

THE Servant of India

Editor: S. G. VAZE

Office: BUDHWAR PETH, POONA CITY

VOL. VIII, No. 46. }

POONA—THURSDAY, DECEMBER 17, 1925.

{ INDIAN SUBSN. Rs. 6.
FOREIGN " 10 s

CONTENTS.

	PAGE.
TOPICS OF THE WEEK ...	539
ARTICLES :—	
Detention without Trial ...	541
The Bombay Social Service Conference ...	543
"What Justice Demands." A Reply by the Indore Durbar ...	544
REVIEWS :—	
Campaign against V. D. By Soorates Noronha, L. M. & S. B. Hy., Medical Officer, Anti-Veneral League Dispensary ...	546
The Aims and Organisation of Education. By K. B. Ramanathan, M. A. ...	549
BOOKS RECEIVED ...	553

TOPICS OF THE WEEK.

PRESIDING over the third annual gathering of the Bhil Seva Mandal at Dohad on December 9, Mr. N. M. Joshi, M.L.A., gave an interesting and instructive address. The Mandal owes its existence to the efforts of Mr. Amritlal V. Thakkar of the Servants of India Society and the financial help of some generous friends of the Bhils. As Mr. Joshi pointed out, while there are some points of contact between the advanced communities and the depressed classes, the aborigines in India live a life untouched by civilizing influences. The Mandal has started boarding and day schools, dispensaries and co-operative societies for the Bhils. It listens to their grievances and gives them legal help where necessary. But the resources of the Mandal are utterly inadequate for the needs of the Bhil community who number 19 lacs in all. Mr. Joshi dwelt on the necessity of Bhil representation in the Bombay Legislative Council either by nomination or by election. The claim of the Bhils to have special representation in the Legislative Council is justifiable on the ground that the depressed classes are represented in almost all the Provincial Legislative Councils and representatives of the aborigines sit in the Bihar and Orissa and Assam Councils. To draw public attention to the needs of the aborigines it is desirable to hold an all-India Conference at some central place where missionary and philanthropic bodies and others who are interested in the aborigines may take part and formulate an organized and co-ordinated plan of work for the aborigines. We wish the Mandal God-speed and hope that public generosity will enable it to maintain and enlarge its scope of usefulness.

Bhil Seva Mandal.

THE Bengal Tenancy Act Amendment Bill which has just been referred to a Select Committee has brought forth strange comments in the columns of some papers in Bengal whose saccharine sympathy for 'the masses' oozes out in incessant flow when criticizing the Government. Of course all of them profess belief in 'improving the lot' of the peasants, if only that pleasant operation does not injure the landlord's interests as they are. The attitude varies from vague patronizing of the tenants to summary rejection of the Bill. It is alleged that the Bill is a move by the bureaucracy to create ill-feeling between the masses and the classes and a clever attempt to divert people's minds from the struggle for freedom to a less worthy object. But mere suspiciousness is not always a synonym for cleverness and often is a cloak for that sullen stupidity which, unable to make any concrete proposal, takes shelter behind a hypocritical and superior attitude. The fact of the matter is that a very large section of Bengalee upper and middle classes, who control public opinion in the province, live on the profession of subletting and the number of those who depend on this parasitical class as clerks, rent collectors, managers, etc., is also very large. The following figures from the Bengal Census Report, 1921, speak for themselves. Total population 47,592,462; ordinary cultivators 9,247,927, with 21,268,653 dependents; casual and regular farm labourers 1,805,502; rent receivers 1,319,302; estate agents, rent collectors, clerks, etc., 46,181. The rent-receiving class increased by 9 per cent. during the last decade, which is three times the increase among the population as a whole. We do not say that the Bill in its present form is perfect; we consider it to be defective in some respects, though for reasons entirely different from those of some of our Bengal contemporaries. In our opinion the lot of the peasants, as also the power of improving it, should be entirely in the control of the peasants themselves, for Zemindararchy has miserably failed. We hope to publish a critique on the Bill in an early issue.

The Price of Zemindararchy.

THE following further facts show the disastrously uneconomic nature of the Permanent Settlement. "The average rent paid by raiyats for all classes of land is rather over Rs. 3 per acre. This means that the total realized as rent by the landlord class including middlemen in Bengal is Rs. 13,50,00,000 per annum." (Bengal Census Report, 1921, Part I, p 385). The Land Revenue and Charges of Bengal for 1921-22 were Rs. 3,01,88,957 and Rs. 35,81,660 respectively. In other words to collect the land revenue of about three crores, the Government pays to the Zemindars and revenue officers the enormous sum of about eleven crores. The Permanent Settlement, it must be remembered, stipulated only ten per cent. to the Zemindar. The Land Revenue and Charges of the province of Bombay in 1921-22 were Rs. 5,47,43,707 and Rs. 1,64,19,621 respectively. The utterly waste-

ful nature of the Permanent Settlement is thus obvious.

* * *

Indians Overseas AN all-India non-party organization to work in the interests of Indians abroad is about to be started under the name of the "Akhil Pravasi Bharatiya Sahayak Mandal". The chief organiser is Pandit Hari Shankar Dixit, who had been in Mauritius for ten years. He has already enlisted the sympathy and support from such influential persons as Mahatma Gandhi, Pandit Malaviya, Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru, Mr. Chintamani and Mr. Jawaharlal Nehru. It will be the function of this organization to receive first-hand information from all the colonies where Indians are settled, study their needs, social, moral, economic and political, send out missions to and invite missions from the colonies and to bring them into closer contact with the mother country by bringing out a periodical exclusively devoted to this subject." Pandit Hriday Nath Kunzru has offered on behalf of the Servants of India Society to undertake the work provided sufficient financial support is forthcoming. The need for such an organisation appears all the greater because of the flat refusal of the Union Government to agree to have a round table conference with India. In introducing the Asiatic Bill he had made remarks which encouraged the hope that a round table conference would be agreed to. Dr. Malan had said that the introduction of the Bill would help rather than hinder negotiations with India. But now he has declared himself unable to enter into conversations with India's representatives for the reason that it would imply that the principle of the Bill was susceptible of alteration, while he did not want it to be regarded as a closed question. When we are thus beset with difficulties on all sides, the usefulness of such an organization as Pandit Dixit intends to bring into existence is obvious. We wish him every success.

* * *

Liberal-Independent Coalition. BABU BIPIN CHANDRA Pal stresses, in the columns of the *Leader* the necessity of holding informal conferences between leaders of the Liberal and Independent parties in Bengal with a view to forming a strong Centre party "to intervene between Swarajist unreason on one side and executive obstinacy on the other." The situation in Bengal, as in most other provinces, is such that neither the Liberals nor the Independents can by themselves achieve much, though their coalition will be a force to be reckoned with. The principles of both these parties are identical and yet the prospects of forming even a working agreement between them are far from bright. It is petty "personal ambitions and antipathies" that is the main difficulty; and also the fear of the so-called Independents lest they should lose public favour at the next election. Babu Bipin Pal uses the word "so-called" advisedly, for he says the Independents have no record of independence behind them as ordinarily they permit themselves to be tied to the Swarajist chariot-wheel. The three planks which, in Pal Babu's opinion, should form the basis of the coalition, hold good in other provinces also. They are:—

- (a) That they accept without any reservation the ideal of responsible government or self-governing dominion status;
- (b) That they pledge themselves to work for the attainment of the self-governing dominion status as early as possible by constitutional means as distinguished from direct action, but not excluding resort to parliamentary obstruction or constitutional deadlocks, should it be necessary under special circumstances

provided these do not affect the carrying on of the primary functions of government;

- (c) That they accept responsive co-operation as their fundamental principle of political action.

"But," Bipin Babu goes on to say, "this alone, though it must form the basis of the coalition, will not help the consolidation of it. If the Liberals and Independents can come together upon these planks, then the time will come for them to put their heads together to enunciate a more detailed programme of national work. But the primary thing is that they should come together." We cordially agree.

* * *

Punjab and Madras Borstal Bills. RECENT Jail Administration Reports of almost all the provinces

have emphasized the need of a Borstal Act. In the Punjab a Borstal Bill in some form or other has been before the local legislature since 1916. The present Bill was introduced in the Punjab Legislative Council in November 1924. It was duly referred to a Select Committee which made some important changes in the Bill. During the last summer session of the Council, the Bill as altered by the Select Committee was discussed and its several clauses passed with certain amendments. Sir John Maynard who is in charge of the Bill did not, however, choose to move it for final passage and the Bill stands at that. The Madras Government has also introduced in the local Legislative Council the Madras Borstal Schools Bill. The Bill has passed the Select Committee stage and is expected soon to come before the Council for further discussion and passage. The maximum period of detention provided in the two bills, seven years in the Punjab and five years in Madras, seems to us rather excessive. It will also lead to a greater difference in the age of the inmates, which is undesirable. We hope the two bills will soon pass into law and will be followed by similar laws in other provinces.

* * *

Some Borstal Principles. THE basic principle in the Borstal treatment of young delinquents is

that adolescent criminals in a certain stage of their career of crime are potential citizens. These criminals form a class by themselves. They are "not so bad that they will contaminate nor so good that they will be contaminated by other Borstal inmates" and are usually of an age between 16 and 21. For Borstal treatment, time is an important factor and therefore adolescent criminals are sent to Borstal institutions for a longer term of detention than their crime would warrant under ordinary criminal law. The most important consideration in connection with the Borstal treatment of adolescent criminals is to limit the prison element in Borstal institutions to the irreducible minimum. A Borstal institution should be considered more as a school for moral training through a life of hard manual labour and strict discipline than as a "prison for youth into which such features of reformatory schools as can be suitably utilised are introduced," as Mr. Mitchell-Innes wrote in the Indian Jails Committee Report. When dealing with adolescent offenders the convicting Magistrate or Judge has constantly to keep in mind that the offenders themselves, as also the public, will gain if the application of Borstal treatment is not unduly delayed. The Report of the Borstal Association of England, 1925, pointedly remarks that of the lads whose period at Borstal was their first experience of institutional treatment, over 70 per cent. have become satisfactory; while those with prison record or both prison and reformatory records 55 and 49 per cent. respectively made good.

DETENTION WITHOUT TRIAL.

MR. M. K. ACHARYA intends to move in the ensuing session of the Legislative Assembly a Bill the effect of which, if passed, will be to limit the duration of detention without trial in Bengal to three months. With the underlying principle of the Bill it is impossible not to agree, viz. that when emergency situations make it necessary to vest extraordinary powers of arrest and detention in the Executive, these powers should be available for exercise for a strictly limited period, and that if the emergency continues thereafter calling for the continuance of special powers, the Executive should be under the necessity to make out a case afresh to that effect. The life-time of the Bengal Criminal Law Amendment Act, 1925, is five years, and that is an unconscionably long period in which the people could be invited to trust the Executive Government to use with discretion and without injustice the very wide power of detaining persons on mere suspicion. Mr. Acharya recognises that for reasons of public safety it may be necessary at times to resort to the expedient of deterrent detention as distinguished from punitive imprisonment, but he insists that it should not be possible for Government to keep men under restraint without charge and without trial for an indefinite period. In his opinion, three months is about the outside limit during which a person considered to be abusing his liberty to the detriment of the public security might reasonably be deprived of his liberty without being put on his trial. The limit would perhaps be extended with advantage to six months, for six months or a year is the normal period for which such special legislation is passed. Anyhow it is clear that if an Act like the Bengal Act ever becomes necessary, it should remain in force for a much shorter period than five years and that the Executive should be required once again to seek the sanction of the Legislature for the retention of powers conferred by the Act in case of continuing necessity. It is not necessary, in justifying this position, to impute a double dose of original sin to the Executive. The latter may be credited with a sense of meticulous justice in ordering the internment of people. Their sole desire in taking such obnoxious action may be to protect the citizens from a campaign of violent and anarchical crimes, and their conscience may be in perfect harmony with the decisions which they take as guardians of the nation. Yet there can be no doubt that the very strain imposed by such a heavy responsibility tends to harden their nature. The stern will, on which a call is made at the first appearance of danger, is apt to continue by sheer habit when the danger has well-nigh passed, even as the war habit of mind continued in Europe long after the war had ceased. It is, therefore, too great a responsibility to throw on anyone to make him hold prisoners for an indefinite period without bringing them to trial. Here, as in many other matters, the generous is often found to be also the prudent course, and it is best to limit the exercise of extraordinary powers in the hope and

belief that the animosity and criminal instinct of people will soon give way to good-will and civic sanity. If in the interval it is found that the people do not desist from their work of evil, the Executive should go again to the Legislature seeking for power to continue emergency measures.

We shall illustrate the point by citing the instance of the Irish Free State. Ireland's is perhaps the worst case to select from the point of view of lawlessness. She passed during the last few years through two revolutions: first, her revolt against England, and second, the revolt of the Republicans against the Free State. Both of these, the Anglo-Irish War and the Civil war, were very sanguinary revolutions and led to an extremely ugly aftermath of crime and anarchy with which the Executive of the Irish Free State had to deal at once with firmness and calmness. Of the horrors of Black-and-Tannery it is unnecessary to speak, but the Republican outrages during the Civil War were no less black. "Irishmen saw idealism perverted to justify rancorous intolerance; self-styled patriots strove to school them into obedience with bombs and land-mines; the glory of sacrifice was impressed upon them by ambushes in crowded streets, and a desperate effort to paralyse the industrial life of the nation. The incendiary and assassin wrecked and ravaged at will, and the last word in political discussions rested with the rifles of the official firing squads and the automatics of the reprisalists." There were wholesale lootings, burnings, murders; and frequent raids, ambushes, shootings, kidnappings. After a year or so this armed revolt came to an end, because the Republicans were unable to carry on military operations and in April 1923 the "Cease Fire" order was given. The rebels were treated with remarkable leniency. Few were executed; most were imprisoned. To the latter again very easy conditions of release were offered. If arms were delivered up and promise made that there would be no more resort to force, the prisoners might return to their homes. But the rebels scouted the offer and refused to give up arms. So long as the Civil War continued, the military were naturally in control, and they had by virtue of the military situation the inherent right to employ all the force necessary, and to keep as many persons in military custody as they thought advisable. If a *habeas corpus* application were made during this period on behalf of a prisoner, the Court would not grant it, because in a time of war or armed rebellion the Courts are precluded from inquiring into the legality of the acts of the military and therefore into the legality of the detention of persons in military custody. But it was doubtful what the attitude of the Courts would be after April 1923, when the Civil War had nominally ceased but when the insurgents were still in possession of arms. In these circumstances, the Adjutant General could only make an affidavit that "there is an organisation opposed to the State, that it has arms and explosives at its disposal, and has refused to surrender them to the Executive Government who alone have the right to con-

trol lethal weapons in the country." It was naturally thought that the Courts might refuse to accept such an affidavit as ousting their jurisdiction and they might decide that that state of affairs did not constitute a state of war or armed revolt. And on the day they so decided, all the interned persons would have to be set at liberty, there being then no legal power for their detention. There were at that time between 12,000 and 13,000 persons in custody, a good many of whom were desperadoes. The Free State Cabinet was not in a position to open the prison gates in this manner and therefore sought powers, by means of a Public Safety Bill, to keep in internment those whose continued detention was thought necessary and also to arrest and detain others reasonably suspected of having committed certain offences prejudicial to the public safety.

This Bill was limited in operation to six months. The Minister for Home Affairs frankly admitted in introducing the measure that it gave very drastic and far-reaching powers to the Executive, and that it perverted the normal legal processes. His defence was that the State was menaced by an organised conspiracy of crime and sabotage on a grand scale, even before it had time to organise its administrative departments. Arms and explosives were stored from one end of the country to the other; there were constant breaches of the peace, wholesale pillage, robbery under arms, and arson. Railways and bridges were being wrecked, public and private buildings were being destroyed. Armed bands quartered themselves on houses and compelled people to support and maintain them. The sanctions of the law were utterly inadequate for the protection of the people. In these circumstances the Executive must be armed, they argued, with power to arrest and detain people on suspicion. As a matter of fact they claimed that 75 per cent. of the persons detained were taken in arms and there was no question of their being arrested on mere suspicion. They could have been put on their trial and in that case would certainly have been sentenced to terms ranging from 7 to 20 years. But they were not brought to trial because, for one thing, "to put so many thousands of men on trial as were arrested for the last year or two years would be an undue strain on the legal machinery of any State, not to speak of the legal machinery of this infant State." But the main reason of course was that the Irregulars had created such conditions of terror that, although a series of outrages were taking place everywhere and although the perpetrators of the outrages were locally known to all, none would come forward to give evidence as to the guilt of these persons, evidence that would stand fire in a court of law. And even if evidence could be obtained, jurors were subject to so much intimidation and terrorist influences that they would not convict even when very full and overwhelming evidence was forthcoming. On account of this twofold difficulty, it was found impossible to bring offences, and especially offences against the State, to their natural retribution, and power had to be taken by

Government to detain persons on suspicion, though suspicion in many cases meant common knowledge of guilt prevailing in a locality. The life of this Bill was for six months. It was hoped that within that period the country would settle down to a general acquiescence in the rule of law and that there would be no more necessity for extraordinary powers. This hope, however, was not realised, and the Executive had, at the end of six months, to ask for Parliament's sanction for the renewal of the Public Safety Act. In the meanwhile detained persons were being liberated on a large scale. The number of prisoners was brought down in the life-time of the first Act from 13,000 to 1,850; further releases subsequently took place in May 1924—there were some 300 untried and unsentenced internees—and it was not found necessary to give a fresh lease of life to the Act.

When the Bill was being considered, the objection was naturally raised that the measure might be a medium of tyranny, a vehicle of oppression. The Minister for Home Affairs candidly admitted that in theory it could be used as a Coercion Bill, but he claimed that in fact and practice it was not possible to be so used, because the exercise of extraordinary powers was entrusted to a responsible executive. "I am reminded," he said, "that 'public safety' is a vague word. It is a vague word. But the body in the country that has the duty of interpreting where public safety lies in any particular case is the Executive Council (corresponding to the British Cabinet). If its interpretation is wise, if it is an interpretation that appeals to the commonsense of the majority of the people's representatives, that Executive Council will remain in office. If its interpretation is unwise, if it is harsh, if it is tyrannical, if it is oppressive, presumably that Executive Council will not retain the confidence of the majority of the people's representatives (and will consequently go out of office). *I do base the whole case for this Bill on that*—that its powers are to be exercised by an Executive responsible from day to day, and from week to week, to the people through their representatives. That is democracy; that is representative government." Now the Executive Government in India naturally lacks this "sole" justification; nor, it will be admitted, is it faced with such a grave crisis as it fell to the lot of the Irish Free State to deal with. If, with a far more terrible emergency on its hands, and with an almost complete safeguard against abuse, the Irish Free State was content to ask for extraordinary powers for six months, it stands to reason that the Indian Governments too should be given such powers for a similar period, leaving them to go again to their Legislatures for the continuance of these powers thereafter.

While on this subject, we may mention one point of importance: in Ireland the Executive are statutorily required to set out plainly the reasons why a particular citizen's liberty was being interfered with. It remained no doubt a departmental confidential document, but it was supplied to the Appeal Councils which were empowered to hear from the inter-

ness his side of the case as to why he considers he ought not to have been suspected of committing the offences for which he was interned. The Appeal Councils were in fact given a complete dossier of the Government's case against the prisoner and if, after hearing what the latter had to say, the Appeal Council arrived at the conclusion that he was wrongly arrested and detained, the Minister for Home Affairs had to set him at liberty or to bring him to trial. The relevant clause in the Act is given here: "When such an Executive Minister shall receive a report from an Appeal Council that there are no reasonable grounds for suspecting him of having committed or being engaged or concerned in the commission of any of the offences mentioned in the Schedule to this Act, he shall, within one calendar month, order his release unless—

(a) he shall refer back the report to the Appeal Council for the consideration of further evidence, or:

(b) the person be charged with any offence punishable by imprisonment." Which meant, as was explained by the Minister, the release of all whose release might be recommended by the Appeal Council. In similar circumstances the Bengal Government under the Criminal Law Amendment Act may simply refuse to do anything, for § 18 (iii) merely provides that "on receipt of the (Judges') said report, the Local Government shall consider the same and shall pass such order thereon as appears to the Local Government to be just or proper." Another point worthy of note in regard to the Irish practice is the appointment of honorary visitors to inspect detention camps and watch the condition of the prisoners. The Minister for Home Affairs in agreeing to this proposal said, "The need for the inspection of these places (of detention), an inspection that will not be official, is obvious." If this obvious thing were equally obvious to our Government, there would have been no room for complaints which are now rife, as to the ill-treatment of internees. The Minister for Home Affairs in the Irish Free State only stipulated that the report of honorary visitors should in the first instance be made to him and only if the Ministry was found to have failed to investigate the complaint or to take proper action on the report, the report should be published for the information of the general public. There is not a little that the Indian Government can learn from the infant Irish Free State!

THE BOMBAY SOCIAL SERVICE CONFERENCE.

THE Bombay Council of Social Workers deserves congratulations on the success that has attended their first venture, viz. the Social Service Conference held in Bombay last week-end. Such a conference was long overdue and it has come not a day too soon. Madras has been having its social service conference for the last five years; while Bengal has been doing so since 1923. And unless Bombay was prepared to forego its claim to be considered an 'ad-

vanced' province, it was necessary that no more time should be lost in organising a Conference where social workers could come together and, as pointed out by Mr. N. M. Joshi, Chairman of the Reception Committee, "exchange experiences, examine the methods and discuss the principles of this work". The session which came to a close on Sunday last did indeed provide such an opportunity. The public interest in its proceedings may be gauged from the fact that it attracted over 250 delegates and that as many as 50 public bodies working in the field of social service joined it. No doubt it would have added to its representative character still further if a larger number of mofussil delegates had found it possible to attend; but news about such conferences takes long in reaching small towns and villages. And with the lapse of time an improvement in this direction may be safely looked forward to.

We join with Mr. Joshi in thinking that the organisers were fortunate in securing the services of Mr. Lalubhai Samaldas to guide the deliberations. He is noted more than anything else, apart, of course, from his business capacity, for "his ripe experience and sound judgment" and his inaugural address provides food for serious thought at the hands of the social worker. In this country social service is looked upon with some disfavour and used, until not very long ago, to come in for a good deal of ridicule at the hands of a certain section of Indian politicians. The reason for this is to be found in their own narrow interpretation of the phrase, which to them meant only widow remarriages, caste fusion and things like that. Mr. Lalubhai includes in social work "all kinds of work done by people with the specific intention of making the world better and happier". We are confident that those who wish to devote themselves to social service will approach their task in this catholic spirit, for "social work as such must be above racial troubles, or labour disputes or political squabbles." If so, one fails to see why "some of the enlightened capitalists and industrialists" of Bombay should withdraw their support from Mr. Joshi's social service work, simply because of his pro-Labour sympathies and his participation in trade union activities. We hope Mr. Lalubhai will use his influence with his fellow-capitalists in persuading them to distinguish between a man's social service work and his pro-Labour activities. But this is by the way. Mr. Lalubhai is afraid that "without a religious basis and without real religious fervour amongst the workers, the work will be spasmodic and not continuous nor everlasting." We for our part do not share this view. In a country such as ours whose population belongs to more than one religion, the basing of social service on religion is a matter beset with special difficulty. How can we bring people owning allegiance to different religions on a common platform? If we tried to do so, we would have to encounter opposition on the part of orthodox elements in our society. Moreover, it will not do for us to ignore the fact that Christian missionaries represent a fairly considerable number

of social workers in India; and even when their work has no religious basis as at present, their activities are looked upon with a certain amount of suspicion. It may be the suspicion is perfectly unjustifiable; but think of the difficulties we would unwittingly raise for the cause of social service if we insisted, as Mr. Lalubhai would have us do, upon a religious basis for social work. Besides, is it really so very essential? It seems to us quite possible in the absence of any religious basis to continue one's social service with unabated vigour. Instances of such work are not lacking at any rate in Poona, where institutions not based on religion are continuing their work of public good without any break. All things considered, therefore, we think we would help the cause of social work better by not linking it with religion.

In order that social service activities may yield better fruit, what appears to us to be really necessary is education—"education of people whom we want to help and also education of workers for the work they have to do." So far as the former is concerned, the Conference might have done well in bringing its combined pressure to bear on the Government with a view to induce them to enforce the provisions of Dr. Paranjpye's Compulsory Education Act which was placed on the statute book three years ago. So far as the latter is concerned, facilities for the training of the social worker are badly needed. But perhaps for want of time this subject did not receive adequate consideration by the Conference.

Before we turn to the resolutions passed at the Conference, a word as to the procedure adopted for the consideration of the different subjects that came up before it may not here be out of place. In response to their request the organisers had received a number of papers on housing, unemployment, untouchability, village sanitation, etc. After the reading of the presidential address was over on the opening day, the Conference broke up into three committees which within the short time at their disposal had each to consider three and even four or five subjects. This is unfair not only to the members of the Committees but even to the Conference as a whole. If we may put forward a suggestion, it would be better to allot only one subject to each committee. When the final form of the resolution is settled as a result of deliberation in the Committee, it is its chairman in every case who is to present it to the Conference the next day. This convention strikes us as somewhat inconvenient in that it places the chairman at times in the anomalous position of having to handle a subject with which he might have but a superficial acquaintance. We are sure these things will right themselves in course of time.

The discussion on the untouchability resolution which was moved by Mr. Devadhar was particularly interesting, if only for the forceful speech it drew from Dr. Abdur Rehman, leader of the South African delegation. The resolution as finally passed by the Subjects Committee had recommended the throwing open of Government and State-aided schools to children belonging to the depressed classes. Dr.

Miss Jerbanoo Mistry, who was opposed to the idea, moved an amendment suggesting the establishment of separate institutions for them. It is unnecessary here to go into her arguments which were generally based upon the fear that the association of the children of the higher classes with those of the depressed classes would result in the deterioration of the former. Dr. Abdur Rehman's speech showed that he was no narrow-minded Muslim. He instanced the case of his own daughter who, though educated in company with the children of street sweepers, had in no way suffered. We are glad that after hearing both sides the Conference refused to stultify itself by agreeing to Dr. Mistry's amendment.

Another resolution that deserves notice is that relating to housing. The Conference rightly condemned as undesirable and inadequate the large number of one-room tenements built in Bombay by the Development Department for the working class population and expressed the view that the minimum space necessary for a working man's family was two rooms measuring 125 sq. feet. As regards the difference between the economic rent and that which the working man could pay, the resolution recommended that it should be treated as a contribution by the Government, the employers and the municipality. Though the resolution was specially applicable to Bombay, there was nothing in it which would preclude its extension also to the mofussil. It was criticised in some quarters as idealistic; but those who indulge in such criticism evidently forget that what sounds idealistic to-day becomes a matter of practical politics in a few years.

The resolution on village sanitation emphasised the inadequacy of resources at the disposal of local bodies and suggested their augmentation if they were to discharge their obligations properly. It also made the constructive suggestion that what is known as the U. P. District Health Scheme should be tried as an experiment in some selected districts of the presidency.

Adult Education, Prostitution, Prison Reform, Unemployment, Drink Evil, etc. also formed subjects of resolutions passed by the Conference.

"WHAT JUSTICE DEMANDS."

A REPLY BY THE INDORE DURBAR.

"WHAT Justice demands" is the heading of an article published in the SERVANT OF INDIA (26th Nov.). The writer has attempted to collect all such materials as would, in his opinion, justify a further inquiry into the conspiracy brought to light in the Bawla Murder Case.

He starts by complimenting the Judge who tried the accused and showers praise on the members of the Jury who, to use his own words, "lived up to the traditional standard of unbiassed verdict, amid influences tending to corruption and intimidation." As to what those influences were, the writer of the article has nothing to say. The next sentence in the article is, however, very significant, as it makes it quite clear that the statement quoted above was suggested by a remark by the Judge in his charge to the Jury. That next sentence runs

thus:—"Even the presiding Judge was not spared these influences; he was anonymously addressed by 'busy bodies' pointing out to him the manner in which the case ought to be tried." The Judge's remarks were, however, these: "Another thing I would say, and that again has been said to you already, and I would repeat it. You may have heard expressions of opinion as regards this case outside this Court. You may have already received, for aught I know, communications upon the facts of this case. I say this advisedly, for certain busy bodies have addressed me upon this matter anonymous letters and have pointed out to me the manner in which this case ought to be tried. Dismiss all that from your minds." Considering the Judge is merely repeating the warning given to the Jury by the defence Counsel, it would seem quite clear that it was intended to be one against their taking into consideration that which they might have heard said outside the Court or told in writing by "busy bodies" against the accused, so that their case might not be prejudiced by such information. Indeed the accused had already petitioned the Viceroy for the transfer of their case, on the ground that they expected no justice in an atmosphere such as prevailed in Bombay before and during their trial. How the writer of the article makes out that the Judge was referring to such "busy bodies" as were working in the interests of the accused, passes one's comprehension. The Judge's remarks lead one to the conclusion that if there were any "influences tending to corruption and intimidation" they were the creation of the "busy bodies" working not in the interest, but to the prejudice, of the accused. The writer next quotes a long passage from the Judge's charge to the Jury to show "that Indore is the place from where this attack emanated." What he seeks to make out of it would merely be a conjecture. It may, however, be stated that nobody contends that Indore was not the place from where the attack emanated. Whether this fact can be used as a foundation for building wild theories, and whether they would be entertained by any fair-minded person are questions which need not be discussed here.

Lastly the writer gives fourteen "circumstances" which, in his opinion, "go dangerously near implicating" His Highness the Maharaja of Indore. Let us see what they amount to.

The first circumstance is "the sworn testimony of Mumtaz." One should have thought that this was a circumstance which no one anxious to make out a case against another would choose to rely upon. Whatever weight may be attached to that part of Mumtaz's statement which referred to the incident on the Malabar Hill, the rest of her statement clearly bears, on the very face of it, marks of intentional falsehood. It is not necessary to examine this statement very minutely, for a reference to only a few circumstances is all that is required to show that every petition and every part of her statement were made with a definite motive and a definite object in view.

She and her parents planned to leave Indore with a large quantity of State jewels and in anticipation of the trouble that was expected to arise, and to meet the charge of misappropriating State jewels, they invented the story which was incorporated in Mumtaz's petition to the Commissioner of Police, Bombay, that the jewels given by Maharaja Ranjitsingh to her ancestors had been taken away from them before they left Indore, and that they were worth nearly fifty lakhs of rupees. First of all, it is incredible that Wazir Jan, whose extraordinary attitude towards her daughter was even commented upon by the presiding Judge, could ever even dream of leaving any valuable jewellery with her daughter

Mumtaz. But apart from Wazir Jan's conduct there are circumstances which demonstrate beyond doubt that the story about Maharaja Ranjit Singh's jewels was invented with a definite object and repeated in Court by Mumtaz with a definite motive. The petition to the Commissioner of Police in which this jewellery is mentioned is dated 18th March, 1924. Within three days of this date she left for Delhi on her way to Mussoorie and made a statement to the Police on the 22nd of that month, but mentioned nothing about these jewels. Again she petitioned the Deputy Commissioner, Amritsar, on the 14th April, and again there was no mention of the jewels. On the 20th of May she had a letter written by her father to one of the officers at Indore asking for her warm clothes, etc., but nothing was said about the jewellery alleged to have been taken away from her. These are the documents which are on the record of the High Court and proved by the evidence of Mumtaz and Mohammad Ali—her step-father. In addition to these there are several other letters and telegrams on record containing no reference to the jewels. Is it conceivable that a woman who has been deprived of her jewels of the value of fifty lakhs and her parents would keep quiet after this loss and not do everything in their power to recover them? Can it be doubted that this story about the jewels was invented merely to meet the charge which, they anticipated, would be brought against them as soon as they should leave with the State jewels?

Let us take another instance. On the 24th of September, 1924, Mumtaz made two declarations before the Chief Presidency Magistrate and the 2nd Presidency Magistrate. They are Exs. No. 1 and 1-a and contain the following statement:—

As I am not on good terms with my mother and step-father and as I could not pull on well with them, I left their house at Sleater Road, Grant Road, on the evening of the 22nd instant I, therefore, pray that this declaration be kept on record so that if my mother or step-father try to harass me in any way and apply to your worship for any process, Your Worship may take this declaration into consideration and may not issue any harsh process.

With reference to this declaration, her statement in the High Court was as follows:—

I made a declaration before the Magistrate. Mathews went with me on both occasions. I had a pleader whose name I have forgotten. It is not true that at that time I was not on good terms with my mother and my step-father. I made this declaration under Mr. Bawala's advice. I was not afraid that my parents will take out any harsh process against me. I made this statement at Mr. Bawala's advice.

Here is a woman who admits having made false statements on oath just because she is advised to do so, and because it suits her purpose; yet the writer of the article referred to above would like people to regard "the sworn testimony of Mumtaz" as the gospel truth! If space was no consideration, nothing would be easier than to show from her own evidence that she made an absolutely false statement in the High Court.

The second circumstance mentioned by the writer is "her allegation about the murder of her child by the Maharaja." We have Mumtaz's statement in the High Court before us and she has nowhere stated that His Highness the Maharaja was in any way interested in or brought about the murder of the child. The writer alone is responsible for the introduction of His Highness' name. All that Mumtaz stated was that nurses killed her child; and this was done at the end of the re-examination by the Advocate-General. The Counsel for the defence asked for an opportunity to cross-examine her

on this point, but on the Advocate-General's statement that he did not intend to use that piece of evidence, the defence Counsel's request for cross-examination was rejected by the Judge with the remark: "We are not concerned with it at all." If we were to examine the conduct of Mumtaz and her parents after this event, it would be quite clear that her child could not possibly have been murdered. In fact, her statement in the Bombay High Court is quite sufficient to enable any fair-minded person to come to this conclusion. Moreover no one had any interest in causing the disappearance of the child. Everybody acquainted with the manners and customs of Indian Courts, knows that natural children are not considered a stigma on the ruler.

As regards "circumstances Nos. 3 and 4, i.e. (3) her petitions and telegrams sent to the Commissioner of Police at Amritsar and (4) the getting down of Mumtaz at Delhi on her way to Mussoorie and her refusal to proceed farther and her statement that she was pursued and harassed by the Maharaja's officials," nothing much need be said. Her petitions and statements to the Police were only precautionary measures intended to meet charges that might legitimately be brought against her. In the High Court she admitted having sent false telegraphic messages under the advice of her lawyers so that the people interested in taking action against her might be misled, and some benefit might thus accrue to her. Who can say that the allegations made in her petitions and telegrams were not a part of the same game?

With reference to the "circumstance" No. 5, though extradition proceedings were under contemplation, no application was actually made to the British authorities.

"Circumstances" 6 to 11 may be dealt with together. There is nothing new in the fact that a conspiracy was hatched in a State by a number of its officials. Such conspiracies have been known to all parts of the world. It would be a very strange proposition to lay down that if in a State some of its officials were found implicated in some kind of conspiracy, the ruler of that State should be held to be responsible for it.

To fix responsibility it is necessary to refer to some evidence that anyone except the accused themselves had knowledge of their activities. Some of the accused were entitled to stay at the Indore State houses in Bombay and they had done so on scores of occasions even before Mumtaz left Indore. They had even kept their cars in those houses. But what was there to arouse suspicion that the Red Maxwell, if it was ever kept in one of the State garages, was taken there for any illegitimate purpose? Just as the conspirators used the State garage for keeping the so-called Red Maxwell, so too did they use the telegraph wires and offices of the British Government for transmitting their messages, now on the record of the Bombay High Court. But can it be said that British authorities knew anything about the nature of those messages or that they should be regarded as having abetted the offences?

As regards the "circumstance" No. 11 the writer does not even indicate how "facilities of leave of absence" were given to the accused or what their nature was. All these accused who were on leave on January 1st held more or less unimportant posts and their absence could not have been noticed by any important official of the State. A number of State servants are always on leave, and unless something extraordinary takes place, nobody cares to inquire about the absence of anyone on leave. When leave is due, it is granted as a matter of course, unless it has to be refused for special reasons.

"Circumstance" No. 12 refers to the expenses of the defence. The writer of the article ought to try and find out the sources of the income of accused No. 2, Sardar Phanse. According to his own statement he had organised a party for a particular purpose which he disclosed in his statement in the High Court, and he made arrangements for an adequate defence of his friends.

The "circumstance" No. 13 is "the presence of the Legal Adviser of the Indore Durbar in England to instruct the Counsel"—presumably the Counsel engaged by the accused. This statement is purely an invention by interested persons. A similar statement was contradicted as long ago as 10th July, 1925, when it was communicated to the press by the Publicity Officer, Indore, that "Mr. Abdur Rashid's visit to England has absolutely nothing to do with the prisoners in the Bawala Murder Case or their appeal to the Privy Council." It has now been ascertained that of the four Counsel engaged by the accused, Mr. Rashid does not know three of them even by sight. Nor did he see Solicitors retained by the accused. In fact he did not speak about the case of the accused to anyone in England, whether a Counsel or a Solicitor.

With reference to circumstance No. 14, the writer of the article ought to read the letters written by Mr. Sen Gupta and published in the *Daily Telegraph* dated the 19th June, 1925, the *Bombay Chronicle* dated the 12th June, 1925, and so on. Referring to the interpretation put upon his words by the writers in the press, he wrote:

It clearly indicates that while describing my client as a hireling, I was suggesting that the hirer or hirers were not before the Court as the accused. On the contrary, the evidence that was led by the prosecution and the statements that were made by some of the accused who were officials of the Indore State showed clearly that my client was engaged by them. One of those officials was sentenced to death and the other to transportation for life. I never said or even remotely suggested that my client was engaged by any one, who was not present in Court as an accused person.

Any further comment on the article referred to above is unnecessary. Facts speak for themselves.

REVIEWS.

CAMPAIGN AGAINST V. D.

IMPERIAL SOCIAL HYGIENE CONGRESS,
May 1924. (National Council for Combating Venereal Diseases, London.) 1925. 9¼ x 6¼. pp. 286.

ON the eve of its change of name and the launching of a scheme for an extension of its programme, the National Council for Combating Venereal Diseases of England organised a Social Hygiene Congress at Wembley in May 1924 and they have now published the proceedings of this very representative and interesting gathering in a neatly bound book.

The National Council for Combating Venereal Diseases with its affiliated Councils and branches in the United Kingdom, the Dominions, India and Crown Colonies has carried on a campaign against venereal diseases for the last eight years—a work which has merited official recognition from British and Canadian Governments, Governments of the Crown Colonies and certain municipal bodies in India and, having covered the groundwork of the problem of Social Hygiene, has now broadened the basis of future advance in order to include broader aspects of Social Hygiene. The Imperial Congress

was evidently brought up to pave the way towards this advance in laying down certain principles and co-ordinating the social problems of the Empire and as an outcome of it the old National Council has changed its designation to British Social Hygiene Council and embodied in its new programme social problems allied to venereal diseases.

The Congress was very successful. The papers read and the discussions which followed were of a high standard and have covered the whole ground. Many problems of interest were dealt with and many intricate points thrashed out. The report of the proceedings makes very elucidative reading and ought to be a *repertoire* of information for institutions combating venereal diseases in its various aspects, and more especially for venereal diseases officers in the management of their clinics. Its special importance lies in the fact that the subjects admitted in the agenda of the Congress were very wisely chosen and were discussed at a meeting which included representatives of five Government Departments, the Army Council, the Air Ministry, the Admiralty, the India office and the Ministry of Health, six official representatives of Dominions, ten delegates of Crown Colonies, representatives of 56 important local authorities, ten Universities and 36 National Organisations. The League of Nations and the American Social Hygiene were also represented.

The opening paper is a very terse outline of the "present position of Government action in venereal diseases in England". It traces the history of the movement to the 19th century, before which little or no effective attempt was made to treat venereal diseases by public organisation, these *sinful* diseases being almost entirely relegated to Poor Law Institutions and certain Lock Hospitals. The only measure of control attempted so far was the Contagious Diseases Act introduced at certain military stations in 1851 and repealed in 1886. The passing of this Act is remembered by us in Bombay, because it was followed by an Indian counterpart, Act VI of India of 1868, applicable to the civil population. This also died two years after the abolition of the English Act. Bombay practitioners still remember the *clat* with which an army of inspecting staff, who carried out registration, compulsory examination and detention of prostitutes, for well nigh 20 years, was finally disbanded in 1888.

It was not until 1916 that a Royal Commission lifted the veil of secrecy with which the prudery of the mid-Victorian age had covered venereal diseases, made the startling revelation that over 20% of the British population was in the claws of this dreadful social scourge and recommended *inter alia* extensive facilities for the diagnosis of V. D., organisation of treatment centres, public and professional education, prohibition of unqualified practice, recognition of the National Council for Combating Venereal Diseases as an authoritative body for spreading knowledge. Meanwhile certain important advances had been made in our knowledge of V. D. by the discovery of its causative germs and specific remedies for it. As an outcome of these two facts the Local Government Board issued its memorable regulations of 1916 enforcing on all Counties and County boroughs the making of efficient provision for the diagnosis and treatment of venereal diseases and the giving of instructional lectures on the same to educate the public. Since the issue of these regulations, the establishment of Anti-Venereal Schemes have made a remarkable progress. There are just now in England and Wales seventy-three approved central laboratories besides a large number of small units, 193 treatment centres (142 at hospital and 51 *ad hoc*) providing approximately 832 weekly sessions and staffed by 360

expert Medical Officers. Special arrangements are made for women and children. Women doctors are appointed on the staff of the Clinics and they hold special sessions. There are 15 hostels for the reception and skilled treatment of infected women and a number of ante-natal clinics attached to welfare centres for pregnant women. An intensive educational campaign is being carried out by the N. C. C. V. D. to whom considerable grants are being given by the Ministry of Health and in a large number of areas the Local Authorities have also independently inaugurated successful educational propaganda. All these schemes are under the supervision of the Ministry of Health and steps have also been taken to improve and extend the facilities for professional education, special provision being already in existence in twenty-two medical schools of England and Wales for teaching students special facts about the diagnosis, pathology and treatment of venereal diseases, the subject having been included in the new Medical Curriculum of the General Medical Council.

What is the result of this combat against venereal diseases in England? There is every reason to believe that this disease is declining in that country. A table of returns published under authority after an exhaustive scrutiny vouches for the veracity of the fact. With our small experience in Bombay we are inclined to let these statistical assertions pass without a challenge, because we are convinced of the fact that the modern methods of treatment of V. D., though unable to show many cures due to its prolonged course are decidedly a potent factor in rendering a patient non-infective. Add to this the fact that the educational campaign has enlightened the public mind, that professional education has improved the knowledge of medical men and that in 1917 Parliament passed the Venereal Diseases Act penalising quack treatment, and it will be easy to admit that the fall in the incidence of venereal diseases in England is a fact.

The papers that follow may be divided in two parts: (a) a description of measures of relief against V. D. carried out in Scotland and several other countries and (b) a discussion on several topics of a controversial nature in the management of anti-venereal schemes. In connection with the first, we have only to record with pleasure that most of the civilised countries in the world have given this problem special attention. The other part consists of a free interchange of ideas on certain points of interest to educationists and venerologists and we shall take them up *seriatim* as briefly as possible, as the columns of this paper would not support the heavy bombardment of an enthusiast.

The relationship between venereal diseases and the problem of prostitution comes up necessarily as the most important correlated subject. The position of the League of Nations is explained as a supervisor of the Convention of 1924, which is the outcome of the evolution of the International Bureau for the Suppression of Traffic in Women and Children. This Convention to which 33 States have attached their signatures only deals with international slave traffic which it tends to suppress and is not concerned with prostitution which is a domestic problem.

Veritably, prostitution is a domestic problem, of frightful dimensions. Two schools of thought are just now in sharp conflict and form two factions: the Regulationists and the Abolitionists. The former believe that prostitution is inevitable and hence in the interests of public health segregate the vice and regulate it by registration of prostitutes, periodical medical examination, etc. The abolitionists on the other hand condemn State sanction to vice as a measure which is against the principles of

civilisation and humanity. But apart from this academic friction of ideas, the glaring fact remains that regulation is useless in effect because it is medically a failure and administratively a delusion. Is it not a fact that medical examination is for medical reasons far from being perfect, that police control is ineffective, only 1/15 to 1/20 of the prostitutes of a city being available for registration, that concentration of vice is full of dangers? Some European and American countries have realised this fact and very many of them have already abolished regulations. To us it seems that the right attitude to take is to follow the example of England in not recognizing prostitution and carrying on an intensive campaign of enlightenment side by side with ample provision of facilities for the treatment of venereal diseases.

We are glad to note that this policy has already given England a lower index of V. D. in contrast with some of the regulated countries in Western India. The English example is now being followed by most of the Northern European and American cities and we hope others who persist in believing prostitution to be an inevitable evil will soon find their mistake in following a wrong path. They will some day even realise that the idea of the indispensability of a vice that caters to human vile instincts will soon disappear if they only endeavour to lift the standard of sexual life out of the mire of barbarism and develop the idea of a single moral standard for both the sexes. Money spent on character-building will repay a thousandfold more than emptying State coffers on the regulation of a vice.

The problem of sex education is the subject of several papers. There is nothing in most of them which goes beyond the agreement which present-day educationists have arrived at, viz. that the physiology of sex should be taught in schools by scientifically competent teachers in the same clean cold light as they teach the physiology of respiration and digestion and that sex hygiene should be cautiously introduced with a word of warning on the dangers of its misuse to adolescent boys on the threshold of life. A point that strikes us as worthy of special reference and one with which we are in entire agreement is the insistence with which some of the contributors draw the attention of sex teachers to the danger underlying a materialisation of outlook on sex questions and its treatment in terms of metabolism and hormones. They emphasize, and rightly too, the importance of considering sex life as inextricably mixed up with the rest of our life and that other correlated instincts should be emulated side by side to bring mind and body on a very high spiritual and physical plane.

Compulsory notification and compulsory treatment of V. D. has many defenders and opposers with threadbare arguments. The advocates of compulsion state that the law of the country has to help and protect the community against a national calamity; while the opposers point out the impracticability of the proposal based on the fact that V. D. cannot be treated in the same way as other infectious diseases, for unlike these, the duration and period of infectivity of V. D. cannot be predicated with accuracy and is in most cases unduly long. Besides, the social stigma which does not attach to ordinary notifiable diseases will in the case of V. D. play an important role in bringing about concealment of diseases and the consequent rampant quackery. Neither can it be said that such a stigma would be a suitable punishment for those who acquire sinful diseases, because the incidence of such a measure will fall on innocent members of the family to whom a grave injustice and irreparable social harm will be done. Compulsory treatment is also

equally pointed out as not a feasible measure, because it is unjust in principle since it interferes with the liberty of a subject and apart from this fact our present standards of diagnosis and treatment of V. D. are not perfect enough to justify the enforcement of such statutory laws.

There is every reason to believe that V. D. should be considered infectious and that it is the duty of public health authorities to treat them as such, but a careful consideration of various factors associated with the question—social, medical domestic and public—all tend to the conviction that this disease is of a special character and importance and must be dealt with on special lines. A *via media* is difficult to find but may reveal itself some day in the future. Meanwhile concentration on an intensive educational propaganda and on the perfection of the method and facilities for the diagnosis and treatment of venereal diseases is, we think, sufficient to deal with the bulk of the problem. Stronger measures such as a private notification will probably be needed later on to penalise the recalcitrants and habitual libertines.

The vexed question of prophylaxis by self-disinfection with packets of medicaments before or after exposure comes up for a good deal of support and criticism. The position of those who support self-disinfection as a way out of the problem of V. D. necessarily implies a firm belief in the failure of the power of continence and hence the necessity of providing a relief of this nature to an inevitable evil. That disinfection after exposure to risk of infection is effective only to the extent to which it can be thoroughly and intelligently applied is admitted by the Ministry of Health on the recommendation of the Trevethin Committee, but it has not been adopted as a national policy because Government still believes that the best way of avoiding the risk of infection is by avoiding promiscuous sexual intercourse, a desideratum which is obtainable by a continuous campaign of public enlightenment. We entirely agree with this view. In principle, it is not a fact that continence is not consistent with human instincts. But even if medical opinion is divided on this point, the dangers of unskilled disinfection and the moral and social considerations that are involved in a step of this nature should be sufficient reasons to abandon the idea.

The administrative aspect of the medical control of V. D. is a subject that has evoked diverse opinions and very valuable suggestions for the better management of venereal clinics. There is a consensus of opinion regarding the advisability of housing the treatment centres of venereal diseases along with those of other diseases and of working such centres in conjunction with general clinics, maternity homes, etc. hospitals, and special clinics such as ante-natal and child welfare. The idea is to remove the stigma that attaches to an *ad hoc* venereal clinic besides making it more effective by correlating the work with the other medical subjects with which these diseases are intimately connected and bringing about a co-operation and consultation among different medical specialists which would redound to the advantage of patients. Among the many other good suggestions thrown out to make venereal clinics more *effective* and *popular*, the following were generally accepted and merit mention: suitable premises with arrangements for privacy and open at convenient hours, the appointment of a sympathetic staff who would show regard to the susceptibilities and comfort of patients, the appointment of inquiry officers to trace contacts, the appointment of Lady Almoners to inquire tactfully into the social circumstances of female patients so as to give them a helping hand when required and induce

their attendance, the institution of irrigation sub-centres in distant localities for the benefit of those who cannot afford a daily visit to the centre, etc.

The problem of the place the general practitioner should occupy in the campaign against venereal diseases is of the utmost importance as he is the first line of defence against disease. It is he alone that can meet early and give a stunning blow to the early manifestations of the disease, it is he who can insure continuance of treatment and persistence in the prolonged anti-venereal courses till sterilization is obtained, it is he finally who can detect contacts and latent cases and specially those innocent victims, chiefly wives and children, who trust the secrets of their sanctum to their family doctor—their guide and adviser. The general practitioners' attitude to any disease reflects the attitude of the general public to that disease and it is he, therefore, that holds the outposts of medicine. Much of the success of an anti-venereal campaign is, therefore, dependent on the general practitioner and it is his co-operation that is eminently needed in the first instance. Of course it is a fact that the treatment of Syphilis and Gonorrhoea involve the application of special skill and experience of a degree and kind which general practitioners as a class cannot reasonably be expected to possess and have no time to devote to; but if they had enough skill and enough enthusiasm in the cause and realised the absolute necessity of a systematic treatment of V. D. for the good of the individual and family they could certainly do much by meeting efficiently the early symptoms and passing on the case to a specialist for a thorough treatment. This end can only be obtained by introducing V. D. courses in the professional education of medical students and we are glad to note that many European countries are doing so.

The Congress closed with a session on Imperial questions. Canada, Africa, Australia and India presented their problems. The first three have done something to fight the ravages of V. D. and intend doing more; but India presented almost a blank sheet and said that everything remained to be done!

SOCRATES NORONHA.

THE AIMS AND ORGANISATION OF EDUCATION.

THE FOUNDATIONS OF EDUCATION. By J. J. FINDLAY. (London University Press.) 1925. 9 x 4 3/4. pp. 374. 8s. 6d.

The author of the school in the Home University Library is not unknown to those interested in education. Any book from him on Education is sure of a welcome from the public interested in education either as a branch of professional study or as a branch of politics. The treatment of the subject shows that no branch is neglected and that the book is to serve as a competent guide to students of education in all its aspects.

The first section is on the *aims of education*. No class is particularly distinguished as intellectual. There is evidence that variations in capacity, so distinctive of mankind, are to be witnessed in all ranks, in all classes and in all races. All alike require education. The efforts of educationists must concentrate on securing for everyone the conditions under which individuality is most completely developed. Boys are not improved in the lump. "The biggest of schools, the most comprehensive scheme of regulations only achieve their purposes in so far as the single life of scholar, one by one, is actually moulded by the machine."

There are certain things beyond the teacher: the boy's heredity, his environment. What the teacher can do is to provide nourishment, suited to our day and generation, within the area of education. This nourishment is to foster the *human spirit*. Hence, the importance of poetry, of fine literature, of art, of religion. Spirits are not finely touched but to fine issues. The teacher cannot do much consciously. What he presents must influence. "When the story is of such quality as to make such an appeal, we cannot doubt (if we are convinced of the reality of spiritual experience) that the relation is established, whether or no the subject be conscious of the process, whether i.e. the deeper meaning of the story comes into the focus of attention. For this reason we pay attention to the quality of the story, the classic element, as we say, in good literature and drama; those who teach and organize curricula have it in their power to give or withhold nurture, which is not only of objective value as art and history, but of supreme value as nurture for the soul."

The following constituents of manhood must be carefully developed: the body-mind, art, including the art of language, morals and intelligence.

The next chapter treats of the harmonious development of these constituents.

The second section treats of the organisation of education.

The first chapter treats of the institutions that foster education: Family, Class, Religion, Vocation, Culture, Teaching and the State. The other chapters are on schools classified in types, teachers professional and lay, the economics of education, the oversight of schooling, advisory and reporting functions and Education Authorities, their composition and duties.

The chapter on oversight in schooling is particularly good. We would invite the attention of the teacher to what Dr. Findlay says on leaving certificate examinations.

K. B. RAMANATHAN.

BOOKS RECEIVED.

- FUNDAMENTAL THOUGHTS IN ECONOMICS.** By GUSTAV CASSEL. (F. Fisher Unwin, Ltd., London.) 1925. 7 1/2 x 5, pp. 157.
- THE ECONOMICS OF THE GOLD STANDARD.** By D. T. JACK. (P. S. King & Son, Ltd., London.) 1925. 7 x 5. pp. 88. 3s.
- THE CONSUMERS' CO-OPERATIVE MOVEMENT IN GERMANY.** By THEODOR CASSAU. Translated by J. F. MILLS. (F. Fisher Unwin, Ltd., London.) 1925. 9 x 6. pp. 200.
- WESTERN CIVILIZATION AND THE FAR EAST.** By STEPHEN KING-HALL. (Methuen & Co., Ltd., London.) 1924. 9 x 5 1/2. pp. 385. 18s.
- A SHORT HISTORY OF THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH.** Vol. 1. (Third Edition.) By RAMSAY MUIR. (George Philip & Son, Ltd., London.) 1924. 9 x 5 1/2. pp. 813. 15s.
- INDIA IN ENGLISH LITERATURE.** By ROBERT SEW-COURT. (Simpkin, Marshall, Hamilton, Kent & Co., London.) 1925. 9 x 5 1/2. pp. 468.
- PRESENT DAY BANKING IN INDIA.** 2nd Edition. By B. R. RAU. (Calcutta University.) 1922. 8 1/2 x 5 1/2. pp. 310.
- THE SYSTEM OF VEDANTIC THOUGHT AND CULTURE.** By MAHENDRANATH SIROAR. (Calcutta University.) 1925. 8 1/2 x 5 1/2. pp. 325.
- MANUAL OF STATISTICS RELATED TO THE FEDERATED MALAY STATES,** 1924. 1925. 9 1/2 x 6. pp. 310. \$ 1.00.
- FIJI BLUE BOOK FOR 1924.** 1925. 13 x 8 1/2. pp. 242. 5s.

POLITICAL.

By Dr. ANNIE BESANT, P.T.S.

	Rs.	A.
1. The East and the West	...	0 2
2. England and India	...	0 2
3. The Indian Nation. An address to Indian Youths	0	1
4. India's Awakening	...	0 1
5. Means of India's Regeneration	...	0 2
6. Indian Students and Politics. By Dr. G. S. Arundale	...	0 2
		<hr/>
		0 10

6 Pamphlets for As. 4.

SOCIAL.

By Dr. ANNIE BESANT.

1. Against Vivisection	...	0 2
2. Influence of Alcohol	...	0 1
3. On the Education of the Depressed Classes	...	0 1
4. On the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals	...	0 1
5. On the Protection of Animals	...	0 1
6. Social Problem: The Message of Theosophy	...	0 1
7. Theosophy and the Law of Population	...	0 1
8. Vegetarianism in the Light of Theosophy	...	0 2
9. Vivisection in Excelsis	...	0 1

BY OTHERS

1. Marriageable Age of Girls. (C. H. C. Publication)	0	1
2. Revival of Village Industries. By Madame A. L. Pogosky	...	0 3
3. Social Reform in the Light of Hindu Scriptures. By Paudit A. M. Shastri	...	0 4
4. Social Reform and Social Service. By M. R. Jayakar	...	0 4
		<hr/>
		1 7

All the 13 Pamphlets for As. 8.

The Theosophical Publishing House,
Adyar Madras

THE INDIAN BOOK SHOP
NEW INDIA OFFICE.

George Town, Madras.

THE KENYA PROBLEM.

A Selection from the Speeches and Writings of
The Rt. Hon. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri, P. C.

A vigorous and lucid exposition of the
Indian point of view. Contains also
the full text of the Cabinet decision.

Pages 147. Price As. 12.

Apply to:

The Aryabhushan Press,
Budhwar Peth, POONA CITY.

HINDU LAW.

(3rd Edition)

BY

J. R. GHARPURE, Esq., B. A., LL. B., (Hons.)

High Court Vakil, Bombay.

Price Rupees Ten, Postage Extra.

The Aryabhushan Press, Poona City.

Hon'ble Prof. V. G. Kale's Works.

	Rs.	A.
1. Indian Economics— (4th edition). Featherweight paper *Demi. 8 vo. pp. 700. Cloth Bound. Revised & enlarged.	8-0-0	
2. Gokhale and Economic Reforms— Crown 16 mo. pp. 250. Cloth Bound.	2-0-0	
3. Indian Industrial and Economic Problems— (2nd edition). Crown 16 mo. pp. 340.	1-3-0	
4. India's War Finance and Post-War Problems— Crown 16 mo. pp. 164. Cloth Bound.	2-0-0	
5. Currency Reform in India— Crown 16 mo. pp. 120.	1-0-0	

These books can be had of—

The Aryabhushan Press, Poona City.

KARNATAKA

AND

INDIAN REVIEW OF REVIEWS

Published Monthly

An Independent Organ for the People of
Indian States

AND

A Register of the Progress of Indian Nationalism
Annual Subscription Rs. 4, (Post free.)

D. V. GUNDAPPA

Editor

BASAVANGUDI P. O.

Bangalore City (S. India.)

THE LUCKNOW UNIVERSITY JOURNAL.

A high class University Journal for the promotion of
original research.

Four issues will be published during each academic year—
viz., in September, December, February and May.

Editor—W. Burrige, M. A., M. B., B. Ch., L. M. S., S. A.,
and N. K. Siddhanta, M. A.—supported by a strong Con-
sultative Board representative of all the Departments in the
University.

Special Features.

The Journal will contain original contributions from mem-
bers of the Lucknow University and will also publish Ver-
tical contributions in Hindi or Urdu of a suitable character. It
will contain portraits and illustrations from time to time. It
will also publish Reviews and Notices of all important Books
and Reports coming out in the educational world. Another
important feature of the Journal will be the publication of the
latest news about University affairs and other interesting in-
formations about educational matters.

Annual Subscription

	Town.	Mofussil.	Foreign
For Students of the University,	Rs. 2 0	2 8	10s.
For all others	...	Rs. 4 0	4 8

Matters for publication should be sent to the EDITOR.

All business communications relating to subscriptions and
advertisements should be sent to the Business Manager.

The Journal is an excellent medium for advertisement.
For advertisement rates and other particulars apply to—

M. B. REHMAN,

LUCKNOW UNIVERSITY,
LUCKNOW,Business Manager,
Lucknow University Journal.LUCKNOW: UPPER INDIA PUBLISHING HOUSE, Ltd., 41 Amina-
bad Park.LONDON: P. S. KING & SONS, Orchard House, 2 & 4 Great
Smith Street, Westminster, Lond., S. W.