have taken the lead in vitalising the work of present-day primary schools. Already a large body of valuable experiences is available. These are derived from experiments conducted in different parts of the country. Non-Christians vastly exceed the Christians among the pupils in the mission schools, and the Missions have recognised that any educational policy they adopt must necessarily take the huge non-Christian number into account (*vide* Report of the missionary conference on industrial education in India held at Allahabad in March, 1924, P. 9—published by the National Christian Council of India, Burma and Ceylon). The general characteristics of mission primary schools, *viz.*, one-teacher school, small attendance, over-lapping of schools and small

proportion of trained teachers are also those of non-mission schools. The lines of improvement which the Missions have undertaken must, therefore, be of interest and value to those concerned with non-mission education. This is the view of no less an authority than Sir Michael Sadler who, in commending the Report of the Missionary Commission on village education in India, 1919-20, remarked that "not only the missionary societies of the United Kingdom and of North America, but the Government of India and the Indian provincial administrators will find guidance in the Report."

The account of the progress of compulsory primary education given in chapter I needs modification in view of the fact, which has been made public since a large part of the manuscript was in type, that in the United Provinces compulsory primary education for boys is to be enforced in 23 municipalities and that the Chittagong municipality, in Bengal, is ready to adopt compulsion.

I am indebted to the Rev. W. Paton, Secretary to the National Christian Council of India, Burma and Ceylon, for the kindly help he has given me with suggestions regarding the recent mission experiments and by placing at my disposal some publications related thereto.

I wish to express my gratitude to Mr. E. F. Oaten, Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, for kindly writing the Introduction to this little book and for the generous terms in which he refers to my effort.

I regret the occurrence of some typographical errors, a list of which is given at the end of this study.

CALCUTTA.

November, 1925.

S. C. BASU.

INTRODUCTION.

There is a very widespread ignorance on the subject of Primary Education in India. A necessary preliminary to the creation of a sound public opinion on the subject is an increase of knowledge. Without that knowledge the demand for an advance towards the standards of Europe and America in respect of mass education is made without realisation of the implications of the problem. It is all to the good that the knowledge which must form the basis of any constructive thought or action in connexion with the greatest of all problems which now face the educational reformer in India should be made easily accessible.

Mr. S. C. Basu brings a varied experience to his task. He was educated in a University in America, that country which has itself grappled with immense problems in rural education, and has in consequence been able to supply the world with sound thinkers and workers on the problem, from which India among other countries has directly benefited. He has been a professor of Political Economy in an Indian college, and is therefore not likely to underrate the economic difficulties in the way of compulsory primary education. Finally he has been an Inspector of Schools, in which capacity he has been able to study the schools at first hand, and realise their pitiful inadequacy, and the immensity of the problem which still awaits a solution. With such an unusual combination of varied experiences, Mr. Basu should *prima facie* be in a position to enable his readers, even though they may

not have time to read blue books or reports, to glimpse at least the dim outline of the subject with some feeling of security that they are not being given false or distorted impressions.

†— The problem of primary education can be summed up in a few questions. How shall we pay for the schools needed? What shall we teach in these schools? Ought we to compel all boys to attend, present feeling and present conditions being what they are? Can we possibly extend such compulsion to girls? How can we get the necessary teachers trained? Who shall pay for their training? Shall primary education be free or should fees be charged? What type of school shall we build? Who should control and administer these schools? How should the necessary money be raised, by provincial or by local taxation? And last, and most fundamental of all, can the country, in its present economic condition, support universal primary education? ²

It is easy to ask these questions. The man who can answer them has not solved the problem, because he has to persuade or legally compel his fellows to accept his answers, but he has gone some way towards understanding it.

To some of these questions answers will be found in this short survey. A specially interesting chapter of Mr. Basu's book is that in which he deals with the question of the adjustment of education to the pupil's environment. He cites some of the valuable experiments which the Missions, to which Indian education owes so much, are making. As I read his chapter, I recalled to my mind a passage from a recent report :

"Gifted boys from the unprivileged classes and particularly from the agricultural population are

attracted to the high school. Years of leisure for these children are often provided by parents who are scarcely able to bear the burden, and a costly form of instruction is provided by the State. What is the return on this expenditure? These young people whether they leave before or after graduation forsake the life of their own people, develop a contempt for manual labour, seek membership in the intellectual occupations, drift to the towns and cities, and in many instances prey upon their more ignorant fellows. They lose all desire to participate in those basic economic activities of agriculture and industry which have been the support of man since he emerged from barbarism, and which must remain his chief support for generations to come. They get no satisfaction from handling the plow, hammer and saw, but seek salaried positions in professions, commerce or Government office. To be sure, individuals must be prepared for such occupations, but no school that points in this direction can adequately defend the policy of attracting large numbers of pupils."

This was written in 1925 in an official report on education in the Phillipine Islands. The passage referred of course to secondary education. A similar failure of adjustment between the school and the social environment has taken place in regard to secondary education in India. A second failure, different in character, but equally disastrous in result, is possible in primary education in Bengal, if a great move forward is attempted before all its implications and needs have been fully thought out and the necessary adjustments made. Primary education among a population like that of rural Bengal should possibly mean something more than literacy only, and by

making valuable experiments the Missions are attempting to ascertain and demonstrate what this "something more" is or may be. The report on the Phillippine education system referred to above says: "A first great purpose of the industrial work (in elementary schools) may be said to have been achieved. It has been established without question that the work contributes substantially to elevating standards of living and to teaching the control of some of the means by which standards of living are maintained. It has been demonstrated that it is fundamentally sound as a part of the common school system." How far this applies, or can be made to apply, to India can be demonstrated only by experiment, but obviously there is a vast field of exploration and constructive thought and action. It comes, however, as a damper to be told by Mr. Basu, what is doubtless perfectly true, that the parent is not in the least attracted by a ruralised curriculum. It is however some consolation to remember that the parent is not always right.

For the rest of Mr. Basu's book, I must introduce it without comment, merely expressing my satisfaction that one more stone has been thrown into the pond of apathy in which the subject is generally immersed. For in this matter of primary education, the public conscience must never be allowed to rest, but must be roused from sleep as often as possible. In the words of an enthusiast quoted by Mr. Basu we must "keep on preaching education and have all our pastors and preachers and workers continually preaching it and drumming it into the ears of the people." So only will the way be prepared.

CALCUTTA.

November, 9, 1925.

E. F. OATEN.

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**PROBLEMS OF
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A STUDY**

CHAPTER I.

**THE GENERAL PROBLEM OF EXPANSION OF LITERACY
UNDER THE VOLUNTARY SYSTEM.**

In the educational programme now before the country the question of the expansion of primary education is perhaps the most important. The question was brought to a head by the momentous declaration of the Secretary of State in August, 1917, that India's future lay in the progressive development by successive stages of self-government within the Empire. It was then realised that the rate of progress towards a democratic form of government would largely depend on the growth of a popular electorate capable of properly exercising the franchise and hence on the rate of expansion of literacy among the masses. But expansion under the existing voluntary system was found to be slow and uncertain. The solution appeared to lie in the introduction of compulsion. Hence the Education Acts which were passed in different provinces during 1918-1920.

But these acts have remained practically ineffectual. No local body in Bengal, in Madras, in the United Provinces or in the Central Provinces has yet contemplated compulsion. Five municipalities in the Bombay Presidency, two municipalities in the Punjab and one municipality in Behar and Orissa are the only areas that have got the compulsory system. The explanation is that the local bodies are not prepared to levy an education cess because they apprehend that such a measure will add to the unpopularity of the compulsory system, and grants to local bodies, out of the provincial revenues, equal to the needs of compulsory education are out of the question in some of the provinces at any rate. Bengal has the largest population among the provinces, but in revenue yield it occupies the fifth position. Yet in 1921-22 it spent the largest proportion of its revenues on education, with the exception of the United Provinces, and the Education Commissioner with the Government of India observed that "while Bombay with its large and growing revenues can contemplate the early and general introduction of compulsory primary education, it is out of the question for Bengal with its restricted and in-elastic sources to consider any such project."^{*}

It has been suggested that local bodies might be compelled to levy an education cess and that twice as much as the share of the local bodies should be paid out of the provincial revenues. This means that not only the local bodies but the provincial Ministers of Education should be prepared to impose additional taxes. As the Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, observes, "a condition precedent to an advance in primary

^{*} Eighth Quinquennial Review of the progress of education in India, Vol. I, p. 12.

education is a ministry with a majority behind it determined to take money from the people and give it back to them in the form of good schools."* Every one who knows will agree with the Director in the view that the electorate will need a good deal of education before this can happen.

The position then is that compulsion cannot be expected to be generally introduced in the immediate future, and efforts have to be made to accelerate the rate of expansion in literacy under the voluntary system. But facts about the growth in the number of schools, growth in the number of scholars and related matters, as noticed in the last two quinquennial reviews of the progress of education in India, indicate that expansion in many rural areas has reached a stage at which multiplication of the existing type of schools proves largely ineffectual and uneconomic. "The problem of primary education in urban areas is largely social and economic. The great majority of town boys of the better class already attend school. If boys of lower classes and castes are to be encouraged to come to school large sums must be spent on school accommodation, and the expenditure must be met by the well-to-do or better class citizens. If they are prepared to meet it, there is room still for great educational expansion. It is otherwise in rural areas to which ninety per cent. of the population belong. There is little to be said for opening schools to which parents will not send their children."† A rapid expansion of literacy would thus appear to depend upon improvement of

* 'Primary Education Acts in India—a study'—by Prof. J. M. Sen. Introduction.

† Eighth Quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, p. 123.

existing schools and multiplication, not of the existing type but of the improved type of schools.

The question of making the work of primary schools more effective raises various problems of a fundamental character. These problems and the possible lines of solution to them are the subject matters of the chapters that follow.

CHAPTER II.

WHY GROWTH OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE IS NOT PROPORTIONATE TO THE SUPPLY OF EDUCATIONAL FACILITIES.

A chief difficulty in the way of rapid expansion of literacy is that growth of school attendance has ceased generally to be proportionate to growth in the number of and accessibility to schools.

This was emphasised in the last two quinquennial reviews of the progress of education in India. We learn that, as regards the attendance of boys, "the results of increased expenditure on primary education in the United Provinces have, in many districts, proved disappointing. 'Benares at the end of the last quinquennium headed the percentages of scholars to population, but expansion in the district under a voluntary system would seem to have reached its limit, since it has a decrease for the last three years.' In backward areas, such as the North-Western Frontier Province, the more recently started schools are very poorly attended. The same is true of some districts in the Punjab. On the other hand in some well-schooled areas, such as the Delhi Province, the opening of a new school may simply mean the attraction of a certain number of scholars from an existing institution. Enquiries conducted in Eastern Bengal many years ago, and in more recent years by Mr. E. E. Biss in Western Bengal, show that in that province the chief need of primary education is concentration with a view to greater efficiency. An increase during the quinquen-

nium of over 3,000 primary schools has been accompanied by an increase of only 5,000 scholars."* The same tendency was noticed in the quinquennium ending in 1917 in respect of Madras, the United Provinces and Assam.

In recent years recruits have no doubt begun to come to school in increasing numbers from the agricultural and artisan classes. This is true of Mohamedans as well as of Hindus. But the tendency is confined to such sections only as have, due to the enjoyment of a period of prosperity, been inspired with aspirations for respectability. For Hindus of this class there is the additional, and more important, consideration that education, which leads to government employment and entrance into 'soft' occupations, is the one channel of escape from the rigid social barriers imposed by the system of caste. This development in the sphere of education is not negligible and its unforeseen results may be of great social importance. As far as Bengal is concerned the Calcutta University Commission have remarked that "the adoption of academic ambitions by even a small portion of the cultivating class is an event of great moment in the social history of Bengal. It may be the herald of a social revolution."†

Meanwhile the part taken by this class in education, confined as it is to small sections, does not make for rapid progress in literacy. The position in this respect still continues to be very largely determined by the participation of those classes that have been traditionally literate. Of the Hindu portion of these literate classe

*Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 106.

†Selected chapters of the Report of the Calcutta University Commission. p. 70.

in Bengal, the Calcutta University Commission speak as follows :—

“For untold centuries they have been the administrators, the priests, the teachers, the lawyers, the doctors, the writers, the clerks of the community. Every successive Government in Bengal has drawn its corps of minor officials, and often also many of its major officials, from among them, the British equally with their Moslem predecessors. They have, therefore, always formed an educated class and it may safely be said that there is no class of corresponding magnitude and importance in any other country, which has so continuous a tradition of literacy extending over so many centuries. It has always been the first duty of every father in these castes, however poor he might be, to see that his sons obtained the kind of education dictated by the tradition of the caste.”*

In breaking down illiteracy then, one of the chief difficulties encountered is the persistent non-participation of great classes of urban as well as of rural population even when there are educational facilities available locally. The causes of this non-participation are, as is the case with every social phenomenon, various. Three main causes have been suggested, and they are (i) unwillingness or indifference of parents, (ii) economic difficulty and (iii) boys being required to help their parents in the family occupations or to earn a living. Enquiries made during 1920-21 in 49 villages in Behar and Orissa showed that of the boys not at school between the ages of 5 and 16, 46.3 per cent. were debarred from attending schools by poverty, 33.78 per cent. because they were required to earn a living and

*Report of the Calcutta University Commission, Selected Chapters p. 80.

17.58 per cent, on account of unwillingness or indifference of parents.* These proportions no doubt vary in different provinces. The percentage of non-attendance due to poverty, for example, must be much lower in Eastern Bengal and the relation among these three percentages is also probably very different there.

*Eighth quinquennial Review (India), Vol I, p. 120.

CHAPTER III.

THE QUESTION OF VOCATIONAL TRAINING IN THE PRIMARY STAGE.

A prevailing theory is that the unwillingness or indifference of parents is due to education given in the primary schools being not practical enough and that in order to make this education attractive it is necessary to add vocational instruction to it.

But this is not often the objection raised by the parent concerned. Very often his desire is not to have his son taught agriculture or handicraft, because he does not think that a school teacher knows more of this than he himself.* When the parent does want education for his son, his ambition usually is that the boy should get into a 'soft' and 'respectable' occupation. Besides, in the opinion of many competent authorities a vocational curriculum does not apply at this early stage. In the first place, the mental development of the pupil at this stage is not such that the agricultural and industrial processes can be properly understood by him. In the second place, every boy cannot profit by vocational training. Recruits for such training should be obtained by selection with reference to aptitudes. A period of time must be allowed for this selective process in early education. It follows that regular vocational education should come after the primary stage.†

* Report of the Missionary Commission on Village Education in India, 1910-23, p. 20.

† Report of the Missionary Conference on Industrial Education held at Allahabad in March, 1924, p. 15.

Mr. James Mackenna in his book 'Agriculture in India' has observed that the question of teaching agriculture in rural primary schools may be traced back to the report of the Famine Commission of 1880. That Commission recommended that the rural population should be so educated as to be able to take a practical interest in agricultural progress and reform. According to Mr. Mackenna this recommendation should not have been interpreted as implying agricultural training; a good general education might well be what the Commissioners had in view. But the recommendation was so interpreted, and the idea of agricultural education in primary schools began to gain ground. It was fully developed in the resolutions of the conference which considered Dr. Voelcker's report. Subsequent discussions consolidated the idea until it acquired a dominating position in educational thought. "Fortunately," says Mr. Mackenna, "this idea has now been abandoned. Agriculture is not a science in itself but a combination in practice of many sciences, and to be understood requires a sound general education and a considerable knowledge of science. It is now agreed that agriculture as such cannot be taught in schools; that rural education must be general and agricultural education practical."* This view has been practically endorsed by the Missionary Commission on village education in India, 1919-20, and by the Punjab Committee on agricultural education in the light of experience in this and other countries.†

But on the high authority of the Education Commissioner with the Government of India we learn that "special agricultural middle schools have been opened

* 'Agriculture in India'—by James Mackenna I.C.S., p. 89.

† The Missionary Commission's report, p. 30, and the Eighth Quinquennial Review (India), Vol. I, pp. 121-22.

in some provinces. These institutions have attracted few scholars and those not of the best quality. The son of a poor agriculturist who proceeds beyond the primary stage has no ambition to revert to his hereditary profession. Agriculture without capital, agriculture as he has seen it carried on by his father, offers few attractions to an intelligent school-boy. Consequently the most successful experiments in agricultural education appear to be those which include agricultural teaching in the ordinary curriculum of the rural school, thereby not debarring boys of real ability from proceeding to higher education while ensuring that those who, through failure at examination, or lack of other openings, return to the land do so with more skilled knowledge of their future occupation. For better opportunities to apply that knowledge they must look for the necessary capital to the co-operative society

”*

As on the question of regular agricultural education in rural primary schools, so on the question of regular industrial education in urban primary schools there is a difference of opinion regarding its utility and suitability, and it is more difficult to arrive at a definite conclusion in the latter case than in the former because attempts at industrial education in the primary stage have a somewhat long history behind them, and successes and failures appear to have equally strong records. (In order to guard against a possible misunderstanding it is necessary to note that throughout this discussion primary education has been understood to imply that obtainable in a primary school of the upper primary standard. The advocates of vocational educa-

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), Vol. I, pp. 21-22.

tion in primary schools appear to conceive a graduated system starting from the very bottom.) Vocational instruction has in the past been mainly represented by what are called artisan schools. Most of these schools provide training in carpentry, blacksmithy, moulding, tinsmithy, weaving, basket-making, &c., that is, in industries more or less subsidiary to agriculture. Industrial education is the main work of these institutions, and it is, or supposed to be, combined with general education of the primary stage. The position with these schools appears to be that the industrial training is not fitted into primary education but that the latter is tacked on to the former in a loose manner. Such schools have their representatives in all the provinces, and in Bengal several of the district boards are managing schools of this type and one or two are managed by the Government.

We are told that in the Punjab the primary industrial schools have not proved successful. "These schools are intended to provide for the children of artisans some training in their hereditary occupation combined with a minimum of general education, in short to take the place of premature apprenticeship. It is reported that the technical education they provide is insufficient to secure their pupils paid apprenticeships on leaving while the general education which they give is naturally of a low standard."*

In Madras, Bengal, Central Provinces and Assam the position appears to be better in respect of the career of the pupils.†

* Eighth Quinquennial Review (India), Vol. I, p. 179.

† (a) The last two quinquennial reviews of Bengal, chapters on Industrial Education.

(b) Eighth Quinquennial Review (India), Vol. I, pp. 178-81.

The report of the Industrial Commission, 1916-18, refers to striking successes along with failures.

The latest findings of the Education Commissioner with the Government of India are in general agreement with the conclusions of the Industrial Commission to the effect that where the school has satisfied the requirements of the locality it has succeeded; where the work has been organized without reference to local conditions the result has been disappointing.* The Industrial Commission have, however, pointed out that among the successful schools there are institutions which teach nothing better than the ordinary bazar methods and as such they can hardly be called schools.

* Report of the Indian Industrial Commission, 1916-18, p. 97.

CHAPTER IV.

EDUCATIONAL HAND-WORK.

Among those who do not believe in the utility or suitability of vocational training in primary schools there are many who are of opinion "that hand-work should occupy a large part of the time, but merely for its educational value, its training in manipulative skill and resourcefulness, not for its economic value."^{*} Hand-work or manual training is distinguished from vocational education in that the latter is while the former is not, directed to a definite vocation.† The advocates of handwork emphasize that alternation of hand-work and study is more interesting to the children than uninterrupted literary study and that boys who have the former arrangement in their education are likely to show better results even on the literary side. They also urge that provision for it is desirable in order to combat certain harmful and rather common tendencies, viz., (i) general slackness in life and work (ii) contempt for manual labour and (iii) lack of self-reliance and a spirit of dependance. Hand-work is thus considered essential to the formation of character and socialization of education.‡

It is to be noted here that manual work as such is usually prescribed for the upper primary classes only.

^{*} Report of the Missionary Commission on Village Education in India, 1910-11, p. 30.

† See Report of the Missionary Conference on Industrial Education in India held at Allahabad in March, 1912, p. 4.

‡ 'Some Is with a Message in India'—by Dr. Fleming. Oxford University Press, pp. 58, 83.

In the lower primary standard the work is not of any special type and is largely carried on on a play basis.

In order that manual training may serve this educational purpose, considerations of economic efficiency should be entirely subordinated to the educational objective. Thus division of labour which conduces to economic efficiency is unsound from the educational standpoint, and in educational manual work each pupil should be set to construct a complete thing.* It is also necessary that the thing to be constructed should be something in which the pupil is vitally interested. It follows that the work should be closely related to the pupil's environment and should as far as possible grow out of it.†

Though economic considerations should be subordinated to the purposes of education, the former need not altogether be suppressed. Manual training lays the foundation for future vocational instruction. In order to serve this purpose it is desirable that hand-work should consist of a variety of exercises and that the pupil should have complete freedom of choice, so that different tastes and aptitudes may be tested and subsequent selection of recruits for specific vocational education may be rendered easy.‡

It would appear that the educational objective in manual training admits of partial play of the economic motive in it. The work therefore need not consist of useless things. Indeed whenever the economic motive will not frustrate the educational purpose, hand-work should be so contrived as to enable the pupil to make an

* "Schools with a message in India," p. 22.

† Findings of the Missionary Conferences on rural education, January to August, 1924—by Rev. W. J. McKee, Moga, Punjab, p. 2.

‡ 'Schools with a Message in India,' p. 21.

economic contribution to the family. Any work to be done properly requires motivation. No motive is stronger than the economic, and when it does not stand in the way of the realisation of the higher purposes of education it should be encouraged. Further, any contribution, however small, made by the pupil to the family will help in meeting one of the objections against village education.*

As regards rural schools, an idea of the manual work appropriate to them may be formed from the following statements:—“(The teacher should see) that hand-work does not consist solely in the production of hopelessly uninteresting clay model, so often shown to us on our school visits, but in a clever manipulation of the fibres with which many Indian villages are well-supplied, which lend themselves so well to all kind of weaving and plaiting exercises, and of which so many articles of domestic use can be made. Clay, seeds, leaves and twigs are also often accessible; indeed, most villages have in their natural resources a wealth of material for hand-work.”†

“.....Pupils should be trained so that they could make some economic contribution to the family income. This could be done through the pupils having either a school or home garden project, this being included as part of the school work. Also in some places it would be possible to include in the class project training in some village home industry, such as rope-making and weaving, basket-making, making of rough pottery, making of sun-baked bricks, etc. Such

* Report of the Missionary Conference on Rural Education in India, held at Moga, Punjab, in December, 1922, p. 5.

† Report of the Missionary Commission on Village Education in India, 1919—20, p. 31.

work should be made educationally as valuable as possible.....”*

As for urban schools, it has been suggested that starting with clay modelling it should be possible to develop exercises in wood and metal work and in brush work. Geometrical drawing should be taught as a part of practical work. The object will be “to let the boys to catch for themselves the fascination of hand-work and by trying various tools and material to discover which are the most congenial. It is what is known in the West as pre-vocational education of the exploratory type, where work is done in the amateur spirit and the result is not called trade-training. Arrangements are made for the learner to participate in typical practical experiences of a variety of occupations so as to assist him to make an intelligent choice of an occupation.”†

Some experiments in manual work :—

(i) For rural areas

(a) At the Darnakal Institute.

Instruction in manual training is given at the Manual Training Institute at Darnakal in the Nizam's dominions. This is a great centre of mission activity in Southern India. The Institute aims at giving vocational training suited to rural life after the fifth standard, but it also manages in a systematic manner the hand-work of the primary pupils. Farm work is the main occupation, but weaving and carpentry are also dealt with as subsidiary industries.

Pupils are divided into groups according to ages. Thus pupils from eight years downwards constitute one

* Report of the Missionary Conference on Rural Education in India, held at Moga, Punjab, in December 1922, p. 5.

† ‘Schools with a message in India,’ p. 21.

grade and those from ten to eight years, another grade. Each grade has to devote a fixed number of hours per day to practical work. It is to be noted that though the instruction is pre-vocational, the authorities of the Institute see to it that the work done is not useless. They have therefore been able to evolve a system of standard remuneration, however small that may be, for each grade for doing the standard work. A work register is kept in which the work done by a pupil is recorded and he is credited with a remuneration accordingly. Besides the regular industrial work, the boys are encouraged to do as much as possible for themselves. Thus on Saturday all the children have to do the cleaning of the premises and gather fuel for use in the hostel. The daily programme of work is, normally, so arranged that manual work in farming, weaving, carpentry and sweeping is done twice, and the class-work comes in between.

It has been found that alternation of hand-work and study is more interesting to the children than purely literary study and that an average boy of the Darnakai School shows better results in subsequent literary studies than one who had purely literary work at the primary stage.*

(b) At the Scottish University's Mission School at Kalimpong.

"If one goes into the primary grade, one may find the children playing with seeds on the floor. From these seeds one lad had outlined a goose; another a cock, a flag, a fish, or a kite. If a class is modelling an orange in clay, you may be sure that the first duty of the children was to

* 'Schools with a message in India,' p. 58.

procure the clay one-fourth of a mile away. It would be easy to send away for raffia material, but instead of this artificial procedure they adopted the vastly better plan of using local material. The children are taught to take aloe leaves to the pond, soak and beat them into fibre, then deftly weave them into long slender strings. If a visitor picks up a bit to test its strength, the youngster grins, as he knows an aloe fibre is not thus to be broken. Some of the little fellows were making corn-shuck mats for local use.*

(ii) For urban areas—

(a) At the Industrial Orphanage, Baranagore.

There is a small day primary school conducted with the orphanage, and the Christians among the pupils must work at the workshop for two hours every day; for others the work is optional. The workshops are concerned with the making of such things as brass locks, screws, bolts, bell-metal work, moulding, engraving brass animals and ornaments, turner's and fitter's work. The primary grade boys are given something in the way of real work like testing oil-bottles, filing off the ends of nails, etc. The authorities of the institution insist that the boys must work on useful things.

(b) At the Australian Baptist Foreign Mission School at Faridpur.

Here carpentry is the basis of training. The primary school boys attend the ordinary classes in the day time. In the morning they do cleaning work in the hostels and workshops. On Saturday they attend a special carpentry class in which they learn how to make small articles like stools and boxes out of the scraps left by the older boys.

* 'Schools with a Message in India,' p. 126.

Here also the authorities insist that the boys must work on commercially useful things.

It has been found that the primary grade pupils, being led through manual work generally develop into excellent workmen, while the older boys coming to the school are often found to object to work and discipline. The explanation is that the former grow up in the healthy atmosphere of toil and find pleasure in doing things.*

As an example of hand-work suitable to rural schools and what is more important, as an illustration of the educational possibilities of hand-work the experiments recently conducted at the American Baptist Mission School at Pimpore, Mynapore, deserve special mention. In the beginning of last year the authorities of the school started hand-work in jute in standard IV, and the results of the experiment are described by the Missionary in charge of the school, Rev. L. C. Kitchin, as follows:—

“..... We began with the jute project, the motivation of which began in the garden where some boys were making well-rope from jute-fibre bought at the rate of annas four per seer. The boys undertook to make more of the rope for sale, but the cost of the jute-fibre was so high that they got very little for their labour, so they undertook to grow their own jute. A patch of the ground was reserved for them, on which they raised nearly three pounds of jute-fibre. In connection with this task they gained some knowledge of science in examining the flowers and seeds and they revealed a considerable amount of unorganised knowledge of the plant which did not require to be taught, such as the nature

* ‘Schools with a Message in India,’ p. 38.

of the bark, stalk, etc., the time to cut it and soak it, and the nature of the fibre. In relation to the project they also learnt considerable geography of the jute growing districts in the Province, as well as mills and shipping centres. They searched their geography text books for references to the jute industry. Then they made up considerable of the jute into rope for use in stringing beds, small wooden stools, &c. Some of the rope was dyed a fast black by means of a small fruit gathered in the jungle, which rope was useful in weaving a crude pattern or design in the stringing of the stools. Before the end of the year that class produced their first stool, the frame work of which was made in the carpentry shop.....”*

* *Vide* ‘The Village Teachers’ Journal for April—May, 1925, published at Moga, Punjab.

CHAPTER V.

ADJUSTMENT OF EDUCATION TO THE PUPIL'S ENVIRONMENT.

I

Among those who do not believe in an industrialized curriculum for primary schools there are many who find cause for criticism in that the work of the schools is not generally conducted in such a manner as to use the environment of the pupils as a basis for their education and to help them to take an increasing interest in the life of the community. They emphasize that if the aim of education is an adjustment between the child and the environment, it cannot be attained unless the school atmosphere is such that the child is unconsciously led to see why he is learning to read and write and what bearing this has on the life he is familiar with. It is therefore necessary that the content of the curriculum and the method of the class room should help to link the thought life of the pupil with the community life about him.* It has been said that, from this point of view, a change is needed in the work of the rural schools. It is urged that *Ruralisation* is what is needed in the primary school course not only to fulfil the requirements of true education in the village community but to evoke in that community an interest in education.

This means that *Reading* should draw its subjects from the village life, that *Arithmetic* should be linked

* Report of the Missionary Commission on Village Education in India, 1919-20, pp. 30-31.

with the transactions of the village and that *Nature-study* should be based on the observation of the child's actual environment. The school garden should be closely connected with nature study in order to give it a practical character and the work in the garden should be utilised as a means of keeping the pupils in touch with the agricultural surroundings. The 'object lesson' should involve talks on the field operations in which the child is employed.

On a scrutiny of the curriculum of primary schools one notes that rural interests are fairly represented in it.* If the actual work in the rural schools is generally not in keeping with the spirit and intentions of the curriculum the explanation is to be sought in the methods of teaching that are generally in vogue. The problem of ruralisation is thus in the last analysis a problem of teacher-training. "If we then go on to ask how is this adaptation (of the work of the rural school to rural life) to be successfully effected the answer in India is..... that already being given to it in America, namely, not merely, nor primarily by publishing different programmes of studies for town and rural primary schools, but by providing a preparation for prospective rural school teachers different from, but in no way inferior to, that for teachers of city primary schools and departments.†

The present method of instruction in nature study is generally conventional, and what has been said of the United Provinces is generally true of the other Provinces. It is authoritatively reported that in the United Provinces "teachers as a class are not in-

* *Vide* the 7th quinquennial review of the progress of education in India, Vol. I, p. 116.

† Occasional Reports, no 11, Bureau of Education, India, p. 12.

terested in the growing of flowers, vegetables and crops, and have little or no knowledge of how to use the school garden for lessons in nature-study. They are always ready to justify their indifference by a variety of excuses such as lack of water, insecurity of the plots from raids by goats, cattle and other animals, and so on."* In the primary schools in Bengal the progress of nature study is reported to be far from encouraging. The unsatisfactory result is attributed to the want of trained teachers and of necessary funds for the maintenance of gardens.†

Nature study at the Kalimpong Mission School—The way in which nature study should be conducted and its educational value realised is, however, illustrated in the work of at least one school in Bengal, viz., the Scottish Universities Mission School at Kalimpong. Nature study and its correlation to the other subjects taught is the distinctive feature of the Kalimpong school, and we are assured by a competent authority that certain well-known principles and methods of study have been worked out here in a decidedly original manner. The boys study the growth of plants and make a curve to record the growth of a plant from day to day. They prepare nature calendars. They draw natural objects and in the process of drawing study the objects closely. "One day as they were examining a specimen spider, the spider began to change its skin. They eagerly watched and saw its back split down. Out came head and legs. At a previous time, they had recorded concerning the same spider that in a fight it had lost a leg. When the spider came out, there was great excitement in finding out that the lost leg had grown out again. While observing

* Rightly, *Quinquennial Review (India)*, Vol. I, p. 121.

† With the recent annual reviews of the agricultural operations in India published by the Government of India.

the spiders the boys feed them on locusts and grass-hoppers. These are no match for the spiders, which clutch them by the back and soon all is over. But just after the spider has changed its skin, it is observed to be soft, and then it is not uncommon for the locust to win."* Life histories like those of the mosquito, house-fly and frog are studied. Germination of crops is observed in laboratory vessels, and the study is correlated with drawing. There are arrangements for the study of weather conditions, of variations in rainfall, &c.

The ideal behind the work at Kalimpong which was initiated and developed by Dr. Sutherland is expressed in the following statement:—

"Most of the people amongst whom his boys will live are illiterate. Books will be exceedingly few. But a great book lies about them—sun, moon, stars, and winds. If they can learn to read this great book so full of changes it will keep them fresh. He wants his little lads in the third standard to be able not only to hold a book but to 'read a plant', and be literate in the sphere of nature's own book."†

It is interesting to note how out of nature study there has developed a sericulture plant at Kalimpong. "It began by the study of silk moths found wild in the jungle. The Principal was leading the boys to see how when the first mulberry trees begin to sprout, they will probably find one or two silk-worms beginning to come out. The wild moth which they had been using might be called the grand-parent of the real silk moth. So the principal sent to Government station for eggs of the regular mulberry silk-worm. When these were

* 'Schools with a message in India,' p. 126.

† 'Schools with a message in India,' p. 132.

attacked by disease, specimens were sent away for advice. This happened a second year, when the enquiry came, 'what are you doing up there in the mountains?' They were asked to 'come and see.' On coming, the Government officers found just the kind of common-sense experimentation that they were eager should be done. It resulted four years ago in their constituting this school as a sericultural research centre. The making of the nets used in sericulture became an obvious addition to the hand-work of the school. It has been found that even a single generation of the silk-worm is improved by living in the hills, and the surrounding farmers are beginning to plant out stretches of mulberry in order to busy themselves with silk during the interval between sowing and reaping. No more significant illustration could be given of how the much longed for subsidiary industries for the village life of India are to be developed.**

Experiences do not tend to confirm the view that ruralisation of the school course and the mode of its treatment, though desirable on educational grounds, will make the schools attractive to the villagers. This is the considered opinion of the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, who says: "It is a mistake to think that any steps to ruralise the curriculum will appeal to the rural parent. I have when inspecting received complaints from villagers that the school readers dealt with the doings of dogs and crows and such common things instead of containing instruction in religion and morals."† The Education Commissioner thinks that inclusion of English in the curriculum,

* 'Schools with a message in India,' p.p. 130-31.

† Eighth Quinquennial Review (India), Vol. I, p. 122.

improvement in the efficiency of school and a vigorous-propaganda are more likely to solve the difficulty than a ruralised school course.

It is interesting to note that in the educational activities of Christian Missions the propaganda work has already been started. One missionary in a mission which is said to have achieved more than the average measure of success in its province, writes: "I know of no better methods than *continual agitation*. We keep on preaching education, and have all our pastors and preachers and workers continually preaching it and drumming it into the ears of the people."*

II

It has been suggested that the village school itself may be utilised as an agency for counteracting the apathy of the villagers towards education and that one way of carrying out this idea is to make the village school a centre of social service. The village teacher can, it is urged, become the leader of the village community and create interest in education by assisting in the solution of the physical and economic needs of the locality. The school-children, at their age, cannot of course be provided with social work that is of great significance in actual accomplishment. But opportunities of 'small services' are available, such as cleaning of bad cart-tracks, taking medicines from the hospital for the sick, herding cattle for sick neighbours, reporting on cruelty to animals, etc. The teacher may become the first secretary of the co-operative society. When school inspectors, sanitary and agricultural officers

* Report of the Missionary Commission on Village Education in India, 1919-20, p. 24.

visit the locality, the teacher can arrange for talks or lantern lectures being given by them to the villagers. He may undertake to distribute seed sent out by Government farms. When old boys visit the village he may arrange for a meeting between them and the other villagers, so that the latter may see and hear the results of education. In these various ways the teacher can be helpful to the community, and when the people find that the school is helpful to them they will in return be helpful to the school.*

In order that the school may develop into a centre of community service, it is essential that the internal working of the school should be permeated with the social spirit. This consummation is desirable even from the point of view of pure education, because "the social and the moral are so largely identical. To be moral does not mean that we have merely developed certain nameable traits, such as honesty, truthfulness and unselfishness; but that we have developed the effective capacity for doing what is socially fitting. Moral relations are as wide as our contact with others. Education should not, therefore, be a mere means to such a moral life; it should be the life itself."†

III

An interesting illustration of the adjustment of the curriculum to the facts and needs of the pupil's environment and of infusing the social spirit into the methods of school work is found in what is known as the *Project*

* Report of the Missionary Commission on Village Education in India, 1919-20, p. 80-81.

† Report of the Missionary Commission on Village Education in India, 1919-20, p. 75.

basis of Instruction: that was initiated at the American Presbyterian Mission School at Moga, Punjab, and has been adopted in several mission schools in different parts of the country. In the project type of curriculum "pupils become interested in some social problem and work out the solution, finding in the doing of this the need for information contained in Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Bible, Hygiene and Nature-study. In this method the emphasis is upon the child's life and environment and his relation to the village group. He learns to form valuable purposes in his work, to initiate activities, to rely largely upon himself for carrying them out, to organise his work and plan its accomplishment, to co-operate with others in reaching valuable ends and finally to judge the results obtained. The need for formal studies naturally arises out of the social study, and because the pupil sees the need for them in the accomplishing of his own purpose he is ready to put forth his best efforts to master them. There is constantly a strong appeal to his natural impulses and considerable use is made of construction work, story, song, drama, play and social co-operation.

"The projects that have been found valuable in these primary classes are : (1) the Village Home; (2) the Farm; (3) the Village (including the Village Shop) and (4) the relation of the village home, farm and shop, &c., to India and the outside world.

"The pupils find a need for *Reading* in order to learn of other homes, they need to learn how to *write* in order to label the things they have made, write an account of their work or a letter or invitation to a relative: they need *Arithmetic* in order to measure materials used in their constructive work or in counting the number of things they require. Hygiene is needed in study-

ing the lighting and ventilation of the house, healthy surroundings and the personal hygiene of the family. Nature study makes its contribution in beautifying the land surrounding the house, observation of the animal pets of the house, study of the sun and its value to the home etc.....”*

It has been stated above that the project method was initiated at the mission school, Moga, Punjab, and has been adopted in several other mission schools in India. We will here give an account of the experiments in this method that have been carried on in some of these other mission schools, reserving a description of the work at Moga for a later chapter (*vide* Chapter VIII).

(a) The village shop project in the second grade of the practising school attached to the American Evangelical Lutheran Mission training school at Guntur.

“In the second grade we have the ‘village-shop’ and the children have all thoroughly enjoyed their work throughout the whole year. They have set up a shop-stall. In connection with the shop project the children have learnt many things about village trades, the village shops, and the things that are generally sold in them, exports and imports and their necessity, the relation between the shop-keeper and the people of the village, and the characteristics of a good merchant, etc.

“One day the thought came to them that they should have a clock in the shop as merchants have clocks to guide them in their business affairs. So they prepared a clock with cardboard and paper and inserted hands also in it. It was hung in the shop and the children have learnt to read it well and can tell time any way we ask them to..... Many other things

* Report of the Missionary Conference on rural education in India, held at Moga, Punjab, in December, 1922, p. 4.

were learnt, as the relation between seconds and minutes, minutes and hours and hours and days and so forth.

"Another day they found out that it would be well to have a calendar in the shop. Therefore a calendar was very nicely prepared. In preparing this calendar the children learnt the relations between days and weeks, weeks and months, months and years, etc. They learnt counting by sevens and many other important things.

"They furnished their shop with some vegetables and fruits made of clay. They thought of advertising the articles and that led them to the preparation of a catalogue, in which they drew the pictures of the articles that were available in their shop, wrote a few words of description about them and noted their fixed prices. The preparation of the catalogue presented in itself many opportunities for learning a number of new ideas."*

(b) The project method as applied to hand-work.

This is being worked out at the American Baptist Mission School at Bhimpore, Midsapore (*vide* Chapter IV).

(c) Success of the project method as applied to gardening at the Mission School, Darnakal (Nizam's dominions).

"The key to success in gardening, as in every other work, is ownership. Bearing this principle in mind each boy was given a plot in which he grew whatever he liked. A group of such boys were entrusted to some teacher or other. They began to be more active and to feel more responsible and willing. The general appearance of the garden is nicer, the plants are healthier and the income.....was

* S. Bhusanam in the 'Village Teachers' Journal', April—May, 1925, Moga, Punjab.

much increased. This individual plot system did not hinder the growth of the spirit of co-operation. On the other hand it again and again showed the necessity of assistance and co-operation.

"Each plot-owner keeps a record of the work he has done and some of the diaries are so excellent that they are worth preserving."*

A critical estimate of the value of the project method is found in the Joint Report of the two (missionary) deputations to Moga and Darnakal (Methodist Publishing House, Madras, 1925), P. 12.

"As the result of our observation of work at Moga we strongly approve of the principles which underlie the project method particularly the use which is made of natural instincts and tendencies. We think, however, that the method itself is suitable chiefly for the lower elementary standards. In these standards the education given through a strict application of the project method, namely the centering of instruction round aspects of life rather than theoretical subjects much more than meets the requirements of the Government Code and includes items which the code does not touch.....

"We feel, however, that from sixth to eighth grades, which are roughly equivalent to upper primary standards, the application of the project method is somewhat artificial, subjects being brought in because they must be taught rather than because they naturally arise out of the project in hand. Further the proper order in history is broken up when it is merely taught incidentally in connection with a project and the same is true of Arithmetic and Geography....."

* K. J. G. Sundaram in the 'Village Teachers' Journal', April—May, 1925, Moga, Punjab

V

In a recent publication of the Bureau of Education, India, the subject of community work of rural schools in the United States and its lessons for India has been considered. We find that a special agency has been created in some of the States of the Union for establishing a social link between the school and the community and to help the teacher to maintain and foster this relation.

"The purpose of the school to improve the life of the community may.....be served directly as well as through the school. But efforts are most likely to meet with success when school and outside forces work together. To bring the two into unison, to make the school contribute its best to the life of the rural community, and the life of the community to the pursuits of the school, is the aim underlying the work of the official school Supervisors of Cook County, Illinois, for rural areas adjoining Chicago.

"The official Superintendent of Cook County has working with him seven so-called Country Life Directors (men and women), instead of the usual single assistant or none at all, attached each to some three or four townships (or areas of about 36 square miles, a township comprising about twenty one-teacher schools and one or two other larger schools apiece, thus fulfilling one condition of effective rural supervision, *viz.*, a carefully limited area).

"They are charged with three definite lines of work, namely, supervision and direction of all academic school work, the initiation and direction of all

school-home project work, the initiation and direction of all community and recreation work in their divisions. They have no clerical duties.

“The Country Life Director is a kind of general advisor and help in the community as well as in the school, and for that reason is of course admirably situated for establishing relations between the two. A direct link established by all the Directors is that provided by the School-home projects. A project in this case is a definite undertaking on the part of a school pupil of a continuous and systematic piece of productive work, useful in the home and treated as part of his School activities. The boy or girl may take up for instance a piece of gardening, the rearing of a calf, or a sheep, a pig, the canning of fruit, or some achievement in cooking or in sewing, or as a member of a local musical band. ‘The natural home and farm, shop and store activities of Cook County boys and girls have furnished the material and the conditions from which the School-home projects have been created.’ ‘We have chosen projects,’ says one of the Directors ‘because projects of that nature offer a most interesting and practical work which naturally appeals to every child, while they serve to connect the school and the home more closely and to stimulate a greater interest on the part of the pupil in his school and home work.’

“It is the part of the Country Life Director to get the projects going and to supervise their progress, and in co-operation with the teacher to bring the school and the project work into relation, and to measure and recognise the achievement of each pupil in his project.”*

* Occasional Reports, No. 11, Bureau of Education, India—
P.P. 29-31.

It will be seen that the project work described in this section is not exactly the same as has been described in the preceding section. In the former case a project always consists of working on a real thing, economically useful to the home; in the latter this is not necessarily the case.

CHAPTER VI.

THE ECONOMIC DIFFICULTY AS A HINDRANCE TO EXPANSION OF LITERACY.

In regard to the effect of poverty on school attendance, it is hardly necessary to observe that the problem is not merely one of remission of fees. In the first place, remission of fees cannot bring about the attendance of pupils who are required to help their parents in the family occupations or to earn a living, and in the opinion of some observers the employment of child labour in India is whidespread. Children are expected to tend cattle, to carry food and water to the field, to prepare *chhelum* (tobacco) for the adults while they are working, to scare away birds when the crops are ripening and to perform such other small duties. (It was estimated some years ago that even in a prosperous country like the United States of America two million rural children were employed in farm work to their injury.) In the second place, fees form only a small part of the cost of education. The present Education Commissioner with the Government of India worked out, in the pre-war days, the cost per head of providing free books, slates, etc., to all the boys in a four class primary school and found that it was about Rs. 3 a year for each pupil.* According to the Director of Public Instruction of Assam, where primary education is free, estimates including clothing and umbrellas rise from Rs. 25 to Rs. 50 and the Director remarks that "even if the latter estimate be excessive yet being halved it

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I. p. 119.

still offers a formidable barrier.”* In a previous section reference has been made to the enquiry that has been made in a number of villages in Bihar and Orissa and the proportion of non-attendance that has been attributed to poverty as a result of that enquiry. The Education Commissioner with the Government of India has remarked that “under a voluntary system of education scarcity and high prices at once react upon school attendance.”† In the opinion of the Missionary Commission on village education in India, 1919-20, however, “if the parent were convinced that education was something worth having he would in many cases find the means of overcoming the economic difficulty.”‡

There are those who hold that it is no use to impose a system of education upon a community in which poverty precludes co-operation. They urge abandonment of all efforts in the expansion of education in such a community and advocate working on an exclusively economic programme of advance. In their opinion the proper procedure is to improve the economic condition of the people concerned, so that in time they may be able to provide themselves with schools. There is, however, the fact of universal experience that very often a better economic status by itself does not evoke worthy ambitions; that an increase in income sometimes leads to lessening of the period of work. Thus improvement in the economic condition in itself would not necessarily create a desire for a fuller life and mean a larger school attendance. On

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 119.

† Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 2.

‡ The Commission's Report, p. 20.

the other hand economic improvement itself is conditioned by the improved intelligence of the people and therefore by education. "The Government Department of Industries may discover that there are plenty of bones available for crushing into manure, the Agricultural Department may discover that a 30 per cent. increase in crop can be obtained from land treated with bone manure; but if the farmer is in debt and cannot borrow money for less than 30 to 60 per cent. per annum (a common state of affairs) the knowledge becomes useless unless he can become connected with a co-operative credit society that can give him money at (say) 12½ per cent. The development of the co-operative system depends in its turn to a large extent upon the improved intelligence of the people through the schools."* The fact is that the life of a community is an organic unity, and its different aspects—economic, educational and religious—cannot be isolated from one another. While poverty is a cause of non-attendance, lack of education is one of the causes of poverty. Efforts to ameliorate the economic condition and to increase literacy should, therefore, proceed simultaneously.

Experiments to meet the difficulty arising out of poverty and employment of child labour:—

(i) Half-time schools and harvest holidays.

In the half-time schools, the pupils come for two or three hours a day. The rest of their time they are available for assisting their parents. Two batches of pupils may be taught daily; those who attend school in the morning may work on the farm in the afternoon and *vice versa*.

"The half-time system met with a certain success for

* E. E. Biss—First Report on Primary Education in Bengal, p. 4.

a time in the Allahabad district, but this success is now attributed to the personal influence of its originator. With his transfer to another station it has fallen into disrepute. Attempts elsewhere have met with less success.....Belief in this experiment dies hard, and it is still being tried in the United Provinces and the Central Provinces. The Inspector of Schools, Berar, reports that 'the scheme is unpopular with the teachers, the parents and the children, and it is yet too early to gauge the result of the experiment as a means of economising the staffs and funds or of increasing the number of schools.'* In the Punjab attempts at half-time schools failed. It is only in the Central Provinces that such schools have been successful and here the success is attributed to the fact that these schools are the prevailing type instead of being exceptions. This suggests a clue to the cause of failure elsewhere.†

"Of the harvest holidays the Inspector of schools, Fyzabad, reports 'Harvest holidays have been given in Bahraich and Sultanpore up to the present year; in other districts they have been discontinued because of their unpopularity.' The Deputy Inspector of Fyzabad says that the boys and teachers do not work so much as is supposed in the fields. In Sultanpur the return to the June holidays is solicited.‡

(ii) Short-term Schools—some Christian Missions are trying the expedient of what is known as the 'short-term school'. This type of school is held in a centre for a month or six weeks. It then passes on to another centre

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 121

† 'Schools with a message in India', p. 15.

‡ Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 121.

and comes back to the old place the following year for a period of more intensive work. It has been found that this short-period intensive work, conducted as it is in an atmosphere of enthusiasm, produces good results.*

- (iii) Giving a grant to the pupil equal to his earning capacity. This is the expedient that is being resorted to by some missions. Facilities are given to the children at school to earn this grant. It has been found by one mission that an acre of land (watered from a well) can be made to yield enough to pay the boys of an average village school one rupee a month for nine months.†

- (iv) School meals.

Christian Missions in some centres seek to meet the hindrance arising out of poverty by offering the attraction of a noon-day meal to the school-children. This is reported to have been successful in some Telegu centres. The children, who could not otherwise be persuaded to come a furlong from their homes, would walk two and a half miles to the school. Children of even eight years would start at six in the morning, for if the children came late they would not get the meal. It has been arranged to enable the children to raise from the school farm what is necessary for themselves.‡

* 'Schools with a message in India', pp. 15-16.

† Report of the missionary Commission on village Education in India, 1919-20, p. 35.

‡ 'Schools with a message in India', p. 16.

CHAPTER VII.

THE PROBLEM OF GROWTH OF LITERACY BEING DISPROPORTIONATE TO GROWTH OF SCHOOL ATTENDANCE.

We have so far considered one of the difficulties in the sphere of primary education and in the way of rapid expansion of literacy, viz., that growth of school attendance is not proportionate to growth in the number of and accessibility to schools. We will now proceed to consider another difficulty, viz., that growth of literacy is not proportionate to growth of school attendance. The fact that figures of literacy are less than what would be justified by the figures of school attendance was noticed in the last two quinquennial reviews of the progress of education in India and was accounted for with reference to three characteristics of primary education in this country, viz.,

- (i) The duration of school-life is in many cases too short to make a lasting impression. The average length of school-life is only 3.8 years and one-tenth of the pupils admitted to schools do not complete the four years necessary for the production of literacy in a child.*

“Sometimes but not always there is every appearance of keenness at the beginning. But the desire is usually too weak to stimulate the parents to persevere in face of difficulties. The child is taken away after a year or two. The ostensible reason is that he must bring

* Seventh quinquennial review (India), vol I, p. 122 and Government of India Resolution, May, 1918.

grist to the family mill: but if the parent were convinced that the education was something worth having he would in many cases find means of overcoming the economic difficulty. Regarding this, however, there is a good deal of misunderstanding. It is often assumed that the education given in the school is despised because it is not practical enough. In many cases, however, the parent's objection is quite the opposite."^{*}

(ii) School-life is too often marked by stagnation.

This refers to the children who remain at school several years but are not promoted. Thus of the total attendance at schools and colleges in India in 1922 over 64 per cent. were reading in the infant and first classes, the first class being in many cases no higher than the infant †. Again, of the boys undergoing elementary education in any kind of school in 1917, 89 per cent. were in the lower primary classes and about 45 per cent. in the infant class.[‡]

"In many schools at present a child takes two years to master his first primer, which in others is completed in six months. Parents cannot be expected to be enthusiastic about primary education where such is the state of affairs. Of course this is largely a matter of staffing and is worst in one-teacher schools. Here the teacher's wife where employed as an additional teacher is specially useful. When the child's school-life is so short this waste of time is very serious, and, while it is granted

* Report of the missionary commission on village Education in India, 1919-20, p. 20.

† Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 119.

‡ Seventh quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 122.

that the art of reading will occupy much of the time, we must protest against its absorbing such a very large share of the teacher's energy and attention to the very large exclusion of other exercises. So great is this struggle with language as the recognition of signs that it has almost ousted all the oral work which is so much more native to the people's genius."*

(iii) Attendance is in many cases casual.

"The excuses presented by the school master for low attendance is valid enough, in moderation. In the rainy season communication is interrupted and the actual days of downpour may be counted as 'dies non'. During the month that follows malaria is prevalent and throughout the cold weather it is sporadic and spasmodic. Influenza and plague may be epidemic any year and usually cease about the time in the early hot season, when cholera is due. Then there are the days of preparation for fast and feast and the days of recovery from them, the harvests long drawn out and the marriage festivals in carefully planned succession. A skilful scholar could with the help of a complacent teacher, almost fill out this year. Yet the cogency of these excuses is invalidated by actual attendance in the last year of a middle school course, when urgent private affairs are found to give way to the demands of the vernacular final examination."†

(iv) The literacy acquired at the school tends in many cases to disappear after leaving school. It has been estimated that about 39 per cent. of the children educated relapse into illiteracy

* Report of the missionary Commission on village Education in India, 1909-20, p. 31.

† Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 120.

within five years after their leaving school.*
 The Government of India considered this question of sufficient importance to draw attention of the provincial Governments to it.†

“The village boy when he leaves school in Bengal and takes his share in the cultivation of his father’s land has very little inducement to keep up his knowledge, even the most elementary knowledge of reading and writing. He reads no books or news papers and hardly ever even sees the written word. The family keeps no accounts, no shop-keeper’s name is inscribed over the few shops to be found in rural areas, no articles for sale are marked with the price..... Not even an advertisement catches his eye. The only written or printed papers which are to be found in a cultivator’s house are the rent receipts given by his landlord, a document or two, which has reference to his land written in legal phraseology in such a manner that it is the last thing a stumbling reader would wish to tackle, and perhaps some copies of evidence or a judgment in English in some case in which he has been an interested party. The news papers published in the towns have a very small circulation in the towns themselves and none outside, partly for the reason that the topics upon which they are exercised generally refer to party faction in which but a limited number of persons of the town itself are interested. They contain nothing of interest to the villager. In the circumstances it is inevitable that there must be much lapse from literacy.

“An attempt was made to discover the bearing of the census figures on the extent of lapse from literacy,

* Seventh quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 122.

† Government of India Resolution 437, May 29, 1928.

but proved abortive. The census figures do not in fact indicate that there is any great lapse from literacy in Bengal. The result may be partly explained by the fact that a number of men employed as durwans and peons and in other capacities in which they are kept waiting about for long periods without much to occupy them, do teach themselves to read after they have reached maturity. Such persons are the employees of persons who use the art of letters, they realise the advantage of being able to read and write, appreciate the fact that they can only rise higher in the employment of their masters by acquiring some education and take steps to do so. In Eastern Bengal, moreover, a bearded Mohomedan school boy is not a very uncommon sight and a class in a vernacular school includes one or two whose age is half as much again as the average for the class. But still the conclusion is inevitable that the return of literacy in adult ages is not accurate. The man who reached the census standard of literacy when he was at school will not admit that his knowledge has slipped from him, and perhaps, not having tried his hand for a long time, is quite unconscious that this has happened. The enumerator has no time to examine each person he enumerates, and adults would resent any attempt on his part to do so. He can read and write himself and very often he has known those whom he is to enumerate all his life. He remembers that so and so was at school in the same class as himself or his brothers and assumes that he has retained his knowledge as he himself has retained it. The fact that the prescription of a standard of literacy for the first time at the census of 1911 made little difference in the proportion of literates over the age of 20 though it made some at earlier ages, points to the probability that the standard

is not strictly applied to adults and the conclusion is inevitable that the census statistics generally exaggerate the number of adults who are literate.”*

From the above it is clear that relapse into illiteracy in rural areas is due to the fact that a village-boy on leaving school gets back into a community which is predominantly illiterate and in which there is generally no organised arrangement to help in the maintenance of literacy or to spread literacy among illiterate adults. “Concentrations on the more tangible problems of the village school must not blind one to the gradual and unobtrusive wastage of the results. When once the meagre education of the village school has been imparted, the mere capacity to read should be developed into the habit of reading.†

EXPERIMENTS TO SOLVE THE PROBLEM OF STAGNATION.

It has been shown in mission schools here and there that under competent teachers children of outcaste origin can show progress as good as that of the children of better classes. In some places missionary teachers with pedagogic training have been able to demonstrate that the primer can be done in one third the time usually taken on it. The cause of stagnation is thus to be found in the ineffective method of teaching and not necessarily in the stupidity of the pupils.‡

The comparative ineffectiveness of the teaching of *Reading* in the past was not a little due to what is known as the alphabetic method, in which the alphabet was learnt first and then the names of all the letters

* Bengal Census Report, 1921, pp. 288-89.

† Report of the Missionary Commission on Village Education in India, 1919-20, pp. 39-40.

‡ ‘Schools with a message in India’, p. 16.

in a certain combination were given and the pupils were told that those names made a particular word. It has been abandoned in the up-to-date schools. Scientific investigations have shown that in reading we do not recognise the individual letters of a word, but see the word as a whole and that we not only recognise whole words but also short phrases and sentences. In the progressive schools, therefore, the method that is followed is that the words are dealt with as wholes and the names of the letters are taught after the pupils are able to recognise several words by sight and realise that sounds similar when spoken are similar in the written symbols of the sounds.*

A recent development in this new method as applied to work in Indian Schools in the *story method* of Reading. It was initiated by Rev. W. J. McKee of the American Presbyterian Mission at Moga, Punjab, and has been adopted in several Mission Schools in India.

In the teaching of Reading one of the results to be expected is the creating of a desire to read. Starting with this fundamental idea the exponents of the story method observe that in order to create a desire to read it is desirable to use from the very beginning such reading material as is vitally interesting to the children. As nothing appeals to the child more than story, it is held that teaching of reading through stories is the most effective means of creating a desire to read. Another result to be expected in the teaching of reading is comprehension of the matter read. The exponents of the story method take their stand on the experience that pupils are able to reproduce more of interesting

* 'Teaching in Indian Elementary Schools', by Miss Marie Gordon, pp. 28-29.

meaningful material that they have read than of the material which is disjointed or outside of their experience. It is further held that recognition of words, short phrases and sentences, which should be the starting point in teaching to read, is facilitated by the story method in as much as words, phrases and sentences may occur again and again as parts of a story and not as mere meaningless repetition.*

EXPERIMENTS IN THE STORY METHOD OF READING.

- (a) The story method combined with the project method at the mission girls school at Chinsurah.

"In the first few weeks the children did not attempt anything on a large scale. Each child made a house, room, door, window, chair, table and bed with (i) Froebel's Gift Bricks; (ii) Small sticks; (iii) Sand. While making these the teacher talked with the children about their own homes and the uses of doors and windows, &c.

"In the reading period they learned to recognise the words 'house, room, window, door, table, chair, bed, person, girl sleeping' by the 'look and say' method. These words were all afterwards included in a story, but the teacher did not at first attempt to teach phrases or sentences as a whole. The recognition of number was taught from Froebel's Gift Bricks and from sticks, *viz.*, the children counted the number of bricks (or sticks) necessary for making the afore-mentioned articles and in this way also they learnt simple addition and subtraction.

*Teaching of Primary Reading by the story method', by W. J. McKee, American Presbyterian Mission, Moga, Punjab.

“First story—There was a man. He had a house. The house had four rooms. All the rooms had three windows. The man had a girl. The girl had one table and two chairs in her room. The girl had a bed in her bed-room.”*

(b) Story method followed at the missional school, Darnakal (Nizam's dominions).

“The writer began to experiment with the story method with the infants. Six months have passed and the results have been very satisfactory. Though suitable readers and materials were not available, the pupils are now able to read the more difficult venacular second reader with great ease. Some of the letters and stories written by them were sent to their relations and friends.”†

On the testimony of two authoritative missionary deputations that recently visited Moga to study the working of the story method of reading there, we learn that “this method of teaching reading is so strikingly successful that whatever else of the Moga methods we reject we certainly should adopt this. One has only to compare the lamentable slowness in learning to read in our own schools, where a child sometimes takes years to master the primer, with what one sees at Moga, to recognise the value of the method; and the results at Moga are particularly striking owing to the much greater difficulty of the Persian script as compared with the Tamil or Telegu.” (Joint Report of the two deputations to Moga and Darnakal—Methodist Publishing House, Madras, 1925, P. 9.)

* Miss A. Westwater in the ‘Village Teachers’ Journal’ April—May, 1925, Moga, Punjab.

† K. J. G. Sundaram in the ‘Village Teachers’ Journal’, April—May, 1925.

EXPERIMENTS TO LESSEN RELAPSE INTO ILLITERACY.

(a) Night schools. These represent one form of endeavour in maintaining literacy of those who have come out of schools by offering scope for continued education and in spreading literacy among illiterate adults. It appears that from the latter standpoint and with reference to the franchise, the subject of night schools has begun to engage public attention. During the quinquennium ending in 1921-22 encouraging progress was attained in the Punjab, in Bombay, in Madras and in Central Provinces. The chief hindrances to the success of night schools are (i) weariness of the pupils after a day of outdoor work, (ii) the difficulty and the risk of attendance from a distance in darkness, rain etc., and (iii) the inherent difficulty, among adults, of the unfamiliar art of reading. The risk referred to is the risk of being bitten by snakes or scorpions.*

It is interesting to note how Christian Missions are trying to attain success in night schools. In one school the Missionary hangs out a lantern to light the neighbourhood as far as possible. He keeps on hand some permanganate and a lance, to use if any one has been bitten. In one area a Christian men's club has been organised, where music is an attraction. Only those who can read are admitted. This has led to a demand for night schools. The manager of one mission district has been able to have 400 men taught through night schools by offering prize to the scholars and a system of payment by results to the teacher.†

It has been suggested that when a teacher is trained

* Report of the Missionary Commission on Village Education in India, 1919-20, p. 37.

† 'Schools with a message in India', pp. 13-14.

to be a community leader, and the school has become a community centre, the school room will often be full at night of adults keen for instruction on every thing that pertains to the welfare of their village—sanitary, economic and moral.*

(b) The travelling library—This is another instrument which is employed in creating a habit of reading and in maintaining literacy. In 1917 such libraries were instituted in the Baroda State. "Small boxes, containing mostly fiction, were prepared for centres, where the readers were incapable of making a choice. But other sets were prepared for special groups, *i.e.*, women, children of various ages, students in different grades of vernacular and English schools, teachers studying child education and pedagogy, persons interested in religion and biography, farmers and artisans and so on..... There are now (1921) 441 cases for books, and of these 321 are filled with one or the other of 166 different fixed sets or groups of books. The libraries go out to the headmasters of schools, to the Secretaries of local libraries or to any other responsible person. With them go printed notices about the library, which are put up in public places and distributed among literate persons of the village. During the seven years for which data are available (in 1921) the average annual issue of books has been 235."†

"Testimony was received in a conference with the representatives of Baroda's backward people that these simple village libraries help to prevent relapse."‡

* Report of the Missionary Commission on village Education, 1919-20, p. 37.

† 'Schools with a message in India', p. 202.

‡ Report of the Missionary Commission on village Education in India, 1919-20, p. 42.

(c) Some of the interesting experiments in adult education aim at what be called *education in illiteracy*. Extension lectures with the use of Cinema machines and lantern slides organized by the Agriculture, Industries, Co-operative and Sanitation Departments are helpful in spreading education inspite of illiteracy. Education, it is hardly necessary to observe, is not necessarily connected with literacy. In the olden days there were classes "who had their own forms of education for the field of battle, or at the plough tail, or in the mart, for books were few and printing not invented. There are outstanding examples of human greatness who were utterly illiterate and apparently not much the worse for it in their own time and condition of society."*

(i) Visual Instruction in Baroda.

The Baroda state has an organised system of visual instruction. It was started in 1913, and as early as in 1917-18, 152,000 people were found to have been benefited by 167 cinema shows and 318 set of stereographs were sent out.†

(ii) The oral method of instruction at Medak—

This is the head-quarters of the Wesleyan Mission work among a very poor and depressed Telegu population. The occasion for the initiation of the experiment arose out of the emergency created by the beginning of mass movement in conversion. It was to supply Christian workers in this movement that the system of education in illiteracy was evolved. It consists of a

* E. E. Biss First report on Primary Education in Bengal, p. 9.

† 'Schools with a message in India', pp. 202-3.

simple curriculum of teaching the Bible stories by acting them. These men are taught a dozen lyrics, the life of Christ and the elementary facts of the Christian faith. A map of Palestine is marked out on the open space of land and the towns and rivers are marked upon it. Marching and setting up exercises under a trained master have been found effective in creating self-respect among the men and in developing an erect bearing in them. They are taught the folk-dances of the district often with hymns set to them.

The lesson from this experiment is that "there is a period when a system of education for illiterates needs to be set up, and when the greatest use is made of the oral method of instruction through song.

"To some the training given to these emergency men and women will seem exceedingly simple. Simple now seems the method of the discredited Lancastrian system. And yet this system was a necessary step in awakening England to the possibility of popular education. The masses of India may catch the first enthusiasm for education from a temporary expedient which does not emphasise literacy."*

(iii) Visual Instruction organised by the Madras Y. M. C. A.

"The local Y. M. C. A. has within the last fortnight started a new experiment in their Espianade Building. The gymnasium is thrown open at 7-30 p.m. to coolies and rickshaw men and the members of their families including their little children. The children come into the gymnasium and run about the place cutting eapers and turning somersaults and in other ways making themselves quite happy in their own way. The play is fol-

* 'Schools with a message in India', p. 122.

lowed by a magic lantern show. On the first day about 30 slides showing different sides of the Sri Mirakshi Temple at Madura were shown. No attempt was made to give too much by way of historical information to the audience. As each picture was shown, the lecturer asked the audience a few questions. Among the audience was a Mohomedan who happened to have visited Madura. Making him lead the way the lecturer was able to provoke a good deal of interest in the pictures. As the show continued it became very evident that the people were really interested in the special features of the Madura town. Two days after the same slides were shown and more detailed information was given to the audience. It was found that the people not only remembered several of the things mentioned in the previous discourse, but showed a distinct interest in the outside world. On the third occasion pictures illustrating life in Northern India, particularly the Punjab, were shown. In almost all instances the boys were able to indicate what the picture meant. And they did it in their own way. For instance, when the picture of a bazar in Northern India was shown, one of the boys called this Moore Market (the name of a much frequented bazar in the city of Madras, very like the Crawford Market of Bombay). In another instance, one of the more alert boys was able to distinguish between the different kinds of Sidhus whose pictures were thrown on the screen. In the interval the gramophone was used to sing several Tamil songs. The Y. M. C. A. authorities propose to carry on this pleasing form of popular education thrice every week. Education will be imparted, as is here seen, not so much by storing the brain, with dull, detailed information as by helping the masses to use their

eyes and through the eyes widening their interest in the world. The audience averages between 35 and 50 every night. It is too early yet to judge of the success or failure of the experiment. It is interesting, however, to note that the cooly and rickshawallah, their women and children are as capable of taking interest in things that are of importance as educated people may be expected to show."*

* 'The New Empire', Calcutta, April 29, 1925.

CHAPTER VIII.

THE GENERAL PROBLEM OF TEACHER-TRAINING AND THE EXISTING ARRANGEMENTS FOR IT.

The problems of primary education which have been considered in the previous chapters may broadly be divided into two classes, viz., those that arise out of the internal working of the school and those that are due to the economic conditions of the community and the traditional outlook of its life. Stagnation is obviously an internal problem. Short duration of school life, casual attendance and the general indifference of the cultivating classes to education are according to one school of thought wholly products of the environment, while according to another they are partly products of the environment and partly results of the internal working of the school. So far as they are due to the traditional outlook of life and to poverty and employment of child labour they are external problems, but so far, if at all, as they are due to any defects in the organization and working of the school they are internal problems. In a previous stage of this study we have seen that the opinion is held by many that ruralisation of the curriculum and the mode of its treatment, introduction of vocational or pre-vocational instruction in the school and socialization of its organization and working are capable of counteracting short durations of school life, casual attendance and indifference of the cultivating classes, so far as these problems are not the outcome of the traditional outlook of life and the economic conditions of the community. On the other hand we have noted the opinion of another school of thought to the

effect that while these measures are desirable on educational grounds they cannot be expected to solve the problems in question. The curriculum has in fact been generally ruralised, and if its mode of treatment is far from satisfactory that is due to the lack of an adequate supply of the right type of teachers, and endeavours are being made to bring this about. The special remedies suggested by the former school of thought thus happen to be two-fold, viz., introduction of vocational or rather pre-vocational training and socialization of the school and its working.

This being the position, it is necessary to consider how far teacher-training may help in the solution of the problems. Let us take the problem of stagnation. Can this be solved merely by more effective methods of teaching? Better methods of teaching cannot altogether remove the defects of a system of education, in which the one-teacher schools predominate. "Ordinarily the village school master, ill-found in vitality and learning and depressed by poverty, is in sole charge of a school of five classes or sections which he has to instruct in all the subjects of a varied course. There is no fixed date of admission. Pupils come in month by month according to caprice or the influence of their horoscopes. The lowest class, in which numbers are high, is a collection of little groups each at different stage of advancement. And there are four classes above this."* In this circumstance improvement in the methods of teaching can offer only a partial relief, either reduction in the number of classes or provision of assistant teachers being also essential. Reduction in the number of classes in the primary schools will necessitate esta-

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 117.

ishment of feeder preparatory schools. The feeder preparatory schools in the United Provinces did not however function as such and reversion to full primary schools has been found necessary.* Appointment of a second teacher is conditioned by the enrolment. The average attendance at a primary school in India is 40. If allowance is made for the inclusion of vernacular middle schools of Bombay under primary schools, the daily attendance at the great majority of village schools will be found to be considerably less.†

Apart from the defects of the one-teacher system there is the defect due to the sex of the teacher. It is a matter of universal experience that the best teacher for children is a woman and that no amount of pedagogic training can make up the natural deficiency of a man in this respect.‡

As regards the problems of short duration of school-life, casual attendance and general unattractiveness of education to the cultivating classes, we have seen that there is a difference of opinion as to the remedies for these. One school of thought maintains that ruralisation of the curriculum and the mode of its treatment, provision for manual training of a pre-vocational character and socialization of the school are necessary in order to make them attractive to the parents as well as pupils. In the opinion of others these measures, while they are desirable educationally, will not solve the problems in question; they are educational luxuries and not educational necessities.

In the latter view the problem of teacher-training

* Eighth Quinquennial Review (India), Vol. I, p. 118.

† Ibid, vol I, p. 118.

‡ Ibid, p. 116.

remains, for the time being, what it has essentially been in the past, viz., to secure a type of teachers who will be able to attain adequate efficiency in primary school work in conformity with its existing aims. These aims are to teach the three R's as quickly as possible and to give some attention to geography, nature study and school gardening with reference to the facts of the pupil's environment. But what are the conditions of the supply of such teachers and how far are these conditions being satisfied under the existing arrangements? The conditions are (i) improvement in the pay of teachers, (ii) recruitment of training candidates of at least the middle school qualification and (iii) supply of efficient training facilities.

In recent years there has been a real improvement in the pay of teachers in most provinces.* In the United Provinces, untrained assistants receive at least Rs. 12/- per month, trained assistants Rs. 15/- to Rs. 20/- and head masters Rs. 20/- rising to Rs. 30/-. In Madras the minimum pay of trained teachers is now Rs. 12/- and that of untrained teachers Rs. 10/-. In Assam the minimum rate for trained teachers is Rs. 12/- and the average rate for a primary school teacher Rs. 14/9/-. In the Central Provinces the minimum rate for a trained teacher in rural area is Rs. 20/- and that for an untrained teacher, Rs. 15/-. For urban areas these rates are Rs. 22/- and Rs. 17/- respectively. In dearer districts every teacher gets an additional Rs. 3/-. In the Punjab the average monthly remuneration of a qualified primary school teacher is Rs. 26/- and in the North-Western Frontier Province Rs. 27/-. In Bombay

* Eighth Quinquennial Review (India) vol I, pp. 110—12 and seventh quinquennial review (India), vol I, p. III.

as early as in 1917, a teacher was paid according to the rate to which his certificate entitled him. Thus for a first year trained teacher Rs. 12/- rising after 20 years to Rs. 25/-, for a second year trained teacher Rs. 15/- rising to Rs. 40/- and for a third year trained teacher Rs. 20/- or 25/- rising to Rs. 60/-. In Bengal in 1917 the average pay in publicly managed institutions ranged from Rs. 8.7 in Chittagong division to Rs. 18.5 in Calcutta, the average being Rs. 12/-, that in privately managed institutions (which constituted the vast majority) from Rs. 6.7 to Rs. 10.5 in the same divisions, the usual average being Rs. 7.5. "No advance is reported during the quinquennium (ending in 1921-22)." (Eighth quinquennial Review, India, Vol. 1, P. 112.)

In Bihar and Orissa the great majority of primary schools are aided institutions. The average fee-receipt in them amounts to Rs. 3/- a month. The Departmental grant in case of the majority of schools amounts to Rs. 8.8 a month. But in many cases this grant is not more than Rs. 3/- a month.

"Of many provinces it may be said that the 'pay now enjoyed by primary teachers raises them beyond the fear of want and there is apparently no difficulty in getting recruits for the profession'. The low pay of primary teachers in the past has been a frequent cause of comment, and there are still parts of India where it is far too low to attract competent recruits. But a word of warning is needed for the zealous reformers who would spend all available funds in raising the quality of primary education. There comes a point at which, if the pay is made sufficiently attractive, the wrong type of youngman considers it worthwhile to turn, if for a while, to teaching. The best type of village teacher is the intelligent village boy who has work-

worked his way through the primary and middle classes with the definite aim of joining a normal school and becoming a village school master.....There is a real danger, if the pay attached to the post of village teacher is indefinitely increased, of attracting the out-of-work matriculate or 'failed' matriculate, possibly a townsman, certainly one who has been unsuccessful in his life's aim and who enters the blind alley of the village teacher's life as a last resort."*

The effectiveness of the work of training schools is largely determined by the general qualifications of the recruits. Where the student comes with a primary school certificate, the work of the training school mostly consists in extending his general knowledge and very little can be attempted in the way of pedagogic training. Where, on the other hand, a middle passed candidate is undergoing training, the year of training at the normal school can be devoted almost entirely to educational theory and practice. In Bombay, in the United Provinces, in the Punjab and in the Central Provinces admission to training institutions is now limited to candidates who have passed the middle vernacular examination. In the other provinces, while this is the ideal kept in view, candidates with primary certificates have in practice to be taken in. As early as in 1916-17 the position in this respect was found as follows: "A very satisfactory feature of the period (1911-12--1916-17) has been the improvement in the general qualifications of candidates admitted to the institutions, whether for English or for vernacular training. Several reports, notably those from the Punjab and Assam, bear witness to this. The institutions have

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. I p III.

as early as in 1917, a teacher was paid according to the rate to which his certificate entitled him. Thus for a first year trained teacher Rs. 12/- rising after 20 years to Rs. 25/-, for a second year trained teacher Rs. 15/- rising to Rs. 40/- and for a third year trained teacher Rs. 20/- or 25/- rising to Rs. 60/-. In Bengal in 1917 the average pay in publicly managed institutions ranged from Rs. 8.7 in Chittagong division to Rs. 18.5 in Calcutta, the average being Rs. 12¹/₂, that in privately managed institutions (which constituted the vast majority) from Rs. 6.7 to Rs. 10.5 in the same divisions, the usual average being Rs. 7.5. "No advance is reported during the quinquennium tending in 1921-22)." (Eighth quinquennial Review, India, Vol. I, P. 112.)

In Bihar and Orissa the great majority of primary schools are aided institutions. The average fee-receipt in them amounts to Rs. 3/- a month. The Departmental grant in case of the majority of schools amounts to Rs. 8.8 a month. But in many cases this grant is not more than Rs. 3/- a month.

"Of many provinces it may be said that the 'pay now enjoyed by primary teachers raises them beyond the fear of want and there is apparently no difficulty in getting recruits for the profession'. The low pay of primary teachers in the past has been a frequent cause of comment, and there are still parts of India where it is far too low to attract competent recruits. But a word of warning is needed for the zealous reformers who would spend all available funds in raising the quality of primary education. There comes a point at which, if the pay is made sufficiently attractive, the wrong type of youngman considers it worthwhile to turn, if for a while, to teaching. The best type of village teacher is the intelligent village boy who has work-

worked his way through the primary and middle classes with the definite aim of joining a normal school and becoming a village school master There is a real danger, if the pay attached to the post of village teacher is indefinitely increased, of attracting the out-of-work matriculate or 'failed' matriculate, possibly a townsman, certainly one who has been unsuccessful in his life's aim and who enters the blind alley of the village teacher's life as a last resort."*

The effectiveness of the work of training schools is largely determined by the general qualifications of the recruits. Where the student comes with a primary school certificate, the work of the training school mostly consists in extending his general knowledge and very little can be attempted in the way of pedagogic training. Where, on the other hand, a middle passed candidate is undergoing training, the year of training at the normal school can be devoted almost entirely to educational theory and practice. In Bombay, in the United Provinces, in the Punjab and in the Central Provinces admission to training institutions is now limited to candidates who have passed the middle vernacular examination. In the other provinces, while this is the ideal kept in view, candidates with primary certificates have in practice to be taken in. As early as in 1916-17 the position in this respect was found as follows: "A very satisfactory feature of the period (1911-12--1916-17) has been the improvement in the general qualifications of candidates admitted to the institutions, whether for English or for vernacular training. Several reports, notably those from the Punjab and Assam, bear witness to this. The institutions have

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. I p III.

grown more popular and the choice for admission is wider. Hence more attention can be paid to specialisation in the colleges and to professional studies in the training schools. For the former attract a large percentage of graduates and even master of arts, while the latter can generally count upon securing students who have passed the middle vernacular standard. Indeed it is hoped in Bengal that it will soon be possible to insist on a like qualification even in the lower type of training institutions, and in the United Provinces it is already required. The superiority in the quality of teaching in those provinces where training was early developed and has been consistently pursued is patent to any one who has visited schools in different parts of India.”*

As regards the quality of training facilities available, in the Central Provinces and North-Western Frontier Province wholly, and in Assam and the Punjab mostly, training is now confined to normal schools. In Bombay, in Madras, in the United Provinces and in Behar and Orissa inferior types of training schools still exist side by side with normal schools.

In Bengal the position in the recent past was as is represented below :

“By holding out the bribe of a stipend, and perhaps by the use of some thinly-veiled compulsion there are gathered in the training schools (Guru training schools) a number of teachers whose knowledge of the subjects they teach is little above that of the unfortunate taught. Here they attempt, in one year or two, to go through the whole Upper Primary or Middle Vernacular Course with a

* Seventh quinquennial Review (India), vol. p. 167.

top-dressing of the art and theory of teaching super-added. There are no foundations on which to build, so that it is not surprising, to quote the Inspector, Dacca Division, that 'the actual work done by the trained teachers in primary schools is cruelly disappointing.'

"Training as interpreted in relation to primary education in Bengal is merely a despairing attempt to supply by special means some part of what is wanting in the teachers' general equipment."*

Progress has, however, been made with the system of improved type of guru training schools (an important feature of which is that each of these schools is in charge of a man who has been through the course of a training college) and abolition of a certain number of old-type schools and "in view of the description given of the guru training schools it is clear that for some time to come expenditure must be devoted rather to improving the quality of the training given than to enlarging the output."† The aim is to provide an improved type of school for each sub-division, and there are now 22 such schools in existence.

In all India the number of training schools for men was 926 in 1922 as against 490 in 1912, and the number of scholars was 22,774 in 1922 as against 11,365 in 1912. The proportion of trained teachers rose from 26.5 in 1912 to 39 in 1922.‡ The proportion of trained vernacular teachers rose from 30 in 1917 to 40 in 1922.¶

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, pp. 142-45.

† Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, p. 143.

‡ Eighth quinquennial Review vol. II, p. 132.

¶ Seventh quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, p. 159, and eighth quinquennial Review vol. I, p. 115 and 8th Q. Q. R. (India), vol. II, p. 130.

“It is satisfactory to find that most provinces have not hesitated to face this problem (of maintaining an adequate supply of trained teachers) and have actually succeeded in keeping pace with the demand by increasing the facilities for training.”*

In connection with the question of training of teachers, it is necessary to note that after-care is essential to the preservation of the results of training. “As teachers left to themselves in villages are liable to deteriorate there are great advantages in periodical repetition and improvement courses for primary school teachers during the school vacations.”† In the Philippines various methods of after-care have been devised. “Chief among these are the summer teacher-training institutes. Two Vacation Assemblies are held annually for five weeks, where courses, conferences and lectures on educational subjects are arranged; and to these as many as 1700 teachers have come as delegates in one year. These two large Assemblies are definitely preparatory for the Normal Institutes which are held in practically all the forty seven divisions. Each Divisional Normal Institute is a Vacation Assembly on a small scale, and those who attend the assemblies are called on to teach in the Divisional Schools All teachers are supposed to attend the Divisional Institutes, which are held for five weeks and 80 per cent. of them actually do so.

“In addition to the Assemblies and Institutes, meeting of the teachers of a Supervising District are held at various intervals. In these classes the supervising teachers help the class room teachers and principals

* Fifth quinquennial Review (India), vol. II, p. 130

† Resolution of the Department of Education Government of India, 21st February, 1913.

to solve the various problems of school administration, assist the new and inexperienced teachers, give instruction in the best methods of teaching, and offer suggestions as to the best methods of arousing enthusiasm, maintaining interest and securing local aid."* The system of supervision in the Philipines appears, however, to have been carried too far, and Rev. A. G. Frazer, Principal of the Trinity College, Kandy, who was a member of the Missionary Commission on Village Education in India, 1919-20, found the Phillipine Schools inefficient because too much dependance was placed upon supervision.

It is to be noted here that constructive supervision is more than inspection. Its chief aim is improvement of the quality of instruction in the school through a sympathetic and scientific study of the pupils' abilities and of the difficulties of the teacher. It is also part of the duties of a supervisor to bring about a closer relationship between the community and the school and to help the teacher in organizing social welfare work in the locality.

Christian Missions in India appear to have earnestly taken up this question of after-care for the teachers of their village schools. The Moga School (described in Chapter IX) has organized a system of extension work from this point of view and is "sending out supervisors of village schools, conducting teachers' and supervisors' institutes, brief training courses for teachers in service, an educational journal which is sent out to practically all teachers....."†

* Report of the Missionary Commission on Village Education in India, 1919-20, p. 108.

† Report of the Missionary Conference on rural education in India held at Moga, Punjab, in December 1922, p. 20.

The Missions' plan of supervision may be briefly described under two heads, *viz.*, (i) The circle plan of supervision and (ii) the demonstration Schools.* Under the circle plan, a supervisor or helping teacher divides his whole district into circles, each circle containing a week's work. It is arranged such that each supervisor is to visit each school once in two months, there will be eight circles in a supervisor's district. Usually a circle contains three schools. The supervisor goes to the first school in a circle and spends two days in that school, watches the work of the teacher, notes the points for improvement and selects one or two main defects for discussion with the teacher or for giving demonstration lessons to the classes. He goes to the second school and does the same sort of work, and so with the third. By Friday he has seen all the three schools. On Saturday a conference of the teachers of the circle is called at a central place and the weakest points in the schools are discussed and lines of improvement considered. The Supervisor then passes on to another circle and so on until he comes back after two months, to see what improvement has taken place as a result of his previous efforts. On this visit he would select as the model School of the circle the one whose teacher has made the greatest improvement in the matters considered on the last occasion and hold the teachers' conference there and bring up new points for consideration and formulate constructive plans of work for the next term of two months.

As regards *demonstration schools*, an educationally trained teacher or missionary would begin work in one

* Report of the Missionary Conference on rural education in India held at Moga, Punjab, in December, 1922, pp 12-13.

and have not only highly commended the work and given the school their hearty support but are experimenting with parts of the method in their own schools."*

How does the community middle school help the development of character?

Initiative, persistence, self-reliance, organizing ability, co-operation, the spirit of service and a sense of dignity of labour--these are the attributes of character that need to be strengthened in the village boy. The project method which forms the basis of instruction in the community middle school contributes much to the end. Initiative is developed in that the pupil must plan his own project. Persistence is encouraged in as much as a project that is once begun must be completed. Self-reliance is fostered because the teacher is only a guide and the pupil must do every thing himself under his guidance. Organizing ability grows out of the exercise of selective power in securing the relevant information and grouping it under a definite object. The projects arise out of a common discussion and are worked through corporate efforts on the part of the class and hence the development of a co-operative spirit. Construction or handwork is a necessary feature of the project method and emphasizes the dignity of labour.

It is to be noted that not only the subjects of study but the manual training itself are organised on the project basis. School gardening, farm work and home industries are the chief forms of handwork provided at the school. Each pupil has a garden of his own and from the fourth standard upwards each has both a

* *International Review of Missions*, July, 1923, p. 353.

garden plot and a farm plot. Supplementary village industries are also included in the curriculum of hand-work.

“The School garden is of 8 acres. Each student has a plot of 13 yards square. Students are entitled to what they produce after paying for seeds and fertilizer. From this and other industries they earn about Rs. 3 per month. Out of these earnings they pay part of their school and boarding expenses. Both students and instructors keep accounts. The wells and methods of irrigation were studied. There are a portable engine and a pump, also iron wheel and conveying chain of buckets, an extensive system of tanks and swimming pool, the whole providing sufficient pressure to send the water for a long distance.

“The school farm is 23 acres, 11 of these being dry farming. All run by student labour except for one mali and one man looking after the cattle. Work is on project basis. Each student from the fourth class has $\frac{1}{6}$ of an acre of irrigated land or $\frac{1}{3}$ of an acre of un-irrigated land under his care. Group and co-operative work emphasized. Pupils work $1\frac{1}{2}$ hours every day on the plots and one full work-day each week. They are entitled to what they produce after paying for seeds and fertilizer. A general meeting is held twice each year in which pupils who have done well receive their reward and those who have done poorly are stirred to renewed effort.

“Efforts are being made to adapt various agricultural implements to village conditions.

“In the cattle shed a special method is being used to provide sanitary conditions for the cattle as well as to secure and store fertilizing products.

“The silo pit is filled with fodder raised and cut

contribute so much to a happy and useful life. Shall not the rural schools minister to these needs? And shall not the rural school teachers' training be such as to prepare him for teaching in a school whose major work is concerned with the solution of these problems?"

In an official publication in India we read as follows :*

"In keeping with this spirit attention is given (in the United States) during training to problems of village life, and the means advocated for gaining familiarity with rural conditions include the undertaking of rural life surveys by the teachers, the encouragement of boys, and girls' club work and 'school-home' gardens, the holding of community-centre meetings in demonstration schools, assistance in organizing and conducting school thrift campaigns, visiting the homes by the teacher, and so on.

"On the principles finding favour in America a curriculum for rural teacherships in India might select from amongst the following subjects :

1. Review of class subjects of instruction upto the eighth standard with special consideration of methods of presentment suitable in rural elementary schools.
2. Rural sanitation and hygiene (personal, social and village).
3. Agricultural nature study.
4. Drawing.
5. Manual occupation in village life.
6. Rural school management.
7. Rural school administration, and the teachers' relations to other educational officers.

* Occasional Reports, No. 11, Bureau of Education, India, pp. 13-14.

8. Problems of village life, and the relation of the teacher to the community.
9. School practice and observation with some simple principles of Education.
10. Village games and exercises.

"In some of the subjects published material exists which would require, for handling by the teacher, ordering and adapting; in others (e.g. 2, 3, 5, 7 and 8) material would have to be assembled if training institutions for rural teachers are to go much further than they do at present in adapting their curriculum to the special purpose."

What sort of questions will come up for consideration under problems of village life may be gathered from the following outline of a course of study on 'the rural community' given in an American training institution during one quarter of 1919 :

- "1. Character of population.
2. Is the population increasing or decreasing to-day?
3. Roads (quality, state and seasonal use).
4. Is the community served by rural mail (postal) routes?
5. How wide is the range of travel?
6. Churches.
7. Various social organisations (Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A., Boy Scouts, Farm Bureaus, Community Clubs, etc.).
8. Does the community support a lecture and entertainment course? (Library, Reading matter, etc., public and private).
9. Recreation and amusement of young and old.
10. Character and evidence of the existence of community spirit.

11. Attitude of various sections of the community towards the school.
12. Preparation of youngmen and women, who leave the community when they take up their life work.”*

It is agreed on all hands that the training schools should be relieved of the instruction in general subjects to which a large part of their time is now devoted, so that their work may consist solely in teaching the theory and practice of education. It is for this reason that a general qualification of the middle school standard is considered desirable for the intending teachers to undergo training. But the existing middle schools do not supply the kind of general education that will be required of the new type of teachers. It has therefore been suggested that a new type of middle schools should be established for the purpose. The advocates of this new type of middle schools would call them ‘community middle schools.’ So far as the needs of rural education are concerned, it has been suggested that each district should have one such school. “The rural community middle school is a school which seeks to use the activities and valuable interests of the village as a means for educating rural boys and girls for more abundant living and service in their communities. All the work of these schools, including the vocational or practical work, should be closely related to the pupils’ village environment and so far as possible should grow out of it. The vocational work should not be a separate entity, but should be an integral part of the curriculum enriching it and having as its constant aim (along with the other

* Occasional Reports, No. II, Bureau of Education, India, p. 20.

work of the school) the bettering of present village conditions.

"Such a school differs from an industrial one in that it is concerned with a broad vital curriculum and the uplifting of the community through enriched and consecrated personality, while the latter has as one of its principal aims the training of pupils for a definite trade through which they may become self-supporting members of the community. The rural community middle school is also quite distinct from a village teachers' training school, although in some cases it may be advisable to have such a normal department attached to it, because it makes possible the training of teachers in an atmosphere favourable to village life."*

So far as training of teachers is concerned, the community middle school would appear to be an intermediate institution between the village primary school and the normal school. The community middle school would give the necessary back ground for the teacher's work, and the normal school will devote itself mainly to teaching how the back ground may be utilised in the teaching work. The normal school work may be attached to the community middle school as a separate department or be embodied in a separate institution.

The idea of the community middle school is connected with the project method of education, a description of which with reference to primary schools has been given in Chapter V, and the idea was initiated at Moga along with the project method. The community middle school represents carrying the project method from the primary stage to the middle stage.

* Report of the Missionary Conference on rural education in India held at Moga, Punjab, in Dec. 1922, pp. 6-7.

From an account of the community middle school at Moga written by Rev. W. J. McKee of the American Presbyterian Mission, to whom the application of the project method in general education and the idea of the community middle school in this country are due, we gather the following :*

The goal of the work in the community middle school at Moga is "to provide an education arising out of the pupil's experience and environment, using his natural impulses and interests with the object of inspiring and preparing him for real community service." The effort is "to get the pupil to see not only the present needy condition of the village, but what the village and his own people might become through Christian service and that he had a peculiar responsibility and privilege in the light of his training to go back and help in their uplift."

The work of the school may be described under three heads :—

- (i) Class room instruction; (ii) character development; (iii) school life.

The class room instruction is almost entirely based on the project method. Efforts are made to find subject-matter related to some problem or activity of the community. Thus the basis of education is found in those endeavours in which the pupils' parents are engaged and in which the pupils themselves will be engaged when they leave school. The pupils meet the problems of their parents and learn better methods of solving them.

In the first standard the project is the Village Home. The study is concerned with the life and work of the

* *International Review of Missions*, July, 1923, pp. 345—59.

village family and is directed to find solution for the various problems that arise in feeding, clothing and housing of the members. In solving these problems opportunities arise for instruction in Arithmetic, Reading, Writing, Hygiene, Bible study, etc.

To start with, the pupils are given talks about their home and its relationships. The various problems of the village are then gradually developed. Consideration of the problem of housing of the family leads the pupils to purpose to build a house; observation of the other houses, consultation about the materials to be used, the size of the house, etc., follow. The measurements connected with the building and the laying out of its plan lead to Arithmetic. Questions of drainage, lighting and ventilation come up for consideration in due course offering scope for practical instruction in Hygiene and Sanitation. All the information that is wanted in connection with the building of the house cannot be obtained through observation and enquiry alone, so the need for Reading arises. Bible stories about home and home relationships may be utilised for this purpose. The need for writing down figures and labelling the things that are made arises in the course of the construction work, and the pupils get desirous of learning how to write. Work in connection with beautifying the house and grounds and care of the animal pets furnish opportunities for Nature Study. The direction the house is to face, to determine the time of the day (Sun dial) and how to meet the weather conditions as they affect the health and comfort of the family are the questions that lead to an elementary knowledge of Geography. "The emphasise is first upon the village and its life; then upon the wider outlook (additional information and experience) with the object

in view of using these to improve existing conditions. The responsibility for finding a solution to these problems is largely placed upon the pupil..... The teacher acts mostly as a guide, seeking to direct the work into the most profitable channels and to keep alive the pupils' interest and enthusiasm."*

In the second standard the project of Village Farm with all the problems that arise therefrom in connection with Nature study, Geography, Arithmetic, Bible study, Reading and Writing (records) is dealt with. The village bazaar (shops) and the village in relation to the outside world are the projects for the third and fourth standards respectively. This completes the work of the primary department.

The work in the middle stage also consists in working out a number of projects, but in this stage there is not the same possibility in having one major project in each standard to cover all the subjects of study. Sometimes two or three projects are necessary in a given standard to cover its whole curriculum. On occasions the project method is abandoned and another method of motivation is adopted. The major project in the fifth standard at Moga has normally been the lumbering industry. The boys collect various kinds of wood, try to identify them and find out whence they come. They measure the wood, find how many cubic feet it contains, work out the cost of taking the wood to the market and learn how it is sold. They find that canals are used in bringing the lumber down the hills and this leads to the study of canals, rivers and the irrigation system. It will be apparent that ample opportunities are afforded by this project for Nature study,

* International Review of Missions, July, 1923, pp. 352-53.

Geography and Arithmetic. In the sixth grade the project is Moga itself. The products of the school farm are sent to the Moga market and this gives occasion for the study of Moga, how it is laid out, how it came into being, its relation to the rest of the Punjab and to the outside world through exports of the products of Moga and imports that come to Moga. In this connection a plan of Moga is laid out and offers scope for Geometry. It will be seen that opportunities for the study of other subjects also arise out of this project. In the seventh grade the village Post Office is the major project. The boys work out the foreign mail routes and how they are distributed and in this way learn a good deal of the Geography of the foreign countries. The question of Postal Savings Bank arises out of this and affords scope for the study of Arithmetic.

"This project curriculum has led to a great increase in the pupils' interest, because most children desire to construct things, to work out difficulties closely related to life and work and to imitate the life and work of parents and acquaintances. This interest together with the modern methods of teaching the various school subjects has resulted in greater accomplishment, for it is now possible for many pupils of the first grade to complete both sections of that class and all the second grade work in one school year. In many ordinary village schools as much as two and occasionally three years are spent in completing the work of the first grade only. The Government educational authorities are also greatly interested in these methods

*Report of the Missionary Conference on rural education in Bengal, June, 1934, (published by the National Christian Council), pp. 27--28

of the most backward schools in a District and help the teacher for a period of several weeks until his school had greatly improved. The other teachers of the surrounding schools would then be invited to see what improvement had taken place. They would remain for a week or ten days and observe the work of the demonstrator and that of the teacher and then they would themselves do some teaching.

CHAPTER IX.

A NEW SYSTEM OF TEACHER-TRAINING : THE MOGA EXPERIMENT.

If the view is taken that not only efficient methods of teaching the existing curriculum but a liberal provision for educational handwork, infusion of a social spirit into the work of the school and developing the schools as centres of social service for the villagers and hence an intimate knowledge on the part of the teacher of the economic and social conditions of the locality are necessary for solving the problems of village education, it is obvious that a new type of teachers and therefore a new system of training are wanted. In an official publication of the United States occurs the following statement :*

“ The country district is first of all and above all a place where practical education is needed, and one of the chief aims of the *rural* school should be the development of thrift. Thrift has always been and always will be a fundamental factor in progress whether of the individual or of the community at large. Better homes and better household economy in every respect; better live-stock and better barns; better crops and better use of them; the maintenance of the productivity of the soil and the reclamation of worn-out fields; better roads and better vehicles of travel; more good books, papers, magazines, art and music for the boys and girls; better social conditions—these are the urgent needs of country-life to-day, and they are most worthy because they all

* Bulletin, Federal Bureau of Education, 1912.

by the School. Silage takes the place of green fodder and is a means of considerable saving in labour and money.

"The students work on the various home industries taught in the school. They have a threefold purpose. They are frequently made a part of educational projects. They assist the boys in earning their way through school, but most of all they enable the student when he returns to his village, to teach and help the villager to put his spare time to profitable use. Rope-making and weaving, making of sundried bricks and ordinary farm repairs (carpentry and blacksmithy) are some of the trades which are emphasized. Students are also credited with what they earn through this trade-work."^{*}

Responsibility is placed on the boys "in connection with the general life of the school, including the Panchayat (elected by the pupils annually), because discipline and general oversight is in the hands of this Panchayat. It has been an enormous help in the matter of creating a moral standard. It has been, if anything, severe rather than lenient. Two years ago the boys themselves brought forward the complaint against a boy that he was constantly guilty of using unclean language. He was given a trial, was permitted to be heard and when the case was proved, they recommended that he should be turned out.....So as regards theft. There is seldom any difficulty except in the first months of school when new boys come in from the villages. The punishment is rather severe. In the hostels we simply have open shelves; things are not locked up; boys are

* Report of the Missionary Conference on rural education in India held at Moga, Punjab, in Dec, 1922, pp. 15-19.

trusted. If a boy does take anything and it can be proved against him he is severely dealt with (by the Panchayat).

“As well as the Panchayat there are the following :

1. Committee of Sanitation.
2. Committee for sick boys.
3. Committee for small boys, who do not know enough to read and write letters.
4. Committee for social life.
5. Committee for games and athletics (the big boys help the younger ones).
6. Committee for religious life and service.”*

The school also does community work giving demonstrations in agricultural and industrial work to gatherings of village people, helping in the village school work and promoting the interests of the village school.

The account given above of the experiments at Moga shows the principles that underlie the conception of a complete community middle school as the foundation for the training of a new type of village teachers.† Superimposed upon this is the normal department at Moga, which is concerned with usual work of a training institution but in a more comprehensive manner and following the project method of instruction. The members of the normal class are sent out into the villages for 3 weeks every year for practice teaching and community work.

Both the middle school and the normal department, though departing considerably from the Government

*Report of the Missionary Conference on rural education in Bengal, June, 1924. (published by the National Christian Council), p. 30.

† A Community Middle School is in process of formation under the American Baptist Mission at Bhimpore, Midnapore. A full account of this endeavour is given in the National Christian Council Review of January, 1925, pp. 15-25.

curriculum, are recognised by Government, the former receiving a Departmental grant-in-aid and the passed candidates of the latter being awarded Departmental certificates.

In connection with this conception of a community middle school, reference may be made to "a very definite step that has been taken in the Punjab towards fitting the vernacular middle school to its environment by the introduction in middle department of the teaching of practical agriculture. This innovation was recommended by a Committee on agricultural teaching which met in 1918.....It is already in full working order in twenty schools and has been introduced on a temporary basis in eleven others. At the close of the quinquennium a similar scheme was adopted in Bombay. If experiments of this kind prove successful and if the difficulties in the way of the introduction of optional English classes are overcome there may emerge a single type of middle school providing a good general and practical education in the vernacular suitable to the needs of the country boy and providing at the same time facilities for the study of English for the few who are in a position to go further with their studies. The evolution of such a type of school would go far to solve two of the most pressing of Indian educational problems, the retention of the educated youth on the land and the equalisation of educational opportunities between the town and the country."*

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), Vol I, p. 101.

CHAPTER X.

THE PROVINCIAL PROGRAMMES OF ADVANCE UNDER THE VOLUNTARY SYSTEM.

I

In this study we started with the consideration of a fundamental obstacle in the way of further expansion of literacy under the existing voluntary system, *viz.*, that growth of school attendance is not proportionate to growth of the number of and accessibility to schools and that growth of literacy is not proportionate to growth of school attendance. We have considered the various remedies that have been suggested for this state of things. These remedies may broadly be classed under two heads, *viz.*, (i) those recommending a thorough change in the aims and methods of education, adjustment of the curriculum and methods of its treatment to the facts and needs of the pupil's environment, introduction of vocational or pre-vocational training, practical methods of nature study and school gardening, utilising the schools as centres of social service, development of a new type of middle schools in order to prepare candidates for the teaching profession and socialising the machinery and methods of training; (ii) those recommending measures which, it is believed, will accelerate progress without necessitating a radical change in the aims and outlook of the existing system.

"The farmer wants his son to learn one or other of three things or two or more of them combined. These are the three R's and knowledge which will pro-

fect him against the landlord, the patwari and the bania, and (in some cases) an education which will enable him to proceed to a secondary school, get full education and obtain some small government or clerical employ. Singularly little value is attached to geography, history, observation lessons, hygiene etc., save in so far as they serve one or other of these objects. Elaborate as some of the courses sound, it is instruction in the three R's which is generally wanted and which is actually given. 'If one visits a primary school,' says the Bombay report, 'after previous warning, the infants are probably playing with beads, standard II is making hills, rivers and bays in mud, standard III may be studying flowers, Standard IV has a relief map in clay, Standard V is drawing a plant, Standard VI is watching a scientific experiment. If one visits unannounced, most of the classes will be pouring over books, writing or repeating tables, although one may be engaged in an object-lesson with the object carefully locked up in a wooden cupboard.'**

The present Education Commissioner with the Government of India corroborates the same view in the statement that "there is much to be said on educational grounds for adaptation of the school text books to the environment.....But it is a mistake to suppose that any steps to ruralise the curriculum will appeal to the rural parent."†

At the same time it is agreed on all hands that in order to make a stronger appeal to the parents and minimise the cases of stagnation and short duration of school life it is necessary to improve the methods of instruc-

* Seventh quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 117.

† Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 122.

tion, and those who hold that ruralisation of the curriculum and method of instruction will not necessarily make the schools more popular are yet of opinion that "the only cure for the indifference of agriculturists to education isvigorous propaganda accompanied by marked improvement in the efficiency of the village school."^{*} This is the considered view of the Education Commissioner with the Government of India, and the provincial programmes of advance are essentially based on the view that expansion of literacy can be attained by pursuing the existing aims and improving the treatment of the existing curriculum and multiplying the type of schools that provide the improved methods of teaching that curriculum. This improvement implies not only increased supply of properly trained teachers, but also properly organised, properly managed and properly distributed schools. Increased supply of properly trained teachers requires offer of adequate remuneration, adequate initial qualifications of candidates for training and increased supply of improved training facilities. Middle standard education is considered to be the minimum qualification that should be required of a candidate for training. Insistence on this would necessitate multiplication of the middle schools. These are the chief points in the resolution of the Government of India issued in February, 1923, which laid down the general policy of future development in primary education (along with development in the other branches of education), on which all the provincial programmes of advance under the present voluntary system are based.

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, p. 123, para 229.

The resolution, so far as it relates to primary education, runs as follows:—

“For guidance in the immediate future, with the necessary modifications due to local conditions, the Government of India desire to lay down the following principles in regard to primary education :

- (i) “Subject to the principles stated in paragraph 8(1) Supra* there should be a large expansion of lower primary schools teaching the three R’s with drawing, knowledge of the village map, nature study and physical exercises.

(*The principles refer to steady raising of the standard of existing institutions.)

- (ii) “Similarly upper primary schools should be established at suitable centres and lower primary schools should where necessary be developed into upper primary schools.
- (iii) “Expansion should be secured by means of board schools, except where this is financially impossible, when aided schools under recognised management should be encouraged. In certain tracts liberal subsidies may advantageously be given to maktabs, Pathsalas and the like which are ready to undertake simple vernacular teaching of general knowledge. Reliance should not be placed upon ‘venture schools’ unless by subjecting themselves to suitable management and to inspection they earn recognition.
- (iv) “It is not practicable at present in most parts of India to draw any great distinction between the curriculum of rural and of urban primary schools. But in the latter class of schools there is special scope for practical teaching

of geography, school excursion, etc., and the nature study should vary with environment and some other form of simple knowledge of the locality might advantageously be substituted for the study of the village map. As competent teachers become available a greater differentiation of the courses will be possible.

- (v) "Teachers should be drawn from the class of boys whom they will teach; they should have passed the middle vernacular examination or been through a corresponding course, and should have undergone a year's training. Where they have passed through only the primary course and have not already had sufficient experience in a school a two years' course of training is generally desirable. This training may in the first instance be given in small local institutions, but preferably, as funds permit, in larger and more efficient central normal schools. In both kinds of institutions adequate practising schools are a necessary adjunct, and the size of the practising school will generally determine the size of the normal school. As teachers left to themselves in villages are liable to deteriorate there are great advantages in periodical repetition and improvement courses for primary school teachers during the school vacations.
- (vi) "Trained teachers should receive not less than Rs. 12 per month (special rates being given in certain areas); they should be placed in a graded service, and they should either be eligible for a pension or admitted to a provident fund.

- (vii) "No teacher should be called on to instruct more than 50 pupils; preferably the number should be 30 or 40; and it is desirable to have a separate teacher for each class or standard.
- (viii) "The continuation schools known as middle schools should be improved and multiplied.
- (ix) "Schools should be housed in sanitary and commodious but inexpensive buildings."

The resolution indicated as an aim doubling of the number of schools in the not distant future.

On the 30th August, 1916, the Government of India issued a circular letter to local Governments (which may be regarded as a supplement to the resolution of 1913), in which it was pointed out that the training arrangements in many provinces were inadequate, and it was suggested that the number of teachers to be trained in each year should at least be equal to the number required to take the place of those who have died or resigned, and to meet the new demands that might arise out of the expansion of education. This circular was followed by a grant of 30 lakhs made by Government of India for the training and the pay of teachers.

In a circular letter addressed to local Governments in September, 1918, the Government of India advocated definite programmes for the expansion of primary education in the rural areas. In this letter the Government of India dealt with the new situation created by the introduction of the constitutional reforms and emphasized the peculiar importance of primary education at the present time. Issue of this instruction from the Government of India resulted in either the formulation, by several local Governments, of new schemes or in the development of old schemes of expansion in

rural areas. These programmes indicate the establishment in the sphere of Indian education of the important principle that in any effective scheme of progress due consideration should be given to the needs of the province as a whole and the particular needs and resources of each district and that it is therefore essential that there should be co-operation between local Governments and local bodies. This is the principle that has been emphasized by the Board of Education in England in the following statement :

“It is not favourable to economy that any local education authority should conduct its business from ‘hand to mouth’ and embark on particular improvements without considering what they will lead to, what other improvements are required and what should be the order of priority. The preparation of schemes embodying a policy for gradual execution will enable local authorities and their constituents to see what is in front of them and the Board of Education’s consideration of specific proposals for giving effect to the authority’s policy, where financial circumstances permit (observing a due order of priority as between different parts or items of the scheme), will be greatly facilitated”*

II

An account of the programmes above referred to may be given here.†

In the *United Provinces* the scheme of circle schools and subsidiary feeder schools that had been evolved by the Pigott Committee proved a failure, and in 1918 a

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I, pp. 43—44.

† Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I, pp. 103—5 and Seventh quinquennial Review (India), vol I, pp. 109.

programme of expansion to cover three years was prepared. The District Boards were assured of ample financial help for the programme and for any subsidiary scheme such as the training of all available teachers, improvement of salaries and extension of adequate opportunities to educationally backward communities.

In the *Punjab* a careful survey was made of all the existing schools and all centres in the Province where an average attendance of 50 pupils might be expected in a primary school. The distance between one school and another was to be two miles. It was in this manner that the number of additional schools required for the Province was determined. It was contemplated that this number would be completed within 15 years and District Boards were asked to indicate the schools which could be opened during the next 5 years. The local Government then entered into a contract with each District Board and undertook to share the cost of accomplishing its five year programme.

In *Bombay* a scheme was prepared in 1919, and it was proposed to add 1500 primary schools every year until there was a school in every village of 200 inhabitants.

In *Behar and Orissa* a scheme was already available, its object being to bring the proportion of children at school to those of school-going age upto 50 where it was below 25, to double it when it was between 25 and 40 and to increase it to 70 or 80 in other cases. It was decided that, in order to make attendance easy, each infant school should serve $2\frac{1}{2}$ square miles, a lower primary school 10 square miles and an upper primary school 25 sq. miles. This position was to be brought about by consolidation of existing schools and opening of new schools, as local conditions required. This

scheme was held in abeyance until the settlement of the respective financial responsibilities of the local Government and the local bodies.

In *Bengal* also there had already been a scheme in hand of providing each Panchayati Union with a decent primary school to be directly managed by the local body. It was developed by the late Government of Eastern Bengal and Assam. If a good upper primary school was in existence in any union, that was to be treated as the union school. After the constitution of the Presidency of Bengal this scheme was adopted for the whole of the province. For each school a capital expenditure of Rs. 1,000 on account of building and furniture was to be incurred, and the scheme provided for the payment of Rs. 10 per month between two teachers, the head pandit getting Rs. 7/- and his assistant Rs. 3/-. The fee-income would be divided between the two teachers. The boards would be responsible for repair and maintenance of the school houses.

"One of the objects of the scheme was the establishment of schools of a permanent type with teachers on a reasonable remuneration in place of poor and often ephemeral *pathsalas* where the *guru* could earn only a bare pittance. A still more important object was the distribution of schools on an intelligible system and in such a manner as to give every locality the chance of education. A Union averages 10.4 sq. miles; so that, provided rivers do not intervene, each child should be able to go to a union school for at least part of his education, even if, in the case of some villages, the infants must content themselves with a small local institution.*

* Seventh quinquennial review (India), vol. I, p. 109.

In August, 1920, Mr. E. F. Biss of the Indian Educational Service was deputed to draw up a scheme for the expansion and improvement of primary education in Bengal. In his first report, published in 1921, he traced the inefficiency of primary schools in Bengal to (i) faulty distribution of schools, (ii) lack of premises and equipment of their own and (iii) low qualifications and miserable pay of the teachers, whose emoluments from the schools under private management outside Calcutta averaged about Rs. 7-8-0 per month. He suggested that the remedy was to be found in a reorganisation of the whole system with reference to certain definite principles, etc..

- (a) *Proper distribution*—The schools at present multiply and compete where teachers can secure fees other areas being left unprovided. In the proposed reorganisation, the populated portion of any locality would be divided into school areas each of half a mile radius. Each of these areas would be provided with a central school. These schools would be managed by the municipal, district or union boards. Each household would thus have a primary school within half a mile and the teachers would get salaries from local bodies instead of earning what they can, as at present, from fees and grants.
- (b) *Concentration*—At present the primary schools are largely one-teacher schools, this one teacher being required to take all the classes at one time. Under the new scheme provision would be made for adequate accommodation in a school upto an upward limit of 300 children. This should enable ade-

quate staffing and adequate housing of schools as well as adequate remuneration being given to the staff under economical arrangements. The scale of salary would be Rs. 15/- rising to Rs. 30/- or Rs. 40/- for headmasters in urban areas and Rs. 12/- rising to 24/- in rural areas.

The scheme of Panchayati Union schools and that of Mr. Biss are both being worked out side by side, though the operation of the latter remains restricted to a few areas because of inadequate response on the part of local bodies.

The initiation or development of the provincial programmes of advance led to certain changes in the financial relations of the provincial governments to local bodies.* Hitherto grants from provincial revenues had been made proportionate to contributions of the local bodies. It was now realised that this arrangement would not make for rapid progress. Different plans were therefore adopted by some provincial Governments. In the United Provinces the local Government undertook to meet the whole cost of its three year programme of expansion. In Assam insistence on proportionate contribution from local bodies in the allotment of funds for improvement of the pay of primary school teachers was abandoned. In the Punjab the new arrangement was as follows. The financial resources of every district board, potential as well as actual, were estimated, and the cost of the local Government's five year programme was then divided between local and provincial revenues. Under this arrangement the local Government's contribution would

* Vide Eighth quinquennial review (India), vol. I, pp. 43—45.

actually vary from 50 per cent. to 100 per cent. of the new expenditure.

In Bengal the Panchayati Union Scheme has been financed by allotments from the Imperial grants. Mr. Biss in his first report suggested that the capital expenditure of the scheme formulated by him should be met entirely by the local Government but that the recurring expenditure should be divided equally between the provincial Government and the local bodies. In his second report he has recommended that the local Government should pay its portion of the recurring expenditure without insisting on the other half being found by the local bodies, as even then a tangible improvement would be effected in the existing state of things. The local Government, however, remains pledged to their original undertaking that they would meet any local effort on a half-and-half basis.

The question of respective liabilities of provincial Governments and local bodies was considered by the Central Advisory Board of Education, which body made the following recommendations:—

- (i) "That Government should by legislation, if necessary, take measures to ensure a minimum expenditure on elementary education in each local area; that this minimum and the portion thereof to be met respectively from provincial and local funds should be determined by Government after careful consideration of the financial and educational needs and circumstances of each area and the claims of local services other than education.
- (ii) " That additional expenditure on elementary education above this minimum by local bodies should be encouraged by propor-

tionate grants from Government and for the purpose of calculating this proportion the districts should be graded according to their needs and means.

- (iii) "That local bodies should be encouraged to develop the higher stages of elementary education and to retain pupils throughout the full course by higher rates of grants in respect of expenditure on these higher stages."*

Some of the details of the above-mentioned programmes and their achievements in different provinces are summarised in the following statement:—

"Two years ago the Government of the United Provinces took full responsibility for finding the money required by an advance which will, it is estimated, raise the recurring cost of education to half a million sterling. In the first year of its existence the primary education programme increased the total number of primary schools from 11,500 to 13,500, while the number of boys under instruction rose by 11 per cent. During the second instalment of the three years' programme the number of schools increased to 15,000; the number of teachers from 27,000 to 28,000; and the number of scholars from 0.76 million to 0.81 million. Further, returns have been received from all municipal boards showing the cost of introducing compulsory education, and on the basis of these figures the local Government has promised to bear two-thirds of the additional cost involved. Boards have been invited to seek the assistance of the Education Department in working out their schemes; and the response so far has been in the highest degree encouraging. In the Punjab, the aim has

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I. p. 45.

been to establish, within five years, an additional 122 middle schools and 1,463 primary schools and to convert a number of private or elementary schools into Board schools.....The progress made during the first three years of the programme, from 1918 to 1921, has been on the whole satisfactory. During the period number of vernacular schools maintained by District Boards has increased by 1,246 to 4,800. In addition, the year 1921 showed 890 aided schools, 121 unaided schools and 1,551 elementary schools in operation.....In Bombay the aim is to open up primary schools, first in every village with one thousand inhabitants, and secondly, in every village containing more than 500 inhabitants (and so on until there was a school in every village containing 200 inhabitants). Important reforms have been inaugurated in the curriculum for village schools and the number of district training schools has been increased. A notable encouragement has further been provided to municipal effort by Government's promise to contribute half the cost of free education..... In Bengal large allotments have been made by Government to local bodies.

“ From the brief survey of the more outstanding features of the progress of primary education during the period under review, it will be seen that popular interest has been awakened in considerable degree in favour of a boldly progressive campaign of educational expansion. But unfortunately, the sources from which such a scheme is to be financed have not yet been discovered. Hence, in several provinces, there is a tendency to stretch existing funds as far as they will go, and to devise economies in every possible way. In the Punjab, during the last year, considerable advances have been made in this direction. Investigation has

shown that very real economy can be effected by the concentration of available resources in such a manner as to permit their most effective application. The interposition of a Secretariat between the Director of Public Instruction and the Minister for Education has been avoided: an educational 'general staff' is being collected at the Head quarters with the saving thus achieved. Specialist teachers in training colleges have been concentrated rather than dispersed; the system of inspection has been simplified; and overlap has been eliminated. Unquestionably much remains to be done in this direction in the other Provinces also; and while the saving so effected cannot be expected radically to alter the educational position in the immediate future, yet it will probably constitute a powerful argument in the eyes of the new legislatures for the concentration of additional financial effort upon the problem as a whole."^{*}

III

It is worth while to consider to what extent the objects of the Government of India Resolution of 1912 and of their circular letter of 1916 have been realised in India as a whole. One of these objects was that the standard of existing schools should be raised, that the number of schools should be doubled in the not distant future and that this expansion should be effected as far as possible by means of board schools. "The board school is as a rule unquestionably more efficient than the aided school. It possesses stability and can draw on the funds of the board for its material require-

* 'India in 1921-22', pp. 239-42.

ments; the teacher is subject to direct control and can be transferred if he is unpopular or inefficient."* The general popularity of the board school is evident from the fact that it contains on the average 55 pupils, while the aided school contains 34 and the unaided school 25.† A board primary school for boys costs on the average Rs. 613 annually, an aided school Rs. 175 and an unaided school Rs. 165.‡

During 1911-12—1916-17 the number of primary schools for boys rose from 110,692 to 124,081 or by 13,389. During the next quinquennium the number rose to 137,435 or by 13,354.§ The total increase during 1911-12—1921-22 was 26,743. During 1911-12—1916-17—the tendency was “for the number of board schools to increase, for aided schools to become transformed into board schools and for unaided schools to find a place in the aided list.”|| This tendency was very pronounced during the next quinquennium also. Thus we find that of the increase of 13,354 schools during this period, 9371 were board schools and 464 Government schools, so that the aided and unaided schools together increased by 3519 only. The unaided schools decreased by 2202 during this period. The real increase in the number of aided schools was therefore 5721.§

How far was this increase in the number of schools accompanied by increase in the number of scholars?

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol I, p. 43.

† Eighth Q. Q. R. (India), vol. II, pp. 116-17

‡ Ibid, p. 124.

§ Ibid, p. 115.

|| Seventh quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, p. 103.

§ Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. II, pp. 116-17,

The number of pupils in the primary schools for boys rose from 4,522,648 in 1911-12 to 5,188,411 in 1916-17 and to 5,543,435 in 1921-22.* The expansion of education, as measured by the number of boys in the primary stage per 1000 of the male population, is shown by the following figures:—†

1911-12	35.7
1916-17	42.4
1921-22	44.1

The figure of literacy in India is so poor because the percentage of population at school is so small. Thus in 1921-22 the percentage was 3.39 as against 3.22 in 1916-17.‡ The proportion of the population under instruction varies widely from province to province, as is shown by the table below (for 1921-22):—¶

Bombay	4.9	p.c.	
Burma	4.3	"	
Madras and Bengal	4.3	p.c.	(approximately).
Assam	3.0	"	
Punjab	2.7	"	
United Provinces	2.3	"	
Central Provinces	2.5	"	
Bihar and Orissa	2.4	"	
N.W. Frontier	2.2	"	

The figure of literacy is even poorer than the percentage of population at school would justify, because only a small proportion of the pupils reach that stage

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. II, p. 118.

† Ibid, p. 114.

‡ Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. II, p. 1, and Seventh quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, p. 122.

¶ 'India in 1921-22' p. 239.

of instruction at which literacy may be firmly established, as the following figures of distribution of boys over the various stages of elementary education in both primary and secondary schools, in 1921-22, will shew :—*

	Total number in each stage	Percentage of total (approximate)
Boys in upper primary stage	4,92,823	9
Boys in lower primary stage reading printed books	3,521,482	63
Boys in lower primary stage not reading printed books	1,544,669	28

In a previous part of this study it has been noticed that about 39 per cent. of the pupils educated relapse into illiteracy within five years after leaving school. One of the causes of this relapse is that the vast majority of the pupils do not go beyond the lower primary stage, so that literacy is not in many cases firmly established. It was with a view to fostering instruction beyond the lower primary stage that, in the resolution of 1913, it was urged that simultaneously with increase in the number of lower primary schools upper primary schools should be established at suitable centres and, where necessary, lower primary schools should be developed into upper primary schools. The following figures show that there has not only been no progress in the proportion of schools in the upper primary stage but a progressive fall in that proportion : †

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. II, p. 41.

† Vide Seventh quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, p. 110. and the second column of the last table.

(Percentage to total in)

	1911-12	1916-17	1921-22 (approximate as given in the last table)
Boys in upper primary stage	12.5	11.1	9
Boys in lower primary stage reading printed books	62.1	62.3	63
Boys in lower primary stage not reading printed books	25.4	26.6	28

This fall in the proportion of pupils in the upper primary stage has taken place inspite of the fact that the rate of increase in the total number of scholars in the primary stage has steadily decreased, as the following table will shew:—*

(Increase in the number of scholars in the primary stage in primary and secondary schools.)

1906-07--1911-12	886,714
1911-12--1916-17	627,607
1916-17--1921-22	310,796

In the resolution of 1913 it was recommended that (i) the teachers should have passed the middle vernacular examination, (ii) a trained teacher should receive at least Rs. 12/- per month, (iii) no teacher should be required to teach more than 50 pupils (preferably the the number should be 30 or 40) and (iv) there should be

* Vide Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. II, p. 120.

a separate teacher for each class or standard. In the Government of India circular letter of 1916 it was suggested that efforts should be made to supply as many trained teachers in each year as were required to fill up the vacancies caused by death or resignation and to meet the new demand arising out of expansion.

In chapter VIII we have noted the progress under (i) (ii) and (v). Item (iv) has also been considered in that chapter and it has been pointed out that appointment of additional teachers is conditioned by the enrolment of the schools, and owing to the small enrolment of an average school there has been little or no improvement in this direction. This leads us to item (iii). The average number of pupils in a primary school for boys underwent an increase from 41 in 1911-12 to 42 in 1916-17. But it fell to 40 in 1921-22.* It will thus be seen that the number of pupils which a primary school teacher has to teach on the average does not exceed the number recommended in the Resolution of 1913. It is not here that the difficulty lies but in that the teacher has to teach a number of classes at one time. Towards the solution of this difficulty, as has already been observed, little has yet been effected.

It was further suggested in the Resolution of 1913 that (i) the teachers should be recruited from the class to which the pupils they will teach belong, (ii) the teachers should be placed in a graded service and should either be eligible for a pension or admitted to a provident fund and (iii) periodical repetition or improvement courses should be held during the school vacations.

It is not always the case that the teachers belong

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. II, p. 119.

to the class of the boys they have to teach, but rural teachers are generally products of rural education. As regards pension and provident fund arrangements, the position in 1916-17 (that for 1921-22 being not recorded) was as follows :

"The practice of permitting board and municipal teachers to render pensionable service or to subscribe to the regular provident funds established by these bodies is increasing. In Bombay and the Central Provinces such teachers render pensionable service. In Behar and Orissa they contribute to the Board provident funds, and 704 do so; the same privilege is accorded by most of the local boards and municipalities in Assam, and 220 teachers are contributing. In all these cases the privilege applies to those in receipt of pay over Rs. 10. In the United Provinces contribution is generally compulsory for teachers on Rs. 10 or over and sometimes teachers of smaller pay are allowed to contribute. In the North-West Frontier Province teachers on Rs. 10 or over are required to contribute to the board or municipal provident fund; the number of these so subscribing is 649. In Delhi 159 teachers contribute to the fund. The contribution under these funds is generally one anna in every rupee of the employee's pay, to which the local body contributes either an equal amount or half.

"The teacher in a private primary school is in a particularly unfortunate position, as regards provision for old age. He is not ordinarily eligible to contribute to the funds started by local bodies....."*

As regards after-care of trained teachers, special arrangements for this do not generally exist. Some

* Seventh quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, pp. 112-113

arrangements have, however, been made in the Central Provinces and in Madras in this direction. In the former there is a system of re-training under which trained teachers who have worked for some years are brought back to a normal school for a further year. In Madras teachers' associations, with an enrolment of 3.0%, are reported to be doing good work in the matter of after-care. The general position is that this is left to the inspecting agency. "Under the district inspectors are the assistant district or sub-inspectors. Doubt is expressed by some Directors whether the present type of graduate assistant district inspectors, to whom the immediate supervision of the work of primary schools is entrusted, is quite the best type of man for the purpose. His long absence from the village primary school, supposing that he ever attended one, and the very different educational atmosphere with which he has been surrounded in high school and college, make him too often an unsympathetic and unhelpful advisor to the humble and ill-educated village teacher. On the other hand the old type of sub-inspector lacked up-to-date knowledge of methods of instruction. *Both economy and interests of educational efficiency suggest the employment of a different class of helping teacher with qualifications something between the old instructing parent who knew too little and the ambitious young graduate who knows too much.*"*

Besides, in Bengal at any rate, the conditions of the sub-inspector's work are such that "constructive supervision is almost out of the question. The recent missionary commission considered that there should be a supervisor for every 12-30 schools. The average num-

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. 1, pp. 45-46

ber of primary schools (excluding indogenous schools) per sub-inspector is 172, and he is supposed to visit each once and, if possible, twice in the year.* He has also bills to make out and good many other duties to perform. He has to move from place to place and to take bedding and in many cases food also with him. No peon is allowed him, and he often has to carry his things himself unless he is to be out of pocket on his travelling allowance.† The very large number of tiny schools, all of similar type, and, with few exceptions, all apparently unimprovable, constitutes a heavy burden for one man. They have to be visited hastily and the inspections are not of much value beyond that of compelling the teachers to pull their schools together now and again. Good work has been done by these officers in deciding which schools should receive grants from public funds, but it is an invidious task and the general distribution of schools is not happy.‡

One of the suggestions of the Resolution of 1923 was that middle vernacular schools should be improved and multiplied, these schools being intended to offer a continued and complete education to the average village boy as well as to serve as centres of recruitment of candidates for teaching in rural schools. In Bombay and Madras middle vernacular schools no longer exist as such; they are classed as elementary schools. The number of middle vernacular schools in the other provinces rose from 2,191 in 1911-12 to 3,249 in 1921-22 and the number of pupils in them from 206,070 to 1,15,072.¶

* The standard in this respect has recently been fixed at 100

† The rate of allowance has lately been enhanced.

‡ E. E. Biss—First report on Primary Education in Bengal, p. 51.

¶ Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. II, p. 101.

This increase is shared by all these other provinces except Bengal where the number of this type of schools shows a steady decline and has fallen from 514 in 1911-12 to 217 in 1921-22. "The middle vernacular school is cheap because it does not need University men on its staff and yet it is often very efficient. Where it leads to definite avenues of employment in the lower ranks of the Revenue and Education Departments (as patwaris and village teachers) it is popular. This is the case in the Punjab, the United Provinces, the Central Provinces and to some extent in Assam and Behar and Orissa. It is not so in Bengal where admission to a training school for primary teachers is open to candidates possessing only primary qualifications.

"In this province in particular the chief obstacle to the popularity of the vernacular middle school is the lack of English teaching and the consequent difficulty experienced by its ex-pupil in proceeding to a higher education."*

A further recommendation of the Resolution of 1913 was that schools should be housed in sanitary and commodious but inexpensive buildings.

".....While education is expanding at its present rate it is quite impossible for the building programme to keep pace with the increase in the number of schools. For many years to come most of the primary schools in India must be housed in rented premises. Even in Madras which probably leads the way in this matter only 44 per cent. of the schools are housed in buildings of their own; and ground was lost in the quinquennium, an increase of 4,700 in the number of schools being accompanied by an increase of only

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, pp. 99-100.

1,485 in the number of buildings. In the United Provinces and the Punjab building operations have been conducted on a large scale, no less than Rs 23,84,943 having been spent in this way in the former province and special grants amounting in all to 11½ lakhs having been made for the same purpose in the Punjab.

"There exists a certain amount of prejudice against the expenditure of money on primary school buildings. Some theorists go so far as to suggest trees as a suitable substitute for roofs, but the sun, the dust and the rain of India do not lend much encouragement to this view; nor would it commend itself to parents. It is a fact well-known to every inspecting officer that the possession of a decent building of its own adds much to the popularity of a village school or to the possibilities of efficient teaching."*

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, pp. 112—113.

CHAPTER XI.

ADMINISTRATION OF PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Subject to the general powers of supervision and control by the local Government, administration of primary education is in the hands of local bodies, i.e., municipalities and district (or rural) boards. Where, as in Burma, there were no district or rural boards special agencies were created for purposes of educational administration. The Burma Rural Self-Government Act of 1921, however, provided for the creation of elected local bodies.

The educational functions of local bodies are imposed by law and elaborated in a body of bye-laws. To the old legislation were added during 1918-23 the Primary Education Acts. The main object of all these acts was to enable local bodies to introduce compulsory education. With the exception of Madras and Bombay Acts, they have not changed the manner in which primary education is administered by local bodies. The Burma Rural Self-Government Act of 1921 which provided for the creation of local bodies also provided for the establishment of special agencies for education in consonance with the spirit of the Madras and Bombay Acts. The measure of educational responsibility placed upon local bodies remains now, as it was before the passing of the Primary Education Acts, different in different provinces. In some of the provinces power has been taken by the local Government to compel local bodies to make adequate provision for primary education under the voluntary system. In other provinces the educational responsibility of local bodies is not

defined in so definite a manner. In still others the legislation is merely permissive. Similarly in the matter of compulsory education, the local Government in some of the provinces has the power to compel local bodies to introduce a compulsory system, while in the other provinces such action depends on the will of the local bodies.

The measure of independence which the local bodies can exercise in the administration of education is determined by rules and varies in different provinces. The orders issued by the Government of India on the 19th September, 1916, were responsible for relaxation of the control of the local Governments. "Generally speaking the Government of India endorsed the decision of the (Decentralisation) Commission to give to local bodies a greater share in the control of such education as is entrusted to them. It accepted the principle that the activities of these bodies should in the main be confined to primary schools, though the charge of vernacular middle schools might also be undertaken in cases where their duties towards primary education were fully discharged, and that secondary institutions teaching English should be financed by Government. As, however, Government is at present unable to meet the additional expenditure which the adoption of this recommendation would involve and the reduction in grants for other objects might lead to misconceptions the financial support of secondary English schools now maintained at the cost of local bodies must continue so to be maintained, though expenditure on this object should not be increased at the expense of the interests of primary education. As regards the power of local bodies, such matters as leave, acting and travelling allowances, pensions or provident funds and maximum

salaries for establishments should be governed by rules prescribed by the local Government. But the local bodies should have a free hand in the creation and filling up of appointments, punishment, dismissal, etc. They should also be able to open and close schools, although the Collector should have power to order the opening of new primary schools where necessary and a local body might be required to submit proposals for the closing of a school to the Collector or Director. The practice under which a certain choice is allowed in the curriculum should be emphasized. The departments of public instruction will continue to prescribe courses, the adoption of which with or without any alteration should be left to the local bodies. Text books, not approved by the Department, should not be prescribed without the sanction of the Collector. But a free choice should be given from lists of approved works provided changes are not unnecessarily frequent. As regards inspection, the ordinary practice should continue as heretofore, namely, the retention of the inspecting staff in the pay and under the control of Government, though a local staff might be maintained at the expense of local funds provided it merely took the place of the existing staff and was subordinated to the Government inspecting agency. Finally local bodies should be given full power to pass the budgets, though the rule should generally be adopted that grants made for education are spent on that object and that the standard of expenditure on primary education previous to the receipt of such grants is not substantially reduced.”*

The local bodies discharge their duties either by directly managing schools or subsidizing schools under

* Seventh quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, p. 49.

private management. Madras, for example, mainly depends upon the grant-in-aid system, while in the Punjab and in the North West Frontier Province publicly managed institutions are the predominant type. As has been noted above, the Government of India Resolution of 1913 recommended expansion through board schools, and the proportion of publicly managed schools is steadily rising throughout India. The board schools, as has been shown above, are generally more efficient than schools under private management. The building up of an honourable and efficient teaching profession with fixity of remuneration, provision for old age, etc., is bound up with the development of a system of publicly managed schools. The Primary Education Acts contemplate enforcement of a compulsory system. Such a system necessarily implies intervention of local bodies in the supply of educational facilities.

The problem of developing a system of properly distributed, well-attended and publicly managed schools raises the question as to whether the manner in which education is administered by local bodies at present will be effective. This question would arise under a voluntary as well as under a compulsory system. At present the administrative work in connection with education is not in reality done by the local bodies. The Educational questions are practically decided by the education committee of a local body and only formally sanctioned by that body. "For administrative purposes such as the appointment and transfer of board school teachers and the assessment of grants to aided schools, the district board makes free use of the services of the deputy or district inspector. This official of the Education Department has thus a dual and very difficult posi-

tion to fill. He is responsible to the district board for the management and control of the schools under its charge and to the Education Department for the inspection of these schools, for their educational efficiency and for furthering to the best of his ability the general education policy of Government."* A rapid expansion of properly located and well attended schools would require careful surveys of the geographic, economic and social features of the localities and of the number of children of school-going age. Any satisfactory solution of the financial problem underlying a programme of expansion depends upon the creation of an 'educational conscience' in the community through vigorous and sustained propaganda. A rapid multiplication of publicly managed schools would involve a volume of administrative work which the district inspector, with his multifarious duties, could not be expected to cope with in a satisfactory manner unless he is linked with a specialised and really administrative local organ. The education Committee of a local body, constituted as it is, cannot be expected to serve the purposes of such a specialised organ. That a special agency will be required for certain purposes under a compulsory system has been recognised in the Primary Education Acts all of which provide for constitution of school committees. In all departments of local endeavours the present tendency is the creation of special local organs for the promotion of particular objects. Co-operative credit societies, Agricultural Associations, Social Service Leagues, Anti-malarial Societies, etc., are instances to the point. These special agencies do not supplant the local authority but supplement and in a special man-

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, p. 45.

ner promote its work. If in the other spheres of local development special agencies have been found to be useful and necessary, it stands to reason that such an agency is needed in the sphere of education also.

These are probably the considerations that have led to provisions being made in certain provinces for the inauguration of new educational authorities. Madras led the way in 1920 and Burma and Bombay have followed suit. The Madras Elementary Education Act of 1920 provided as follows:—

“For every district in which the Act is brought into force there shall be constituted a District Educational Council consisting of a president and such number of members as the Government may prescribe. The following shall constitute the District Educational Council—(1) a president nominated by the Governor or elected by the council from among its own number, (2) the District Collector, (3) the inspector and assistant inspectors of schools of the area, (4) the president of the district board, ex-officio, and a representative of the members of the district board, (5) such number of persons as may be prescribed to represent every local authority within the district, (6) one or more persons determined by the Governor in Council to represent any recognised private educational body maintaining elementary schools or any association of managers of elementary schools, and (7) such other members as may be appointed by the Governor in Council specially to represent the Mohammedians and other minorities: provided that the number of persons appointed by the Governor in Council shall not exceed one-fourth of

* ‘Primary Education Acts in India,’ by Prof. J. M. Sen,
pp. 50—53.

the total number of members including *ex-officio* members.

"As regards the working of the district Educational Council the Act lays down that (1) the term of office of the members of the council shall be three years, (2) no member of a District Educational Council shall receive any salary or other remuneration from the funds at the disposal of the Council, (3) all meetings of a District Educational Council shall be open to the public, (4) the minutes of the proceedings at each meeting shall be published in the district gazette in English and in the vernacular language of the district and (5) the resolutions of a District Educational Council shall be carried into effect by the President in whom the entire executive power of the Council shall be vested.

"Besides preparing and maintaining registers showing the number of elementary schools and school places, and an estimate of the further provision necessary to place elementary education within the reach of all children of school-age, it shall be the duty of every District Educational Council (1) to grant recognition to schools, (2) to consider and pass orders on all applications for grants-in-aid on behalf of elementary schools under private management, (3) to disburse all sanctioned grants-in-aid from funds placed at its disposal by the Governor in Council, (4) to maintain a register of all recognised institutions in the district which provide for the training of elementary school teachers, and of all trained and certificated teachers employed in elementary schools in the district, and (5) to prepare and transmit to the Director of Public Instruction proposals for increasing the supply of trained teachers; and to advise upon all matters relating to elementary education referred to the Council by the Director."

As regards Burma, by the Rural Self-Government Act of 1921 in that province "district or joint school boards are to be appointed by elected district Councils. These boards will be entrusted with the expenditure of 'district school funds' which will consist of all sums contributed by local authorities, Government or private persons for education and of school fees."*

The Bombay Primary Education Act of 1923 provides as follows:—†

"For every local authority (a district local board or a municipality which is authorized by the Government to manage its own schools) there shall be a School Board. "The School Board shall consist of not less than seven and not more than nine elected members (persons experienced in education, women, representatives of minorities and depressed classes) if the local authority is a municipality, and not less than nine nor more than sixteen elected members (persons experienced in education, women, representatives of minorities and of backward and depressed classes, and representatives of municipalities in the district which are not local authorities) if the local authority is a district local board: members of the school board shall not necessarily be members of the local authority.

"The Government may appoint on the School Board not more than three additional members if the local authority is a municipality and not more than two if the authority is a district local board.

"The School Board shall elect a Chairman from amongst the members of the Board.

"The school Board shall exercise the powers and

* Eighth quinquennial Review (India), vol. I, pp. 41—42

† 'Primary Education Acts in India,' by Prof. J. M. Sen, pp. 33—35

perform the duties of the local authority for which it is constituted in respect of primary education; the Board shall enforce the provisions of this Act; it shall however submit its annual budget and all alterations therein for the sanction of the local authority.

“The School Board may from time to time delegate any of its powers and duties to any sub-committee or member or honorary or stipendiary officer of the Board. The Local Authority shall on the recommendation of the school Board and with the approval of the Government appoint an officer who shall be called the school Board Administrative Officer.”

CHAPTER XII.

A NOTE ON THE PUBLIC EDUCATION SERVICE IN ENGLAND

The reason for including this subject in a study of primary education in India is that it illustrates the character of modern developments in popular education and that as such it is of very great interest to every student of educational questions.

The Public Education Service in England is subject to the supervision of the Board of Education but is directly administered by the statutory Committees of County Councils, County Borough Councils and Urban District Councils.

1. Elementary Education.

(a) *School attendance*—Every child between the ages of 5 and 14 must attend a public elementary school, unless there be reasonable excuse for non-attendance.

The following are reasonable excuses for non-attendance :—

- (i) that the child is under efficient instruction in some other manner;
- (ii) that the child has been prevented from attending school by sickness or any unavoidable cause;
- (iii) that there is no public elementary school within such distance as may be prescribed by the bye-laws of the Local Education Authority.

* 'Public services,' published by the National Council of Social Service : P. S. King & Sons, 1920.

Parents may be required by the bye-laws of the Local Education Authority to send their children to school up to the age of 15; on the other hand children may be exempted by such bye-laws from attendance between the ages of 14 and 15, for such time and on such conditions as the Local Education Authority think fit. Children may also be exempted from attendance before the age of 6, provided there are adequate provisions of nursery schools for the area.

Nursery Schools may be provided either by Education Authorities or by voluntary managers for children between the ages of 2 and 5 or such later age as may be approved by the Board. Approved nursery schools receive grants-in-aid from the Board of Education.

(b) *Method of enforcing attendance*—There are School Attendance Officers to enforce attendance. The School Attendance Officer visits the home of any child who may be absent from school. For failure of the parents to send the child to school they may, as a last resort, be prosecuted and may be fined or sent to prison. The child may, further, be sent to a day or residential industrial school, the parents being required to pay towards its maintenance. School authorities should be consulted before a child is sent away to a convalescent home or for a holiday.

(c) *Special Schools for defective children*—The Education Authority is required to provide special education to blind, deaf and mentally deficient children up to the age of 16.

The Education Act of 1918, section 20, makes it obligatory on an Authority to find out what children within their area are physically defective or epileptic, and the Authority is required to make provision for their education between the ages of 7 and 16. Certi-

ried schools in county areas for boarding and lodging physically defective and epileptic children were to be provided after 7 years and after a day appointed by the Board of Education. Special provisions in the shape of day or residential schools have been made by many Education Authorities for consumptive, delicate, stammering and short-sighted children.

(d) *School medical service.*

(i) *Medical inspections*- The Board of Education requires, by regulations, that every child attending school is inspected three times during his school career; once during the year of admission, once in the intermediate stage of study and once in the 13th year of age. At the time of this inspection, teachers, nurses, parents and other persons may submit to the medical inspection special cases or 'ailing children.' Special 'inspection clinics', to which parents are invited, are also held to deal with such cases. In these clinics particulars are obtained regarding the physical and mental condition of the child.

(ii) *Treatments*- The Education Authority is required to obtain medical, surgical and dental treatment for children. The Authorities also provide nurses or other visitors to follow up the children in their own homes to see that proper treatment is obtained.

2. *Protection of children.*

Section 12 of the children Act of 1908 empowers the Local Education Authority to prosecute persons for assault, neglect or ill-treatment of children in their charge. The offence of neglect includes failure to provide adequate food, medical aid or lodging for the child.

3. Meals for School children

Ill-nourished or necessitous children attending school may be provided with meals by the Education Authority and the cost may be recovered from parents, if they are in a position to pay.

4. Care-Committees.

Such Committees of voluntary visitors have been instituted by many Local Education Authorities. These visitors visit the children in their homes, provide meals for necessitous children, supervise medical treatment and nursing.

5. Social and physical training of children:—

Juvenile Organization Committees.

Local Education Authorities are empowered by section 17 of the Education Act of 1918 to provide for the physical and social training of children. Such social and physical training may be provided by means of clubs, playing fields, school holiday camps, etc. In order to secure the best advice in organizing social facilities for children a Central Juvenile Organization Committee has been formed by the Board of Education. Local Juvenile Organisation Committees have been set up in many places at the instance of the Central Committee for the purpose of bringing together social workers and help the Local Education Authorities by voluntary work.

6. Up to 14 years of age children, whether guilty of any offence or neglected, may be sent to an industrial school.

Children who are living in immoral surroundings or with vicious parents may be sent to an industrial school.

7. Children and the Poor Law.

Special provision is made by the Poor Law (cer-

tified schools) Act, 1862, to enable Guardians to send children to schools provided by voluntary bodies and certified by the Minister of Health. Where a child is sent to a certified school the Guardians may contribute towards the cost of its maintenance, etc., at a rate not exceeding the maximum fixed by the Minister.

If the Guardians are maintaining the head of the family in the Institution and the children in a school, the children are ordinarily discharged when the head of the family is discharged. In special cases, however, particularly where the parents are immoral or guilty of serious neglect the Guardians may by resolution assume the rights of parents, if the children are already dischargeable, and exercise all parental powers until they attain their age of 18.

8 The employment of Children Act, 1903, as amended by the Education Act, 1918, imposes important restrictions on the employment of children. Locally these provisions are administered by the Local Education Authority under local bye-laws.

No child under 12 may be employed except so far as the employment of the children by their parents may be permitted by the local bye-laws.

Children between 12 and 14 may not be employed—

- (i) On any Sunday for more than two hours,
- (ii) On any day before 6 a.m., and after 8 p.m.,
- (iii) On any schoolday before the close of school, except in so far as local bye-laws may vary the provision for specified occupations. In any case employment before 9 a.m. must be limited for one hour, and a child so employed must not be employed for more than one hour in the afternoon.

Street-trading is entirely prohibited for children under 14. All contraventions of local bye-laws governing the employment of children should be reported to Local Education Authority.

ERRATA.

(i) P. 48, tenth line, 'sory' for *story*; P. 52, third line, 'be' for *may be*; P. 52, twentysecond line, "set" for *sets*; P. 77, thirteenth line, "the" for *this*; P. 79, eleventh line, "sundried" for *sun dried*.

(ii) Omission to take off "work-" at the close of P. 60.

(iii) Omission to close a quotation in P. 19, tenth line, in P. 23, twentyfifth line, in P. 46, fifteenth line, and at the end of P. 90.

(iv) P. 39, second paragraph, 'Harvest holidays...
.....unpopularity.' for 'Harvest holidays
.....unpopularity.'

(v) Omission of a comma after *could* in the twenty-first line, P. 43, after *that* in the sixth line, P. 56, and after *education*, footnote, P. 64.

(vi) Unnecessary compounding of words in several places, e.g., *school-boy school-children, school-life, village-boy, village-life, Nature-study*.

(vii) "Hand-work" for *Handwork*, and "Head-quarters" for *Headquarters* in several places.

(viii) Omission of the Italics form in the case of "in ill'teracy" in the third line of P. 52.