

## CHAPTER VII.

### PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

#### EARLY SYSTEMS OF INSTRUCTION.

THE subject of Education is so vast and the work done in the State in connection with it is of so diversified a character that it is necessary at the outset to get, if possible, a clear idea of the earlier systems of education that prevailed in it. These systems have held sway for long centuries in it and they still possess a vitality which is by no means negligible. If properly utilized, or at least turned into proper channels, they are likely to prove still useful to the country. That they produced great men and earnest seekers after truth is undeniable. That they developed ideals worthy of praise and difficult of attainment, except under the severest discipline, seems also impossible of contradiction. It is of some interest, therefore, to know their bases, in order to rightly appreciate the conditions in which an educational system conceived on modern lines can be made to produce the best results.

The early system and their ideals.

There is evidence to believe that the Brāhmanic System of Education prevalent in other parts of India was in vogue in Mysore as well since the earliest times. This system was closely connected with religion and ritualism. The hymns of the *Rig-Vēda* refer alike to teachers and the taught. These hymns, which pertain to rituals or practised at the sacrifices, presuppose learning. Necessity led in course of time to special schools of Vēdic learning, at which young Brāhman learners learnt what they chose to specialize in. The teaching appears to have

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been entirely oral, the student committing to memory the particular *Vēda* he desired. Practical instruction was probably restricted to learning his duties as a priest of the particular school to which he belonged; possibly also he learnt the meaning of the hymns and the ritual acts. This instruction was called *vidhi* and the explanation *arthavāda*. The student collected firewood and alms for his teacher, and apparently lived under his care. The offering of firewood in after times became the traditional mode of offering oneself as a student. A succession of teachers, who transmitted the sacrificial science, is also spoken of in the *Satapatha Brāhmana*. The ceremony of initiation into studentship, called *Upanayana*, is also described in it. The essence of that ceremony is for the student to declare his studentship and for the teacher to accept the responsibility of his position by saying, "I am thy teacher." Slowly, it came to be recognized that a long period of studentship was necessary for the study of the *Vēdas*. Both in the *Brāhmanas* and the *Upanishads* there occur references to this period of studentship. Its actual duration came eventually to be recognized as twelve years. The curriculum during the Upanishadic period was a comprehensive one, including not only the *Vēdas* but also grammar, sacrifices, mathematics, logic, ethics, etymology, warfare, astronomy, etc., besides the practical arts of dancing, singing, playing and other fine arts. The discipline was exacting during the period of studentship. Pupils had to work for themselves and for their teacher, collect fuel and alms for him and also feed his cattle. They followed their teacher and awaited his command. It was also the custom to travel far and wide to attach themselves to celebrated teachers. Renowned teachers likewise itinerated from place to place. As a rule, however, a student remained in the house of the teacher till he finished his course, at the end of which he entered into the married state.

Before leaving, he received the admonition from his teacher: "Say what is true. Do thy duty. Do not neglect the study of the *Vēdas*." From the married life, he was to pass into the *Vānaprastha* or *forest hermit*, and thence into *Sanyāsa*, or *wandering ascetic*. The theory of the *Āsramas* as ultimately worked out conceived the whole life as an education for the life beyond with four distinct stages, of which studentship was the first and *sanyāsa* the last. Education slowly extended from the Brāhman to the other classes, the Kshatriyas and the Vaisyas. They too, in time, came to be included, under the head of "twice-born," the initiation ceremony being adapted for them as well. In their cases, the training was adapted to their respective vocations in life.

The mutual duties of students and teachers were well defined. Strict obedience to the teacher was enjoined, while the teacher was to love the pupil as his own son and to give full personal attention to his instruction. He was to receive no fee, while it was the duty of the student, when his course finished, to offer him a present. The system of teaching was individual, each pupil being separately taught his particular branch of study. It is possible, in later times, the teacher's son or his elder pupils helped him in his work. There is some reason to believe that originally *parishads* or assemblies of learned Brāhmins for deciding canonical or other disputed questions were composed of teachers of note. These should have in later times developed into Universities, such as Taxila, Benares, Nadia, etc., or into monastic institutions or *Mathas*, such as those founded by Sankarāchārya (8th century A. D.) at Sringeri, Badari, Pari and Dwāraka.

In the 5th century A. D., we find the founder of the Kadamba Dynasty in this State travelling all the way to Kānchi, then a great seat of learning, in order to pursue his studies in advanced subjects. Similarly,

Akalanka, the Jain disputant, in the 8th century, went to the Baudha College at Ponataga, near Tiruvettur in the present North Arcot District. The most celebrated of the Mutts referred to above is still in existence at Sringeri, in this State. Descendants of the learned teachers who helped the commentator Mādhava in his laborious work are still to be found in this place. In later times, Sanskrit Schools called *Pāthasālas*, analogous to the *Tolls* in Bengal, have played a useful part in continuing this ancient system of education. Individual teachers as well have taught—and they are still to be found in the State—in their homes language, logic, *Vēdānta* and other subjects. A recent writer reviewing this old-world system of education says that “it was at least not inferior to the education of Europe before the Revival of Learning. Not only did the Brāhman educators develop a system of education which survived the crumbling of empires and the changes of society, but they also, through all these thousands of years, kept aglow the torch of higher learning and numbered amongst them many great thinkers who have left their mark not only upon the learning of India, but upon the intellectual life of the world.”

Education of  
Kshatriyas.

As regards Kshatriyas or Warriors, their schooling appears to have been somewhat different from that of young Brāhmins. Presumably, it was one suited to their future vocation. They would, for instance, have learnt less of the *Vēda* and more of the use of arms and military skill. That some knowledge of the *Vēda* and of the *Upanishads* was considered necessary may be inferred from the variety of evidence available on the point. In their case also, education was regarded as a time of *āsrāma*, or discipline, and a stage in the preparation for life after death. The *Dharmasāstras* contain the germ of the science of politics which was later more fully

developed in the *Nīti* and *Arthasāstras*. Gautama, for instance, states that the king shall be "fully instructed in the three-fold sacred science and in logic." He adds that the administration of justice shall be by the *Vēda*, the *Dharmasāstras*, the six *Angas* and the *Purāna* from which it may be inferred that the royal princes were expected to learn these also during the period of their studentship. Since the *Rig-Vēda* (IV. 42,5) refers to military combats amongst youthful warriors, it may be presumed that a knowledge of the arms and of military skill was considered a necessity in the case of Kshatriya youths. Much of their time too, during the days of their schooling, should have been appropriated to this part of their training. The *Mahābhārata* mentions many varieties of military skill. This included fighting on horseback and on elephants, in chariots and on the ground. The weapons used were the club, the sword, the lance, the spear, the dart, and above all the bow. According to the *Rāmāyana*, Rāma and his brothers were "versed in the *Vēdas*, and heroic and intent upon the welfare of others." Rāma, we are told, "could ride on elephants and horses, and was an adept in managing cars (chariots), and he was ever engaged in the study of arms and was occupied in ministering unto his sire." This shows that the chief aims of education in the case of the young Kshatriyas in early times were the study of the *Vēdas*, military skill and high moral conduct. If the *Arthasāstra* can be taken to speak of the Mauryan times (4th century B. C.), there must have been a considerable development of Kshatriya education during that period. The science of politics had so far progressed as to bring into existence many different schools of thought. The greater attention paid to the fitting up of royal princes to the duties of their high office is amply spoken to by the author of the *Arthasāstra*. It has been suggested that this development in Kshatriya education might have

been due to the fear of Persian invasions, which had in Darius' reign ended in the creation of a *satrapy* in the Indus valley, while the raid of Alexander, perhaps, did not fail to stimulate the desire for it. To whatever cause it was due, there is no doubt that the development itself did take place. According to Kautilya, the curriculum of royal study included *Anvikshiki* (Sāṅkhya, Yoga and Lokāyata philosophy), the triple *Vēdas*, *Vārta* (*i.e.*, agriculture, cattle breeding and trade) and *Dandanīti* (Science of Government, including criminal law). Discipline was apparently much stressed, for it is stated to be the basis of *Dandanīti*. Discipline was in the case of some enforced by instruction, *i.e.*, the cultivation of the mind, and in the case of others, by punishment. "Sciences," says Kautilya, "shall be studied, and their precepts strictly observed under the authority of specialist teachers. Having undergone the ceremony of tonsure, the student shall learn the alphabet and arithmetic. After investiture with the sacred thread, he shall study the triple *Vēdas*, the science of *Anvikshiki* under teachers of acknowledged authority, the science of *Vārta* under Government Superintendents, and the science of *Dandanīti* under theoretical and practical politicians." Thus, in regard to the two last, theory was apparently coupled to practice, and the realities of actual life were not forgotten. The course of study extended, it would seem, to six years, after the investiture of the sacred thread, *i.e.*, up to the sixteenth year of a prince. He was then to enter the married state. This would mean, in the case of a Kshatriya, a reduction by one-half of the period of studentship of a Brāhman youth. During the period of study, he was in close touch with his teachers, and subject to their strict control. The courses of study were carefully mapped out for the full day, provision being made even for the revision of not only "old lessons," but also hearing "over and over again what has

not been clearly understood." In the programme of work prescribed, a special function is assigned to "hearing the *Itihāsa*" in the afternoon, the forenoon being devoted to "receiving lessons in military arts concerning elephants, horses, chariots, and weapons." *Itihāsa* is said to include *Purāna*, *Itivritta* (history), *Akhyāyika* (tales), *Udāharana* (illustrative stories), *Dharmasāstra*, and *Arthasāstra*. The first four would include mythological and epic tales, and those moral fables and stories such as were collected (afterwards) in the *Panchatantra* and the *Hitōpadēsa*. The last two include what would now be termed law and political science and would cover the theoretical part of *Vārta* and *Dandanīti*. "From hearing," says Kautilya, "ensues knowledge; from knowledge, steady application (*yōga*) is possible; and from application, self-possession (*ātma-vatā*) is possible. This is what is meant by efficiency in learning (*Vidyāsāmarthyam*). The king, who is well educated and disciplined in sciences, devoted to good Government of his subjects, and bent on doing good to all people, will enjoy the earth unopposed." A modern educational critic observes that "the programme of education thus outlined is by no means an unworthy scheme for the education of a young prince. It shows the wonderful powers which these early Brāhman educators had of adapting their system to the needs of the pupils and of devising a vocational training for the sons of noble families." Manu, whose Law dates from about 200 A. D., though based on an older *Mānava Dharma Sāstra*, does not differ materially from the author of the *Arthasāstra* in regard to the course of study he prescribes for a royal prince. "From those versed in the three *Vēdas*," he says, "let him learn the three-fold sacred science, the primæval science of Government, the science of dialectics, and the knowledge of the supreme Soul; from the people, the theory of the various trades and

professions." The science of Government corresponds to the *Dandanīti* of the *Arthasāstra* and "the various trades" referred to would fall under *Vārta*. A knowledge of language was presumably necessary inasmuch as the study of the science of dialectics is mentioned with that of the *Vēdas* and the philosophy based on them. As regards text-books, Kshatriya scholars apparently learnt the *Vēdas* and allied subjects from the books commonly in use among Brāhman youths. For the science of politics, special manuals like the *Arthasāstra* and the *Nītisāra* of Kāmandaka, a work based on the *Arthasāstra* and belonging to about the 3rd century A. D., came to be specially written. *Nītvākyaṃrita* of Sōmadēva Sūri, dating from about the 10th century A.D., and *Nītisāra* of Snkrāchārya, belonging to about the same period, are other similar treatises, obviously based to a large extent on the *Arthasāstra*. In view of the difficulty involved in teaching a subject of such practical importance as Political Science, the preceptors of the day seemed to have devised the plan of using fables and stories as a vehicle for teaching it. The famous *Panchatantra* (about 6th century A. D.) and its prototype *Tantrākhyāyikā* (dated by scholars variously from the 4th century B. C. to 4th century A. D.) owes their origin to this necessity. The *Panchatantra* was, we are specially told, composed for the instruction of royal youth in the knowledge of right conduct. The *Hītōpadēsa*, which is based on it, is a work of the same character, attributed to the 14th century A. D. The *Kathāsaritsāgara* and the *Mahābhārata* contain similar matter which may have been used for purposes of instruction. Heroic tales abound in the great epics, the *Mahābhārata* and the *Rāmāyana*, and in later days they should have used the bardic chronicles, which date from about the 7th century A. D. Fights were conducted on well-understood principles and a spirit of chivalry was undoubtedly cultivated among



warriors as the result of the training they received. Brāhmanic control over royal education was rendered effective by the consideration that the Kshatriya was to primarily learn from the Brāhman, and to protect and honour him. This did not mean, in actual practice, that he cannot receive instruction in trade and other matters from others, but education proper, the grounding in the fundamentals of mental culture, proceeded from the Brāhman. In their after life, kings continued to receive advice and help, perhaps constantly, from the *Purōhit* (Family priest), whose influence must have been, if not great, at least not negligible. Apart from aberrant cases, the generality of *Purōhits* seem to have used their influence for the good of the State. As the Rev. Keay well puts it, "probably many of them were men of high character, whose moral influence on their pupils was distinctly good. India has had many famous rulers, who were educated under this system and many who attained also to literary merit." Among the latter we must mention King Harsha (606 to 648 A. D.) to whom several plays and verse compositions have been ascribed. In Southern India, we might put in the same category several Ganga Kings of Mysore and some at least of the Vijayanagar Kings. Mādhava II (3rd century A. D.), Durvinīta (5th and 6th century A. D.), and Srīpurusha (8th century A. D.) of the Ganga dynasty were royal authors. King Krishnarāya of the Vijayanagar Dynasty (1509-1530 A. D.) attained equal celebrity both as a literary patron and as an author.

It may be remarked, in the words of the Rev. Keay, that "the education of young Indian nobles was not inferior to that of the European Knights in the times of chivalry, and was very much like it in many respects. The note of personal ambition and of adventure for adventure's sake seemed much less prominent in the Indian ideal than in the European, and perhaps hardly existed,

and the gentler virtues such as patience and filial devotion were much more emphasized, as we see in the story of Râma. The idea that the King and the nobles had a duty to perform to society in the protection of the weak, and that their position is not one so much of glory and of ease as of service to others is very prominent. No doubt, many of them failed to live up to this noble ideal, but, in formulating it and holding it before the rising generation of young Kshatriyas, India has much of which to be proud."

Education of  
Vaisyas.

, In regard to the Vaisyas, or the trading and agricultural classes, their education was not neglected in the Brâhmanic System. Gautama (i) says that they were also expected to receive initiation as a preliminary to entering upon the study of the *Vêda*. Manu (x 1) states that they should, like the two other twice-born castes, "discharge their prescribed duties," and "study the *Vêda*." As in the case of the Kshatriyas, so in that of the Vaisyas, it is possible the *Vêdic* course was rendered less exacting, greater emphasis being laid on their learning their future vocations. Thus, Manu (IX. 328-332) describes the functions of a Vaisya: "A Vaisya must never conceive this wish, 'I will not keep cattle,' and if a Vaisya is willing to keep them, they must never be kept by men of other castes. A Vaisya must know the respective value of gems, of pearls, of corals, of metals, of cloth made of thread, of perfumes, and of condiments. He must be acquainted with the manner of sowing seeds, and of the good and bad qualities of fields, and he must perfectly know all measures and weights: moreover, the excellence and defects of commodities, the advantages and disadvantages of different countries, the probable profit and loss on merchandise, and the means of properly rearing cattle. He must be acquainted with the proper wages of servants, with the various languages

of men, with the manner of keeping goods, and the rules of purchase and sale." These different duties would naturally require of a young Vaisya, besides a knowledge of agriculture, something of the rudiments of commercial geography, arithmetic, and some languages, as well as the practical details of trade. Perhaps, each boy at first learnt what he required under these heads from his own father as now in the course of business. Thus, his education, apart from the *Vēda*, would be more domestic than otherwise. In later days, it is possible special trade schools (corresponding to the surviving *mahājani* schools) came to exist at different centres, towards the maintenance of which the trades of each locality contributed from their profits.

As regards craftsmen, it is worthy of note that they have a long and uninterrupted course of history to their credit. The Village Twelve included a few artisans and craftsmen. Some of the occupations go back to the earliest times. In the *Rig-Veda* (IX. 112, I. 110, 3; i; III, 1) we find mentioned the carpenter, physician, priest, blacksmith, poet, and the female grinder of corn. The construction of chariots is often mentioned, and the *Ribhus* are described as distinguished workers in wood and metal. Weaving, boat-building, leather-working, agriculture, and irrigation are also alluded to. With the growth of cities, craftsmen apparently drifted into them from the villages. The guilds we find referred to in the *Rāmāyana* and the *Arthasāstra* (IV. 1), some of which have survived to modern times, and evidently owed their origins to the influence of City life. The excellence of their work attracted the attention of Kings, who drafted them for work at their capitals. Royal craftsmen are said to have been established even as early as the time of the Buddhist Emperor Asoka. The education on which their excellence depended was

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apparently of the simplest kind. Originally, the caste system, into which the craft system, with its many disadvantages, was built, helped to keep up the standard of work, and the dexterity and skill of each particular trade was handed down from father to son. Each craftsman and each caste was considered as in duty bound to, perform his or its particular work for the good of society. The system of education, then, for the lads of each particular trade could have been only a domestic one. They could have had practically no choice in the matter, but were, as a matter of course, brought up to the same trade as their fathers. Where the father was living and in good health, he would usually train up his own son, and the young craftsman would, from the beginning, be trained in the actual workshop. Thus not only was there a most affectionate relation between teacher and pupil, but the training was free from the artificiality of the school-room. The boy was taught by observing and handling real things, and the father would take a great delight in passing on to his son the skill which he himself possessed. It was not merely a question of actual teaching, but the boy would day by day absorb unconsciously the traditions and spirit of the particular craft which he was learning. In many arts and crafts, drawing would be a necessary accompaniment. This was learnt by the boy drawing first certain particular curves on a panel. After this came the drawing of certain traditional ornaments and conventional figures of mythical animals and other forms. Drawing was not taught from nature. In the majority of occupations, a knowledge of reading and writing would not be required for the direct purposes of the craft, and would not be learnt. But certain Sanskrit works would in certain occupations be learnt by heart. These contained traditional rules relating to the particular craft, and would not only be learnt but also explained to the novice. The craftsman

also participated in all religious rites, and in various ways came to know something of the mythology and doctrines of the religion he professed. Thus, the education imparted to the young craftsman was entirely vocational, and even narrowly so. The literary side was defective and, though religious education was not altogether neglected, his knowledge generally can only have been scrappy and ill-learnt. Yet, as a vocational education, it was evidently not lacking in elements that made it really valuable. The affectionate and family relationship between teacher and pupils, the absence of artificiality in the instruction, and the opportunity and encouragement to produce really good work which the protection of the guild or caste gave—these were not without their influence in helping to build up a spirit of good craftsmanship, which was responsible for the production of really fine work.

The education of girls was likewise entirely domestic and vocational, in the sense that they were being prepared for that which was considered a woman's principal work—the duties of the household. There is ample evidence, however, that in earlier times women enjoyed a higher status. The authorship of some *Vēdic* hymns (*Rig-Vēda*, VIII. 80; X.39,40) is ascribed to women and in the discussion of deep philosophic truths women are related to have taken part. (*Bri. Ar. Up.* iii. 6, 8; ii. 4; iv. 5). In the *Brihad-Āraṇyaka Upanishad* (IV. 4.17) is also described what a man should do if he wished that a learned daughter should be born to him. By the time of Manu, however, women had lost their high position, for their perpetual dependence is there set down in specific terms in the famous and oft-quoted passage (V.147-149): "By a girl, by a young woman, or even by an aged one, nothing must be done independently, even in her own house. In childhood, a female must be

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subject to her father, in youth to her husband, when her lord is dead to her sons; a woman must never be independent. She must not seek to separate herself from her father, husband, or sons; by leaving them, would make both her own and her husband's families contemptible." The only education that a girl received in Manu's time was one which fitted her to fulfil her duties in the household of her husband. "Let the husband employ his wife," says Manu (IX.11), "in the collection and expenditure of his wealth, in keeping everything clean, in the fulfilment of religious duties, in the preparation of his food, and in looking after the household utensils." The training for this began in her own home under the supervision of her mother, and, when she was married and went to live with her husband, it would be continued, under the joint-family system, by her mother-in-law. The injunction that she should be employed in the collection and expenditure of her husband's wealth would seem to imply some knowledge of simple accounts, though it could not have meant much. The daughters of Kings and wealthy persons might have received some education from their fathers or family priests. Girls of learned families also were not left wholly without instruction. Thus we find the Kannada poet Nāgavarma (10th century A.D.) addressing verses of his *Chhandombudhi*, a work on prosody, to his wife. An ancient inscription in the Kolar District records the death of the learned Sāvinemba, daughter of Nāgārājannayya. Then we have the instance of Honnamma at the Court of Mysore in the seventeenth century (*vide* Vol. II, Chap. IX, *Literature*). But such cases were exceptional, like that of the late well-known Pandita Ramābai of our own times, who was taught Sanskrit by her father in the wilds of Gangāmūla in the Kadur District. Despite the somewhat narrow ideal of domestic virtue and capability set before them, Indian women have shown, even in the

circumscribed sphere they have been allowed to move, that they can realize it. Sita as an ideal for women to follow is by no means an unworthy one.

In view of the Mysore State being one of the chief centres of Jainism in India, and the prime seat of the Digambara Jains, and the long and uninterrupted history they have had in it, it seems necessary to say a few words about their system of education. As might be expected, their system is essentially based on the Brāhmanic model. The reason for this is that Mahāvīra, the founder of the Jain religion, did not profess to break away from the older faith and some of his cardinal doctrines were directly derived from it. Teaching was a duty with the Jains, the *Jaina Sūtras* enumerating long lists of the more famous teachers. These same *Sūtras* lay down how monks and nuns should behave when wandering with their teacher, from which the inference follows that the Jains adopted the Brāhmanic mode of teaching while wandering. Students apparently sought out the more famous teachers, who were among the "wanderers," for learning from them, and rules for the regulation of their conduct while thus learning came to be established in course of time. Discipline was strict; a monk, for instance, was not allowed to go out or do anything without asking leave of the teacher or under-teacher. In the *Questions of Milinda*, the position of a teacher towards his student is described as that of a father towards his son, an idea that is predominant, as stated above, in the Brāhmanic system. The same work enumerates as many as twenty-five virtues of a teacher and ten virtues of a lay disciple. The teacher's position was a sacred one: honour is due to a teacher even though he be only a novice. The *Sūtras* lay down specifically how a pupil should behave towards his teacher, and how a teacher should treat his pupil. Mutual good feeling is insisted

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upon at every stage. Bad pupils are compared—in the *Jaina Sūtras*—to unmanageable bullocks. Obedience to a teacher is so much insisted upon that it is considered one of the articles necessary for perfection. As in the Brāhmanic system, a pupil should serve his teacher; so much, indeed, is this duty stressed, that service comes to be described as one of the internal austerities to be observed. Learning is throughout given an exalted position in this system, and that it was widely appreciated is evident from the vast literature the Jains have developed in Sanskrit, Prākṛit and the chief Dravidian languages of South India. Even distinctions between the respective faiths of student and teacher are forgotten so far as learning is concerned. The *Sūtras* declare in clear and unambiguous language that he, who has learned from a Buddhist or a Brāhman even one noble truth only, will reverence him like a deity or a sacred shrine. A more exalted position a teacher cannot aspire to nor can a pupil give. Religious instruction, as might be inferred, is a necessity; in fact, it is the one thing in the view of the older writers which demanded particular attention. But the secular pursuits which the generality of the Jains pursued—and still pursue—made them popularize the secular aspects of education to a large extent. Their literature bears ample evidence for this view. That apart, the *Jaina Sūtras* lay down that religious instruction is one of the four requisites to reach beatitude. As to the system of teaching adopted, it apparently did not materially differ from the Brahmanic one; oral teaching was at first the rule, though, in later times, writing should have been largely resorted to. Individual attention was a *sine qua non*. In the *Jaina Sūtras*, we have an expressive simile in regard to it, which may be aptly quoted here. As the birds feed their young ones, we are told, so are disciples regularly to be instructed. The pains to be taken by the



teacher in coaching the young scholar were apparently immense, and it is clear too that the duty was lovingly undertaken by him. That the Jains honoured the educated and held in the highest esteem education is eloquently testified to by their extant literature and inscriptions found in the State. They were among the first to use the vernacular languages for literary purposes. They specially revere, in their prayer-formula, their teachers (*upādhyāyas*) and attach special merit to gifts of the four kinds:—food, shelter, medicine and teaching. (*Epigraphia Carnatica* II, Sravana-Belgola 126, dated 1113 A.D.). The epitaph of Buchana, dated in 1113 A.D., describes him as a “taker of delight” in these four gifts and bemoans that by his death “the goddess of learning was now left uncared for in the world.” (*Ibid*). The earliest Jain inscriptions refer to the intellect of persons being “brightened by the water of learning.” (See *Epigraphia Carnatica* II, Sravana Belgola 75, dated about 650 A.D.), and talk of kings who were “liberal to the learned. (Sravana Belgola 139, dated about 950 A.D.). Numerous inscriptions of the 12th and 13th centuries are a witness to the high state of learning and teaching then current among the Jains in the State.) *Epigraphia Carnatica* II, Sravana Belgola inscriptions, *et passim*).

Buddhism was a living religion in parts at least of the State during the centuries before the Christian era and for some centuries afterwards. A few words on the Buddhist system of education may therefore not be out of place. That system, like the Jain, was largely an adaptation of the Brāhmanic. The rules governing the relations between the teacher and the student were directly taken from it. Service and obedience were exacted from the student, and from the teacher loving instruction as from a father was due.

The Buddhist System.

In the Asoka Edicts found in the State, the injunction is laid down that the "teacher should be honoured by the pupil." According to the *Vinaya Texts*, pupils were to wait upon each other during sickness. Not only that, if the pupil was sick, the preceptor was not only to nurse him, but to wait upon him and attend to him, just as the pupil was required to wait upon himself in health. A teacher was known as *upajjhava* and a pupil *saddhivihārika*. The ceremony of choosing a teacher was an adaptation of the Brāhman initiation ceremony. The *Mahāvagga* gives elaborate details of the variety of services expected of the student, including the sweeping of the place occupied by the teacher if it is dirty. If the teacher so desired, the student was to follow him on his begging tours. The pupil was not to accept presents, or give presents, or wait on any one else, or go out, without the permission of the preceptor. If the preceptor was sick, he was to wait on him and nurse him diligently. This system, which was apparently in existence long before Asōka's days, was practically in force in the days of the Chinese traveller I-Tsing (673-687 A. D.). The need for education was keenly felt among Buddhists because they had to provide for the training of novices. The monasteries that came to exist in course of time took up their training and from it a system of secular instruction was also developed, apparently side by side with the training of novices and monks. The one should have proved a source of strength to the other, and from the secular students should have been recruited in time to the novices. The example of the Brāhmanic system also should have helped in the same direction. Fa-Hien, the Chinese traveller, who visited India between 399 A. D. and 414 A. D., testifies to the existence of monasteries at Patna and elsewhere for students and inquirers getting their doubts cleared in them. The oral method appears to have been largely in vogue in the Punjab, though in the

more eastern regions of India, writing was frequently used. Fa-Hien records the fact that he could not get copies of the *Discipline* in Northern India "as they were handed down orally from one Patriarch to another" and so had to extend his journey towards Central India and stay at the monasteries there to copy them down from written texts. In the time of Hiuen-Tsiang (629-645 A.D.), learning was apparently highly valued, the description given by him of Nalanda, the famous university, near the modern town of Patna, being quite a graphic one. He tells us that there were in it several thousands of priests "of the highest ability and talent." They apparently set the standard for all India, as we are expressly told that "the countries of India respect them and follow them." Hiuen-Tsiang adds: "The day is not sufficient for asking and answering questions. From morning till night they engage in discussion; the old and the young mutually help one another..... Learned men from different Cities, on this account, who desire to acquire quickly a renown in discussion come here in multitudes to settle their doubts, and then the streams of their wisdom spread far and wide. For this reason, some persons usurp the name (of Nalanda students) and in going to and fro receive honour in consequence. If men from other quarters desire to enter and take part in discussions, the keeper of the gate proposes some hard questions; many are unable to answer and retire. One must have studied deeply both old and new (books) before getting admission." He remarks that seventy or eighty per cent of such would-be residents of Nalanda failed to pass the test for admission. He also gives a long list of the more famous teachers who lived at Nalanda and not only taught but wrote treatises, commentaries, and other works. During I-Tsing's visit, about thirty-eight years later, Nalanda was still a flourishing centre of learning. It had, he says, two hundred villages to

support it. These had been donated to it by generations of kings. He gives us a valuable picture of how students spent their time at Nalanda, which may be taken as typical of what was done at the lesser seats of learning. He says that the pupil, after attending to the service of the teacher, "reads a portion of scripture and reflects on what he has learnt. He acquires new knowledge day by day and searches into old subjects month after month, without losing a minute." Considerable stress was, it would seem, laid on learning Sanskrit grammar, which was apparently the sheet-anchor of all learning. The study of grammar extended from the sixth year of a boy to his twentieth year, when he passed on to other subjects. Pānini's *Sūtras* and other works had to be learnt by-heart. It is also plain that, before passing on to Nalanda or Valabhi (in Western India), students studied under instructors. The other subjects learnt included logic, metaphysics, and religion. Medicine was another subject, though not forming part of the course. I-Tsing gives a vivid picture of the eloquence and debating powers of the students at Nalanda. "To try the sharpness," he says, "of their wit, they proceed to the King's Court to lay down before it the sharp weapon of their abilities; there they present their schemes, and show their (political) talent, seeking to be appointed in the practical government." Then their fame spreads, and "they receive grants of land and are advanced to a high rank; their famous names are, as a reward, written in white on their lofty gates. After this, they can follow whatever occupation they like." It may be inferred from this that Buddhist monasteries imparted instruction not only to those who entered the order but also to others. An education that fostered the idea of employment in "practical government" should have been secular to some extent. Moreover, in those days, the division between secular and religious education was not apparently so well marked as

in modern times. All education was up to a degree religious, and then it branched off into secular channels. Moreover, the ease with which people could enter the religious order and leave it, and re-enter it even, should have made it possible to use the education received in the monasteries for religious or secular purposes as required. There were other universities besides Nalanda and Valabhi; at least five more are known of which Kānchi, the modern Conjeevaram, and Sri Dhanyakataka, on the Krishna, in the present Guntur Taluk, were situated in Southern India. At all these universities, the teaching was probably nearly the same. The teaching, though adapted from that prevailing in the Brāhmanic schools, was suited to the times and shows a desire to meet the new tendencies of the times. The stress laid on medicine is clear indication of this desire and quite in keeping with the dictates of Buddhist religion. Education was made available to a larger number also through the growth of teachers in the land, which was rendered possible by the spread of Buddhism. When it declined, the demand for some kind of popular education, which it had so far met and which it had stimulated, could only have been met by a growth in the popular elementary schools dealt with below.

From time immemorial, there has existed in India, with the Brāhmanic, Jain and Buddhist *āśramic* and monastic schools, a popular system of elementary education open generally to all who desired to take advantage of it. It must have met a popular demand for instruction in reading, writing and arithmetic. It should have had its origin primarily in the needs of the agricultural and trading classes, who have largely made use of it. This education has been imparted in almost every large village and town of India. The institution through which this instruction has been given is known differently in different

The popular  
indigenous  
system :  
Origin and  
History.

parts of India. In Bengal and Upper India, it goes by the name of *Pāthasāla*; in the South and West of India by the names of *Pallikūdam* (Tamil), *Pallikutta* and *Sāli* (Kannada), *Sāle* (Marathi), *Badi* or *Pallikūtam* (Telugu), etc. In Southern India generally, it is known by the familiar name of *Pial* school because it is usually located in the *pial* or earthen platform 3 to 4 feet high, 4 to 6 feet broad and about 8 to 12 feet long, which is built against the front wall of most houses. The system of education imparted in it has been nearly the same throughout India. Descriptions of the same may be found in many official reports of which the best known are the reports issued in Bengal by Mr. William Adam between 1835-1838. Inquiries into the system of education were carried out in Madras in 1822-1826; and in Bombay in 1823-1828. The report of the Education Commission of 1882 also gives an account of it as it existed in Bombay at the time. Going back to the 17th century, Pietra della Valle, in his *Travels* (II. 227), furnishes a picture of a *pial* school, held in the porch of a village temple. It does not materially differ from a school of the kind still to be seen in any large village in Southern India.

Its curriculum  
of studies in  
different parts  
of India.

In Bengal, the curriculum included reading, writing, the composition of letters and elementary arithmetic and accounts, either commercial or agricultural or both. There were four stages of instruction. In the first period, the scholar was taught to form letters on the ground with a small stick. This period, usually lasted some ten days. In the next period, the master traced letters on a palm leaf with an iron style. The scholar then traced over the letters with a reed pen and charcoal ink, which easily rubs out. Then he practised on another leaf. He was afterwards exercised in writing and pronouncing the compound consonants, which in most Indian languages are modified

when written together. The practice was given in the combination of vowels and consonants and this led on to the common names of persons. In the third period, the palm leaf was replaced by the larger plantain leaf. The scholar now began to learn the composition of the simplest forms of letters. He was taught the connection of words in sentences and to distinguish literary from colloquial forms of speech. The rules of arithmetic now began with addition and subtraction. But multiplication and division were not taught as separate rules. These were effected by addition and subtraction, aided by multiplication tables which extended to twenty. The multiplication table was repeated aloud by the whole school once every morning. After this, the pupil began to learn commercial or agricultural accounts or both. When the scholar reached the fourth period, he received more advanced instruction in accounts and began the composition of business letters, petitions, grants and similar productions. Paper now began to be used for writing, and after it had been used for years, the scholar was considered as qualified to engage in the unassisted perusal of works like the Vernacular *Rāmāyana*, etc.

In Bombay, the boys were every day collected by the teacher. After an invocation to Sarasvati, Ganapati or other deity, in which the whole school joined, regular work commenced. Boys who could write traced the letters on their *Kittas* or copy slips, with a dry pen, the object of this exercise being to give free play to the fingers and wrist and to accustom them to the sweep of the letters. After this, the boys wrote copies. Then, the youngest children claimed attention.

In Madras, the *pial* schools gave instruction in the three R's, a great deal of time being spent in memorizing moral sayings in the vernacular. Then the vernacular catechism was taught. Writing was, as elsewhere in India, taught in close connection with reading, the scholar

beginning his writing lessons when he commenced the alphabet. The alphabet was learned by writing with the finger on the sand-strewn ground. Later, he began to write with a pencil on a small black-board (*palagai, palaka* or *halige*), the surface of which was prepared from rice and charcoal. Then he wrote either on *Kajam* leaves with an iron style, or with a reed pen on paper. Trading and agricultural accounts were also taught, besides the composition of notes-of-hand, leases, agreements, etc., and the reading of the vernacular current hand.

Everywhere the school commenced at 6 A.M. and ended at about 10 A.M., when the boys returned home. Again they re-assembled at 3 P.M. and studied till sunset, when they left the school for the day. In Mysore, the instruction given in the indigenous schools did not aim at anything beyond the elements of reading, writing and arithmetic, and generally resulted in a marvellous cultivation of the memory. Reading was from manuscripts on palm leaf. The first lessons in writing were on the sand, with the finger: after some progress had been made, blackened boards were used, written on with potstone. Arithmetic consisted principally of the *memoriter* repetition in chorus, led by the head boy, of endless tables of fractional and integral numbers, useful for mental calculation in ordinary petty business transactions. The three days before new and full moon were unlucky for study, and the schools were then closed; also on numerous festival days. Discipline was maintained by a number of cruel and often grotesque punishments, which are now obsolete. But the cane remains, and is the symbol of the school-master's office. The masters are generally supported by small payments and perquisites in kind, or by a contract for a certain period with some influential resident. It was always the custom for the school-master at the Mahānavami festival to perambulate the streets with his pupils gaily dressed, who performed the stick dance and recited



humorous verses of dialogues, in all of which they had been trained for some time before. In return for these entertainments, the masters used to pocket considerable sums as presents from the parents and friends of the boys. But the practice is falling out of vogue.

There is abundant evidence to believe that neither secular nor religious (*i.e.*, Vēdic) education was neglected in this State in the earliest times of which we have any record. Thus in the Asōka Edicts found in the State (252 B. C.), we find, as already stated, the injunction that the "teacher should be honoured by the pupil." Nripa-tunga, writing in the 9th century, says expressly of the Kannada people that they knew how to teach wisdom to young children, and even words to the deaf. We have already stated that sometimes a school-master was provided among the members of the Village Twelve. Inscriptions at Shikarpur and Tālgunda (Shimoga District), dated in the 11th and 12th centuries, provide for the establishment of hostels for students. Under the Chōlas, we have an inscription of Rājēndrachōla II, dated in 1072 A.D., at Mulbagal, which exempts the house of the school-master (with those of the temple manager and the village watchmen) from taxation. An inscription dated in the 10th century registers a grant to a teacher by the Ganga King Nitimārga (*E. C. V*, Hassan, Arkalgūd 24). Another dated in 1174 A. D. mentions among other matters the appointment of masters to teach boys Kannāta, *i.e.*, Kannada, and to feed them, (*Ibid*, Arsikere 138). A far more interesting inscription dated in 1181 A. D. (*E. C. IV*, Mysore i, Chamrajnagar 158) registers a gift by the wife of a celebrated physician of the time for, among other things, the imparting of instruction to boys. The Hoysala minister Perumāla Dēva, in 1230 A.D., provides by a land grant for carrying on the instruction of youths in various languages (*Khandika bāla-sikshe*).

Religious and  
Secular  
Education  
in the State.

For those who taught the *Rig-Vēda*, six *gadyanas* a year was to be paid; and for those who taught boys to read Nāgara, Kannada, Tamil and Ārya, six *gadyanas* was provided for by him. (*E.C.* III T.-Narsipur 27). Apparently, the foundation was a combined institution for both religious and secular instruction. The payment, it is specially added, was to be "free of all imposts as long as the sun and moon endure." In a Tirthahalli inscription (*E.C.* VIII. Tirthahalli. 42) dated in 1642 A.D., the stipulation is made that provisions passed customs duty free in favour of the Mahantina-Matha, Kavale-durga, were not to be sold outside, but be stored in it as a fund and used for the support of the Professors and students of the six *Darsanas*, *i.e.*, schools of philosophy for thus carrying on the *dharma* of the *Matha*.

The teachers in Bengal were usually Kāyasthas, but not infrequently also Brāhmans; while in Madras and Bombay, they were generally Brāhmans. In this State, they have been usually Brāhmans. Education began usually at the age of five years.

Its chief characteristics.

In regard to this system of education, it is to be noted that in learning, writing came before reading. Except for getting up the multiplication table, the instruction was individual, monitors being usually chosen from among the more advanced scholars to help those at a more elementary stage of instruction. The Rev. Dr. Bell got his idea of the monitorial system—called by him the "Madras System"—from what he had seen of it in the indigenous schools of Madras.

Its extent.

This system of education was fairly widespread in India at the time control over education generally passed into the hands of the British Government. In Madras, it was estimated that rather less than one-sixth of the boys of school-going age received education of some sort.

In Bombay, the number of boys under instruction was put down at about one in eight. In Bengal, on the average, about 10 per cent of all the children of school-going age were under instruction. Widespread as it was, this system of education did not, as Mr. Keay remarks, "include a very large proportion even of the male population, and among females of course it hardly existed at all." The system, however, was an old and well established one, going back to a period long anterior to Manu. There is some evidence to believe that it existed for some centuries prior to Asōka, the Buddhist Emperor. His rock and pillar edicts presume a knowledge of the vernaculars on the part of the people. Of course, there is nothing to indicate the actual extent of literacy prevalent during Asōka's time. It is possible, however, that this system, which we find closely connected with the village life of India, has been so connected from time out of memory. Whether the teacher was always and everywhere one of the Village Twelve, it is difficult to determine, the more so because many of these schools have come into being in places other than villages proper. Mr. Keay, who discusses this subject at some length, thinks that these indigenous primary schools cannot, taken as a whole, be spoken of "as being the relic of an ancient village system." Dr. Matthai holds the opposite view. Mr. Keay's main contention is that these schools have arisen in a variety of ways, not all of them connected with the village. Schools arising out of the village system were copied out or imitated by others to suit their own needs. The schools started by Zamindars, rich traders or others might have owed their origin to this fact. There is, besides, evidence to believe that village life was more corporate in ancient times than it has been during the past century or so, and in certain villages the poet or the school-master was actually one of the Village Twelve. This was so in Mysore State. In other villages,

though the teacher was not of the Twelve, he still had a place in the life of the village. This was especially the case in most of the larger villages, as it is to this day. Education was felt to be a necessity in such places, and it was provided for as a matter of course. But it was limited to the extent defined above. It was utilitarian in character, and had a real relation with the life outside the school. Though it might have fallen short, judged from modern standards, it was in some respects fully in accordance with modern theory. In the Montessori system, we find it advocated that writing should be taught before reading, and that, in teaching to write, the child should first be made constantly to run its fingers over ground or on sandpaper letters in order to fix the forms in the muscular memory. Both these ideas, as Mr. Keay well points out, were long ago current in Indian schools. Though unconnected with the Brāhmanic schools of learning, they probably derived these and other ideas of teaching and their methods from these schools, but as the Brāhmanic schools tended more and more to draw away from the daily concerns of life, "they supplied a popular want which would not otherwise have been met." Through long centuries they have helped "to give to India some elements of a popular education, and to prepare for that time when it should be possible for education to become more widespread among the people."

The Muham-  
madan  
System; its  
origin,  
growth and  
development.

On the Muhammadan system of education, which is closely connected with the Muhammadan religion, a great deal of valuable light has been thrown by Mr. N. Law in his well-known work *Promotion of Learning in India during Muhammadan Rule*. Mr. Law's work must be consulted by the interested reader. What follows is largely based on it and on Mr. Keay's work previously referred to. The Muhammadans first appeared in India in the Eighth Century A.D., but it was not until

the 11th century that they endeavoured to establish themselves in India. The many invasions of Muhammad of Ghazni (1000-1026 A.D.) led to the permanent settlement of Muhammadans in India, and to the establishment of mosques in it. As in other Muhammadan countries, the mosque, especially in towns, was a centre of instruction and of literary activity. Muhammadan educational institutions are distinguished as *maktabs* or *madrassahs*. The *maktab* is a primary school attached to a mosque, the chief business of which is to instruct boys in those portions of the *Koran* which a Muhammadan is expected to know by heart in order to perform his daily devotions and other religious duties. Sometimes, instruction in reading, writing and simple arithmetic is also included in the curriculum. The *madrassah* is a school or college of higher learning. Among the first Muhammadan Kings to encourage education was Muhammad Ghori, who established himself at Delhi in 1192 A.D. He established mosques and colleges and gave education to the more promising of his own slaves. Kutb-ud-din was one of those slaves, and he was also a promoter of learning. He built numerous mosques at which instruction was also given. Though Altamash, Kutb-ud-din's successor, was not overactive in regard to education, his daughter Raziya proved a patron of learning. Nasir-ud-din and Balban both encouraged learning. In the Khilji dynasty, Jalal-ud-din (close of 13th century) proved a man of great literary taste. Delhi was now a great seat of learning. Under the Tughlak Kings (1325-1413), education made good progress. During Firoz Tughlakh's reign, Delhi became famous as a centre of learning. Scholarship was encouraged by gifts and pensions. The art of copying the *Koran* was actively patronized by him. He repaired schools and alienated revenue in their favour. According to Ferishta, he founded as many as thirty colleges with mosques attached. In the College

he founded at his Capital, the teachers and scholars lived together in the institution, stipends and scholarships being granted for their support. Down in the South, in the Bāhmani Kingdom, Muhammad Gawan, Minister of Muhammad Shāh (1463-1482), built at Bidar a fine library of three thousand volumes. Some of the Bāhmani Kings provided for the education of orphans and the maintenance of their teachers. In the other Muhammadan Kingdoms of the time (15th century), education was actively encouraged. Jaunpur was one of the most famous seats of learning during this century. It is, however, a question if, in the rural areas, there was during this period the same attention paid to education as in the Cities.

Among the Moghul Emperors (1526-1707), education received considerable attention. Humayun, the son of Bābar, was an accomplished scholar and a great patron of learned men. He built a College at Delbi. Akbar (1556-1605) not only encouraged learning but was active in reforming education. Abul Fazal bears eloquent testimony to this fact. Akbar was also fond of books. He built up a library, and almost every day he had books from it read to him. He built many colleges and caused translations to be made of the more valuable Sanskrit works into Persian. Colleges were also erected during his time by private persons. Akbar made it possible for Hindus to learn at the *madrasahs*. As a reformer of the educational method of his time, he deserves high praise. He recommended that, as among Hindus, writing should be taught before reading, which was not the case in the Muhammadan schools. He was also anxious that students should be made to understand everything themselves, the teachers only assisting them a little. Books on morals were to be read, while no one was "to neglect those things which the present time requires," which shows Akbar's desire to make education practical. As

Abdul Fazal adds, "these regulations shed a new light on schools and cast a bright lustre over *madrasahs*." Whether Akbar was really unable to read or write, which is hotly disputed by Mr. Law, it is clear he was a genuine friend of learning and one interested in it too deeply to be mistaken for an uneducated man. Jehāngir, his son, was not only learned but also encouraged learning. He wrote his own memoirs and illustrated them with the aid of artists. He built new Colleges, repaired old ones, and made Agra a great centre of learning. Among the laws he enacted was one under which the property of those who died leaving no heirs lapsed to the Crown and was used for the repairing of Colleges, Monasteries and other religious institutions. Shāh Jahān founded a College at Delhi, but is more famous for the great impetus he gave to the architectural art. One of his sons, Dārā Shukoh, was a well-read scholar, and is remembered as a translator of many Sanskrit works into Persian, including the *Upanishads*. Another was Aurangzīb, who, as a strict Muhammadan, gave great encouragement to Muhammadan education. He founded a large number of schools and colleges, repaired mosques, and gave lands, pensions and allowances to learned men and professors, and stipends to scholars according to their abilities and qualifications. He extended his educational activities to distant provinces like Gujarat, to which he sent teachers. Their reports on the public examinations they conducted were sent to him for his information. The royal example was copied by private persons who opened schools. Aurangzīb added to the Imperial Library, and copied the *Koran* with his own hand and sold copies of it to the public to meet his own personal wants. He had exalted and quite modern notions on education, and the sort of training required in the case of royal youths. His scathing criticism of his old teacher, who came to see him on his ascending the throne, so

picturesquely reported by the French traveller Bernier, shows that he was by no means the crude bigot he is ordinarily represented to be. He charges him for not filling his young mind with suitable instruction; with the geography of surrounding countries, the history of adjoining kingdoms, their languages and their forms of government, modes of warfare, manners, religion, etc. Instead, he reiterates, he was compelled to waste ten or twelve years on learning Arabic and its grammar, "on the dry, unprofitable and never-ending task," as he puts it, "of learning-words." Among other charges he prefers against his teacher is the one that he did not instruct him "on one point at least, so essential to be known by a King; namely, on the reciprocal duties between the sovereign and his subjects." A still another charge is that he did not instruct him "in the art of war, how to besiege a town, or draw up an army in battle array." He is so disgusted with him, he abjures to him: "Go. Withdraw to thy village. Henceforth let no person know either who thou art, or what is become of thee." Aurangzib was apparently sorely tired by the time wasted on getting up mere words; on the want of correlation between the work in school and the life outside of it; and the utter lack of a broad humanism in which history, geography and the languages of the surrounding nations would have a large place. He was eminently modern in his outlook, but his pre-occupation of military conquest was great and he never gave himself time or opportunity to give practical effect to his educational ideals, which should have sounded strange to his old teacher Mullah Shāh.

In Mysore during the Usurpation period.

In Mysore, during the period of Muhammadan ascendancy (1761-1799), Muhammadan education received considerable attention, especially at the hands of Tipu Sultān. Haidar Alī could not write his own name.



But he was a shrewd and capable man with an excellent memory. Schawartz, the Missionary ambassador from Madras, who saw him in Court in 1769, speaks highly of the quickness with which he conducted public business. "He orders one man to write a letter and another to read it to him. If the writer has in the least deviated from his orders, his head pays for it." He put his sons under Mullahs of reputation for needful training. It is said that Tipu's teacher was never questioned by Haidar as to the progress made by the boy for many years, at the end of which period, he one day conducted a public examination of Tipu. This showed that the boy had not obtained the training required for a soldier's son; instead he had had everything that would be requisite to turn him into a good Moulvie. Haidar's displeasure knew no bounds and he exclaimed, much in the strain of Aurangzib, that his boy had not been taught the things that would make him a great and good ruler. He had not been taught, he thundered forth, the modes of warfare he should know, the manner of conquering countries or conducting diplomacy with the surrounding nations, or even the duties of kingship. Instead, Haidar protested, everything requisite for converting him into a religious zealot had been done and his mind filled with notions and fancies which had made him hate everything not connected with Islam. Everything indeed had been done, concluded Haidar in his anger, to ruin his family and his kingdom and nothing to advance either. And Haidar proved a true prophet in uttering this condemnation of learning imparted to his son. Tipu, we are told by Kirmāni, his historian, "built a *musjid* (mosque) in every town, and appointed a Muezzin, a Moula and a Kāzi to each, and promoted the education and learning of the Mussalmans to the utmost of his power. He himself also spent his time in prayer, reading the *Koran* and counting the beads of his rosary." Kirmāni

comments rather bitterly on the disastrous effects of Tipu's preference to his religious devotions and to those who were not trained to the positions to which they were appointed. "The old Khans and faithful servants of the State were now cast down from confidence and power, and low men, and men without abilities were raised to high offices and dignities; men of rank, also, who had always been employed in the highest duties and services, were reduced to the lowest and humblest offices, for this reason, that it was the wish of the Sultan that every Mussalman should derive benefit, or reap all advantages from his kindness alone, in order that the lower classes of people should not despair of obtaining rank and office. From this cause, however, it was that disorder and disaffection forced their way into the very foundations of the State, and at once the nobles and Khans, being alarmed and suspicious, became the instigators of treachery and rebellion." A stronger indication than this we do not read of in the writings of the annalists of the time of the sort of training Tipu had himself received to befit him for his later position in life or he himself expected from those he appointed to offices of trust and responsibility requiring certain previous training. Though not lacking in a knowledge of Persian (see Vol. II, Chapter IX), Tipu proved a mere pedant and an innovator and not a true reformer. Tipu's aversion to those who did not belong to his own religion—Kirmāni says that "he did not consider any but the people of Islam his friends"—was not intelligible even to his own contemporaries, not excluding his own officers, civil and military. "Therefore on all accounts," Kirmāni adds, "his chief object was to promote and provide for them (Mussalmans). He accordingly selected a number of Mussalmans who could scarcely read and write and appointed them Mirzas of the treasury departments and placed one over each of

the other accountants, to the end that the accounts might be submitted by them to him in the Persian language." This ended in a short time in administrative slackness, as the system was extended to the whole kingdom, and eventually led to its break-up and destruction. The story of the effects of the unsound education received by Tipu seems too pathetic for words and there is nothing in the dignified castigation that Haidar administered to Tipu's Mullah Saheb to induce disbelief or doubt in it.

Female education among the Muhammadans was, as among Hindus, carried on under certain restrictions. Seclusion, however, did not always prove a bar to girls attending schools. Several of the nobility provided for the careful training of their daughters and many royal ladies are known to have been educated during the Mogul times. The Mysore annalists give us no precise information on this point, but there is no reason to doubt that some at least of the ladies of the higher classes were as usual educated in Persian and Arabic.

Women's  
Education.

The education imparted in the *Madrasahs* cannot have been uniform. Its content appears to have varied from place to place and depended to a certain extent on the subjects chosen by the pupils themselves. Until recently, the ordinary course included grammar, logic and law; external observances and fundamental doctrines of Islam; astronomy, based on translations of Ptolemy; finally metaphysics. The criticisms of Aurangzib show that in his time the teaching had become formal and scholastic, with a strong emphasis on grammar, and ending with the dry discussion of abstract, metaphysical trivialities. All the same, "we shall not be far wrong if we say," following Mr. Keay, "that the state of Muhammadan learning in India was very much the same as that of learning in Europe before the introduction of printing."

Nature of  
education  
imparted by  
*Madrasahs*.

*History of Education in Mysore.*

Early  
History.

Highly as learning was always esteemed, education never seemed to have been regarded as a duty of the State under former Indian Rulers. It was left to the voluntary principle and was, as we have seen, mostly in the hands of religious leaders and priests. At the same time, we find that, in the primitive corporation of the "Village Twelve," a poet who was also a school-master was sometimes provided instead of a goldsmith. Endowments were often given for promoting learning as a religious duty.

Education  
in the  
Restoration  
period.

Maharaja Krishnaraja Wodeyar III had established in 1833 at his own cost a free English School at Mysore and the Government were also aiding Missionary bodies in establishing schools. Besides this, there were two schools at Bangalore of a special character supported by Government. The State expenditure on education in 1855 was Rs. 16,500 a year.

Early  
European  
Missionary  
Work.

Education on modern lines was first introduced by European Missionaries. Between 1840 and 1854, the Wesleyan Mission established schools at some of the District Headquarters with the aid of Government, the principal one being its Institution at Bangalore founded in 1851.

The Halifax  
Despatch,  
1854.

Systematic State activity in India in the field of education began with the famous Halifax Despatch of 1854. In that Despatch, the Directors of the East India Company sketched a plan of work on which the present structure of Indian Education is mainly based. "It is one of our most sacred duties," they said, "to be the means, as far as in us lies, of conferring upon the natives of India those vast moral and material blessings which flow from the general diffusion of knowledge, and which in India may, under Providence, derive from her

connection with England." They stated that the best education that could be given was education on Western lines and in the knowledge belonging to the civilization of the West; and made full provision in their scheme, for departments of education in the provinces; for the inspectorate; for reports; for professorships; for Universities and degrees to be conferred by them; for technical education, women's education, mass education; and discussed the question of fees, and aid of private effort and scholarships. While English was to be the language of instruction in the highest institutions, they recognised the importance of the vernacular languages for placing knowledge within reach of the far larger classes who were ignorant of or imperfectly acquainted with English. "At the same time and as the importance of the vernacular languages becomes more appreciated, the vernacular literature of India will be gradually enriched by the translations of European books, or by the original compositions of men whose minds have been imbued with the spirit of European advancement, so that European knowledge may gradually be placed in this manner within the reach of all classes of the people."

At the time the Directors of the East India Company sent this Despatch, the State of Mysore had been under the direct rule of the British Government for more than twenty years, and it so remained, as it proved, for twenty-seven years thereafter. The Commission that then administered the country was asked to bring into force in the State as far as they were applicable the measures for educational advancement outlined in the Directors' Despatch. As in the rest of India, so also in the State, there was then no organised "system" of education. Maharaja Sri Krishnaraja Wodeyar III of honoured memory had established at his own cost an English School at Mysore; and the Government also

Education  
under the  
British  
Commission.

were aiding Missionary bodies in establishing schools as already mentioned; but a system of education there did not exist. Indeed, if we might infer from words written a little later, the Government seems to have thought of the spread of education as a source of danger rather than otherwise. "On the whole," wrote Sir Mark Cubbon, the Chief Commissioner, of the educational work of the State previous to 1857—these words, it has to be remarked, were written at the time of the Mutiny—"it must be admitted that the administration of Mysore makes no particular show under the head of education. In an abstract point of view this is to be regretted, but subject nations are not kept in order and good humour on abstract principles and it has long been the opinion of some, and is rapidly becoming the opinion of many, that the efforts which have been made by Government to extend the blessings of education by tests and examinations to secure the services of enlightened men even in the lowest posts are not calculated to be so fully appreciated as they ought, by any class of the community."

The Devereux  
Scheme.

When the provisions of the Despatch of 1854 had to be applied to Mysore, the Hon. Mr. Devereux, Judicial Commissioner, drew up a scheme of education for Mysore and Coorg jointly. He provided for an establishment of officers by which the scheme was to be worked; there were to be a Director of Public Instruction, two Inspectors, four Deputy Inspectors and twenty Sub-Deputy Inspectors; a Sub-Deputy Inspector having on an average four taluks and the higher officers in proportion. Provision was made in the scheme about the number of schools to be established and the funds to be made available, etc.

Progress till  
1865.

The scheme drawn up by Mr. Devereux was sanctioned by the Government of India with some slight modifications.

The Indian educational institution of the Wesleyan Mission was at first aided with a large grant as filling the place of a central institution, but soon after the scheme was sanctioned, it ceased to be the central institution and, in 1858, the Government established a High School in Bangalore, affiliated to the Madras University. The Mission Schools at Tumkur, Shimoga and Hassan and the Maharaja's School at Mysore were taken under Government management to serve as divisional schools. In 1861, a Normal School was established at Bangalore and the next year saw the opening of an Engineering School. As for Taluk Schools, the progress under the policy of waiting till the people asked for schools was not particularly encouraging. "Whether in consequence of the state of public affairs," wrote Sir Mark Cubbon in 1857, "or from any other cause or causes, no desire has been expressed for the aid of Government in the establishment of any school in any portion of the Mysore country, except on the part of two schools in the station of Bangalore. It has not been thought advisable under the circumstances to set up schools for the establishment of which no desire has been expressed." Matters, however, improved shortly, for, two years thereafter in 1859-60, there were fifteen applications and, at the end of 1864-65, there were eighteen Kannada Government Schools and thirty schools assisted by grant-in-aid. These schools and the staff that was appointed for teaching, inspection and direction, cost a sum nearing on a lakh and a quarter—the amount that the Government of India had sanctioned for annual expenditure on education in the State.

The year 1868 was a year of importance in the history of education in Mysore. In that year, Government sanctioned a scheme of far reaching effects proposed by Mr. Rice—the scheme for the establishment of Hobli Schools to bring education within reach of the mass of

The Hobli  
School  
Scheme.

people. Under the provisions of that scheme, a school was to be sanctioned for every hobli where the people desired to have a school and in earnest of their desire agreed to provide a school-house. The masters were to be the men who had been in charge of the indigenous schools, but to be employed after they had received training in the Normal School. They were to receive under training Rs. 5 a month and afterwards an appointment on Rs. 7 a month. The cost was to be met from a cess levied on the land revenue, and education in the schools was to be free. Committees were formed from among the local people to supervise the schools.

Progress up  
to 1873.

The situation at the end of 1871-72 was very satisfactory. All the hoblis had schools except 39; each taluk had a superior vernacular school; there were eleven District Schools teaching up to the Matriculation standard; and five High Schools teaching up to the B.A. standard. One of the last and two of the District Schools belonged to the Civil and Military Station. One hundred and forty-nine students attended the University examinations—122 appeared for the Matriculation examination, 55 passing; 13 for the First Examination in Arts, 3 passing; and 14 for the B.A. degree examination, 7 passing. The grant-in-aid schools showed an increase of 14 in one year, being 90; the total number of institutions was 693 and of scholars 24,201. The total expenditure on education during the year was Rs. 3,27,621—more than double the amount that was provided for in Mr. Devereux's scheme. Summing up the achievement of the Department, the Director of Public Instruction in the report for the following year wrote as follows:—"On comparing the progress of education since this Department was established with what has been done in other parts of India, it will, I think, be admitted that Mysore has not been behind hand in contributing to the general improvement



throughout the Empire, and that, while, in the higher cultivation of English, she has attained an honourable position, the promotion of instruction in the vernaculars has received particular notice and attention." Much indeed had been achieved, but the larger part of the way had yet to be gone. Taking all the institutions together, the percentage at school was 1 in 99 of the population.

The history of education from this period to the year of the Rendition is a record of steady progress. The Bangalore High School was called the Central College from 1875 and affiliated to the Madras University as a first grade college under the new affiliation rules. The Raja's School at Mysore and the Shimoga District School were made "High Schools" teaching up to the F.A. standard, thus giving an F.A. standard school to each of the other two divisions. There were, besides, four schools teaching for the University Entrance standard. A School of Engineering and Natural Science, affiliated to the University and preparing candidates for its degrees, was established in 1875, but it was reduced to a lower grade in 1880, as the precarious needs of the Government rendered its continuance as a College unnecessary. Progress was somewhat checked by the famine of 1877. It did not, however, impair the work of Government schools, but led to the abolition of nearly all aided schools. Retrenchments of expenditure consequent on the famine rendered also the abolition of the Normal Schools necessary,

Progress up  
to 1881.

The state of education at the time of the Rendition may be seen from the following tables:—

Position at  
the Rendition.

*Schools and Scholars.*

	Government	Aided	Unaided	Total
Number of Schools ...	899	168	1,000	2,067
Number of Scholars...	33,267	9,370	16,000	57,637

Classified according to grade, the public schools numbered as below :—

	Schools	Scholars
University grade ... ..	4	132
Secondary grade ... ..	166	3,084
Primary grade ... ..	907	38,296
Special ... ..	10	1,145

The total expenditure was Rs. 3,91,028, of which only Rs. 1,58,423 were met from State Revenues, the remainder or Rs. 2,32,605 being defrayed, Rs. 1,40,976 from Local and Municipal Funds, Rs. 57,250 from school fees and the rest from private sources.

The following figures indicate the results of the various examinations :—

<i>Examinations.</i>	<i>Successful Candidates.</i>	<i>Examinations.</i>	<i>Successful Candidates.</i>
B. A. ...	6	Matriculation ...	126
F. A. ...	16	Middle School ...	185

Later History of education: Sir K. Seshadri Iyer's policy.

On the restoration of the State to the Ruling family, the policy of the Commission in the matter of education was continued. There was a desire in the earlier years to hand over Vernacular Primary education to Local Boards and Village Committees. "The Hobli Schools," said Sir K. Seshadri Iyer in 1883, "have certainly proved not an adequate medium for the wide spread of elementary education which alone can give them success and I have therefore provided that the Local Boards, assisted by Village Boards, where practicable, will take entire charge of these schools, manage them with the definite funds that will be placed at their disposal, appointing and dismissing the masters. at their own discretion, the Government interference being limited

purely to the prescribing of the proper standard of education in them and providing the Board with a good and competent staff of Inspectors." While this was the goal to be kept in view so far as primary education was concerned, the policy of Government as to various grades and kinds of instruction was described in 1886 by the same great statesman in these words:—"The subject is one which the Government regard as of the foremost importance. Their policy may be briefly summed up as aiming at the following ends:—

"To maintain unimpaired and in thorough efficiency all the means of elementary and secondary education and to bring them within the reach of all classes both by direct agency and by assisting private effort. To promote a scholarly study of the local vernacular, and of our ancient classical languages, to elevate and extend female education, and to conduct it on a system strictly national so as to enlist popular sympathy in its progress, to encourage higher education and to train young men for the professions of Medicine, Engineering, etc."

Steps were taken in the immediately succeeding year to work out as far as possible the programme of education on the lines indicated above. To encourage the study of the Kannada language and to give it an importance, a local examination in Kannada was instituted. The Karnataka Dhashojjivini Sabha was established in 1886 with a Kannada College attached, the Sanskrit School at Bangalore was made a College and the Maharaja's Sanskrit College received further development by the provision there of facilities for the study of higher branches of Sanskrit learning and the institution of appropriate examinations. The pay of the educational services was improved and attempts were made to appoint competent teachers to the High Schools and Colleges; scholarships were instituted for students who proceeded

How the  
policy was  
carried out.

to colleges outside the country for technical education; and the education of women received a great impetus by the establishment of a Maharani's girls' school at Mysore with due deference to caste prejudices and by the Government adopting a forward policy, free from any fear of being misunderstood.

Education  
during  
1890-1895.

During the five years from 1890 to 1895, there was progress in all directions. Collegiate education was developed by raising the Maharaja's College, Mysore, from the second to the first grade, by completing the Chemical Laboratory of the Central College and appointing additional Professors and assistant masters in both the Colleges and by grading the higher educational service. In the field of secondary education, the entire cost of Taluk English Schools was transferred to State Funds. Students' Homes were established in Mysore, Chitaldrug and Kolar. All Colleges and High Schools were provided with libraries. Normal Schools were opened at Mysore, Shimoga and Kolar for the first time after their abolition after the famine of 1877. For the purpose of still further encouraging female education, Her Highness the Maharani's Girls' School was taken over for management by the Government and placed under the supervision of a Committee. An Oriental Library was established at Mysore for the collection of manuscripts in Sanskrit and Kannada and of literature on these languages, and a Text-Book Committee was appointed. Industrial Schools were opened at Hassan and Mysore and special encouragement was given to Technical education. The education of Muhammadan boys was encouraged by the award of scholarships as also the education of the sons of Pālegārs. Work in the field of the education of the depressed classes was begun by Government by the establishment of schools in various places.

The progress in the next four years can well be summed up in the words of the Administration Report for 1895-1899:—"An Inspector-General was appointed"—the 'Director' of the earlier days was replaced by the 'Secretary' in 1881 and this officer from 1895 combined in himself the offices of the Secretary (to Government in the Education Department) and the Inspector-General..... The percentage of boys and girls to the male and female population of school-going age was respectively 24.52 and 3.78 in the year 1898-1899. A variety of useful arts, such as drawing, modelling carpentry, weaving, wood-carving, masonry, rattan work, blacksmith's work, book-binding, manufacture of roofing and flooring tiles and aluminium vessels, etc., was taught in the Industrial School at Mysore and other Technical Institutions in the State." The outbreak of plague in 1898 affected education badly, but the effect was only temporary and in 1900 the country had almost recovered from the depressing effects. The total expenditure on education in 1900-1901 was nearly 11 lakhs of rupees. In 1880-81, it was slightly less than 4 lakhs; in 1890-91, slightly more than 6 lakhs; and in 1900-01, it was more than three times the amount for 1880-81.

Education during 1895-1900.

Technical education also received considerable attention during the time of Sir P. N. Krishnamurti, who outlined a scheme in 1902 to which effect was given in the following year. Under the scheme then sanctioned, an Engineering School was established at Mysore, the existing Industrial School was re-organised and more Industrial Schools were established in various places. Scholarships were also instituted from State Funds to students who wished to study technical subjects outside Mysore.

Encouragement of Technical Education.

The machinery of instruction up to 1910-11 was practically the same as that which existed at the end of

Changes in the machinery of instruction.

1903-04 as revised by the then Dewan Sir P. N. Krishna Murthi. The important changes and developments effected were, however, the raising of the Maharani's Girls' High School to a College of a second grade in 1902-03 and the conversion of the Shimoga College into a High School in 1905. The noticeable developments in this period were the introduction, in 1907, of manual training into the curriculum of Secondary Schools so as to correct the too "literary" tendency of the matriculation courses, so often complained of and the introduction, in 1908, of religious and moral instruction into the schools and colleges in the State; and the decision to locate the Indian Institute of Science in Bangalore in accordance with arrangements agreed to by the Mysore Government and the Government of India. At the same time, an expert was obtained from America to introduce manual training into secondary schools and to train teachers for the purpose and an expert in Kindergarten methods of instruction was also obtained from England to train mistresses and masters in the State schools and to organise Kindergarten methods in the State. The Madras University introduced New Regulations in 1907 and the High Schools and Colleges in the State were reorganised to meet the new requirements.

Progress  
during  
1911-1916.

A general account of the progress of education in the State in the years 1911-16 may well begin with reference to the Mysore Economic Conference. As a deliberative body composed of officials and non-officials and having education as one of the three departments of its activity, it stands for all that means progress in that field as in others—for the enlistment of popular work in the cause of education, for the co-operation of official and non-official for the furtherance of that cause, for large and liberal and up-to-date ideals regarding education and for thorough examination of all subjects of

interest concerning education. Opening the Conference for the first time on 10th June 1911, His Highness the Maharaja in words now memorable said: "Education is the sovereign remedy for all economic evils. Much has been done by my Government in recent years, by giving increased grants and otherwise, to spread knowledge and awaken the intelligence of the people. To mark our sense of its importance, we have given the subject of Education the first place in the general programme placed before you." The words are the key-note of the educational work during the subsequent years. As an immediate consequence of the importance attached to education by His Highness the Maharaja, the financial policy of Government during the ensuing years was marked by increased liberality. The increase in expenditure during the five years 1911-16 was nearly 50 per cent. Large amounts were allotted to Primary education, for the improvement of the Colleges, for technical education in the State, and foreign scholarships, and for objects of general educational value, such as Public Libraries. The people of the State could appreciate the solicitude expressed in the following words of His Highness the Maharaja to the Dewan and conveyed by him to the annual gathering of the members of the Economic Conference in 1916: "Be sure you do not stint money for education."

The period was noted for the adoption of new ideals in many important directions in educational work. By the introduction of compulsion of a modified form into the system of Primary education, a principle, the soundness of which has been recognised in all quarters but which has not always been easy to work, has been accepted in practice in the State. Of equal importance was the introduction of the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme; the reform was long considered necessary and

Adoption  
of new  
ideals.

has been adopted in other parts of India. It was adopted in the State in 1918. In consonance with the most advanced ideas with regard to higher education was the establishment of the University, the most important measure of a progressive character adopted during the period.

The main events of the period.

The main events of the period may be summarised as follows :—

The educational service was completely re-organised by the revision of the scales of pay and prospects of the members of various classes. The University was established at the close of the period. Honours courses were introduced in the first grade colleges and improvements made in equipment and accommodation so as to make them more efficient. Secondary education in English was placed on a better basis by the institution of the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme. New Vernacular High Schools were opened in five places for men and in two places for women. The Elementary Education Regulation was passed for the first time introducing compulsion in Education in the State. A scheme of practical education in Elementary Schools was approved by Government and partly brought into force. A programme of expansion was begun so that at the end of the quinquennium there were more than double the number of schools than there were at the beginning. A Mechanical Engineering School was opened at Bangalore and the Chamarajendra Technical Institute was formed at Mysore by amalgamating the old Engineering and Industrial Schools and adding some new Departments of instruction. The rules for the grant of scholarships for study in foreign countries were revised, the chief being the institution in addition to the usual scholarships of "loan scholarships," the amount of which would be recovered from the scholars on their return after completing their studies. Government Commercial Schools were opened in Bangalore and Mysore and Technical Examinations of Elementary and Advanced grades were instituted. The Normal School at Mysore was raised to the status of a Training College and Normal Schools were opened in more places



and classes were opened in the Mysore School even before it became a College for training English masters. Agricultural Education made a beginning in the period, the Agricultural School at Hebbal opening for work in July 1913. The Maharani's College was re-organised and a Hostel opened for students of the advanced classes of the College. Provision was made for advanced education being given in more schools and in other centres besides Mysore. The curriculum of studies in Girls' Schools was revised so as to suit the needs of women. The inspectorate in respect of Muhammadan Education was strengthened. A Panchama Boarding School was established at Mysore to serve as a central institution for the Panchamas in the State.

The subsequent period is an important one in the History of Education in the State. During this period, development was attempted in many directions with varying results. One of the outstanding features of the period having far reaching consequence for the future of education of the State was the issue of a comprehensive resolution by the Government (No. 1180-250 Edn. 498-20-1, dated 25th May 1921) dealing with the numerous problems presented by the existing condition of education and laying down the lines of its future development. Most of the important measures of the past years aimed at creating a growing demand for education and securing an increase in the number of schools and scholars. These objects have been fulfilled in a large measure and it was felt that for a long time to come attention would have to be devoted mainly to effecting improvements in the organisation, increasing its efficiency and adopting measures towards the qualitative improvement of education. The most important measures of reform contemplated in the above resolution relate to—

Progress  
since 1917.

(1) the gradual conversion of aided Primary Schools in villages into Government institutions provided with a more qualified and better paid staff, located in buildings of a more permanent nature and furnished with suitable equipment ;

(2) the establishment of Middle Schools of a uniform bilingual type with an improved curriculum providing also for practical instruction ;

(3) the introduction of Polytechnic courses in the High Schools ;

(4) the re-organisation of Technical Education by the establishment of Elementary Industrial Schools in the Taluk Head-quarters and of Higher Industrial Schools at District Head-quarters, with an advanced training in the Chamara-jendra Technical Institute ;

(5) complete revision and extension of the Training Courses and adequate arrangements for the training of a sufficient number of teachers ;

(6) improvement in the pay and prospects (as well as in the qualifications) of all ranks in the services ; and

(7) various other measures for introducing co-ordination between the several parts of the entire educational organisation.

The programme set forth above is one of great magnitude involving large additional expenditure. It is being gradually given effect to as funds become available. The action taken and the progress achieved so far in giving effect to the various items in the programme will be found briefly mentioned in the respective sections on the subject.

Periodical  
reviews.

The progress of education in the State is being reviewed by Government every year with a view to lay down the general principles that guide educational advancement in the future. In addition to the above, the first quinquennial review of progress of education in the State was issued in accordance with instructions laid down in Government Order No. 2352-6—Edn. 19-16-3, dated 21st September 1916. It deals with the progress made in the five years from 1st July 1911 to 30th June 1916, besides giving a general history of development of education during the earlier period. A second review of the kind is now under preparation, and will deal with the

progress of education during the six years from 1st July 1916 to 30th June 1922.

#### SECTION 1—MYSORE UNIVERSITY.

The University of Mysore is the first University to be Origin. founded in the Native States of India. For over twenty-five years, the two State Colleges were affiliated to the Madras University. The Mysore State has an area of some 30,000 square miles and a population of about six millions, and it was felt that the time had come to make certain changes to adapt the educational system to the actual needs of the people of Mysore. A special committee was appointed in 1915-16 to draw up a scheme for a University for the State in consultation with the educational experts of the Government of India and officials of the Mysore State. A bill to establish and incorporate a University was introduced into the Mysore Legislative Council in June 1916. It was unanimously passed and received the sanction of His Highness the Maharaja in July 1916.

His Highness the Maharaja is the Chancellor and His Constitution. Highness the Yuvaraja, the Pro-Chancellor. A Vice-Chancellor and a Council consisting of not less than nine and not more than 15 members including the Vice-Chancellor of the University have been appointed to control the affairs of the University. The Senate as reconstituted in July 1925 consists of Fellows partly elected and partly nominated. Boards of studies have been appointed by the University Council and the Faculties have been constituted by the Senate.

The University first comprised the Maharaja's College at Mysore (the Head-quarters of the University) and the Central College at Bangalore. At present, there are five Constituent Colleges—the Maharaja's College and the Maharani's Women's College for Arts at Mysore; the

Central College for Science, the Engineering College and the Medical College at Bangalore.

**Courses.**

The prevailing system of the Madras University is a four years' course with an Intermediate Examination after the second year. The Mysore University provides for a three years' continuous course, admission to which is confined to those who pass an Entrance Examination after studying for a year in Collegiate High Schools after they have successfully completed the High School course. These Collegiate High Schools are subject to recognition by the University, which exercises also the power of periodical inspection. They are suitably staffed and are under the supervision of the University Council.

The Engineering Course is one of four years and the Commerce Course is one of three years. These courses were framed during the year 1916-17. The third year Commerce class and the specialised classes of the third year Civil and Mechanical Engineering were opened during 1919-20.

The B.E. Degree Examination was held for the first time in 1920-21.

The subjects of instruction and examination, which cover a continuous course of three years for the Degree of B.A., come under the heads of (1) Arts and (2) Sciences. English and the second language, *viz.*, either a vernacular—Kannada, Telugu, Tamil and Hindustani—or Sanskrit, Persian or French are compulsory. Two optional subjects are also compulsory, and in Arts, which are located in Mysore, these may be chosen from History, Political Science, Economics, two groups in Philosophy and Sanskrit or Persian. In the Sciences which are taught in Bangalore, either Mathematics, Physics and Chemistry, or Zoology, Geology and Botany may be chosen in the first year, and any two of the subjects studied in the first year may be taken in second and third years. There

is also a special course for the B.Sc. Degree, which requires a small amount of English and a correspondingly larger amount of Science than is necessary for the pass course.

Steps are being taken to provide for courses of studies in Law, Teaching, Agriculture and Electrical Engineering at no distant date. It is also in contemplation to evolve a higher standard of post-graduate training and research work in Science. A scheme of Extension lectures is in working and the Publication Bureau has also been active.

The second year Commerce class, the third year class in Philosophy group I and the second year in the College of Engineering were opened during the year 1918-19. Arrangements were made for imparting instruction to graduates studying for the M.A. Degree examination in English Language and Literature, History, Economics and Political Science, Philosophy, and Sanskrit. The M.A. and B.Com. Degree examinations were held for the first time in the year 1919-20.

In the latter part of the year 1923-24, the Government sanctioned the recommendation of the Senate for the establishment of a Faculty of Medicine and the opening of a Medical College at Bangalore from the 1st July 1924.

At Mysore, the following buildings have been newly Buildings constructed. Two lecture theatres added to the Maharaja's College, the adaptation of the Jubilee building, for the University Library, New Hostel Blocks, the Union Building, a Cricket Pavilion, a new Oriental and Sanskrit Library, Professors' Houses and a Swimming Bath. Later, Warden's quarters, a Gymnasium, a Museum and a Senate House will be erected. At Bangalore, the Central College buildings have been extended and additional Hostel accommodation has been

provided. A Union Building has also been constructed at that centre, and it is in contemplation to construct some houses for Professors in the vicinity of the site of the Central College.

Number of  
Students.

The total strength of the three Colleges and the College classes of the Maharani's College in 1923-24 was 461.

Recognition  
of Examina-  
tions and  
Degrees.

Mutuality in regard to the recognition of examinations and degrees of other Universities by the Mysore University and of the Mysore University by other Universities, Indian and British, has been established. Among other Universities, the following recognize the examinations and degrees of the Mysore University :—

Bombay,	Dacca,
Madras,	Aligarh Muslim Univer-
Punjab,	sity,
Hindu University,	London,
Lucknow,	Oxford and Cambridge.

Finance.

The University is State-supported except for fees and endowments. The following statement furnishes information regarding receipts and expenditure during the year 1923-24.

## RECEIPTS.

Minor Heads	1923-24 (Provi- sional)	1922-23	1921-22	1920-21
1	2	3	4	5
1. State Grant ... ..	6,01,800	4,50,000	5,50,000	7,10,830
2. Fees from Colleges ... ..	45,266	43,681	31,742	37,812
3. Examination Fees ... ..	35,551	35,429	23,762	27,442
4. Contribution from private bodies. ... ..	...	...	...	...
5. Interest on Endowments.	11,470	11,093	8,015	6,379
6. Fees for Registration of Graduates.	168	133	637	423
7. Sale proceeds of publica- tions.	2,163	2,886	2,734	2,096
8. Miscellaneous Receipts ...	1,183	2,541	2,405	656
Rents on Buildings ... ..	8,349	4,875	3,930	...
DEBT HEADS.				
Endowments ... ..	9,378	1,40,566	9,400	2,000
Advances ... ..	15,492	30,826	2,484	1,787
Deposits ... ..	4,934	8,264	6,737	1,892
Total ... ..	7,30,773	7,29,694	6,46,846	7,91,517
Minor Heads	1919-20	1918-19	1917-18	1916-17
	6	7	8	9
1. State Grant ... ..	7,10,807	7,10,710	5,11,303	8,06,000
2. Fees from Colleges ... ..	33,272	28,298	17,762	21,200
3. Examination Fees ... ..	24,671	17,370	8,898	1,860
4. Contribution from private bodies. ... ..	...	...	9,225	...
5. Interest on Endowments.	6,261	5,246	1,230	...
6. Fees for Registration of Graduates.	666	643	257	700
7. Sale proceeds of publica- tions.	2,763	624	...	...
8. Miscellaneous Receipts ...	648	1,279	1,524	500
Rents on Buildings ... ..	...	...	...	...
DEBT HEADS.				
Endowments ... ..	14,730	27,850	...	...
Advances ... ..	920	3,001	...	...
Deposits ... ..	850	1,427	...	...
Total ... ..	7,95,957	7,91,569	6,50,281	8,30,200

## EXPENDITURE.

Minor Heads	1923-24 (Provisional)	1922-23	1921-22	1920-21
1	2	3	4	5
Direction ... ..	80,928	81,115	63,968	64,647
Colleges ... ..	4,81,412	4,57,111	4,88,640	5,18,521
Examinations ... ..	94,707	40,491	51,841	52,701
Buildings ... ..	21,155	52,699	96,537	1,69,921
LIBRARY.				
University ... ..	13,982	13,899	16,093	14,169
Oriental ... ..	26,394	26,591	26,817	23,390
Debt Heads ... ..	21,093	1,73,838	17,646	19,297
Lumpsum provision for furniture, social meetings, etc.	...	...	...	...
Refunds of revenue ...	2,891	8,856	9,430	1,689
Total ...	6,83,059	8,49,402	7,92,872	8,51,284
Minor Heads	1919-20	1918-19	1917-18	1916-17
	6	7	8	9
Direction ... ..	89,785	65,108	52,406	49,500
Colleges ... ..	4,19,106	3,61,446	2,46,546	2,04,900
Examinations ... ..	42,061	24,198	4,561	600
Buildings ... ..	1,98,520	1,74,193	2,05,565	...
LIBRARY.				
University ... ..	24,027	29,480	9,169	500
Oriental ... ..	21,436	20,541	...	...
Debt Heads ... ..	17,996	23,818	...	...
Lumpsum provision for furniture, social meetings, etc.	...	...	14,495	4,08,200
Refunds of revenue ...	1,045	1,726	217	...
Total ...	8,08,975	7,10,450	5,33,159	4,73,200



Twenty-three endowments of the aggregate value of 1,43,745 rupees were offered during three years ending 1918-19, and were accepted by the University. Endowments.

The first convocation for conferring degrees was held on the 19th of October 1918 when His Highness the Chancellor presided. Convocation.

The total number of volumes in the University Library was 4,925 at the end of the year 1918-19. University Library.

Besides the University Library, each college has its own library. The Maharaja's College has nearly 9,600 volumes, the Central College 8,317 volumes, the College of Engineering 977 volumes and the Maharani's College 1,500 volumes. College Libraries.

In the Oriental Library there were 10,566 printed books and 9,211 manuscripts during the same period. The Archæological Department was placed under the administrative control of the University by an order of Government dated 4th July 1922 and during 1923-24 an Archæological museum was opened for the benefit of Research scholars of the University consisting of coins, copper-plate grants, photographs of monuments, ancient pottery, estampages of typical inscriptions, etc. Oriental Library.

#### SECTION 2—DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION: CONTROLLING AGENCY.

The executive and administrative Head of the Department is the Inspector-General of Education, who deals mainly with High School Education and downwards. Owing to the heavy work devolving upon him in consequence of the wide expansion of the Department and his membership on the various committees, it was realised very early that a major portion of the work of the The Inspector-General and his Staff.

Inspector-General of Education was fully occupied in attending to the discharge of the administrative and other duties devolving on him leaving little time for consideration of the broader questions of policy and organisation. With a view to give him the necessary relief, the post of the Deputy Inspector-General of Education was created with effect from 21st August 1921 and the Head of the Department was freed from purely routine work and was enabled to formulate proposals regarding the educational policy to be pursued in future. Later on, it was found that the post of the Deputy Inspector-General of Education was unnecessary as he in practice was only a personal assistant to the Inspector-General of Education in addition to the one already existing and did not exercise independently the powers delegated to him in regard to Primary and Middle Schools and Training Institutions. Besides, as the powers delegated to him were such as could be safely vested in the Circle Inspectors, Government directed in their order of 9th November 1922, partly as a measure of retrenchment, that the post of the Deputy Inspector-General of Education be abolished and an additional Circle Inspector appointed in his place for the Malnad Districts. The appointment of the Deputy Inspector-General has accordingly been abolished, but the order appointing another Circle Inspector has not been given effect to owing to financial stringency.

In order to provide for the inspection of Industrial, Commercial and Engineering Schools and to help the Inspector-General of Education in formulating schemes of development of technical education in general, the need was felt for the appointment of a technical expert with the designation of "Technical Assistant to the Inspector-General." This appointment was abolished after the Industrial Schools and the Chamarajendra Technical Institute were transferred to the control of the Industries

and Commerce Department in pursuance of orders dated 25th May 1921 on the Education Memorandum.

The Special Officer of Compulsory Education, who was originally appointed to work up the details of the scheme and to watch its progress, is now in charge of the section of the office formed for working out detailed proposals to give effect to the orders on the Education Memorandum.

Owing to the rapid expansion of Educational institutions during the last years and to provide for effective supervision of Muhammadan and Female educational institutions, the Inspectorial staff was further augmented with the result that at the end of 1921-22 the staff consisted of:—

- Two Circle Inspectors.
- Eight District Inspectors.
- Twenty-three Assistant Inspectors.

#### FEMALE EDUCATION.

- One Inspectress of Girls' Schools.
- Five Assistant Inspectresses.

A further reorganization of the Inspectorate was felt necessary in the year 1927 with a view to unity of control and a more effective co-ordination of work in the Districts. The development of education out of funds raised in each district by means of an Education cess rendered it necessary that all the schools in a District, of middle and primary grades, should constitute a single unit for purposes of financial and educational administration. With these objects in view, Government in their order No. D. 1042-101—Edn. 241-26-7 dated 27th July 1927 ordered a reorganisation of the Inspectorate. According to this order, the head of the Department of Education was designated Director of Public Instruction in Mysore. He is to have under him three officers of high status designated Deputy Directors of Public Instruction.

The Department as it exists now.

Two of the Deputy Directors are to be in charge of territorial divisions to be denominated the Mysore Division and the Shimoga Division with Head-quarters at Mysore and Shimoga, respectively. The Mysore division consists of the Districts of Mysore, Hassan, Tumkur and Chitaldrug, and the Shimoga Division, of the Districts of Shimoga, Kadur, Kolar and Bangalore. These Officers exercise fairly extensive powers in regard to appointment, transfer, punishments, etc., and thus relieve the Director of much of the administrative work devolving on him. They will be the immediate superiors of the District Educational Officers and will also inspect and be in administrative charge of the high schools. The third Officer of this grade will be attached to the Office of the Director and will be his responsible assistant in all technical matters. The Director will also have a Lady Assistant for specific problems connected with female education in general. The Lady Assistant is also expected to control the work of the Assistant Inspectresses and also to inspect some of the girls' schools, especially girls' middle schools and Normal Schools for Women.

Under the Deputy Directors, there are eight District Educational Officers who will be responsible for Primary and Middle School education in the District and will be in charge of Kannada and Urdu Boys' and Girls' schools. They will be required to keep in touch with high school work by conducting inspections in High Schools in whole or in part under the direction of the Deputy Directors and will devote special attention to the improvement of middle schools and their maintenance in a high state of efficiency by constant guidance and regular inspections. The District Educational Officer will be the Officer whom the Deputy Commissioners and District Boards, etc., will address on all matters relating to education in the District. Each District Educational Officer will have an office Assistant.

Each District continued to consist of ranges of which one will comprise all Urdu schools in the District. Each range will be in charge of an Assistant Inspector who will be in administrative charge of the Kannada and Urdu Primary Boys' and Girls' schools in his area but his inspections will be as a rule confined to Boys' schools. The Assistant Inspectors will be expected to inspect the middle schools but they will not be in administrative charge of such schools, which with Training Institutions will be in the direct charge of the District Educational Officers.

There would be a separate women Inspectorate for the inspection of Girls' schools and for the social and propagandist work connected with the promotion of female education generally. There will be two Inspectresses of Urdu Girls' Schools, each in charge of four Districts and four Assistant Inspectresses of Kannada Girls' Schools, each in charge of two Districts. It will be an important part of the duties of these Inspectresses to carry propaganda work to women in their homes, to arrange for Parents' and Teachers' Conferences and to create an atmosphere favourable for the spread of female education. The Assistant Inspectresses will have no administrative functions in respect of these schools and their reports of inspections will be prepared in duplicate and forwarded to the District Educational Officers concerned and to the Lady Assistant to the Director who will check and control their work generally.

*Muhammadian Education.*

Three District Inspectors of Education.

Four Assistant Inspectors.

Two Assistant Inspectresses.

Government had under their consideration the revision of the existing system of inspection and administration of schools by the higher inspectorial staff. The two

The Department as it now exists.

Circle Inspectors of Education with territorial jurisdiction over four Districts each had direct charge of the inspection of High Schools and Normal Schools and exercised general supervision over the inspection of Middle and Primary Schools by the District and Assistant Inspectors in their respective circles. This system was not conducive for the efficiency of inspection and administration of the educational institutions as it failed to fix the responsibility for the proper development of each grade of education on any particular officer. Each grade of education had its own peculiar problems and the concentrated attention of a specialist in each grade was necessary for a continuous study and the successful handling of those problems. Government, therefore, considered it desirable to replace the Circle Inspectors with territorial jurisdiction by specially selected officers capable of exercising concentrated supervision over Primary education and Secondary education, respectively.

With the steadily increasing expenditure on Education, the levy of the education cess and the expansion of Primary and Middle School grades of education, the work in the Head Office had considerably increased and in addition to the Personal Assistant of the grade of District Inspector, whose time was entirely occupied in attending to the routine correspondence of the Head Office, the need for the services of a senior officer with good experience of the departmental technique was increasingly felt with a view to relieve the Head of the Department of much of the administrative routine work and help him in the formulation of proposals and disposal of matters of a technical nature.

The need for an Inspector of Science education was also keenly felt as, under the revised Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme and in the Middle Schools under the orders on the Education Memorandum Science is a compulsory subject for all students instead

of being an optional as heretofore, both in the High School and Middle School stages.

On a consideration of all the aspects of the question, Government in their order No. E. 6687-9—Edn. (324-23-1, dated 30th June 1924, sanctioned the appointment of the following officers in addition to the Inspector-General of Education to form the administrative and controlling organisation of the Education Department :—

1. One Inspector of Primary and Middle School Education.
2. One Inspector of Secondary Schools including District Normal Schools.
3. One Inspector of Science Education.
4. One Assistant Inspector of Education.
5. One Personal Assistant to the Inspector-General of Education.

The post of the Special Officer attached to the office of the Inspector-General of Education was at the same time abolished.

The District Inspectors are in administrative charge of schools within a revenue District and inspect all the Anglo-Vernacular and Taluk Vernacular Schools, Taluk and Village Industrial Schools and in some cases also a small number of Primary Schools. They also visit annually, for purposes of general inspection in the District, one half of such other portion as may be fixed by the Inspector-General of Education from time to time of the schools placed in the immediate charge of the Assistant Inspectors, and also inspect such of the indigenous Night Schools as have applied for annual grants under the revised Grant-in-aid Rules.

Territorial  
Jurisdiction  
of District  
Inspectors.

The three District Inspectors of Education are in charge of units arranged as follows :—

- (1) Mysore and Tumkur Districts.
- (2) Bangalore, Kolar and Chitaldrug Districts.
- (3) Shimoga, Kadar and Hassan Districts.

They are entrusted with the Inspection work of all Anglo-Hindustani Schools, Taluk Hindustani Boys' and Girls' Schools and also visit annually, for purposes of general inspection, the number of schools placed in immediate charge of the Assistant Inspectors of Education for Hindustani Schools.

Of the twenty-three Assistant Inspectors for General Schools, two are in charge of the Bangalore and Mysore City Ranges, charged with the duty of inspection of all Kannada Primary, Middle and Anglo-Vernacular Schools in their respective cities. The remaining Assistant Inspectors are in charge of Ranges each consisting of Taluks ranging from two to four and control and inspect all Vernacular Village-Elementary Schools, including those maintaining Lower Secondary classes and salary grant schools. The Assistant Inspectors of Hindustani Schools, who are in charge of either of a District or a group of Districts, control and inspect all Village-Elementary Hindustani Schools including aided schools.

Inspection of  
Girls' Schools.

The inspecting staff of Girls' Schools consists of one Inspectress, one Deputy Inspectress, three Assistant Inspectresses for the General Girls' schools and two Assistant Inspectresses for the Hindustani Girls' Schools. The Inspectress is in general charge of Girls' education in the State and exercises general control over all Girls' schools. She is in direct charge of all the Girls' High and Normal Schools in the State except the Maharani's High School, Mysore, which is in the charge of the Inspector-General of Education, Kannada Middle and Incomplete Middle Schools in Bangalore, Kolar, Chitaldrug, Shimoga and Kadur Districts, Kannada Primary Schools in localities that have Middle or Incomplete Middle Schools therein, except the Bangalore City. While exercising general control over the institutions in charge of the Deputy Inspectress and her subordinates, the



Inspectress has under her control all the Hindustani Girls' Schools in the State and other institutions pertaining to girls' education in the five Districts named above. She has in her direct charge about 60 schools and 50 offices and exercises general control over 430 schools in direct charge of four Assistant Inspectresses, apart from the institutions in charge of the Deputy Inspectress and her subordinates. The Deputy Inspectress has in her charge all Kannada Middle and Incomplete Middle Schools in the Mysore, Tumkur, and Hassan Districts, all Kannada Primary Schools in localities that have Middle and Incomplete Middle schools therein except the Mysore City and all Kannada Primary Schools in the Tumkur District. She exercises general control over all Kannada Primary schools in the Mysore and Hassan Districts, which are in charge of one Assistant Inspectress. She may also be required to inspect Hindustani Girls' Schools in localities which she visits and send up visit notes to the Inspectress. The number of institutions in her direct charge is about 110 schools and one office and she also exercises control over 153 Primary schools which is in the charge of one Assistant Inspectress. Of the Assistant Inspectresses, the Assistant Inspectress Bangalore, is in charge of Kannada Primary schools—about 127—excluding those in charge of the Inspectress, in Bangalore and Kolar Districts. The Assistant Inspectress, Shimoga, is in charge of Kannada Primary schools—about 120—excluding those in charge of the Inspectress, in Shimoga, Chitaldrug and Kadur Districts. Those two and the two Assistant Inspectresses of Hindustani Girls' Schools are directly subordinate to the Inspectress. The Assistant Inspectress, Mysore, is in charge of Kannada Primary schools—about 153—excluding those in the charge of the Deputy Inspectress in the Mysore and Hassan Districts and she is directly subordinate to the Deputy Inspectress. Of the two Assistant

Inspectresses of Hindustani Schools, one is in charge of the schools in the Districts of Bangalore, Kolar, Chitaldrug and Shimoga and the other in charge of the schools in the other four Districts.

Educational  
adviser to  
Government.

In view of the numerous problems relating to educational policy, methods and organisation outlined in the orders on the Education Memorandum that come up for solution from time to time, Government have felt the need for a technical expert who could advise them on such important matters and facilitate their decision. Government have accordingly appointed Dr. Seal, Vice-Chancellor of the Mysore University and an eminent educationist of vast experience, as Educational Adviser to Government with power to advise on all important matters connected with the general educational policy, organisation and methods, specially in the grade of Secondary Education, and also with reference to development of Scientific and Vocational Education in all grades and to suggest the methods by which the advice given might be carried out. He has also authority to test the efficiency of the working and organisation of all schools and training institutions by inspection, if necessary, of selected institutions. The appointment of the Educational Adviser has not in any way affected the position and responsibility of the Inspector-General as the administrative Head of the Department and all official correspondence with Government from that Department is as usual addressed by the Inspector-General of Education direct to Government.

#### PRIMARY EDUCATION.

Number of  
Schools and  
pupils in 1881.

At the end of 1881, there were in the State roughly 907 Primary schools and 38,296 pupils in them. Ever since, there has been a steady rise in the number of institutions and the strength of the pupils attending the

same, clearly testifying to the growing consciousness of the people of the benefits of education.

The question of expansion of Elementary education through the agency of indigenous schools was taken up in 1894-95, when a scheme was formulated for registering and aiding these schools, on condition of their teaching three easy standards of a curriculum specially prescribed for them. Schools for Panchamas, Lambānis and other specially backward classes were established in 1901-02. Government felt convinced that, in order to promote the spread of education as widely as possible, the efforts and funds of Government should be supplemented by those of private agencies and local organizations, which should be induced to bear an appreciable portion of the cost of education. The scheme of aided Elementary schools put forward by the Inspector-General of Education was considered well-suited to evoke and organise local effort in the rural areas of the State. Government therefore accorded sanction to the proposal of the Inspector-General of Education to make the village as a whole responsible for maintaining the aided schools and for the payment of a suitable salary to the teacher, the grant paid by Government being supplemented by their own contributions. The encouragement thus given by the introduction of a system of grant-in-aid gave the impetus to the starting of a large number of aided schools which stood at 2,556 at the close of the quinquennium ended 1915-16. A system of compulsion was also introduced by the passing of the Elementary Education Regulation V of 1913. The succeeding two paras give a brief account of the origin and the working of the scheme.

Expansion of  
Elementary  
Education of  
1894-95.

About the year 1900, a representative of the people of Mysore proposed to Government in the Dasara

Compulsory  
education.

Representative Assembly that primary education should be made free and compulsory in the State. Government, for various reasons, could not accept the proposal, but the suggestion was noted for consideration.

Elementary  
Education  
Regulation  
V of 1913.

Later on, during the year 1913, the Mysore Elementary Education Regulation V of 1913 for the introduction of compulsory education in selected centres of the State received the assent of His Highness the Maharaja in October 1913, and became law in 1913-14. A special officer of the status of a District Inspector was employed to work out the details of the scheme. Compulsion was restricted to the ages of seven to eleven. The Regulation enjoined on parents and guardians, the duty of sending their children and wards to school and prohibited the employment of children of compulsory age not under instruction. School Committees were appointed for each area by the Inspector-General of Education and in Municipal areas by the Municipal Council with concurrence of the Inspector-General of Education for enforcing the provisions of the Regulation. One of the members of the Committee was appointed an Attendance Officer to perform the executive functions of the Committee. The functions of the Committee under the Regulations and Rules thereunder are:—

- (1) to investigate the educational requirements of the locality and take steps to supply them;
- (2) to maintain up-to-date lists of boys of the compulsory age;
- (3) to submit returns of attendance at schools; and
- (4) to issue warnings and institute prosecutions for the violation of the terms of the Regulation.

The functions of a local body under the Rules consist in preparing the census of boys of compulsory age and forwarding them to the School Committee and revising such lists once a year. Thus while the School Committees

were statutory bodies independent of the Municipal and Local Boards, the Local Boards had a voice in the constitution of the School Committee and an important duty in preparing the census of boys of compulsory age, but neither of these bodies had any financial responsibility in the working of the scheme.

The scheme was introduced in fifteen selected centres during 1914-15. Out of 16,000 boys of the compulsory age in the fifteen centres, 10,800 were found to be already attending one school or other and arrangements were made for the admission of 1,200 more. Proposals for the opening of about 100 new schools with additional hands for the existing ones were sanctioned in March 1915.

In 1916, the Compulsory Education Scheme was brought into operation in 12 new centres making up a total of 27. Thirty new schools were started and about 3,600 boys of the compulsory age were induced to attend school. Comparatively little compulsion was used, notices of warning being served only in 82 cases, where parents had failed to send their boys to school.

The scheme was extended to 41 new centres during the year 1916-17, making a total of 68 centres at the end of June 1917. The Regulation had also been made applicable to girls between the ages of 7 and 10 in the cities of Bangalore and Mysore.

In 1917-18, the scheme was applied in respect of a population of 6,50,000 and was in active operation in 68 centres. Preliminaries connected with the taking of the necessary census, formation of Attendance Committees, etc., were completed in 170 centres. In all the compulsory areas, 12,707 boys were newly admitted to schools. One thousand nine hundred and seventy-two warnings were issued and eleven prosecutions instituted, three ending in conviction.

At present, 240 centres in all have been brought under the compulsory Education Regulation, including the two cities of Bangalore and Mysore where the Regulation has been extended to include girls also.

Increase in  
the number of  
Institutions.

The tendency towards increase in the number of schools which was noticed during the quinquennium ended with 1915-16 continued during the next three years. The number of schools, both Government and aided, increased from 4,512 in 1915-16 to 8,966 at the close of 1918-19. From 1918-19, there has been a steady fall in the number institutions, which stood at 6,782 at the close of 1921-22, with a corresponding decrease in the strength of the pupils attending the schools, as shown in the subjoined table :—

Year	Institution	Strength	Year	Institution	Strength
1916-17	6,827	2,36,456	1919-20	9,422	2,42,400
1917-18	8,761	2,57,601	1920-21	8,800	2,21,973
1918-19	9,696	2,43,172	1921-22	6,782	1,97,752

Though there has been an appreciable reduction in the total number of schools at the close of 1921-22, it has to be noted that there was a slight increase in the number of strength of the schools managed by the Department. The fall is chiefly due to the closure of a large number of aided and unaided schools as can be seen from the following tables :—

*Primary Schools according to management.*

Year	Government	Aided	Municipal	Unaided	Total
1916-17	2,352	4,237	23	296	6,827
1917-18	2,404	6,992	31	384	8,761
1918-19	2,631	6,991	29	146	9,696
1919-20	2,417	6,984	21	50	9,422
1920-21	2,444	6,287	19	50	8,800
1921-22	9,423	4,331	19	9	6,712

*Strength of Primary Schools according to management.*

Year	Government	Aided	Municipal	Unaided	Total
1916-17	123,286	105,623	1,931	6,609	236,456
1917-18	112,246	134,918	2,586	7,848	257,601
1918-19	104,087	134,005	2,218	2,892	243,173
1919-20	102,999	136,459	1,917	1,025	242,400
1920-21	206,452	112,693	2,019	810	321,974
1921-22	105,444	90,101	2,082	122	197,752

Various reasons have been assigned to this marked fall in the number and strength of the institutions. The adverse seasonal conditions and the economic depression due to the world war, which enhanced the cost of living and compelled the parents to withdraw their children from schools to attend to their immediate wants at home, the prevalence of epidemics, especially the influenza which claimed such a heavy toll of victims, the closure of schools owing to non-payment of contributions by the villagers towards the pay of teachers, the want of sufficient number of qualified teachers willing to take up service on the meagre salary offered to them, absence of interest on the part of the villagers and want of sufficient number of inspecting officers to visit the schools and guide and encourage them, are the chief reasons that contributed to the decrease in the number of institutions and the strength of the schools.

With the growing demand for education it was felt that the funds provided by the State for the purpose were quite inadequate to meet the situation and it was therefore considered desirable to devise a scheme by which the efforts and funds of Government could be supplemented by private agencies. Government undertook to pay part of the salary of the teacher and part of the cost of the equipment, provided the villagers or the local organisations consented to meet the remaining amount. This liberal attitude on the part of Government

Aided Village  
Elementary  
Schools.

resulted in the starting of a large number of institutions with the consequence that at the end of the year 1919-20 there were 6,934 aided institutions. Though the natural inclination of the villagers was for Government schools, which exempted them from any contribution whatsoever, they were obliged to be satisfied with a Grant-in-aid school lest they should be without any school. But with the abatement of the first blush of enthusiasm, the villagers in most cases failed to pay the contribution towards the teacher's salary and equipment with the result that the teacher had to be satisfied with the salary grant which he got from Government and as the grant towards equipment depended on the payment of the contribution of the other half by the villagers, and as these were under no circumstances contributed, most of the schools remained as "no-equipment-schools" without black-board, arithmetical frames, etc.

Their  
unsatis-  
factory  
condition.

The unsatisfactory condition of these schools was many a time brought to the notice of Government by the members of the Representative Assembly who repeatedly urged for their conversion into Government schools. This was also recommended for the consideration of Government by the Inspector-General of Education in his Memorandum. Another point brought to the notice of Government in this connection was that, while primary education in Government schools which are established in important centres which can afford to meet the cost of the same was virtually free, it was highly inequitable that the rural population should be made to contribute towards the maintenance of schools intended for them, making the statement that Primary education is free a virtual misrepresentation in as much as it was not based on actual facts. Moreover, most of the primary schools in rural areas being of a lower Primary type, consisting of only infant and first class and the limit of



the staff to one teacher, a system condemned by all educationists, has prevented their development and affected their efficiency.

It was originally intended to take under Government management all aided schools after a continued existence of three years, but, on account of the financial liabilities involved, the limit was subsequently raised to seven years. But even this could not be given effect to as Government were not able to allot funds for the purpose owing to financial stringency.

After a careful consideration of all the problems involved, Government laid down in their order on the Memorandum that all village aided Primary schools which serve the need of a sufficiently large population and which have no competent management should be converted into Government institutions according to a well-defined programme extending over a certain number of years, the additional expenditure thereby involved being distributed between Government and local resources. In preparing the annual programme, certain principles have also been indicated for adoption with a view to redistribute the schools so as to provide educational facilities to as large a number of people as possible. Subject to the above general principles, conversion of aided schools is made dependent on condition that the village has a population of at least 500 persons and that the school has a proper building for its accommodation or the villagers deposit a contribution of half the cost of maintenance of the same and that it has been in existence for three years with an average attendance of not less than 30 pupils, except in the *malnad* where the minimum is fixed at 20.

Government's  
Policy  
relating to  
same.

The expenditure due to the programme of educational improvement referred to above is intended to be met partly by a resumption of certain resources (*Mohatarja* and Local Fund General) given to local bodies in the

expectation of their taking up additional functions and partly from proceeds of a cess to be levied by these Bodies for purposes of education. The resumption of *Mohatarfa* and Local Fund General has not yet been found possible as the District Boards have undertaken increased liabilities on the strength of these resources and would very much be handicapped, if the resumption is insisted upon. So far, five Districts—Bangalore, Chitaldrug, Hassan, Shimoga and Tumkur—have levied a cess of half an anna in the rupee and, with the amount realised in the first two Districts, orders have been issued to convert 63 and 39 aided Primary Schools respectively into Government institutions. The question of converting the aided Primary Schools into Government schools in the other Districts with the amounts realised therein is under the consideration of Government.

Adult  
Schools.

These are aided institutions which are intended for the education of artisans and labourers, who are unable to attend the schools during the ordinary school hours. Adult education is of two kinds, either of the nature of continuation education for literates or of elementary education for illiterate adults. The encouragement given by Government by way of liberal grants led to the opening of a large number of schools, which increased by leaps and bounds from 130 in 1914-15 to 2,671 at the close of 1918-19. The grant paid by Government varies from Rs. 3 to Rs. 8 in village areas to Rs. 14 in Taluk stations where there are two different classes, one for elementary instruction in the three R's and the other for imparting instruction of slightly higher standard. Though the schools multiplied very rapidly and even the total attendance conveyed the impression that the experiment was a success, closer examination revealed defects of a serious character. The rapid increase in the number of schools was due at least as much to the anxiety of the

teachers to supplement their income as to that of adults in the State for education. The attendance was rather irregular, due to the impossibility of maintaining any discipline over adults, owing to the exigencies of harvest and other reasons, the counter-attraction of *jātras* and weekly fairs and the fluctuating interest of the students due to fatigue of manual work. The curriculum of studies was also open to objection as being too literary and not practical so as to be useful to adults in their daily avocations. No proper text-books were prescribed for these schools as also no examination to test the value of the work done in these institutions and no proper inspecting staff was provided for to supervise the working of these schools.

On account of these defects, several of the Adult and Night Schools were in a languishing condition and it was considered that any further expenditure on the same was not likely to be beneficial. It was therefore ordered that 50 per cent of the schools should be closed with the result that at the end of 1921-22 there were only 1,259 schools with a strength of 20,646 as against 2,671 schools with a strength of 43,205 at the close of 1918-19. This decrease in the number of institutions is not a matter for alarm since the schools closed were such as had deteriorated to such an extent that any further continuance of the same was neither in the best interests of the taught nor of public revenue.

One direction in which improvement was effected was in regard to the prospects of school-masters. "It has been found," wrote the Inspector-General of Education, "that the progress of Primary education is much impeded for want of sufficient encouragement to the masters doing excellent work or meritorious work." A new school with a higher pay varying from Rs. ten to Rs. twenty-five was sanctioned and a certain number of appointments made

Encouragement to Teachers.

in each grade. In November 1914, out of 2,379 teachers in village schools, no less than 2,088 were getting a pay of Rs. ten. After the reorganisation, out of a total number of 2,938 teachers, 1,251 received Rs. ten a month, 1,000 Rs. twelve a month, 570 Rs. fifteen, 71 Rs. twenty and 38 Rs. twenty-five a month. The additional expenditure as estimated in 1913 was Rs. 46,332 a year. The teachers in Government Elementary schools are passed candidates, while some in the aided institutions are unpassed men, the percentage of such persons being about ten. The teacher in a Government Elementary school of a single-teacher type gets only Rs. ten while the senior master of an institution which has more than one teacher gets Rs. twelve. Owing to the increased cost of living due to unfavourable seasonal conditions and the after effects of the war, Government sanctioned a consolidated allowance of Rs. five, which was subsequently merged in the pay, to all subordinate establishments in service and this was also extended to the tutorial staff. Including this allowance, the village elementary school-master gets Rs. fifteen or seventeen as the case may be. As the remuneration now given is deplorably low, the orders on the Memorandum contemplate a minimum pay of Rs. twelve, excluding the allowance, rising gradually with increase in service to a grade of Rs. 20—1—25. Effect has not been given to this on account of financial considerations.

Most of the schools opened in recent years were of the one-teacher type and continued to remain so for years together even though there was a large accession of strength. The result was that a single teacher had to impart instruction at the same time to various batches of students in different degrees of progress and in various subjects. Under such circumstances, the teaching could not but be imperfect and inefficient and it was therefore felt necessary to provide for the automatic expansion of the staff as the strength increased. A scale has been laid down in the

orders on the Memorandum according to which any school with less than 30 pupils will get one teacher and one more for every additional 30. This arrangement is intended to remove the inconveniences due to having a single teacher, besides making the teaching more efficient.

Attempts were made to improve the staff of Village Schools by giving the more efficient of them training in Normal Schools. The system in existence at the beginning of 1911-15 was defective, in that the less efficient of the masters were sent up for training in the belief that a course of training would improve them. "Experience however showed that such teachers were incapable of profiting by the training they received in the Normal School. Any expenditure that was incurred on training such masters might be said to be literally wasted. This was not all. The stipends provided were so low, that substitutes to whom the stipend of Rs. five or six a month really went as pay were men of poor qualifications, who exchanged places indifferently, either as acting village school-masters or police constables. As batches of teachers were selected for training year after year, the substitutes continued to hold acting appointments until they could claim and secure permanent places. A perennial supply was thus kept up of indifferent teachers. To check the growth of this evil, it was proposed to raise the value of the stipends all round so as to make them sufficiently attractive to men of higher calibre and attainments to come forward when they were not already employed in the department, and to make it possible to employ qualified substitutes when teachers already in service were selected for training. In future, young, intelligent and energetic teachers would be selected for training whether they hold permanent or acting appointments and only promising young men would be selected as substitutes on the understanding that they would not

Training of  
Teachers.

receive permanent appointments unless they underwent a course of training in the Normal School as soon as permanent incumbents returned to their work. By this arrangement, it was hoped that the efficiency of teachers in the lower grades would be vastly improved and that a number of young men would come forward on their own account also to undergo Normal training in the hope of securing permanent appointments." The value of the stipends was increased and only the better class of teachers were then selected for training. It is under contemplation to still further enhance the amount of the stipends to enable the department to secure the services of really capable men for this important work.

Of the 5,348 teachers who have passed the English and Vernacular Lower Secondary Examinations, there are only about 2,000 who are trained. Most of the teachers of the aided institutions though qualified are not trained men, with the result that the teaching is not as efficient as it could be. The methods of teaching in many cases are antiquated owing to the ignorance on the part of the teacher of any method at all. This defect could only be cured by getting all the teachers trained and earnest efforts were and are being made in this direction by providing for the annual training of 400 masters from Government schools and 90 from aided schools, in the Training College and District Normal Schools of the State. Though it would be possible at this rate to man the Government schools with a trained staff within a reasonable distance of time, it would not be possible, for a very long time to come, to staff the aided institutions with trained men.

Provision for  
higher  
qualifica-  
tions.

The teacher in the village school was generally one who had passed the Kannada Lower Secondary Examination. Those who passed the Upper Secondary Examination would be a better class of teachers, but there were

not enough schools at the beginning of the quinquennium (1911-16) where this course could be taken. There were Upper Secondary classes in the Normal School, Mysore, for men, and, for women, there were classes in the Maharani's College. Classes were opened during 1911-16 for giving instruction up to the Upper Secondary Standard in Davangere, Dodballapur, Tirthahalli and Nanjangud; and in the Girls' Schools in Bangalore and Tumkur. The experiment was continued by opening classes for men in Tumkur, Shimoga and Hole-Narsipur. But by experience, it was found that the classes for girls at Bangalore and Tumkur and for men at some of the other places were not working satisfactorily. Hence in 1920, some of these classes were closed and, at present, classes for men exist in Shimoga, Tumkur, Mysore, Hole-Narsipur and Nanjangud and in Mysore only for girls.

A feature of the policy in this period (1911-16) with regard to primary education was the larger use of aided schools for the spread of elementary education among the people. The establishment of 1,000 new aided schools was sanctioned in May 1914, and 100 more, eight months after. To secure efficiency, Government ordered that the teachers employed should as far as possible be persons who had passed the Lower Secondary Examination and to ensure a good return on the money spent, it was ordered that each school should be sure of at least 15 children on the rolls and an average daily attendance of not less than 10.

Grant-in-Aid  
Schools.

The work of these schools was supervised by the School Committees in the villages, the Taluk Progress Committees and the District Committees of the Economic Conference. To provide for adequate supervision of the new grant-in-aid schools, the inspectorate was strengthened in 1915. Owing to the large expansion of

Their  
Supervision.

the Departmental activities and the increase in the number of institutions, the existing Inspectorial Staff was found to be quite inadequate to cope with the work. To remedy this state of affairs, the Inspectorial Staff was strengthened by the addition of 20 Educational Supervisors and by the withdrawing of the eight Assistant Inspectors who had been given as Office Assistants to the District Inspectors of Education. Though some improvement was effected by this increase in strength and readjustment, still it did not meet the situation adequately; and with the abolition of the posts of Educational Supervisors, the situation became worse. The numerical insufficiency of the existing staff and the need for urgent improvement in this direction have been recognised by Government who have recently sanctioned the increase of the strength of the Assistant Inspectors from 28 to 45 with a direction to redistribute the charges so as to equalise the work. The distribution recently sanctioned by Government gives about 150 schools to each Assistant Inspector.

Visual  
Instruction  
Scheme.

With the object of educating the masses and also imparting instruction to the pupils in Primary Schools in rural parts by lectures illustrated by pictures including moving ones, a cinema operator and a visual instruction lecturer were appointed. The lecturer toured in the Districts by turns and delivered lectures mainly in cultural and sanitary subjects, illustrated by lantern and cinema pictures. He was also deputed to attend *jātras* and conferences at the request of the local officers to deliver lectures and give shows. But the two appointments were abolished in July 1922 and the work done by these officers stopped from that date.

Examina-  
tions.

Promotion from class to class is given on the result of an examination conducted annually about the same time



of the year by the Inspecting Officer in the case of Village Elementary Schools and by the Head-master in the case of Primary classes attached to the Anglo-Vernacular Schools.

The Government schools follow the Departmental curriculum of study, so do the aided schools in all important respects. The subjects for study are the three R's and in the higher classes some history and geography, while provision is also made in the syllabus for taking Agriculture, Mensuration, Hygiene and Sanskrit as optionals in the highest class. In the Memorandum on Education submitted to Government, the Inspector-General of Education proposed that the primary course might be one of three years with three standards including the infant class, with Vernacular as the medium of instruction. With a view to make the course sufficiently long and continuous so as to give, by the time it is completed, the rudiments of education entitling the pupils to be considered as literate, Government have directed that all Primary Schools should be so remodelled as to provide for a four years' course. Accordingly, the curricula of studies have been revised so as to cover a period of four years with special provision for giving moral instruction and teaching object lessons and kindergarten gifts and occupations on a more extended and improved basis. A course of nature study has also been provided for, as also drawing, with a view to develop the powers of observation of the children. The anomaly of imparting instruction in English in the Second and Third Standards of some of the Primary Schools has been done away with as the medium prescribed is Vernacular for the full primary course.

Curricula of studies.

An important problem connected with the administration of Primary Education is whether the Department

Control of Primary Education.

should retain control of the same or whether in the interests of efficiency and effective control, it should be transferred to local bodies. So far back as 1883, Sir K. Seshadri Iyer while speaking about the responsibilities of Local Bodies observed as follows:—

“One of the charges of Taluk Boards will be elementary education. I cannot lay too much stress on this most important subject. The Hobli Schools have certainly proved not an adequate medium for the wide spread of elementary education. They are wanting in that popular element in their constitution and direction which alone can give them success and I have therefore provided that the Local Bodies assisted by Village Boards, where practical, will take entire charge of these schools, manage them with definite funds that will be placed at their disposal appointing and dismissing the masters at their own discretion, the Government interference being limited purely to the prescribing of the proper standard of education in them and to providing the Boards with a good and competent staff of Inspectors. Thus organised, the Hobli Schools will have all the elements necessary for their success and great usefulness.”

Though a part of the local cess was earmarked for education, the question of transfer of control over primary education to local bodies was not given effect to for one reason or other. The defects of the present system of departmental control over rural schools in so far as the local people have no control over the teachers to keep them up to the mark and maintain the efficiency of the schools have been recognised but nothing tangible has been done in the direction of removing these defects except that of starting Village Committees in a large number of centres. The question whether the time has come when the local bodies can safely be entrusted with control of these schools was carefully considered by Government who have come to the decision that the transfer might be postponed till the remodelling of the schools as contemplated in the orders on the Education Memorandum.

While dealing with the question of compulsory education, the Government have observed that all Municipalities should follow the example of the Mysore City Municipal Council in taking over the control of Primary Education by meeting a substantial portion of the expenditure and that control would be transferred to such municipalities as undertake to meet one-third of the cost of such education in their areas with the help of a cess of two annas in the rupee in cities and one anna in towns on all items of Municipal Revenue as well as from other sources, if necessary. In pursuance of the above, the Bangalore City Municipal authorities have recently consented to take charge of Elementary Education within their jurisdiction subject to the payment of one-third of the cost which may not exceed the limit of one lakh of rupees for a period of five years and to payment separately of one-third of the actual cost incurred for the construction of new school-houses. The school, though literally under the control of the Municipal Council, who will provide for their regular inspection, would still be amenable to Departmental discipline and Departmental rules. The transfer of control in the remaining areas has been deferred for some time to come.

The steady increase in the number of Primary Schools and in the level of prices of equipment owing to the conditions brought about by the world war, and the increase in the emoluments granted to the school-masters in consideration of the high cost of living, have inflated the amount of expenditure on Primary Education which has steadily risen from Rs. 6,37,814 at the close of 1915-16 to Rs. 13,37,865 at the end of 1921-22 working out to a percentage of 30.11 as compared to the total expenditure on education, as against 22.9 at the end of 1915-16. Though the number of schools during the period more or less remained the same, the expenditure

Expenditure  
on Primary  
Education.

shows a large increase, mainly due to the higher cost of equipment, increased salaries paid to the staff, etc.

Accommoda-  
tion.

One of the most important among the facilities required for a uniform expansion and thorough consolidation of education in all grades in the State is the provision of suitable buildings for housing the different institutions. Such provision has been tacitly accepted in all educationally advanced countries, as having the first claim on the consideration of Government. The remarkable increase in the number of schools during the last decade outran the construction of good buildings to accommodate them with the result that a large number of schools have been opened with practically no habitation for them except the *pials* of houses, village *chāvadis*, deserted houses or decaying temples. The people generously came forward in many instances with contributions for school buildings with the expectation that Government would supplement the same by an equivalent grant and provide them with school buildings at an early date. Information available goes to show that contributions have been received from 238 villages in the State, the total amount being a little over Rs. 60,000. The large amount of contribution is a clear testimony of the earnest and enthusiastic efforts made by the officers of the Economic Conference, the Revenue and Education Departments who persuaded the people to co-operate with Government in the task of providing suitable accommodation for their schools. But the expectation that Government would contribute the other half could not be fulfilled as, owing to the financial stringency, the provision for the purpose could not be increased to the necessary extent. The delay and inaction of Government in giving buildings to villages which had paid the contribution led to numerous complaints from the villagers concerned, but financial considerations stood in the way of taking prompt action.

The Board of Education, however, actively took up the consideration of this question and submitted its recommendations to Government. After a careful consideration of the recommendations of the Board, the Government have ordered that in future building contributions should be received from villages only in the case of aided schools selected for conversion into Government schools and of Government Village Elementary Schools towards which building contributions might be made. The procedure in the matter of payment of local contributions suggested by the Board, according to which the Department should notify at the commencement of each year the names of the villages where aided schools would be converted into Government institutions in the succeeding year and give them one year's time to deposit the contribution which should be subject to a certain minimum depending upon the strength of the school, that such contributions should be received in the treasury under the head "Education Deposits" and remain under that head till the Government grant is sanctioned and that the entire cost should then be transferred to the credit of the officer executing the work in question, has also been approved. As regards contributions which have already been received from the larger villages, it has been ordered that contributions of not less than Rs. 300 might be deposited in a savings bank in the name of the Inspector-General of Education to be utilised when the Department can find funds for the construction of the buildings. As regards the smaller villages where the contributions are small, the villagers should be persuaded to contribute an additional sum so as to bring the amount to a minimum of Rs. 300 and that, in case they are not prepared to increase the contributions within a prescribed time, the amount that has already been contributed should be utilised towards the purchase of the necessary school appliances if there is a school in the village and, if

there is no school and one is not likely to be opened in the future, it should be utilised for some other communal object; and in the case of villages that have not even an aided school, such villages should be provided with a school and the contribution utilised as suggested above, but, if within the end of the year it is found impossible to provide a school to such a village, the amount contributed should be refunded to the villagers to be utilised for some communal purpose. The Inspector-General of Education has been requested to submit a programme of village school buildings limiting the expenditure to a sum of two lakhs per annum and giving preference to works in respect of which contributions have been paid.

Indigenous  
Schools.

Unlike Secondary education which in the State is conducted by schools either owned or supervised by Government, Primary education is conducted not only by Government and Aided schools but by what are called indigenous schools which do not follow the Departmental curriculum and do not come under the supervision of the Department. Some of these follow the Departmental curriculum with a hope of their being converted into either Aided or Government schools. Their number has been gradually decreasing as many of them have been converted into Aided Schools under the monthly grant system.

The indigenous school is held anywhere, where some space is available, on a verandah, or in a *mantap*, or in the village temple. The case of Government village schools was for long no better, for, in the beginning, villagers were required to provide a school building as an earnest of their desire to have a school and the school-house they provided was not always suitable. The large grants made in recent years and the money spent by charitably disposed persons for school-houses have brought about a change for the better, and it is reported

that a better type of building is to be generally found in many of the more important villages, with good light and air, and in fairly sanitary surroundings.

The teacher in an indigenous school is generally an unpassed man following the old methods of instruction and teaching the old subjects, "Yakshgānam" and "Amarkōsa" among them. In aided schools, there are in some cases passed men, but the majority of them are unpassed. The teacher in the Government school is generally a passed man and may also have received some training. A village school master may draw, according to his qualifications and length of service, any pay between Rs. 10 and Rs. 25 a month. If the village is an important one and has a Branch Post Office, the teacher or one of the teachers might do the work of Post-Master in addition to his school work and get a fee for that work. Perquisites of any sort to Government school-masters are not recognized by Government. The aided school-master may, and the master in an indigenous school generally does, receive from the villagers payment other than his fee and in other forms than money. Service for a certain period entitles the master in a Government school to a pension in old age.

The school-master holds a position of influence in the village: he is sometimes the priest and astrologer in the place and, in some cases, the medical man. His relation to the boys is generally one of affection, and theirs to him, one of respect. The boy in a village school might be of any age between four and fifteen or even older. He may be learning anything from tracing the letters of the alphabet to his arithmetic and history for the Lower Secondary Examination. Of whatever years and in whatever class, he is "loyal and god-fearing, obedient and respectful."

Village schools generally assemble twice the day, once for three hours in the morning from seven to ten

or (7-30 to 10-30 in the winter), and for the second time from three to five in the evening. Some schools assemble only once instead at 11 o'clock and go on till five in the evening, with an hour's interval in the middle. This is only in a few cases and it is generally considered that the former arrangement is more suited to village conditions.

Many of the villages have only one master and some have more than one, but in few village schools, there is a master for each class. It is therefore necessary for each master to look after more than one class, if not all the classes. This is generally managed by each master taking one or two of the higher classes and one or two of the lower. The fact of one master having more classes than one makes it necessary to do such different subjects with the different classes as can be conveniently done at the same time, to set sums to one class and do history with another for example. Subject to these restrictions, the more difficult work, arithmetic for instance, is done in the morning and the more easy work such as writing to dictation in the afternoon.

The Government schools follow the departmental curriculum of study; so do the aided schools in all important respects. The subjects of study are the "three R's" and in the higher classes, some history and geography. The departmental primers and readers in languages are used as school books and books recommended by the department in other subjects. Altogether, the subjects are all "literary." Practical instruction has been recently introduced in some of the schools, but, properly speaking, the classes in which such instruction is introduced are of the Lower Secondary grade. Some work of a practical sort is done where the teacher is a trained man and takes the necessary trouble to get some work done by the boys, but ordinarily, nothing is done. A wider adoption of kinder-



garten methods of teaching might tend to give a better course of work for children in village schools.

The methods of teaching are in many cases antiquated. This is due in a large number of cases to ignorance on the part of the master of any method at all. The trained master might be expected to show better results, but it has been found that in many cases he either forgets to apply what he has learnt, or does not apply it for some other reason. The teachers are said to be lacking in "originality." They complained of want of apparatus; they taught arithmetic theoretically and would not illustrate their theory with such easily procurable articles as tamarind seeds, pebbles of stone or sticks.

Promotion from class to class is given on the result of an examination conducted annually about the same time of the year by the Inspecting Officer. No general remark would apply to the attainments of all the boys of a village school as their knowledge is theoretical and almost entirely bookish. The teachers themselves had not learnt that there could be education outside the school-room. Even of this theoretical knowledge, the quantity possessed by the different classes necessarily varies. Many of the boys, mostly of agricultural and trading classes, are satisfied if they could read and write and do some addition and subtraction and leave off much earlier than is good from the point of view of a sound education. Others leave off earlier still, and forget very soon what little they learnt at school, so that a good number of those that joined schools become as illiterate a few years after leaving school as before they joined it. The rest proceed further up, and might, if the school is a fairly "advanced" school, have passed the Lower Secondary Examination in Kannada. Of the majority of the boys, it might be said that they continue literate, but that is all that could be said. They could read and they could write and on occasion use their arithmetic, but

their history and their geography and their hygiene are all forgotten in their after-school lives.

#### SECONDARY EDUCATION.

The term Secondary Education means teaching given in all classes above the Primary Grade. It terminates with the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Examination and as such it includes all schools above the Primary Grade.

**Institutions.** Secondary Education in the State is imparted in six classes of institutions:—

- (1) Vernacular Middle Schools,
- (2) Anglo-Vernacular Schools,
- (3) Rural Anglo-Vernacular Schools,
- (4) Schools for Europeans and Anglo-Indians,
- (5) English High Schools, and
- (6) Kannada High Schools.

The more advanced Middle schools teach up to the Vernacular Lower Secondary Examination, though so many of them do not prepare students for the examination, but maintain only one or two classes that are properly of the Lower Secondary grade of instruction. Among these schools are included the purely Hindustani and Telugu Middle Schools. The Anglo-Vernacular schools teach up to the English Lower Secondary Examination and in most cases contain classes from the infant class upwards to the Lower Secondary Class. The rural Anglo-Vernacular schools are practically Vernacular Middle Schools with one or two English classes attached to them and are a peculiar feature of the Middle School grade of instruction in the State. The schools for Europeans and Anglo-Indians are distinguished from the other Anglo-Vernacular schools in so far as instruction is imparted in them completely in the English language. The Kannada High Schools provide

for higher instruction for students who have passed the Kannada Lower Secondary Examination. Upper Secondary education in the Vernacular is a peculiar feature of the system of education in the State.

A large part of the Secondary Education in the State as of other education is carried on at the cost of Government. A certain part is managed by Mission and other private bodies. Organisation.

The Middle Schools teach up to the Lower Secondary examination either in the Vernacular or English. The Anglo-Vernacular Schools maintain classes even of the Primary type and in the remodelling of these schools contemplated in the orders on the Memorandum it has been stipulated that the primary section in all Anglo-Vernacular Schools should be constituted into separate primary schools and the Vernacular Schools confined only to the Middle School classes. The purely Vernacular Middle Schools which prepare candidates for the Vernacular Lower Secondary Examination have outlived their days. Whatever may have been the justification for their existence in the past, the need for their continuance is no longer felt. With the general awakening of the masses and their realisations of the benefits of English education which is a requisite for all preferment in Government Service and other occupations of life, the appetite for a purely vernacular education, which commands a very poor value in the market, has diminished. The demand for English Education even in the rural areas has been ever on the increase as is evidenced by the opening of a large number of Anglo-Vernacular schools and representations are being repeated every year in the popular assembly for the provision of English education on an adequate scale in those parts. To meet the situation, some experiments Middle Schools.

have been tried which though useful as temporary makeshifts are not of much value as permanent solutions of the problem. A large number of rural Anglo-Vernacular Schools was started for teaching English in one or two classes and in some cases Vernacular Kannada Schools when existing side by side with English Schools were amalgamated with the latter. As a temporary expedient, special English classes were opened in respect of twenty institutions, ten in each circle, providing for a course of two years in English so as to fit the students for the English Lower Secondary Examination. This arrangement has resulted in considerable want of uniformity. A more satisfactory solution of the problem was therefore to do away with dualism in the type of schools and introduce a bilingual course in the Middle Schools which would afford equal opportunities to persons both in rural as well as in urban areas to obtain benefits which English education would lay open to them. Government therefore decided to establish Middle Schools of a uniform type and do away with the distinction between Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular Middle Schools. They have sanctioned the conversion of 250 Vernacular Middle or rural Anglo-Vernacular Schools to fully developed Middle Schools of the bilingual type at the rate of 50 every year, but, as the resources necessary to meet the expenditure due to such conversion are not easily available, no immediate effect could be given to this important reform of educational improvement. The total number of Middle Schools at the end of June 1922 was 388 with a total attendance of 60,891 pupils. Of these 388 schools, 153 were Anglo-Kannada Schools, 134 rural Anglo-Vernacular Schools, nine Anglo-Hindustani Schools, twelve Anglo-Tamil Schools, one European School, 32 Kannada Middle Schools, one Telugu Middle School and 46 Hindustani Schools.

The education imparted in the primary stage, though extending over three years, was considered to be too rudimentary and it was therefore urged that instruction in the Middle School grade should be considered as an essential part of the minimum education necessary for the bulk of the population and that it had as paramount a claim as Primary education on the resources of the State. Consistently with this principle, the Dewan Sir Kantaraj Urs in his opening address to the Representative Assembly during the Dasara Session of October 1919 announced that it was His Highness' desire that all fees in the Middle Schools should be abolished, all education below the High School grade being imparted absolutely free. Accordingly, fees were abolished in all Government schools which increased the strain on the existing Middle Schools in so far as the concession increased the demand for admission to these schools. But this 'boon' operated prejudicially on the aided institutions the boys of which were tempted to migrate to Government institutions wherein no fees were levied. To remove this disadvantage, Government were pleased to lay down that aided agencies who abolished fees in their institutions would be reimbursed by Government for the loss sustained by them. The institutions concerned have not been slow to take advantage of the opportunity to abolish the fees and a special provision has been made in the budget to meet such charges of Grant-in-aid.

Abolition of  
fees up to  
Middle  
School.

The pressing need of a large number of Middle Schools is also a better qualified staff. Attempts have from time to time been made to improve their prospects in certain directions. The scale of pay of the Anglo-Vernacular and Anglo-Hindustani school teachers has been raised with a view to attach graduates to such schools. To enable the Inspector-General of Education to increase the staff in proportion to the increase in strength,

Government have permitted him to appoint in anticipation of sanction additional teachers in all Anglo-Vernacular schools on a pay not exceeding Rs. 30 in District Head-quarter schools and Rs. 25 in other schools. The orders of Government on the Memorandum stipulate that no candidate who has not passed the S.S.L.C. Examination and has not been trained should be entertained as a teacher in the Middle Schools, nor any one appointed as a Head-master unless he has passed the Entrance or the Intermediate examination, the Head-masters in cases of important Middle Schools being graduates. The scale of pay has also been fixed, the lowest being 20—1—25 rising gradually to 75—10—125, the pay of the Head-master of the Middle School with a strength of 400 pupils or more and trained graduates who are Head-masters. The scheme has not, however, been given effect to pending provision of funds by Government.

**Facilities for training.**

Under the present arrangements, provision is made for the training of 62 teachers in the Upper Secondary course of the Training College and the District Normal Schools of Tumkur and Shimoga. In addition, 75 stipends of Rs. 12 each have also been sanctioned to induce private candidates to undergo the training course. The training of 35 teachers in Elementary English training is also provided for so as to have trained men for teaching subjects in the English language. To induce aided institutions to have a trained staff, the Grant-in-aid Code has been revised so as to provide for the full salary grant being paid in cases of trained and qualified teachers, the rates for untrained teachers being 75 per cent of the rates for trained ones.

**Duration of the Course and Curricula of Studies.**

According to the existing scheme, the Middle school grade of education comprises the 4th and 5th Vernacular classes and the 2nd to 5th Anglo-Vernacular classes.

As under the orders of the Memorandum purely Vernacular Middle School classes are to be abolished and Anglo-Vernacular Schools of a uniform type to take their place, the curricula of the Middle schools have been directed to be revised so as to provide for a 4 years' course in four Anglo-Vernacular classes. At present, Primary sections are attached to some of the Middle Schools under the supervision of the same Head-master. This arrangement has not been considered to be satisfactory and orders have been issued that Primary Section in all Anglo-Vernacular Schools should be constituted into separate Primary Schools.

The curricula of studies for Middle Schools have been accordingly revised providing for a course of four years. The subjects of study are Moral Instruction, two languages, English and Vernacular, Elementary Mathematics with simple lessons in Practical Geometry, Indian History and Geography, Nature Study and Elementary Science, Drawing, Manual Occupations such as card-board work or paper sloyd, modelling in clay, paper or pulp, Hygiene and Agriculture (theoretical and practical). Domestic Economy and Needle work have been made compulsory for girls in lieu of Elementary Science which is compulsory for boys only, but, with a view not to place girls desirous of proceeding to the high school stage at a disadvantage, Elementary Science is included as an optional to be taken only by lady candidates. Provision is also made for games and drill with a stipulation that every student should be encouraged to take part in some organised game for at least an hour every evening.

As a rule, Arithmetic, English Language, Indian History and Geography are taught in English in the two highest Anglo-Vernacular classes, the medium of instruction in other subjects being Vernacular. Whatever may be the justification for the use of English as

Medium of  
Instruction.

the medium in the higher stages of instruction, it is believed by all that it has a very baneful effect in the lower stages of education. Valuable time at a most impressionable period of life which ought to be devoted to an understanding of things in general is wasted away in understanding a foreign language. The consequence is that the thinking power of the young student is weakened and his mental development retarded. With a view to avoid this evil and in conformity with the recognised principle in this respect, the orders on the Education Memorandum contemplate the introduction of vernacular as the medium of instruction throughout the Middle School course, English being taught only as a compulsory second language.

Lower  
Secondary  
Scheme.

The Middle School course terminates with an examination designated as Lower Secondary Examination either in English or in Vernacular. The English Lower Secondary course consists of two languages—, English and Vernacular—or classical languages—Arithmetic, History and Geography and one subject as option out of several subjects like Hygiene, Agriculture, Music and Needle Work, the last being for the benefit of girls. The Vernacular course is the same without English but with one more optional subject. The orders on the Memorandum contemplate the conversion of all Middle Schools into a uniform type of Anglo-Vernacular schools and so the rules for the Lower Secondary Examination have been revised making English a compulsory language for the Lower Secondary Examination. The revised rules will come into effect from 1925, till which date the old rules will be in force. As purely Vernacular schools cannot be closed immediately, provision is also made for the holding of Vernacular Lower Secondary Examination till further orders. To prevent overcrowding and to relieve the students of the hardships of travelling to



distant places, the number of centres for the examination was increased from 18 at the end of 1915-16 to 37 at the close of 1921-22.

The remodelling of the Middle School grade of education which is contemplated in the orders on the Education Memorandum has been given effect to from the beginning of the year 1923-24. All the existing schools have been classified into Middle Schools teaching for the English Lower Secondary Examination and incomplete Middle Schools training pupils for the Vernacular Lower Secondary Examination with English as second language. The Anglo-Vernacular and Anglo-Hindustani schools have been separated into Middle and Primary Schools and the Vernacular Middle and rural Anglo-Vernacular Schools have been reduced to Primary Schools except in the case of such as have a strength of over 15 pupils in the Vernacular III and IV classes, such schools being split up into Incomplete Middle and Primary Schools. In the interest of the higher education of women, girls' Vernacular Middle Schools which have a strength of not less than 10 in both the highest Kannada Middle School classes taken together have been converted as a special case into incomplete Middle Schools. Hindustani Girls' Schools and a few Kannada Girls' Incomplete Middle Schools have been permitted to be continued as Primary Schools with permission to train candidates for the Vernacular Lower Secondary Examination, till they are gradually converted into Incomplete Middle Schools as the necessary staff of qualified women teachers is secured. In accordance with the above remodelling, Incomplete Middle Schools will prepare candidates for the Vernacular Lower Secondary Examination with English as second language. The Incomplete Middle School is a stage in the conversion of the Vernacular Middle School course which has been adopted till funds can be found for

Remodelling  
of Middle  
School  
Education.

developing these schools to the fully developed Anglo-Vernacular Schools of the uniform type.

High  
Schools.

The total number of High Schools for boys at the close of 1921-22 was 18 of which 11 were Government, 6 Aided and 1 Un-aided with a strength of 7,690 pupils.

Kannada  
High  
Schools.

At the close of the year 1915-16, there were 6 Kannada High Schools with a strength of 168. With the object of combining general education and normal training in one and the same institution, the District Normal Schools at Bangalore, Tumkur and Shimoga were raised to the status of Kannada High Schools by the opening of Upper Secondary classes. Though these schools were created to popularise modern knowledge through the vernacular and to provide higher courses of instruction for the Lower Secondary Kannada students, still owing to the low value fetched by these graduates in the market, these schools never showed signs of tolerably vigorous life. These schools were therefore gradually abolished, the students attending the same being distributed between the Training College, Mysore, and the District Normal School, Tumkur. Though these schools had not much utilitarian value, still they served as recruiting grounds for teachers for the large number of Elementary and Middle Schools.

Staff.

The staff of the High School consists of a Head-master, Science Assistant masters according to the needs of each school and a number of language masters and *munshis*.

Facilities for  
training and  
research  
work.

Provision has been made for the training of six graduates every year. As this is considered inadequate and as the number of untrained graduates in the Department is still very large, it is under consideration to increase the number to 12. The Board of Education

has suggested a scheme according to which a limited number of teachers who have put in service of not less than 5 years are proposed to be sent for post-graduate training at the University College or the Institute of Science for a period not ordinarily exceeding one year during which the selected candidates are given full pay and travelling allowance and the period treated as deputation counting for promotion and pension. The rules also provide for the aiding of a limited number of under-graduate teachers to improve their general educational qualification by undertaking studies for University degrees. The scheme is still under the consideration of Government.

As regards the medium of instruction in the High School course, Government have observed that they are not at present prepared to adopt Kannada as the medium of instruction and that English has to continue to be the medium of instruction in the University as it is an essential requisite in all the higher departments of Government service.

Medium of  
Instruction.

The Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme regulates the studies of students in the High School classes, viz., IV, V and VI forms. Its purpose is to arrange that a record of progress of the pupil throughout the High School course is maintained, as also an estimate of his performance at the final public examination held at the end of the VI form course. The certificate is awarded by a Board consisting of the Inspector-General of Education, *Ex-officio* President, six officers of the Education Department and six others with a Secretary. The members are appointed by Government for a period of 3 years and are eligible for re-appointment. The subjects of study are arranged in 3 groups. The first group which is compulsory consists of

The  
Secondary  
School  
Leaving  
Certificate:  
Details of the  
Scheme and  
Course of  
Study.

English, a second language, Elementary Mathematics including Commercial Arithmetic, Elementary course in Science, Elementary survey of History of India and of the Geography of the World with special reference to the British Empire, Sloyd or Drawing and Athletics and Games. Females take up the first six subjects and any two out of Music, Needle Work and Dress-making, Lace Work and Domestic Economy. The other two groups consist of optional subjects, the first group being for those intended to prepare for University course consisting of further courses in History, Mathematics and Science or classical languages, the second group comprising subjects fitting the students for a business life or public service. The results of school work done from the IV form onwards are entered against each subject taught in the school in the form of the number of marks gained out of a maximum of 100 for each subject except in the case of athletics and games and sloyd or drawing where a brief remark is entered together with the percentage of attendance put in at the drill class, but the school work of the year in which the pupil is not promoted to a higher form is not taken into consideration and the word "cancelled" is entered across the record in the certificate book and the remark attested by the Head-master. Towards the end of the course in the VI form, a written public examination is conducted by the Board which includes English, second language, Elementary Mathematics, Elementary Science and at least two of the optional subjects, but in the other subjects of the compulsory group the candidate is not examined. The marks obtained at such examination are entered against each subject in the space provided for the purpose in the certificate and the eligibility of a student either for a University course or for entering public service is determined after these marks are moderated in the light of the marks obtained by him in the class. Such moderation

of the marks is effected by the Board as follows:— The individual mark gained by him for the last year at school in each subject is multiplied by the average mark for the school at the public examination and the result divided by the average mark of his class for the last year at school. The figure thus obtained is added to the individual mark gained by him in the public examination and the total is then divided by two to obtain the final moderated mark. These moderated marks are also entered in the certificate. After consideration of these marks, the Board declares whether a student is eligible for a University course or whether he is eligible for public service.

Some slight changes have subsequently been introduced in the groupings and combinations of optional subjects with a view to afford special facilities for the encouragement of commercial and industrial education along with instruction in general subjects. Elementary Science was included as an examination subject with a view to give an opportunity to candidates to acquire a knowledge of the elementary scientific principles bearing on Physics, Chemistry, Physiology, etc. The system of passing the examination by compartments was brought into effect which has not only lessened the strain on schools and students but also reduced the severity of the examination. Private candidates have been allowed to sit for the examination, provided they appeared for the examination from any of the public institutions at least once. This salutary change has not only lightened the strain on the students, but tended to relieve the congestion due to overcrowding in many of the High Schools. But the private student can appear in his private capacity only twice and if he fails in both the chances, he is obliged to re-enter a recognised institution if he desires to appear for the examination further.

Recent  
changes  
introduced.

Vernacular  
Upper  
Secondary.

The Upper Secondary classes were intended to provide for higher course of instruction in the Vernacular for those who have passed the Lower Secondary Examination in the same language. The course is meant to provide a class of teachers strong in the vernacular who can teach all subjects in the vernacular in the Middle and Primary Schools. Some of them also pursue advanced study in the vernacular in the Pandits' and Maulvis' Classes. Owing to their doubtful utility, orders have been issued to close these classes except in a few Normal Institutions.

Hostels.

The original Grant-in-aid Code provided for payment of salaries to wardens or tutors of hostels and for the purchase, erection, or extension or rent of hostels. But no limit was stipulated as regards the amount of the grant, for each case was treated on its own merits, due regard being had for the funds available and to the general conditions of Grant-in-aid so far as they were applicable. In order to introduce definiteness and with a view to place the working of the Government hostels on a satisfactory basis and to encourage private agencies to come forward to start hostels, Government laid down that, in the case of the Government hostels, establishment and boarding charges including rent should be divided among the boarders, but where a Government building was provided, a room rent should be charged to secure a fair outturn on the total capital outlay and that equipment charges should be borne entirely by Government. As regards private hostels, the grant to meet the cost of providing building for the hostel was raised from one-third to one-half, subject to the condition that the plan of the building should be approved by the Department and that the hostel should be under departmental supervision. A grant of one-third of the cost of equipment and, if the hostel was kept in a rented building, a contribution of one-third of rent was also provided for.

In order to provide for satisfactory superintendence of hostels, the appointment of educational supervisors was sanctioned by Government as an internal part of the hostel organisation. The duties of such supervisors are:—

- (1) to look after the studies and work of the boarders for two hours every day,
- (2) to organise games and pastimes of a healthy character among the boarders, and
- (3) to look to the discipline of the boarders.

Generally, a teacher of the local Government school with sufficient qualification is selected as Educational Supervisor. Full cost of education supervision not exceeding Rs. 20 per mensem is met by Government.

The revised Grant-in-aid Code provides also for the grant of half the pay of the warden not exceeding Rs. 10 per mensem and half the estimated cost of the construction or purchase of buildings, subject to a maximum of Rs. 25,000 and an annual grant of Rs. 100 per year for maintenance and one-half of reasonable rent in the case of hostels located in private buildings, such grant not exceeding Rs. 2 per boarder per mensem. These liberal concessions have given an impetus to private enterprise and led to the opening of a large number of hostels.

The number of hostels at the end of 1921-22 was 51 including 8 for girls, of which 21 were Government, 23 aided and 7 unaided with a total strength of 2,240 boarders of which 452 were girls. The number of boarders who were students of the Secondary Schools was 1,384 including 250 girls.

All Government hostels are under the management of a Head-master, who is in some cases also the warden. For every hostel, whether Government or aided, there is a Committee of Management composed of gentlemen of the locality interested in the hostel. The duties of the Committee are to manage and exercise general supervision,

collect and maintain a reserve fund, regulate admissions, see to the maintenance of discipline and to punish on the complaint of the Educational Supervisor the servants and boarders whose conduct is such as to deserve notice.

School life :  
Athletics.

A good number of schools have a well organised system of games conducted by teachers trained in the physical culture, vacation and scout classes. A large number of schools have foot-ball, cricket, tennis and hockey clubs, but want of suitable play ground attached to or very near some of the A.-V. Schools is a great handicap. Tournaments are held both at Bangalore and Mysore either during the Birthday and Dasara festivities or on other occasions when some of the teams from the mofussil compete. The dangers of a system of education which neglected the harmonious development of the body was realised long ago and to counteract its baneful effects, physical drill has been made compulsory in the Secondary School Leaving Certificate Scheme, thus giving physical culture its right place in the general scheme of education.

Excursions.

Excursions for purposes of acquiring knowledge outside the school room or for widening the knowledge already acquired are a commendable feature of the High School life which the students like immensely. Such excursions not only relieve monotony of school life but also possess a high educational value in so far as they stimulate the powers of observation, promote a keenness for acquiring knowledge of the world around us, develop powers of reasoning and create a lively interest in studies which are uninteresting with the aid of only text-books. Batches of students of various schools are taken on a visit to important centres of historical or other interest. One-third of the cost of cartage and trainage incurred by



the students as also the travelling allowance of the teachers accompanying the parties at the rate of one for every 20 students is met by Government. As these excursions were popular with the teachers and pupils of all kinds and grades of institutions, Government have sanctioned the scheme as a normal item of educational programme of the State with an annual budget provision for the purpose and the Inspector-General of Education has been empowered to sanction tour programmes of all schools and authorise the payment of Government contributions up to a maximum amount of Rs. 50 for each institution, subject to the condition that the budget allotment is not exceeded.

Another remarkable feature which deserves mention is Journalism. the journalistic activity indulged in by some of the schools and scout troops. "The Mysore School and Scout Magazine" was started in the month of December 1918 under departmental auspices and had very soon a circulation of as large a number of copies as 3,000. It secured for itself a clientele outside the State and even from countries of the Western Hemisphere. It is patronized by their Highnesses the Maharaja and the Yuvaraja who have been graciously pleased to donate each of them Rs. 50 towards the upkeep of the Magazine, "a gracious act of benevolence and sympathy which has kept the student world under a deep debt of gratitude." The example had a catching effect and several troops and schools started magazines of their own which form interesting reading and are a new feature in the development of school life in Mysore. The 4th Bangalore Troop started a journal by name "The Young Scout" and the Bangalore National High School, the Shimoga Collegiate High School and the Mysore Maharaja's Collegiate High School started magazines of their own. Journalism is strictly confined to matters relating to

school life without entering into political matters. The Inspector-General of Education in his administration report for 1918-19 observed that these magazines, if properly encouraged by small grants-in-aid, would form a healthy feature of school life and do much to aid development of understanding and personality in as much as they afford scope for self-expression and creative talent.

**Libraries.**

The High School and some of the important hostels are equipped with a library where books on various subjects likely to be useful to the students are stocked and issued either for general reference or for detailed study at home. A small fee is levied from each student and the sum thus realised supplemented by a contribution from the provision in the departmental budget is utilised for the periodical refurnishing of the library. The Library of the Maharaja's Collegiate High School has added to the collections a very important and attractive section, the gift of the late Dewan, Mr. T. Ananda Rao, thus betokening deep and conscious sympathy for educational progress. The institutions are also provided with reading rooms which subscribe for important periodicals and make them available to the students for study.

**Debating and other societies.**

Each High School or Hostel has generally a debating society. Meetings are held at frequent intervals when a paper on some important subject either educational, social or political is read and debated upon. Though these societies do not play as large a part in school life as could be desired, still they have a beneficial effect in so far as the discussion affords the boy an exercise in expression. Some of the schools have also dramatic societies which enact small plays or acts of plays on important occasions such as the school day celebrations.

Some have Historical Societies for the discussion of Historical subjects.

#### COLLEGIATE EDUCATION.

A distinctive feature of the Mysore University is that it has a continuous three years' Degree course, admission to which is secured by passing the University Entrance Examination after one year's special preparation at the Collegiate High School. Holders of S. S. L. C. certificates are thus required to attend additional classes for one year which are provided in some of the selected High Schools of the State.

Collegiate Schools, a distinctive feature.

In 1916-17, the year of the inauguration of the University of Mysore, Entrance classes were opened in connection with the Maharani's College, Mysore and the High Schools at Mysore, Bangalore and Tumkur. Similar classes were opened in 1917-18 in the High Schools at Shimoga, and in the Wesleyan Mission High Schools at Bangalore and Mysore and the London Mission High School, Bangalore. Sowcar Banumiah's High School at Mysore was raised to the status of a Collegiate High School in June 1920 with History as the optional subject. A University Entrance class in History was sanctioned to the High School at Chitaldrug, but the opening of the class has been deferred partly for want of funds and partly for the reason that the sections opened in the other High Schools, *viz.*, those at Tumkur and Shimoga, and in the aided institutions at Bangalore have not been fully utilised. An Entrance class with Physics and Natural Science as optional subjects was opened from July 1922 in the Vani Vilas Institute for the convenience of girls who had till then either to attend the Collegiate High School, Bangalore, along with the boys or proceed to Mysore to join the Maharani's College and take History.

Number of Collegiate schools.

Subjects of  
Study.

At the University Entrance Examination, a candidate is examined in—

(1) English.

(2) A second language (Kannada, Telugu, Tamil, Sanskrit, Hindustani, Persian or French): when a student selects Sanskrit or Persian as one of his optional subjects, he will be required to select for his second language any language other than Sanskrit or Persian.

(3) One of the following groups of subjects:—

(a) Physics, Chemistry and Mathematics or Natural Science.

(b) History, Logic and Sanskrit, or Persian or Elementary Economics.

No candidate is declared to have passed the Entrance Examination unless he obtains not less than 40 per cent in English, 35 per cent in the second language and 35 per cent for the whole group of optional subjects and also not less than 30 per cent in each of the subjects of the group: provided that the candidate who passes in English and obtains not less than 50 per cent in all the subjects together will be declared to have passed, though he may not have obtained a minimum either in the second language or in the optional groups or any one of the subjects included in the optional group.

Recognition.

Only such of the institutions as satisfy the conditions laid down by the University are recognised for the purpose of training students for this preparatory course.

The conditions for recognition or the continuance of recognition include that the school shall submit to periodical inspection by a person or persons deputed by the University Council and that it shall submit a short annual report of working together with a list of the staff of the school and of changes therein and a full and complete statement of accounts. The University Council is competent to cancel the recognition of any school if

it, for a period of three years in succession, fails to pass 33 per cent of the candidates sent up for the University Entrance Examination or if the report of inspection received shows that the school is no longer worthy of recognition or if it is found that any of the essential conditions of recognition are no longer fulfilled.

The administrative control of these Collegiate High Schools is vested in the Inspector-General of Education, but the examinations are conducted and the results announced by the University. As these classes prepare students specially for the University, it is necessary that the course of study therein should be correlated with the University course. For this reason, the courses are framed in consultation with the University Board of studies. The University deposes its professors to inspect these classes systematically with a view to secure efficiency in the teaching and co-ordination of work in the different schools. Every endeavour is made to make these classes really preparatory institutions to the University so that the students who pass the examination may profitably enter upon a true collegiate course, with no break in the continuity of the course of instruction and be able to benefit by the instruction which they receive.

The  
Administrative  
control.

The present period of one year for the Entrance course is considered too short not only to master the course of studies prescribed, but also to prepare students for the University teaching. The Calcutta University Commission have recommended a total course of five years by making the Intermediate or the preparatory course one of two years as against one year in Mysore. The Commission have observed "that the Intermediate College must be regarded as fulfilling a double purpose. In the first place it must provide a training such as will

Reorganisa-  
tion.

qualify the students for admission to the University, in all its faculties or into other institutions for higher technological training, and in the second place it must provide a training suitable for students who, after completing their course, will proceed direct to various practical occupations." But the Collegiate High Schools in Mysore prepare only for the University courses (both arts and science) and for the Technical Institutions in the State, but students wishing to join Technical colleges outside the State have to take the degree before they think of admission to those colleges. The reorganisation of the University in the light of the recommendation of the University Commission is understood to be under the active consideration of the University Council.

#### MUHAMMADAN EDUCATION.

Early  
History.

It was a feature of the early educational policy of the State to make provision for the education of special communities who might have a mother tongue different from the language taught in the general Government schools. Mysore has and has had a large Muhammadan population and the education of this section of the people was recognised as necessary at an early stage of the State's educational work. The policy ordinarily adopted at first was that of encouraging schools started by private enterprise by giving them a grant-in-aid. Schools came into existence rather slowly and by the end of 1871-72 there were five Government Hindustani schools and 20 *Madrassas* in receipt of aid from Government and two Girls' Schools. As the proportion of literates was 1 in 84, a change of policy was considered desirable in the direction of establishing more Government schools under a qualified staff so as to provide for an effective means of promoting education amongst the Muhammadan population. The change led to an improvement in the number of schools and at the close of 1890-91, there

were 119 schools for boys and 8 for girls with 5,078 boys and 281 girls in them. Two Assistant Deputy Inspectors were appointed from 1st February 1894 and 4 years later, a Deputy Inspector of Hindustani schools was added to the Inspecting staff. The number of institutions steadily rose as shown below:—

Year	Schools	Scholars
1900-01 ... ..	279	10,436
1910-11 ... ..	310	14,182
1915-16 ... ..	530	21,651

Of the 530 schools at the close of 1915-16, 6 were Anglo-Hindustani Schools, 74 Middle Schools and 450 Primary Schools. Some of the Muhammadan pupils received instruction in the general schools either because there were no schools expressly intended for them near at hand or there were no schools of the type of instruction exclusively meant for them. The number of such pupils at the close of the above year was 7,441, bringing the total number under instruction in the various grades of education to 29,292. Of this total, 21,925 were boys and 7,367 girls and they were distributed as follows:—29 in Arts Colleges, 244 in High Schools, 8,313 in Middle Schools, 19,259 in Primary Schools, 29 in Training Schools, 229 in Industrial and Special Schools and 919 in private institutions. The percentage of pupils under instruction to the total population worked out to 10·04.

There was a steady increase in the number of institutions which rose from 530 at the close of 1915-16 to 905 at the end of 1918-19. Since then, there has been a slight fall especially in the number of primary institutions, the total number of schools at the close of 1921-22

being 864 of which 9 were A.-H. Schools, 76 Middle Schools, 778 Primary Schools and 1 Normal School. The number of pupils on the rolls has also exhibited fluctuations, the total number of candidates in public as well as in private and other institutions being 39,286 at the close of the year 1921-22. Of this total number, 12 were in Colleges, 433 in High Schools, 10,748 in Middle Schools, 26,555 in Primary Schools, 1,073 in Technical Schools, 465 in Village Indigenous Schools and 16 in Normal Schools. The perceptible decrease in the number of pupils attending the last but one type of schools is indicative of the fact that people have come to realise the advantages of sending their sons or daughters to departmental or aided institutions which have better equipment and impart better kind of instruction. The percentage of boys and girls at school to the total population of school-going age rose from 95.1 and 35.6 at the close of 1915-16 to 115.54 and 45.8 respectively at the close of 1921-22. The percentages are "a curious revelation of the educational conditions prevailing in the community and prove conclusively that a large percentage of the pupils are overaged and are drawn from beyond limits adopted as marking off the school-going from the rest of the population. They probably testify to the presence of a certain amount of earnestness and zeal for education and to the prevalence of conditions which do not permit of that earnestness being utilised early enough and to the best possible advantage."

Anglo-  
Hindustani  
Schools.

The total number of Anglo-Hindustani Schools is 9, located in Bangalore, Kolar, Chennapatna, Tumkur, Chitaldrug, Sira, Tarikere and 2 at Mysore. The number will show a rise in the near future when the Urdu Middle Schools are gradually converted into Anglo-Hindustani Schools as laid down in the orders on the Education Memorandum.



The total number of these schools stood at 76 with a total strength of 6,580 including 2,535 girls at the close of the year 1921-22. As laid down in the orders on the Education Memorandum, 3 Urdu Middle Schools, one in Chitaldrug District and two in Bangalore District, have been recently converted into *pukka* Anglo-Hindustani Schools while 2 more in the Hassan District have been proposed for conversion.

Hindustani  
Middle  
Schools.

The number of Primary Schools at the close of 1915-16 was 450 with a strength of 19,529 and increased to 816 during 1918-19. Ever since there has been a fall in the number of institutions, the figures for the years following being :—

Primary  
Schools.

Year	Institutions	Strength
1919-20 ... ..	786	23,702
2020-21 ... ..	788	23,815
1921-22 ... ..	778	22,314

The same causes which have operated to bring about a fall in the number of general aided primary institutions have also contributed to the decrease in the number of aided institutions meant for Muhammadans.

There is a separate inspectorial staff for the Muhammadan schools, consisting of 3 District Inspectors and 4 Assistant Inspectors. At each of the District Headquarters, except Hassan, there is one Inspecting Officer. Though the number of schools within each range is not greater than the number allotted to the other Assistant Inspectors, still owing to the distance to be covered by the Urdu Assistant Inspectors whose jurisdiction extends over a District, much of the time which could be utilised for conducting a detailed inspection is spent in

Inspection.

travelling. The cadre of Assistant Inspectors has been recently increased to 43 and in the re-allocation the Muhammadan inspectorate has been given an additional Assistant Inspector.

The Urdu Girls' Schools were for a long time subjected to the inspection of the Urdu District Inspectors. Many a parent was deterred from sending his daughter to a school which violated the principles of the *gosha* system and ran counter to their social customs. To conciliate public opinion and sentiment in the matter, 2 Assistant Urdu Inspectresses were sanctioned by Government for being in charge of inspection of the Urdu Girls' Schools under the direction of the Inspectress. The inspection of the Girls' Schools is now entirely in the hands of these lady inspectors.

The development of education among the community has been facilitated by the grant of a liberal scale of scholarships with a view to induce poor students to take to education and those who are already receiving instruction to continue their studies in the higher grades. A sum of Rs. 600 has been earmarked from Gumbaz funds for the grant of scholarships to Muhammadan boys and girls. The rate of girls' scholarships is Rs. 2 to 3 tenable in the Urdu 4th and 5th classes respectively. In addition, a sum of Rs. 1,440 was provided annually to grant scholarships for Muhammadan students who were unable to study for the School Final and Higher University Examinations. These scholarships were divided into ordinary and special, the latter being given only to sons of Muhammadan State pensioners and members of distinguished families deserving special consideration. The rates of ordinary scholarships were Rs. 7, 5 and 4 for B.A., F.A., and High School forms respectively. These scholarships were subsequently merged in the Backward Class Scholarship scheme and the Muhammadan students are

now receiving scholarships from the amount set apart for Backward Class Scholarship on the basis of the school-going population. The amount of scholarship under this scheme allotted to the Muhammadans during the years 1919-20, 1920-21 and 1921-22 was Rs. 3,792, 3,792 and 3,200 respectively. Scholarships are also being awarded to the deserving Muhammadan students to enable them to prosecute their studies in the Muhammadan Anglo-Oriental College at Aligarh; the number of scholarships tenable at any time being fixed at 7. The value of these scholarships is ordinarily Rs. 25 each per mensem. Muhammadan girls are also entitled to scholarships under the Girls' Scholarship scheme, the total amount granted during the last three years being Rs. 180, 192 and 600. In addition to the above, Muhammadan students are also given scholarships from the Military and Palegar Scholarship Funds.

#### WOMEN'S EDUCATION.

Systematic activity for the education of women, there was none in the State till the middle of last century. The beginnings were made by the London Mission who in 1840 established the first Kannada school for girls. Very soon a girls' school was opened by the Hindus at Bangalore, but for some time girls were obliged to study in boys' schools, for want of separate institutions. Social prejudices were largely responsible for the slow growth of institutions, which numbered only 12 at the close of 1879-80. In the first year of the Rendition, the Maharani's Girls' School at Mysore was established, which remained under private management till 1891, when it was taken over by Government. It soon developed into a second grade college and was affiliated to the Madras University. Progress in other directions was also marked and the number of girls' institutions, both Government and aided, which stood at 33 in 1869-70, with a

Early  
History.

strength of 2,071 pupils, increased to 294 with a total strength of 17,093 at the close of 1910-11 and showed a further increase to 530 schools and 41,035 pupils including those studying in boys' schools, at the close of the quinquennium ending with 1915-16. The number of pupils in the several grades of public institutions at the beginning of 1915-16 was:—

(1) College	...	...	13
(2) Secondary	...	...	11,059
(3) Primary	...	...	28,430
(4) Special institutions	...	...	320

The number of public institutions for girls has since showed a steady increase, rising from 525 schools with a strength of 27,959 in 1915-16 to 727 schools with a strength of 36,866 at the close of 1921-22. Some girls also attended boys' schools wherever there were no facilities by way of separate schools for them either because their strength did not justify the opening of a school or for other reasons. The total number of girls under instruction in all kinds of schools was 41,035 in 1915-16 which rose to 53,741 at the end of 1921-22. Of the 727 girls' schools during 1921-22, 3 were English High Schools with a strength of 106 pupils, 1 Kannada High School with a strength of 19 pupils, 13 A.-V. Schools with a strength of 2,205 pupils, 94 Vernacular Middle Schools with a strength of 10,651 pupils and 566 Primary Schools with a strength of 22,451 pupils. The percentage of girls under instruction to the total female population of school-going age was 9.7 in 1915-16 and it rose to 12.46 in 1921-22.

#### High Schools.

The 3 High Schools at the end of 1921-22 are the Maharani's High School, Mysore, the Vani Vilas Institute, Bangalore and the London Mission Girls' High School, Bangalore. The Maharani's High School at Mysore maintains the High School classes both in English and

Kannada, the A.-V. and Kannada Middle School classes besides normal and industrial sections. The industries taught in the school are rattan work, paper-flower making and sewing. The Vani Vilas Institute contains the High School classes in English and Middle School classes in both English and Vernacular. It has been further developed by the opening of the Entrance class in Science from 1922-23. The London Mission Girls' School is an aided institution with a strength of 40 in the High School classes and 163 in the Middle School section.

Excluding the Kannada High School section of the Maharani's College, two schools had been raised to the status of Vernacular High Schools—The Empress Girls' School at Tumkur and the Government Girls' School at Bangalore—by way of providing facilities for higher education of pupils who passed the Vernacular Lower Secondary examination in centres other than Mysore. The liberal scholarships awarded did not induce a large number of pupils to join them and so the classes in the Vani Vilas Institute and the Empress Girls' School were closed from July 1920 and arrangements made to strengthen the Upper Secondary classes at the Maharani's High School—which is the only Kannada High School existing at present—so as to meet effectively the altered requirements.

During 1915-16 there were, excluding the Anglo-Vernacular Sections of the Maharani's College and the London Mission Girls' High School, 12 Girls' Middle Schools in which English was taught, with a strength of 1,357, but at the close of the period of review there were only 13 institutions with a total strength of 2,205. Though there was a reduction in the number of institutions by one, there was a slight increase in the total number of pupils attending the same.

Middle  
Schools.

**Vernacular  
Middle  
Schools.**

The number of Vernacular Middle Schools stood at 85 with a strength of 9,381 at the close of the year 1915-16, of which 60 were departmental, 24 aided and 1 unaided. The number steadily decreased and stood at 108 at the close of 1919-20 with a strength of 11,952. Since then, for reasons similar to those given in the case of boys' schools, there has been a decrease, both in the number of institutions and their strength which were 94 and 10,651 respectively at the close of 1921-22.

**Primary  
Schools.**

There were 566 Primary Schools with 22,451 pupils attending the same during the year 1921-22, working out to a proportion of 1 to 11 as compared to Boys' Primary Schools. In order to reduce gradually this disparity in educational facilities, it has been laid down in the orders on the Education Memorandum that 500 new Primary Schools for girls should be established in the course of 5 years at the rate of 100 per annum, in places where a sufficiently large number of pupils are available. Financial considerations have not made it possible to give early effect to these orders, but with funds becoming available, it is hoped that earnest attempts would be made at increasing the number of institutions which would help to solve slowly but steadily the problem of female elementary education in the State.

**Inspection.**

With the increase in the number of institutions, the existing strength of the inspectorate, 1 Inspectress of girl's schools, 1 District Inspectress and 1 Assistant Inspectress, was found to be utterly inadequate to cope with the work and therefore the appointment of 3 more Assistant Inspectresses, on 75-10-125 each, was sanctioned, but the appointment of the District Inspectress was converted into that of an Assistant Inspectress and the charges distributed among the revised staff. For want of suitable candidates, two of the posts of Assistant

Inspectresses were kept vacant for some time, the Districts assigned to them being in charge of the respective District Inspectors. The posts were subsequently filled up and the schools are now entirely under the control of Women-Inspectorate.

The difficulty of obtaining an adequate supply of <sup>Staff.</sup> women teachers is an obstacle which has made the progress of Female Education extremely slow. Female Education has not made satisfactory progress in grades above the Primary in spite of attractions in the shape of scholarships and facilities for residence in hostels provided by Government. One of the principal causes of this falling off in attendance of girls as soon as the primary stage is passed is the employment of men teachers. Owing to social disabilities and other causes, the number of women who continue their studies in the higher course of instruction is very small with the result that the number of women available as teachers is very meagre and with this inadequate supply of women teachers the development of education has been prejudicially affected. In spite of these drawbacks, serious attempts are being made to improve the quality of the staff. An attractive scale of pay for lady graduates has been sanctioned as an inducement to obtain recruits as also tempt girls to take to higher education, and as regards the lower grades, Government have been pleased to direct that the scale of pay of school mistresses be fixed at 25 per cent in excess of the scale of pay of teachers in boys' schools.

With the object of getting as many mistresses as possible available for efficient teaching, a Normal School <sup>Training Schools.</sup> for Hindu mistresses at Mysore and 2 more schools for others, viz., Maharani's High School and Wesleyan Mission Normal School have been opened. The Upper Secondary classes in the Vani Vilas Institute and

Empress Girls' School which were in existence for a short time were closed on account of their poor strength. To induce educated ladies to take to teaching in larger number, stipends for private candidates have been increased from Rs. 8 to Rs. 12 for Upper Secondary training and to Rs. 10 for Lower Secondary training.

#### Curricula.

The orders on the Education Memorandum contemplate the revision of the curricula of studies so as to provide for a primary course of 4 years. In accordance with the above orders, the curriculum has been revised for boys' schools and the same adopted for girls' schools with the modifications and additions suitable for girls. For instance, under arithmetic, it is laid down that questions and problems selected should have a bearing on household work, domestic economy and bazaar transactions, and that under kindergarten gifts and occupations, sewing and needlework should be introduced and under drill, organised games such as *kolātam* and *jadekolātam*. Except with some other slight modifications, the curriculum is practically the same as for boys. It has also been ordered that the middle schools should be converted into one uniform type as the boys' schools and staffed as far as possible entirely with women teachers with special provision for industrial classes to teach cutting, needlework, embroidery, lace-making, etc.

#### Medium of Instruction.

The problem of medium of instruction being a very important one, affecting as it did the development of Female Education, was given due consideration by Government, who after taking into account the various opinions received laid down that the medium of instruction in Primary and Middle School grades of education for girls should be vernacular as in the case of boys, English being taught as a compulsory second language in the latter grade of education, the medium in the High School classes being English.



In the curricula of studies for girls' schools, physical education has not been ignored. Distinctions have of course been made between the games played by girls and those played by boys. To begin with, one should not forget that there are fundamental differences of physical formation, of physical capacity and endurance; boys bear up more easily than girls against a prolonged strain. Girls' games should for these reasons be lively, spirited and short. In some of the institutions, tennis, badminton, croquet and rounders are played.

School Life;  
Physical  
Education.

The difficulty experienced by girls from the mofussil who come to prosecute their studies in the Maharani's College was recognised by Government and a hostel was, therefore, established and attached to the institution. The 'Widows Home' started by the late Rao Bahadur A. Narasimha Iyengar from Devaraja Bahadur Charity fund was taken over under Government management and made part of this hostel to lodge and board free of charge the poor students. To meet similar difficulties, a hostel was also opened in connection with the Vani Vilas Institute which also accommodated mistresses undergoing industrial training. At the close of the year 1921-22, the hostel and the Home attached to the Maharani's High School had a strength of 33 and 20 boarders, respectively, while that attached to the Vani Vilas Institute had 11. The latter institution is located in a rented building. Plans and estimates for a building for the hostel close to the school with quarters for the Superintendent are stated to be ready, but the work has been put off for want of funds.

Hostels.

All the Girls' Schools are under the management of a local Committee consisting partly of Government officers appointed *ex-officio* and partly non-official gentlemen, and, where possible, also of English and Indian ladies

Girl's School  
Committees.

evinced keen interest in female education. Government, in the case of Maharani's High School and of Girls' Schools at Head-quarters of Districts, and the Inspector-General of Education in other cases, appoint the Committees and the Presidents thereof for a period not exceeding 3 years. The Committees exercise general supervision over the management of the schools, inspect the same occasionally and thus maintain discipline and a high moral tone in the schools. They have power either to refuse admission to any girl or discharge one already admitted in the interest of the well-being of the schools. They have also power to make recommendations to the Inspector-General of Education regarding the appointments, promotion, punishment, suspension, or dismissal of any member of the staff as well as the grant of leave and also of any other matters affecting the progress, efficiency and popularity of the school. In successive administration reports, the Inspector-General of Education has observed that these Committees continued to take keen interest in the welfare of the schools under their control and to help the spread of education by inducing parents to send their daughters to schools and in other ways and that their attitude towards the Department in short was one of hearty co-operation.

Home Educational Classes.

As the social customs of the majority of the people of the country prevent girls continuing at school to a standard necessary for soundness of education, some provision for the education of grown-up ladies is necessary as in the case of adults. The requirements for adult education are met by the starting of continuation or adult schools, but the difficulty in the case of women is that any continuation of education has to be taken to their very doors. Classes organised to this end are called Home Educational Classes, the essential features of which are that a retired teacher or an educated lady establishes such classes in an

approved locality and the school is under the control of a Committee composed of a few educated ladies and the course of study comprises of reading, writing, arithmetic, hygiene, drawing, rattan, knitting and needle-work and that a grant-in-aid is given to the teacher at the rate of Rs. 10 for a pupil of 1st and 2nd standards and Rs. 12 for a pupil of 3rd standard. The system in spite of the grant-in-aid has not made striking progress. At the close of 1915-16, there were classes in 4 places, the total number of ladies receiving instruction being 87. The number increased to 17 with a strength of 297 adult ladies which decreased to 13 at the end 1918-19 with a corresponding reduction in strength to 194 pupils. The Mahilasēvā Samāja, Bangalore, which came into existence as an unaided institution, was subsequently made an aided institution, maintained Home Educational classes and turned out very good work under the management of an efficient and influential Committee of ladies.

With the increase in the number of institutions during the last 6 years and the provision of a special inspecting agency and the improvement in the scale of pay of female teachers, the cost of Female Education has shown a remarkable increase rising from Rs. 301,584 in the year 1915-16 to Rs. 612,712 during 1920-21 with a fair reduction of expenditure during 1920-21, the figure for the same being Rs. 510,187. The decrease is partly due to the reduction in the number of institutions and partly to the reduction of grants under some of the items in view of the financial stringency. The total cost referred to above is exclusive of the cost incurred by aided institutions.

Expenditure  
incurred.

#### EDUCATION OF THE DEPRESSED CLASSES.

No serious attempt was made by Government to afford special facilities for the spread of education among the depressed classes in the earlier period of the history of

Early  
History.

education in the State. The work of education among these communities was left entirely to Missionary enterprise and it was not till 1890 that Government undertook to provide for them. In that year, two Government schools for Holeyas were started at Huskur and Narsapur and in the next year there were, besides these two schools, 3 Mission Schools at Mysore, Anekal and Hassan which were all unaided. A few pupils were also reported to have been allowed to sit in the verandah of general schools in consideration of the prejudices of the higher castes who were reluctant to allow them to sit side by side with their boys. Ten years later in 1900-01, there were 34 Government Primary Schools, 31 Aided Schools with a strength of 2,201 boys and 322 girls. In 1910-11, the number of institutions for these communities rose to 67 Government, 35 aided and 4 unaided with a total strength of 2,492 boys and 346 girls. Considering the population of school-going age, the progress made was hardly appreciable. But with a change of attitude both in the higher castes and the community itself, there was a possibility of appreciable progress in the spread of education. In his report for 1914-15, the Inspector-General of Education observed that "the education of the Panchama and other Depressed Classes is likely to show considerable progress in the future considering that the attitude of the better classes of the Hindu community has undergone a change and has become one of philanthropic interest instead of cold negligence. It is also found that these unfortunate people have been awakening to a sense of their own degradation and in many places have taken the initiative in seeking assistance for the amelioration of their condition." Government met the desire of these classes for education in a liberal spirit. A Panchama Boarding School was established at Mysore with provision for undergoing instruction in both general and vocational subjects. The number of institutions

at the end of 1915-16 was 171 Government schools and 108 aided schools, making a total of 279 schools with a strength of 6,130 boys and 985 girls, working out to a percentage of 4.8. Regarding the progress made so far, it was observed in the quinquennial report ending with 1915-16:—"This is not much. But considering that the movement for education among these communities is of such recent origin, the progress is satisfactory. Within the quinquennium, the schools under Government have increased from 67 to 171 and scholars in all the institutions from 2,838 to 7,115."

The liberal policy followed by Government in the matter of spread of education among the depressed classes has borne fruit in the increase in the number of institutions and of pupils attending the same. The special inducements offered, such as parental allowances, equipment allowances for clothing and purchase of books and slates and special rates of scholarships had the desired effect of stimulating these classes to avail themselves of the opportunity offered to them in an increasing extent. As a further encouragement, students of the Depressed Classes were also exempted from payment of application fees for both the Lower Secondary and S. S. L. C. Examinations for a period of 3 years. That these concessions produced the desired effect is clearly proved by the number of institutions which increased to 739 at the end of 1920-21 with a strength of 15,390 pupils of whom 1,839 were girls. Of these 739 institutions, 293 were departmental, 437 aided and 9 unaided. Subsequently, there was a fall in the total number of institutions due to the closing of some of the aided and unaided schools for reasons similar to those in the case of general schools. At the end of 1921-22, there were only 608 institutions of which 295 were departmental, 312 aided and 1 unaided with a total strength of 13,706 pupils of whom 1,670 were girls. Of these 608 institutions, 1 was a Kannada High School at Mysore, 4 were

Anglo-Vernacular Schools, 6 Kannada Middle Schools and 597 Primary Schools.

Panchama  
Boarding  
School at  
Mysore.

To provide for mofussil Panchama students with boarding and lodging arrangements, the Panchama Middle School at Mysore was converted into a Boarding School with provision for industrial training in mat-weaving, boot and shoe making, cloth-weaving, leather-stitching, tailoring, gardening and practical agriculture, carpentry and smithy. The strength of the institution rose from 30 in 1915-16 to 55 in 1917-18. The industrial section was worked at a profit and the school earned a reputation for weaving and leather-stitching which attracted a large number of pupils from other Districts to learn the trades in a systematic manner.

The year 1918-19 marked an epoch in the history of the institution for it was raised to a Kannada High School with English classes up to the Lower Secondary grade. It had at the end of the year 1918-19, 7 classes and 172 pupils but nearly 100 candidates had to be refused admission for want of room. The strength steadily increased to 225 at the close of 1920-21 and stood at 183 at the end of 1921-22 of which 9 were in High School classes and 174 in the A.-V. and Vernacular Classes.

The Boarding Home is under a strong Committee of Management and had 42 boarders on the rolls during 1916-17. As there was a rush for admission, the provision was found inadequate and was increased to 52 and subsequently to 200. The Home was managed very economically and notwithstanding the high price of good grains, the cost per boarder per month came to only Rs. 6-6-9 including the cost of establishment and Rs. 5-2-0 without it. The Secretary to the Managing Committee is the Superintendent of the institution and he is provided with quarters on the premises. Besides the Superintendent, who is a Panchama graduate, another

graduate belonging to the same community was added to the staff. The institution maintains two scout troops and the students took a prominent part in the Panchama Conference held in the District. The institution is also editing a journal styled "Adi Dravida Patrika" which has served to disseminate knowledge of the working of the Institute among the literate Panchamas in the State and others interested in their spirit. The establishment of a Savings Association to encourage thrift, a debating society and a reading room are a few of the varied activities of the institute. The institution has served as a model for similar institutions both in and outside the State.

As a single Boarding School at Mysore was not sufficient to provide for the needs of the entire community, Government considered it necessary to establish one more such school in a central place where it was likely to prove popular and sanctioned a school at Tumkur with provision for general education up to the Lower Secondary stage and industrial training in leather-stitching, carpentry, tailoring and gardening. The school was opened on the 23rd August 1918 with 16 students on the rolls and the number increased with the popularity of institutions to 60 during 1921-22. To enable the Kannada Lower Secondary students to take to English education, special English classes were opened and the first batch of students for the English Lower Secondary Examination were sent in 1921-22. The industries taught in the school were worked at a profit, the work turned out in the carpentry and tailoring sections being very satisfactory. A scout troop was formed in connection with the institution which distinguished itself by winning a cup at the First Aid Competition held at Mysore. Besides, the school organised exhibitions and demonstrations during the District Conferences in 1919-20 and 1920-21. The school is under the management of a Committee of official and

Panchama  
Boarding  
School at  
Tumkur.

non-official gentlemen with the Deputy Commissioner as President.

Panchama  
Boarding  
School at  
Chikmagalur.

In pursuance of the local demand for a Panchama Boarding School of the type of the school at Mysore, the Panchama Primary School started at Chikmagalur in 1916 under the Compulsory Education scheme was converted into a Boarding School in July 1918 with provision for teaching English and free boarding and lodging for 12 students. The strength of the school during 1918-19 was 16 in the English classes and 53 in the Vernacular classes, but for want of adequate provision and accommodation the number of boarders in the school was limited to 12. To meet the increasing demand for admission, the limit of the Boarding Home was raised to 24 and subsequently to 44. As the school had reached its full strength and was turning out good work, the Inspector-General of Education recommended that it should be raised to the status of a *pukka* A.-V. School with industrial training. Till 1921-22, the highest standard taught in the school was the 3rd English class with all the Primary and infant classes attached to it, but in that year the English 4th class was also opened. The number of students on the roll during 1921-22 was 59. A weaving class has been started in connection with the school, but it has not yet been started for want of accommodation.

Panchama  
Boarding  
Home at  
Bangalore.

Government have sanctioned the opening of a Boarding Home at Bangalore for the benefit of these pupils at a recurring expenditure of Rs. 2,820 and a non-recurring expenditure of Rs. 500 for equipment. The number of students to be admitted is limited to 12. A Committee has been constituted for making the initial arrangements for the opening and conduct of the Boarding Home.



In the year 1921-22, there were 32 Lambani Schools with a strength of 610. Out of these 32 schools, 16 were departmental and 16 aided. There were also four schools for Hill tribes, five for Kunbis and three for Wod-dars with a total strength of 224.

Lambanis and other depressed classes.

One of the steps adopted by the department to facilitate the Panchama students to take to higher education and also to improve their habits of life was that of admission to general schools. Government in their Order dated 29th November 1918 have declared their policy in this important matter, in the following terms:—

Admission of Panchamas to General Schools.

“Government cannot uphold the view that any one shall be excluded from public schools on the ground of caste as schools maintained from the public revenues are intended for the benefit of all classes of people in the State in the same way as Hospitals, Courts of Law, Railways and other public institutions. The unreasonable social prejudices in such matters have been wearing away with the spread of enlightened ideas in the advanced communities and the rise in the standards of social life of the Depressed Classes. Government are gratified to note that, in some parts of the State, students of these classes were freely admitted to schools and in some of them allowed to mix freely with the students of other castes. Any retrograde step calculated to revive the dying opposition to the legitimate rights of all castes to enjoy the benefits of such public institutions has to be deprecated. The spirit of intolerance displayed by certain classes of people at Sringeri in setting up the agitation against admission of Halepyka students therefore deserves no sympathy. Whenever a school is opened as a protest against the admission of pupils of any community in the public schools, the promoters of such movement should be given clearly to understand that the institution concerned will not be entitled to any grant-in-aid or other concessions from Government but recognition should not be withheld unless the prescribed standards have not been maintained.”

In pursuance of the above orders, a circular was issued to all the inspecting officers of the Department that no pupil should be excluded from public schools on grounds of caste or creed. The result of the circular was that a number of students of not only the Brahmin community but of the other communities as well were withdrawn from Government schools and separate schools started. As observed above, such schools were recognised in the beginning only for examination purposes, but no grant-in-aid was sanctioned by Government. But in deference to various representations subsequently made, Government have been pleased to revise the provision in the grant-in-aid code so as to admit of grants being sanctioned to such institutions if they are found to be otherwise eligible. The Panchamas took advantage of the opportunity offered to them and entered many of the general schools for instruction. The number of such students during 1919-20 was 3,144. Opposition from local citizens to Panchama admission has been fast vanishing with the distance of time, especially after clothing allowances were given to these pupils to enable them to go to schools decently clad.

Backward  
Class  
Scholarships.

The development of education among the Backward and Depressed classes has been facilitated by the grant of scholarships on a liberal scale. The idea of associating stipends almost entirely as a reward for merit irrespective of the pecuniary means of the pupils could not hold its own in an atmosphere of mass education and therefore it was felt as an imperative necessity, if education had to spread among the masses, that a scheme should be devised making liberal provision for the award of scholarships to help them to avail themselves of the benefits of education. With this object in view, His Highness the Maharaja was graciously pleased, in 1917, to sanction an annual grant of Rupees one lakh for

awarding scholarships to communities backward in education, and the Depressed classes occupying as they did the lowest level in respect of literacy were shown special consideration in so far as a sum of Rs. 15,000 was earmarked out of this amount for their benefit and the amount distributed at the rate of Rs. 6,000, Rs. 4,800 and Rs. 4,200 for Primary, Vernacular Lower Secondary and Industrial education. As the demand for English education among the community grew and applications for scholarships increased in numbers, Government were pleased to sanction a separate allotment of Rs. 10,000 which was subsequently raised to Rs. 15,000 for grant of scholarships for Panchamas studying in English classes. Separate provision has also been made for scholarships for girls of the Depressed classes under the Girls' Scholarship Scheme, at rates rising from Rs. 3 in the I to III classes to Rs. 10 in the VI form, the total amount per annum being Rs. 5,000.

The existing scheme did not provide for scholarships for the infant vernacular class while the number of scholarships available in the remaining vernacular classes was only 350. As a majority of the pupils of the Depressed classes are in the lowest stages of instruction, it has been felt that a number of scholarships should be made tenable in these grades and orders accordingly have been issued to institute 500 scholarships of the value of 8 annas per mensem in the infant I vernacular classes and to increase, from 350 to 600, the number of scholarships in the other vernacular classes. As regards the English classes, the existing scheme provides for 310, 95 and 23 scholarships in the A.-V., High School and Entrance classes respectively. Having regard to the actual requirements, with reference to the number of pupils of the Depressed classes undergoing English education, it has been considered necessary to reduce the number of scholarships and fix them at 225 in the A.-V. classes, 45

in High School classes and 10 in the Entrance classes, the value of these being, however, fixed at a higher rate than in the case of Backward class scholarships of corresponding grades of education, so that it may be sufficient to meet the needs of the pupils. The Inspector-General of Education has been empowered to re-appropriate lapses in any grade for awarding a larger number of scholarships in other grades according to actual requirements.

#### EDUCATION OF THE DEFECTIVES.

Government  
Policy  
outlined.  
School for  
Deaf and  
Dumb at  
Mysore.

The education of the defectives, such as, the deaf, the mute and the blind is a problem of national concern and though the Government of Mysore have not started schools entirely maintained from State funds, they are liberally subsidising an institution maintained exclusively for these sections of people in the City of Mysore. There are two sections in the above institution, one for the deaf and the mute and the other for the blind. The deaf pupils are trained in lip reading and sense culture to begin with, write simple words to dictation and do simple addition in the higher stage and read from books and work out sums on simple subtraction and multiplication in the senior stage. Industries such as weaving, rattan work, tailoring and knitting are also taught. The blind section has three classes attached to it, *viz.*, preparatory, junior and senior, the curriculum from the lowest to the highest class being suitably drawn up. The pupils begin with the Braille alphabet, have reading and arithmetic in the junior stage and specialise in music and reading of Kannada classical poetry in the senior stage. Some of the pupils have shown remarkable aptitude for music and attained proficiency in the art sufficient to earn an independent living. The institution has earned for itself a very wide reputation which has attracted defectives from the various parts of India.

In 1921-22, there were 6 students from outside the State, 2 from the Bombay Presidency, 3 from the Madras Presidency and 1 from His Exalted Highness the Nizam's Dominions. In addition to the general and vocational classes, a Normal section was also opened in this institution with a view to train men to take up the work of teaching the deaf and the blind and the section started its work with 4 students, 2 from the State who were given stipends of Rs. 20 per mensem and 2 from the sister State of Baroda, who after the completion of their training here were employed in that State to teach the blind.

A Boarding Home is attached to the institution which had a strength of 33 in 1921-22.

#### EDUCATION OF EUROPEANS AND EURASIANS.

A study of the figures for the education of Europeans and Eurasians shows that there is apparently a great fall between the years before the Rendition and in the years thereafter. This is due to the fact that in the year 1882, the Director of Public Instruction in Mysore was relieved of the educational work of the Civil and Military Station. It is nearly correct to state that the history of education of Europeans and Eurasians in the State ends with that period, for, the number of schools and scholars seeking education in departmental schools is exceedingly small. For those Europeans and Eurasians that live in the State, however, and who seek education here, adequate provision has been made.

Position  
before and  
after  
Rendition.

There were 4 schools in 1896-97 with 95 pupils in them. Including pupils in institutions, the total number receiving instruction was 133. With additions and decreases from time to time at Oregum, Whitefield and among Girls' Schools, the number at the end of 1910-11 was 7 schools. Some of these schools, though maintained

Number and  
strength of  
Institutions.

exclusively for them, admit also students of other nationalities, while some of their students pursue their studies in the general schools. The number and strength of the schools as also the total number of the students of the community studying in the various schools was as given below :—

Year	Number of Schools	Strength		Total	Europeans and Anglo-Indians in other schools	Total Europeans and Anglo-Indians under instruction
		Euro-peans and Anglo-Indians	Others			
1916-17...	5	526	68	594	256	782
1917-18...	4	477	92	569	60	537
1918-19...	4	415	73	488	73	488
1919-20...	5	399	87	480	38	431
1920-21...	4	369	134	497	38	401
1921-22...	3	441	50	491	54	495

One of the schools, *viz.*, the Nandidrug Camp School, Kolar Gold Fields, originally prepared candidates for the Junior Cambridge Examinations but adopted the departmental curriculum in the year 1919-20 and has ever since been training pupils for the Lower Secondary examination also.

#### ORIENTAL STUDIES.

Sanskrit  
Schools.

Sanskrit is taught in schools and colleges for general education and also in schools and colleges specially meant for the study of the language. In the general schools, it is ordinarily taken as an optional subject of instruction. Soon after the inauguration of the State policy of 1856 in regard to education, many of the Sanskrit *pāṭasālas*, opened mostly by the *Pandits*, applied for aid and it was deemed right for various reasons to encourage them. "It has long been a matter for regret," wrote the Director of Public Instruction, urging the necessity for Sanskrit education, "that the highest system of education

undesignedly tends to alienate from us the really learned men of the country and we have thus lost the co-operation of the most cultivated classes who would have rendered valuable aid in creating the vernacular literature we wish to promote." The schools were mostly conducted in *Chattrams* or in temples and the Government grant was in most cases the only income. Encouragement, however, continued to be given to those schools which were most systematically conducted on the understanding that secular knowledge such as arithmetic and studies in the vernacular language was imparted in addition. As a result of this insistence of a revision in the course of study, arithmetic up to vulgar fractions and proportion was taught in several Sanskrit Schools and Algebra in the School at Melkote.

The number of schools during the year 1921-22 was 51 distributed among the various Districts of the State, as follows:— Their distribution.

Bangalore	...	4		Mysore	...	12
Kolar	...	12		Hassan	...	12
Shimoga	...	3		Tumkur	...	4
Chitaddrug	...	2		Kadur	...	2

The number of students under instruction in the special Sanskrit schools belonged to the following castes:—

Castes	1921-22.	
	Boys	Girls
Brāhmin	1,323	52
Vaisya	36	...
Lingāyat	83	1
Other caste Hindus	129	6
Jain	55	13
Total	1,626	72

Remodelling  
of the courses  
of study.

The backward condition of Sanskrit Education in general is to a great extent attributed to the well-known fact that mere Sanskrit learning according to old methods no longer attracts students in any appreciable number owing to the difficulty of turning it to practical account in after life. Broadly speaking, nowhere in the civilized world is education acquired and pursued without the objective of a livelihood. If this is the bed-rock of truth in regard to other systems and modes of learning, it is eminently so with reference to the various stages of Sanskrit Education. The remedy, therefore, lay in recasting the scheme of studies in such a manner as to provide for a study of the elementary subjects usually taught in ordinary schools in Kannada or preferably in English along with the study of Sanskrit. To determine on what lines Sanskrit education in general should be remodelled so as to conceive real scholarship and attract deserving students, Government appointed a Committee who after mature deliberation submitted their recommendations, the chief of which were that an elementary course of Sanskrit should be made compulsory in the IV and V Forms in the case of Hindu students and optional in the VI Form; that subjects of general education, such as, Arithmetic, Geography, History and Elementary Science should form an integral part of the curricula of the Primary and Secondary Sanskrit schools, and English language up to the Matriculation standard part of the Secondary education in Sanskrit schools; that a special Board of Management should be formed to control Sanskrit studies in the exclusive Sanskrit schools and colleges and conduct public examinations in them; and that the Mysore and the Bangalore Sanskrit Colleges should be eventually affiliated to the Mysore University. No action was called for on the first of these recommendations as effect had already been given to the course suggested by making Sanskrit an alternative subject both in the School Final classes



and in the second language branch of the University. Government considered that a liberalisation of education on the lines suggested above was a desirable improvement and approved of the recommendations regarding the revision of the courses and sanctioned their introduction into the Sanskrit schools of the State with such alterations as might be considered necessary in the individual circumstances of the schools. The recommendations of the Committee to revise the courses of studies in the Colleges on the lines of the Siromani course of the Madras University with certain changes necessitated by local conditions and to the introduction of the higher course of post-graduate study or a Mahāvidwān course which would give the students a mastery over the special subject were also approved. The University Council who were consulted on the question of opening a oriental faculty in the University expressed themselves in favour of postponing the establishment of such a faculty, but approved of the other recommendations. A Board was also constituted for the purpose of conducting examinations and making all necessary arrangements connected therewith and to watch generally the course of instruction in the Colleges and to recommend any change which might be required in the course of studies or textbooks prescribed. The revision of these courses of study gave a great impetus to Sanskrit education by placing it on a sounder basis. By the combination of English and Sanskrit, an opportunity was afforded to cultivate ancient and modern knowledge side by side. The importance of a working knowledge of English cannot be minimised as it is very necessary to acquaint one at first hand with the results of modern research in the field of oriental studies.

The Mysore Sanskrit College was started in September 1876 under the name of Sarasvathi Prasada for the

Sanskrit  
College at  
Mysore.

purpose of instructing Brāhman students in *Vēda* and *Vēdāngas*. As the *Pātasāla* developed in strength, it was elevated to the status of a College. In October 1883 when the affairs of the Palace Charitable Institutions were reorganised, the College was assigned a substantial grant out of the funds which became available by the abolition of various feeding *Chatrams* which had existed in the neighbourhood of the Mysore City. In October 1892, a grant of Rs. 6,500 was made from the Education budget and the total amount earmarked for the College was increased to Rs. 13,722. In September 1917, the courses of studies and the scheme of Vidwat Examinations in the College were revised by the Government on the recommendation of a Special Committee appointed to consider the question of Sanskrit Education in the State, and the College staff was further strengthened. Out of the total cost, a sum of Rs. 7,223, being the amount of the initial allotment from the *Chatram* savings, is still contributed from the Palace Muzrai Funds and the balance met from the Education budget. Consistently, however, with the original object of the Institution, the subjects of study in the College have been confined to the *Vēdas* and *Vēdānga Sāstras* and the staff has altogether been composed of orthodox Brāhman Pandits, while the management is vested in a Committee of which the Assistant Secretary to His Highness the Maharaja in charge of Palace Establishment is the President and the Palace Dharmādhikāries and the Muzrai Superintendent are among the Members.

Bangalore  
Sanskrit  
College.

Prior to 1870, some local Pandits in Bangalore were maintaining private schools where they taught *Kāvya* to poor Brāhman boys. These schools were with mutual consent amalgamated into one *Pātasāla* for which a grant-in-aid of Rs. 20 per mensem was sanctioned by the Education Department. In 1885, the *Pātasāla* was

taken over by the City Municipality under the name of Vāni Vidyā Pātasāla and in the following year, *Alankāra*, *Vāda* and *Yōga* were added to the subjects of study. Till 1888, the institution consisted of two Departments, the *Sāstra* and the *Kāvya*, which were combined in November 1889 and the Institution was named Sanskrit College, Bangalore, and placed under the management of a Committee. The course of study was further supplemented by the addition of *Tarka*, *Vyākaraṇa* and *Vēdānta* and arrangements were also made to impart instruction in Kanarese, Mathematics, History, Geography, Agriculture and Hygiene. The old Arsenal building in the Fort was secured for the habitation of the College and when it was removed to the new buildings in 1896, the name was changed to its present designation, "Chāmarājendra Sanskrit College," in memory of His Highness the late Chāmarājendra Wodeyar Bahadur, G.C.S.I.

When the Institution was taken over under Municipal management and raised to the status of a College, the Education grant was raised to Rs. 100 a month and the Srīngēri and Parakāla Mutts and the Municipality contributed Rs. 100, Rs. 30 and Rs. 50 respectively. But the two Mutts stopped subsequently the payment of their contributions and the deficiency had to be covered by grants from other Muzrai funds. The Special Committee appointed to consider the question of Sanskrit Education in the State proposed that the Mysore Sanskrit College should be made the chief seat of advanced Sanskrit education and that it would be sufficient if the Sanskrit College, Bangalore, was equipped only for the teaching of the Sāhitya to the highest standard and affiliated to the Mysore College. These recommendations were approved by Government and the curricula of study accordingly revised. The *Sāstra* classes having been abolished, Sanskrit Education in the College was confined to

*Sāhitya, Vēda and Prayōga.* In 1917, just prior to the abolition of the Sāstra classes, the total strength of the several classes was 114 but with the limitation in the course of the studies, the strength of the school declined, the actual number studying in 1919-20 being 39, 25 in Vēda classes and 14 in Prayōga classes.

Admission of students of all communities to Sanskrit Colleges.

The question of the admission of students of all communities without distinction of caste or creed into the Sanskrit Colleges of Bangalore and Mysore which came up in the April Session of the Representative Assembly in 1918 was referred to the Board of Sanskrit Studies for opinion. The Board recommended that in view of the traditions attaching to the Maharaja's Sanskrit College, Mysore, as the centre of orthodox learning and of the fact that it is the only institution of the State in which all Vēdic and Shāstraic subjects are taught, a change in the existing system would not be of advantage either to the non-Brāhman students desirous of admission or to Sanskrit learning in general, but that non-Brāhman candidates might be admitted into the Bangalore Sanskrit College as an experimental measure on the condition suggested by the Committee of the College, *viz.*, that separate accommodation was made available for holding the Adhyana and Prayōga classes. At this time, the question of reducing the status of the Bangalore Sanskrit College to that of a High School in view of the paucity of students in the College classes and of making further improvements in the Mysore Sanskrit College was referred to a Special Committee and the subject of the admission of the non-Brāhman students to Sanskrit Colleges was also referred to that Committee for opinion. The Special Committee recommended that the College at Mysore may continue as the centre of ancient and orthodox Sanskrit learning as heretofore, open to Brāhmins only, and that the Bangalore College may be

thrown open to all classes of "uttama" Hindus for study of all subjects except those coming under the category of *Vēda*, *Vēdānta* and *Vēdāṅga* and that separate accommodation may be provided in the College for instruction of *Vēdic* and allied subjects to Brāhmins only.

In view of the importance of the subject and of its interest to several communities in the State, the Government in their notification dated 29th May 1922 invited the opinion of the public on the recommendations of the Committee. Of the opinions received, a majority was from members of the Virasaiva community who represented that students of that community have a special claim for admission to the Sanskrit Colleges and to all branches of study as many eminent Sanskrit poets, scholars and writers on philosophy and religion have come from their community. They claimed that the *Vēdas* and the *Upanishads* form the basis of their religion. They also proposed that Virasaiva pandits should be appointed as *Adhyāpakas* in the Colleges. The Jain community urged a similar claim and represented that facilities should be afforded to all communities to learn the tenets of their religion and that therefore the courses of study in the Sanskrit Colleges may be divided into two groups, the *Vēda* group open to Dwijas and the other, *viz.*, *Sāhitya*, *Vyākaraṇa* and *Tarka* to all high caste pupils, Jain pandits being also appointed to teach the principles of Jainism and Jain philosophy and the other *Adhyāpakas* teaching the other subjects without distinction of caste. Members of other non-Brāhman communities, such as, *Ārya Kshatriyas* and *Ārya Vaisyas* were also unanimous that the Sanskrit College should be thrown open to all communities in view of the cultural value of Sanskrit education and of the fact that the institutions are maintained out of public funds. The *Ādi Drāvidas* also represented that as they believe in Brāhmanical teachings and in the *Vēdas* they may also be admitted to these

Colleges. On the other hand, members of the Brāhman community took exception to the recommendation of the Committee to throw open the Bangalore College to non-Brāhmans on the ground that this institution was originally started by a few Brāhman Pandits and was subsequently taken over by Government and that the position of Government is that of a trustee. Several deputations of members of non-Brāhman communities placed their views on the subject before Government and the question was also discussed at length at the Representative Assembly at its Dasara Session in October 1922. After a careful consideration of the matter in all its aspects, Government in their Order No. Camp. E. Edn. 81-20—Edn., dated 10th June 1924, have directed that the scheme of studies in the Chāmarājendra Sanskrit College, Bangalore, be suitably modified and the institution thrown open for the admission of all communities irrespective of caste or creed and transferred to the control of the Education Department. They also consider that for some years to come at least all the demands for higher Sanskrit studies and culture will be adequately met by opening the Bangalore Sanskrit College to all communities and reorganising its courses of studies in a suitable manner adapted to the purpose in view. As facilities exist in schools all over the State for Sanskrit studies in the general curriculum of schools, Government do not consider it necessary to retain the preparatory and primary classes of the Chāmarājendra Sanskrit College. The classes have accordingly been abolished. Government have also appointed a suitable Committee to submit proposals for the revision of the curricula and courses of studies.

#### TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

**Early History.** The earliest institution in the State for any kind of technical education was the School of Engineering

established in 1862 which was intended to train men for employment to the subordinate Engineering services. It was developed to an institution of a higher class in 1875 so as to train men for the superior as well as the subordinate Engineering services and was reported to have turned out a high class of students, because some of those that received instruction in it rose to high positions in the services of the State. It had however a short life as it was abolished in 1883-84 and the only institution in the State for several years thereafter, in which men were trained for the lower services of the Public Works Department, was the school that had been established by Rao Bahadur Arcot Narayanaswamy Mudaliar in the Civil and Military Station, Bangalore.

Industrial education in the State made a beginning five years after the Engineering School was abolished. The foreign missions in the State had some industrial schools in connection with the orphanages started by them but an industrial school under Government supervision was first started in Hassan in August 1889. Next the Industrial School at Mysore was started in 1892, and had classes for instruction in Carpentry and Rattan-work. A number of scholarships were also instituted to encourage the study of subjects for which no provision existed in the State. As the facilities then provided were quite inadequate to meet the needs of the State, it was considered that one of the most pressing of the reforms to be undertaken was to find out methods of imparting education which shall be of more practical use, not only to those who wish to begin their careers as Government servants or teachers in schools, but to all, who wish to engage themselves in the numerous professions and industries so vital for the prosperous development of the country. A scheme of technical education was sanctioned in April 1903 and the object of it was not the imparting of any ideal, theoretical or scientific

course of instruction, but the teaching of industries and trade on improved methods as are adopted to supply the requirements of the people, such as, carpentry, weaving, silk-reeling, iron work, rattan work, etc., and to turn out every year a number of pupils fully equipped with the means of earning their livelihood by increasing the efficiency of their technical ability. The impetus given by the above scheme was considerable, for the number of schools increased within seven years from seven to twenty and the number of scholars from 422 to 1,234. But though the progress effected under the scheme of 1903 had been good, it was felt that a thorough systematisation of industrial education was necessary so as to conform more largely to the practical needs of modern conditions. In 1910, the Dewan addressing the Representative Assembly, said: "in the matter of industrial education there is reason to think that in our industrial schools the training given could be made much more systematic and thorough than it is at present, if a comprehensive programme of instruction were prepared and prescribed with graduated courses of instruction conceived on a definite plan." With this object, a Committee consisting of experienced officers of the Public Works and Education Departments was appointed with Sir M. Visvesvaraya, then Chief Engineer in the State, as its President, and the proposals of the Committee were that a College of Technology should be started in Bangalore to give higher instruction in technical, industrial and commercial matters; that the proposed Chamarajendra Technical Institute, Mysore, should have three sections, Engineering, Industrial and Commercial; that the existing industrial schools in the State should be improved by the appointment of whole-time Superintendents and by the provision of better equipment; that three more Industrial Schools should be started and a number of scholarships, *viz.*, 420, should be instituted



for being granted to students in these schools; and that more scholarships should be awarded to encourage the study of technical subjects in foreign countries. Government sanctioned in May 1913 the establishment of the Mechanical Engineering School, Bangalore, the formation of the Chamarajendra Technical Institute, Mysore, and the Government Commercial School, Bangalore. The rules governing the scheme of foreign scholarships were also revised with a view to afford opportunities for a greater number of candidates to take advantage of foreign training in industrial, commercial and technical subjects. Further, examinations in technical subjects were instituted and a Board constituted to conduct the examinations, success in which was regarded as sufficient qualification for employment in subordinate services of the Public Works Department. Examinations of the Elementary grade, in commercial subjects, were instituted in 1913 and of the Secondary grade, in 1914. By an order of 1915, Government instituted examinations of Advanced grade in the same subjects. The number of schools and scholars at the end of 1915-16 was 35 and 21,117, respectively. The total expenditure on technical education during the same year was Rs. 1,39,053, while the amount spent on scholarships tenable in India and foreign countries was Rs. 23,958 and Rs. 21,731 respectively.

The provision made by the State for technical education may be dealt with under the following heads:—

Later  
Progress.

- (1) Industrial Schools;
- (2) Engineering Schools;
- (3) Commercial Schools;
- (4) Scholarships tenable in India and in foreign countries.

The administration of these schools was originally vested in the Inspector-General of Education, but it was realised that the Director of Industries and Commerce would

Industrial  
schools.

be better able to co-ordinate the working of these institutions with reference to the actual requirements of industries in the State and it was therefore ordered that these institutions should be transferred to his control with effect from 1st July 1922. The number of schools and pupils undergoing instruction at the end of 1921-22 were twenty-four and 1,051, respectively. Of the total number of schools, thirteen were directly under Government management of which seven were situated at District Head-quarters, *viz.*, Mysore, Shimoga, Chikmagalur, Chitaldrug and Hassan, and the rest in taluk Head-quarters, *viz.*, Sagar, Chennapatna, Hole-Narsipur, Dodballapur, Molakalmuru and Chiknaikanhalli.

Chamarajendra Technical Institute.

In addition to the Engineering and Commercial sections, an industrial section is also attached to the Institution. A general education class attached to the Institution is being attended by a large number of students. The industrial section was developed by erecting a saw mill and constructing a seasoning kiln so as to remove the difficulty of securing seasoned-out timber. The strength of the school during 1921-22 was 271, of which 7 were Europeans, 13 Indian Christians, 55 Muhammadans, 45 Brahmans, 7 Kshatriyas, 6 Vaisyas, 20 Lingayets, 124 other high caste Hindus, one Jain and one Parsi.

Industrial Schools for Girls.

At the close of the year 1921-22, there were four Industrial Schools for girls, *viz.*, the Industrial class maintained in the Maharani's High School, Wesleyan Mission Orphanage at Hassan and two schools in Mysore, one maintained by the Depressed Class Mission, the other being St. Ignatius Industrial School. The total strength of these four schools was 166 in 1919-20 and 149 in 1921-22.

At first, instruction in Engineering was given in two schools in the State—Civil Engineering in the Engineering section of the Chamarajendra Technical Institute, Mysore, and Mechanical Engineering in the Mechanical Engineering School, Bangalore. As the Engineering School at Mysore was not an integral part of the Chamarajendra Technical Institute, Government laid down in their orders on the Education Memorandum, that the Civil Engineering School should be transferred to Bangalore and amalgamated with the Mechanical Engineering School. The amalgamation was given effect to from 1st July 1922 and the name of the latter Institution changed to “The School of Engineering.”

Engineering  
Schools.

In the Civil Engineering School, instruction is given in the following subjects:—

Civil  
Engineering  
School.

- (1) Building materials and construction;
- (2) Hydraulics and Irrigation Works;
- (3) Surveying and levelling;
- (4) Drawing;
- (5) Applied mechanics, carpentry, bridge work, earth-work and road-making.

The system of supplementing class room instruction by excursions to important Engineering works forms a good feature of the school. The students of the Senior Sub-Overseers class are taken on a visit to Engineering works both in the State and in the Madras Presidency and the practical knowledge which such excursions provide has been of great benefit to the students.

The students were originally trained for the Madras Technical examination, attendance at which was declared optional in 1915 and an examination conducted by the Board specially constituted in the State is now the final examination.

Examina-  
tions.

Mechanical  
Engineering  
School.

The school was brought into existence by an order of May 1913 and imparted instruction in the principles and practice of the following :—

- (1) Management and care of steam and oil engines ;
- (2) Management, care and erection of machinery and working of mills ;
- (3) Electrical work including operation ;
- (4) Driving of motor cars ;
- (5) Carpentry, including cabinet-making.

In the year 1914-15, three additional classes were opened for the training of :—

- (1) Industrial School teachers ;
- (2) Permanent Way Inspectors ;
- (3) Telegraphic Signallers and men for subordinate places in the Traffic Department.

Evening classes in Technical Drawing, Motor Mechanics, Electrical wiring were also opened for the training of men engaged in professional or other work during the day. But these classes were recommended to be abolished as they were not taken much advantage of by the type of workmen for whom they were primarily intended. In Electrical and Mechanical Engineering, there were two grades of teaching, higher and lower, and two corresponding sections of each were maintained, while in Motor driving there was provision only for instruction in the lower grade. The school is very popular on account of its usefulness and from year to year the number of applications for admission has increased. The short-time motor classes are specially attractive and only a limited number of students are being admitted for want of sufficient equipment.

Batches of students who finish their training course in the school are sent to various institutions for practical work.

Commercial education has only in the last few years found recognition in India. In this State also, commercial education is of so recent growth that as understood to include all education which prepares specifically for business careers is yet to be developed. The first Commercial School in Bangalore was an aided school started by a private gentleman in April 1897. The fees charged were so low that it was necessary to render services to the school without any remuneration. Correspondence, Book-keeping and Short-hand were taught until 1901. In 1901-02, Commercial Geography and Banking were added to the curriculum. The school was at first held three days in the week from 6 to 8 P. M. and from 1902 every evening. In January 1902, a grant-in-aid of Rs. 20 per month was sanctioned to the school. The next Commercial School to be opened was Hardwicke Commercial School, Mysore. It began work in 1906 and gave instruction in Type-writing, Book-keeping, Short-hand, Commercial Correspondence and Commercial Geography. A grant of Rs. 600 was sanctioned for this school in 1905-06 towards the cost of the necessary apparatus.

Commercial  
Schools.

At the beginning of the year 1916-17, there were four Commercial Schools, two Government and two aided—the Bangalore Government Commercial School; the Commercial Section of the Chamarajendra Technical Institute, the aided Commercial School, Bangalore and the Hardwicke Commercial School, Mysore. The total strength of these institutions was 355 of which fourteen were girls. The subjects in which instruction was given in these schools were :—

Number of  
schools,  
strength and  
courses of  
instruction.

- (1) Banking and Currency,
- (2) Book-keeping and Accounts,
- (3) Commercial Correspondence and Office routine,
- (4) Short-hand,

- (5) Type-writing,
- (6) Political Economy,
- (7) Marathi, and
- (8) Kannada.

For the benefit of merchants and business men who had no knowledge of English, a Vernacular section was opened in the Commercial School at Bangalore; provision being made for teaching in Tamil, Telugu, Marathi and Gujarati. Four Vernacular Commercial classes were opened during 1916-17 at Chintamani, Tirthahalli, Davangere and Nanjangud. As the demand for commercial knowledge increased, due to the various activities inaugurated by the Mysore Economic Conference, the Inspector-General of Education requested sanction for the opening of Commercial classes in connection with the High Schools in the State at a recurring cost of Rs. 1,936 per mensem for each school. Government sanctioned the recommendation and directed that three schools may be opened in the year 1918-19 and the rest in 1919-20 and that provision might be made in connection with these classes for the delivery of public lectures in Account-keeping and in the standard practice of rules to be observed in trade businesses. Accordingly, Commercial Schools were opened in 1917-18 in the High Schools of Chennapatna, Hassan and Chikmagalur and arrangements made for the delivery of lectures of an advanced character by specialists on commercial subjects—Economic Science, Statistics, Public Administration, Banking, Joint-Stock enterprise including Co-operation and other allied subjects. A general Board was formed for the purpose of conducting these examinations and the course of studies was also revised. The main changes in the revised rules were the introduction of Pass and Honours courses in lieu of the existing three grades, *viz.*, Elementary, Intermediate and Advance, the reclassification of the subjects of study, which however remained the same, into nine

groups of one or two years' course in each according to the importance of the subject, the omission of the provision for the grant of free studentships in view of the low rate of fees that was levied and the introduction of a public examination for the Vernacular branch of Commercial education. The details regarding the subjects, courses of study and the nature of public examinations are as given below:—

Sl. No.	Subject	Course of Study	Nature of Public Examinations
1	Accountancy and Auditing ...	2 years.	A Junior examination at the end of the last year course of study and a Senior examination at the end of the 2nd year course.
2	Banking and Economics ...	2 years.	Do
3	Methods of Machinery and Business.	2 years.	Do
4	One of the following languages other than the Vernacular in which the candidate is literate up to at least the III Form standard:—Gujarati, Kannada, Tamil, Telugu and Urdu.	2 years.	Do
5	Short-hand and Type-writing.	2 years.	A Senior examination at the end of two years' course of study.
6	Commercial History ...	2 years.	Do
7	English Composition of the S. S. L. C. Standard.	2 years.	Do
8	Commercial Arithmetic ...	1 year.	A Junior examination at the end of one year's course of study.
9	Economic Geography ...	1 year.	Do

The Vernacular sections were not found to be very popular among the trading classes and failed to attract sufficient number of students and were therefore done away with. The extension lectures which were a prominent feature in these classes were also discontinued from 1921-22. The number of schools at the close of 1921-22 was three—two Government and one aided—with a total strength of 185 as against four schools with a total strength of 332 in the previous year. In addition to these schools,

Commercial classes were continued to be attached to the High Schools of Tumkur, Shimoga, Hassan, Chikmagalur, Chennapatna and Davangere, where Commerce was taught as an optional subject for the S. S. L. C. examination.

Scholarships tenable in India and in foreign countries.

The various scholarships granted for training in technical subjects is dealt with in a separate section under scholarships.

The Indian Institute of Science.

This institution which is located in Bangalore owes its origin to the genius and munificence of the late Mr. J. N. Tata of Bombay. The original idea was to found an Indian Research University but the final form agreed upon was an Institute of Science with four Departments at first, more Departments being opened as the resources expanded. The Government of Mysore gave a site of 371 acres and made a decent contribution towards the initial expenditure. An annual grant of Rs. 30,000 was promised in the first instance for ten years, but the amount of grant later on increased to Rs. 50,000. The institution began work in July 1911 with 17 students and four Departments—General Chemistry, Organic Chemistry, Applied Chemistry and Electrical Technology.

Scholarships were awarded to some of the Mysore graduates for doing research work in different subjects in the Institute, the number being determined by the Departments of the State. The value of scholarships varied from Rs. 50 to Rs. 75 and there were six Mysore scholars doing research work in the Institute, the subjects of study being investigation of lac, wood distillation, tanning and essential oils and fats.

#### SCHOLARSHIPS, ENDOWMENTS AND OTHER FACILITIES.

Outline of Government Policy.

One of the salient features of the educational policy of the State is the grant of liberal scholarships in all stages



of instruction from the Elementary to the University course and for study in all kinds of institutions literary, technical, industrial and professional, tenable either in the schools in the State or in British India. A number of scholarships according to the requirements of the State are also awarded to scholars for undergoing training in foreign countries either in literary, technical or scientific subjects.

The backward classes, including the Muhammadans and the Depressed classes, in which the percentage of literacy is very low and other classes of people, such as Military and Palegars, have received special consideration. The scholarships awarded may be broadly classified into two categories :—

- (i) Those which are tenable in foreign countries, and
- (ii) Those which are tenable in the State or in British India.

The latter may be classified into :—

- (1) Merit Scholarships,
- (2) Backward Class Scholarships,
- (3) Technical Scholarships,
- (4) Professional Scholarships, and
- (5) Endowment Scholarships.

These are granted with a view to promote advanced scientific study, technical training and a spirit of research among the people, to train in European countries a number of young men who will follow industrial and commercial occupations which will conduce to the development of the country and also to secure for the services of the State in its several Departments young men trained in Western Universities and Colleges, imbued with a progressive spirit of the West and equipped with a first-hand knowledge of modern methods. To secure these objects, two scholarships were granted every year from the Damodar Das fund, but no rules were in force

Foreign  
Scholarships.

to regulate the grant of scholarships from State Funds though some were granted on the merits of the individual applications received from time to time. The necessity for improving this scheme so as to meet adequately the present day requirements of the various Departments of the State was felt, and in 1914 Government decided to increase the number of foreign scholarships with a view to enlarge the range of subjects for training so as to comprise industrial and commercial subjects more largely, and to improve the method of selecting candidates in order to ensure the securing of the best talents in a given time. The number of scholarships to be ordinarily granted was fixed at 11—two from the Damodar Das Charity funds, four from the general revenues of the State (all free) and five from the general revenues of the State as loan scholarships to be repayable without interest ordinarily in five and in any case not more than ten years on return after the completion of the study. Condition of service for a period of not less than five years on a reasonable salary to be fixed at the sole discretion of Government is insisted upon in all the three cases, and if Government are unable to offer employment within six months after return, they are bound to waive the condition of service and allow the scholars to take employment elsewhere. Soon after these revised rules came into force, eight fresh foreign scholarships were sanctioned in each of the years 1916-17 and 1917-18, but owing to the abnormal conditions prevailing in the West on account of the Great War, none could proceed for want of necessary passport except one during the latter year.

There was, however, an improvement under the above scheme, in the number of candidates taking advantage of the scheme of scholarships in later years. But it was borne in upon Government that the foreign scholarship rules needed revision so as to enable Government to provide technical and other Departments with

sufficient number of men possessing the requisite foreign training, as the grant of scholarships was not regulated, at the time of the award to meet the requirements of the various Departments ascertained in advance. With a view to consider this and other defects in the existing scheme, Government appointed a Committee who, after a careful investigation of the various issues involved, recommended that the six scholarships (2 Damodar Das and 4 State) should be redistributed as follows:—

Three for Departmental Officers, and  
Three for graduates;

(two of the latter being reserved for candidates recommended by the Mysore University Council).

On a careful consideration of the recommendations of the Committee, the Government ordered that the number of scholarships to be awarded annually exclusive of the Loan Scholarships be fixed at four (2 Damodar Das and 2 State) one of which be set apart for the most brilliant graduate of the Mysore University, preference being given to a student taking up some branch of science, one awarded to suitable candidate belonging to one of the educationally backward classes in the State and the other two for the study of subjects to be notified from time to time. A number of brilliant graduates of the University took advantage of the opportunities offered to them and were awarded scholarships, the number of such students studying abroad during the years 1916-17, 1917-18, 1918-19, 1919-20, 1920-21 and 1921-22 being 8, 10, 15, 11, 18 and 20 respectively. Owing to financial difficulties, it was subsequently considered that there was no justification for the grant of free scholarships when drastic reductions were being made in even normal items of expenditure and that such scholarships might be granted only by way of loan in future. As two Damodar Das scholarships were awarded free every

year, Government considered that the large amount devoted towards the grant of foreign scholarship might advantageously be utilised for meeting more obligatory demands. It was accordingly ordered that scholarships debitable to State Funds should be treated as loans recoverable until further orders.

State or  
British  
Indian  
Scholarships:  
Merit  
Scholarships.

Five scholarships of the value of Rs. 10 each are awarded to the first five candidates who secure the highest number of marks in the S. S. L. C. examination to enable them to prosecute their studies in the University Entrance Class.

Backward  
Class  
Scholarships.

With a view to spread knowledge and enlightenment among a large portion of the population of the State which is steeped in ignorance, Government sanctioned a liberal sum of one lakh of rupees for being distributed as scholarships among the backward communities. The Inspector-General of Education and the Education Committee of the Economic Conference were requested to submit proposals for the utilisation of this amount. The former suggested that the amount should be utilised to improve the general standard of literacy in the State with a view to raise the economic efficiency of the people as a whole and therefore proposed that the money should be utilised in promoting primary and secondary education among the most backward classes while the latter proposed that the bulk of the amount should be spent chiefly in promoting higher education in English so as to rouse the intellectual ambition of the relatively backward classes and give them greater opportunities to improve and qualify themselves for the public services and the higher professions. As the liberal grant-in-aid policy followed by Government had resulted in the springing up of a large number of primary schools in rural areas and as a

careful study of the statistics relating to the progress of education in the case of these communities showed that pupils began to fall off at a stage in which they had to leave their homes for continuing in the higher stages of education, Government agreed with the Education Committee that this special grant of one lakh of rupees should be for the present devoted chiefly to the award of scholarships for promoting higher education. After reserving a sum of Rs. 15,000 for the benefit of depressed classes, the amount was distributed among the different communities and for the various grades of instruction from the University to the Vernacular Lower Secondary stage. The administration of the scholarships was vested in the Education Committee and the District and Taluk Progress Committees of the Economic Conference who had power to appoint sub-committees containing representatives of the different backward classes and of important educational institutions to select the suitable candidates. Scholarships tenable in the University classes were administered by the University Council, those tenable in the University Entrance classes by the Education Committee of the Economic Conference, those in the High School Classes by the District Committees and those in the English and Vernacular Lower Secondary classes as also the special scholarships for the depressed classes by the Taluk Progress Committees. For the purpose of these scholarships, any caste, tribe or community which had less than 5 per cent of its total population literate in English was reckoned as backward and the number of scholarships in each grade was distributed among the different classes in the proportion of their population to the total population of the backward classes in the State. The share of scholarship of each community was again distributed among the districts in proportion to the school-going population of those classes in the various Districts. A general instruction was issued

to all the Committees administering the scheme that care should be taken to select candidates deserving of encouragement on the double ground of merit and poverty. The certificates provided by the Head-masters of the various educational institutions were to be considered carefully in making awards and every endeavour was to be made not only to assist pupils but also to encourage teachers in institutions to bring forward promising and deserving scholars in increasing numbers.

Ad-Hoc  
Committees.

The backward class scholarships were awarded for two years on the principles and through the agency mentioned above. But it was soon found that the machinery designed to administer these scholarships worked very slow with the consequence that the scholarships were disbursed very late in the year, thereby frustrating the very object with which these scholarships were sanctioned. The District and Taluk Progress Committees were therefore replaced by *Ad-Hoc* Scholarship Committees constituted for each District and Taluk consisting of five members holding office for two consecutive years. The Committees empanelled solely for the purpose of awarding these scholarships worked satisfactorily and justified their existence by distributing the scholarships in time.

Palegar  
Scholarships.

With a view to encourage the young members of the families of Palegars to receive higher education and qualify them for public service, a sum of Rs. 840 is being allotted annually for awarding scholarships to them, tenable in Colleges and High Schools of the State.

Military  
Scholarships.

In order to provide some special inducements for higher education among the military classes so that there might be sufficient number of men who might be fit on the ground of educational qualifications for appointment and promotion to higher commissioned ranks, fees in

Government Schools for pupils of the military class studying as far as the Lower Secondary Class were abolished, only half the fee being collected in classes above that standard. A number of scholarships of the monthly value of Rs. 5 each were awarded annually for the High School course, one for each Regiment, the scholarship being awarded on the results of the Lower Secondary Examination to the boy who stood highest among the pupils of that Regiment. By way of further encouragement to children of soldiers and non-combatants having a claim for special consideration from the State by reason of their being employed in active military service in connection with the Great War, Government sanctioned scholarships in Lower Secondary Schools, the rates being the same as those prescribed for the backward class scholarships with freeships attached and a fixed percentage of scholarships in High Schools and Colleges to be exclusively reserved for such students according to the scale to be approved by Government from time to time with reference to the number of such pupils and without prejudice to their competency for open scholarships. It was also stipulated that, if the ordinary scholarships did not cover hostel charges when pupils resided in them, an addition amounting to one-third of the scholarships should be made to meet such charges. The above concessions were not considered adequate by the Mysore Soldiers' Board who recommended that each child of every person employed in the Mysore Regiment should be granted scholarships, but Government, after carefully considering the proposal, expressed themselves not in favour of granting scholarships to every child as a matter of course but laid down that three scholarships of each class up to and inclusive of the Middle School standard for each of the Regiments might be instituted to be awarded to the poor and deserving students from the Regiments and ten scholarships in each of the High

School Classes and five in the Entrance Classes for all the Regiments, the value of the scholarships being the same as the backward class scholarships of the corresponding grade. As a further concession, a provision of Rs. 150 was also directed to be made to supply students who were unable to purchase books free of cost. During the year 1921-22, 135 scholarships ranging from Rs. 2 to Rs. 10 were awarded, the total expenditure being Rs. 6,936 and these were tenable without prejudice to the competency of the scholars in these schools for all open scholarships.

Technical  
Scholarships.

Technical scholarships varying from Rs. 15 to 20 were awarded to the Mysore students who prosecuted their studies in Madras, Bombay or other places outside the State in industrial and commercial subjects for which no provision existed in the State. During the year 1916-17, there were in all 37 scholarship-holders of whom 12 were studying in the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay, 11 in the Sydenham College of Commerce, Bombay, 9 in the School of Arts, Madras, and 3 in the Sir J. J. School of Arts, Bombay. The following table shows the number of scholarships and the total value of the same during the years 1916-17 to 1920-21 :—

Year				Number of Scholarships	Total amount
					Rs. a. p.
1916-17	...	...	...	37	5,995 9 4
1917-18	...	...	...	29	6,199 12 7
1918-19	...	...	...	30	7,466 14 8
1919-20	...	...	...	26	18,215 9 7
1920-21	...	...	...	18	9,457 0 0

The administration of these technical scholarships tenable in schools in British India was vested in the Inspector-General of Education and the obvious disadvantage incidental to such a system necessitated a modification of the rules so as to secure a more direct



relationship between the scholar and his future departmental Head. The Inspector-General of Education could not be in a position to watch or gauge the progress of the scholar in his studies except by the opinion of the Head of the Department or other expert officer. The principle of transferring the administration of the technical scholarships to the Heads of the Departments concerned which was approved by Government in the case of foreign scholarships was also adopted in the case of the other technical and professional scholarships tenable in India which were mostly intended for securing recruits to the Departments concerned, the budget provision being likewise transferred from the Education Department to the Departments concerned. This system has come into effect from the year 1922-23.

Two scholarships of the value of Rs. 25 per mensem were awarded every year to graduates desirous of undergoing training in the Medical Colleges of Madras or Bombay. But as the number of qualified candidates so produced was inadequate to meet the requirements of the Medical Department, Government considered that special facilities should be afforded to candidates desirous of studying for the degrees in medicine and increased the number of scholarships to six. The amount of scholarship of Rs. 25 per mensem which was fixed years ago was found to be inadequate and was therefore raised to Rs. 40 for graduates and Rs. 30 for others. Two scholarships of Rs. 50 each were also awarded to Ayurvēdic Pandits and Unāni Hakims for undergoing training in Western system of medicine. The number of scholarships tenable during the years 1918-19, 1919-20, 1920-21 and 1921-22 was 6, 15, 23 and 29 respectively.

Professional  
Scholarships:  
Medical.

These scholarships varying from Rs. 20 to Rs. 40 were granted by Government at the instance of the Director

Agricultural  
Scholarships.

of Agriculture, the number varying according to the needs of the Department. The scholars were deputed for study either in the Agricultural College, Poona, or Pusa. Four scholarships were awarded during each of the two years 1920-21 and 1921-22.

Veterinary,  
Mining and  
other  
scholarships.

A number of scholarships were also awarded for the study of veterinary science in the Bombay Veterinary College. The value of these scholarships was increased from Rs. 25 to Rs. 30. A few mining scholarships were also awarded for undergoing training in the course of mining either in the Tata Mining Works, Sachi, or in the Engineering College, Sibpur, the value of the scholarships being Rs. 50. Some scholarships were also awarded to Mysore graduates for doing research work in different subjects in the Institute of Science. The number of such scholars is not fixed but is being determined by the requirements of the State from time to time. The value of these scholarships varies from Rs. 50 to Rs. 75. During the year 1920-21, there were six Mysore State scholars doing research work in the Institute, the subjects of study being investigation of lac, wood distillation, tanning, and essential oils and fats.

Endowment  
Scholarships :  
Khadyata  
Scholarships.

The scholarships known as Khadyata scholarships are granted for the encouragement of general and technical education among the people of the Khadyata community to which the late Damodar Das belonged and are paid from the income derived from one-fifth of the Damodar Das Charities Fund and the up-to-date accumulated savings thereon. The number of scholarships was originally eleven, but was subsequently raised to eighteen, the value of the same ranging from Rs. 10 to Rs. 20. The selection of students for such scholarships is made by a Committee consisting of selected gentlemen of the Khadyata community appointed by Government from

time to time, who submit their recommendations to the Inspector-General of Education.

Besides the above, a number of endowments have been made by philanthropic gentlemen with sympathetic interest for the spread of education, the income from which is utilised either for awarding scholarships or prizes.

The sanctioned scale of expenditure on scholarships rose from Rs. 21,404 in 1890-91 to Rs. 3,65,398 in 1921-22. In the early stages, scholarships were provided in the lower grades of education only to women, pupils of the Depressed classes and Special communities, such as the Muhammadans and the Palegars. In the higher grades, provision was made only in the Arts Colleges for five merit scholarships and a few stipends ranging in value from Rs. 1-8-0 to Rs. 5-0-0 per mensem. In 1914, 100 scholarships of Rs. 5 each were instituted from village school fund to enable intelligent pupils in taluk stations to continue in IV and V Vernacular standards. A few stipends were also awarded, tenable in the local technical and professional colleges in British India, for the study of subjects for which there was no provision in the State. On the introduction of the Honours course in the Madras University, a few scholarships were sanctioned to enable deserving students to prosecute their studies in the Colleges outside the State. With the reorganisation of Industrial, Technical and Women's Education, liberal stipends on a large scale were sanctioned for pupils in the technical and industrial schools and made tenable in the technical and industrial schools and the scholarships provided for girls were also increased and made tenable in Primary and Lower Secondary classes and in the District Head-quarter Girls' schools. To attract private students to join the Upper Secondary Training course, a generous scale of stipends was also sanctioned so that the demand for qualified teachers to staff the ever increasing

Expenditure  
on Scholar-  
ships.

schools might be adequately met. A sum of Rs. 1,00,000 was allotted annually for the encouragement of education among the members of backward communities from 1917 and of this allotment a sum of Rs. 15,000 was reserved for the Depressed classes for award of scholarships in the Vernacular Primary and Lower Secondary stages and industrial classes. A further allotment of Rs. 15,000 was subsequently sanctioned for pupils of the Depressed classes studying in English classes.

To co-ordinate the several schemes of scholarships and to reduce expenditure on the same in view of the financial stringency, a Committee consisting of the Inspector-General of Education, representative of the University, of the backward communities and of Women's education was constituted in 1921 to examine in detail the various schemes of scholarships tenable within and outside the State (except foreign scholarships) and submit detailed proposals. The recommendations of the Committee were approved by Government with some modifications in their Order, dated 3rd December 1921, the net result of the revision being a savings of Rs. 81,864 per annum.

The actual expenditure on scholarships during the six years from 1916-17 to 1921-22 was as follows:—

Year	Amount	Year	Amount
1916-17	... 55,000	1919-20	... 129,600
1917-18	... 74,157	1920-21	.. 78,313
1918-19	... 134,580	1921-22	... 144,992

As a measure of retrenchment, the tenure of scholarships has since been reduced from 12 to 10 months resulting in further savings of about Rs. 22,000.

Free-Student-  
ships.

In addition to the liberal scholarships, a number of free studentships were also awarded in the University and the High School classes so as to enable poor and deserving students who either failed to obtain scholarships

or were not entitled for the same to continue their education. Different scales prevailed in the University and High School classes from time to time. With a view to fix a permanent scale of free studentships for all grades of education, Government after a careful consideration of the subject in consultation with the Board of Education, the University Council and the Inspector-General of Education, have issued orders to the effect that all scholarship-holders including holders of backward class scholarships should be free and of the remaining number, 30 per cent in the University classes, including the Engineering College, 25 per cent in the Entrance classes and 20 per cent in the High School classes should be free, existing concessions to Rajputs and Muhammadan pupils, girls and the Depressed classes remaining unaffected. These free studentships are open to all communities.

#### MANUAL TRAINING AND MEDICAL INSPECTION.

With the object of giving manual training in conjunction with general education, sloyd classes in wood were attached to Government High Schools. During 1920-21, there were 11 centres with a total strength of 1,462. In addition to the pupils of the High School forms, all the teachers under training in the Graduate and Undergraduate training classes in Mysore were also made to undergo a course in sloyd. Government also sanctioned a scheme for the construction of sloyd halls, and the construction of such halls at Bangalore and Chikballapur was completed by the end of the year 1921-22. Two Supervisors to inspect the sloyd centres were attached to the two circles. At the request of the Gwalior State, one of the Supervisors of sloyd was deputed to the Industrial, Agricultural and Educational Exhibition held at Gwalior in 1918 and the sloyd exhibits of Mysore were highly appreciated and awarded a gold medal. In addition

to these wood sloyd centres, there were also paper sloyd classes attached to most of the important A.-V. and Girls' Schools. The number under instruction in these classes during the years 1916-17, 1918-19 and 1920-21 was 6,038, 6,344 and 5,980 respectively. The sloyd classes as well as sloyd centres with the Supervisors and their establishment were, however, abolished in connection with retrenchments with effect from 1st July 1922. The tools and materials of these classes have been kept for use in connection with the Polytechnic course to be opened in the A.-V. Schools in conformity with the orders on the Education Memorandum.

Medical  
Inspection of  
Schools.

No particular attention was paid to the medical inspection of school children previous to the year 1908-09. In that year, the Sanitary Commissioner proposed that every medical officer or subordinate in charge of a Local Fund or other Dispensary should inspect all Government and grant-in-aid schools in the town or union in which they are stationed, every fortnight, with a view chiefly to examine the health of the children attending such schools and recommending such of them as require it to undergo treatment at the local dispensary at an hour that will not interfere with the school work. This arrangement was, however, insufficient. The subject was taken up for consideration by the Economic Conference and Government passed orders in March 1916 approving of a scheme for the medical inspection of pupils at District Headquarters by the Health Officers in the Cities and District Medical Officers in towns. The examination of school girls was entrusted to Lady Medical Officers. The essential principles underlying the scheme then introduced were a thorough examination of the pupils on admission, subsequent periodical examinations, treatment by the medical officers in the case of ordinary diseases and segregation in the case of communicable diseases and

the attendance of the local Sub-Assistant Surgeon or other Medical Officer as the medical officer of the schools at his Head-quarters on payment of remuneration to him. The scheme did not, however, work satisfactorily mainly due to the fact that no inducement was given to the medical officers to undertake the duties, and also because of the pressure of other work devolving on the District Medical Officers and their Assistants who could not therefore command sufficient leisure to attend to the work of examination of school children. As medical inspection, the necessity of which is admitted by all, was carried out neither systematically nor satisfactorily, Government laid down in their orders on the Education Memorandum "that in view of the cost involved on the large organisation that would be needed for the medical inspection of all schools, only a beginning could be made for the present in introducing the scheme in the Government A.-V. and High Schools at District Head-quarters. In the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore, the services of a retired medical officer or a qualified private practitioner may be engaged on an allowance of Rs. 100 or Rs. 150 per mensem. At other District Head-quarters, arrangements may be made for the work being conducted by the Local Medical Officer on payment of a fee which may be about one rupee per pupil for two half-yearly examinations. Government will be glad if aided agencies could also make similar arrangements for the medical inspection of schools under their charge and will be prepared to give, as far as funds permit, grants-in-aid not exceeding half the expenditure actually incurred by the management."

#### RELIGIOUS AND MORAL INSTRUCTION.

Direct Moral and Religious instruction formed part of the curricula of old *Pāṭasālas* in India, but with the introduction of the British Educational Policy in India with its religious neutrality, purely secular education was

Policy of  
neutrality  
and its  
results.

developed in India till very recently. Mr. Devereaux's scheme, framed in accordance with the principles of the Government of India Despatch of 1854, was similarly neutral in policy as to religious instruction. The natural result of such a policy was that the direct influence of schools in moulding the character had failed and the Inspector-General of Education while emphasising strongly the necessity for religious and moral instruction observed in his letter, dated 17th June 1908, "for various reasons the homes of the pupils have ceased to impart religious and moral instruction and the influence of religious teachers and places of public worship has almost disappeared. Irreverence of all kinds and disrespect of authority have been on the increase. Modesty, self-restraint and good sense are largely at a discount, while presumption, vanity and unrestrained aggressiveness appear to be increasing. Religion can be and should be taught in Indian schools, in spite of the innumerable dogmatic differences between the various systems of religion prevailing in India." He submitted a scheme to Government providing for weekly discourses in Colleges, daily classes in High Schools, lectures on the basis of approved notes in taluk schools and advanced classes of village schools, and short moral stories and recitation of songs in village primary schools. The scheme aimed entirely at the teaching of higher details of life and conduct without bringing the teaching into clash with the religious sentiments of the various communities. It confined itself to imparting instruction in the higher ethical teaching, the cultivation of genuine religious feelings through the medium of conduct supplemented by moral discourses. Specific religious teaching was confined to books like the "Sanāthana Dharma" text-books, the *Koran* and approved commentaries and the subjects for moral discourse were based on a text taken from some religious, moral, historical or literary book. The scheme



was confined to Government institutions and attendance was made optional. If the number of non-Hindu pupils was more than 20, special arrangements were made for imparting instruction in the respective religions.

Government, while accepting the scheme, observed in their Order, dated 28th September 1908, that they were convinced that one of the readiest and most effective means of forming and training the character of youths was to be found in imparting religious and moral instruction to them as a systematic part of the school work and that as Mysore is a Hindu State and the bulk of the population is Hindu, provision in imparting Hindu religion should be made in all Government institutions. They recognised that this step was in the nature of an experiment and the results might possibly not be all that could be desired, but in the interest of the rising generation they felt that the State could no longer afford to postpone action in the matter. After the introduction of the scheme, the detailed programme of work in the several grades was steadily followed. In the lowest classes where it was not possible to separate religious and moral training, devotional songs and prayers were recited and stories from the *Purānas* illustrated by wall-pictures were narrated. In the High School classes, religion was taught on the non-sectarian lines with the aid of "Sanāthana Dharma" series of books. The working of the scheme for over a decade showed that it had not been, however, a complete success.

Introduction  
of Religious  
Instruction in  
1908.

Suggestions were made as regards the lines on which religious and moral education may be improved in the schools so as to promote in the boys a spirit of reverence and devotion. Government have directed the Inspector-General of Education to work out a scheme on the basis of the suggestions received and in consultation

Scheme of  
1908 under  
Revision.

with the Board of Education. The matter is now engaging the attention of the Department.

#### TRAINING INSTITUTIONS.

Early  
History.

The need for getting properly qualified teachers was felt very early and the Department of Education opened a Normal School for the Training of teachers in the early sixties of last century. An examination was instituted at the end of the course and certificates were issued to the successful candidates. After the institution of the Hobli School system, Normal Schools were established at each District Head-quarter station for training teachers to staff the schools opened and at the end of 1868 there were in these Normal Schools 354 persons undergoing training. These Normal Schools established for the training of indigenous school-masters and the masters in Hobli schools supplied efficient masters to all the institutions that Government found it possible to establish. The retrenchment of expenditure consequent on the famine of 1877 rendered the abolition of the Normal Schools necessary. But the large failures in the local examinations in subsequent years emphasised the need for specially trained teachers and in 1893-94 a Normal School was established at Mysore with classes for Upper Secondary and the Pandits' courses. The classes for the training of Vernacular mistresses which had been opened for the first time in 1888-89 in the Maharani's Girls' School, but later on absorbed in the Girls' School in 1892, were again reopened the next year in the Maharani's Girls' School. Two more Normal Schools, one at Kolar and the other at Shimoga, were opened in 1897.

The rapid development of Primary education necessitated the employment of teachers not always competent. As training could not be given to all because of the insufficient accommodation in the existing Normal

Schools, many schools had teachers whose qualifications were below the standard. "It will be seen," wrote the Inspector-General of Education in 1903-04, "that out of 3,179 teachers, 1,002 are both unpassed and untrained." In the years from 1904 to 1910, an aided training school for mistresses was opened in Bangalore. Changes were introduced in the curricula for the Upper Secondary and Pandits' examinations and the Pandits' course extended from 2 to 3 years.

At the beginning of the quinquennium 1911-1916, there were 2 Normal Schools for men teachers, all Government, and 2 for women teachers, one of the latter being an aided school conducted by the Wesleyan Mission at Bangalore and the other, the training department of the Maharani's College. There were no classes either for training teachers for English instruction in the A.-V. Schools or for preparing teachers for a degree in teaching. Two graduates were annually sent to the Teachers' College at Saidapet to undergo the L. T. course. But to meet the requirements of the Anglo-Vernacular schools which were increasing in numbers, an under-graduate training class was opened in 1912-13 in the Mysore Normal School. The number of trained teachers being, however, inadequate, the Normal Schools in the State were reorganised with a view to provide facilities for more extensive training of teachers. The chief features of the scheme of reorganisation were the raising of the Normal School at Mysore to the status of a Training College; the concentration of Hindustani training at the Normal School at Mysore, the classes till then held at Kolar and Shimoga for the purpose being abolished and the opening of a new Normal School at Tumkur. Subsequently, 2 more Normal Schools were opened at Bangalore and Chitaldrug with the result that there were in all 7 Training Institutions in the State in 1914-15 and 9 in 1915-16. The

Later Progress, 1911-16.

number trained in the various grades of training classes during the years 1914-15 and 1915-16 were 325 and 434 respectively.

Training of  
Teachers of  
Grant-in-aid  
Schools.

Subsequently, a District Normal School was opened at Hassan in order to increase the output of trained teachers by 60 and a Training School at Mysore for Hindi School mistresses in order to secure suitable and qualified mistresses for Hindi Girls' schools. Facilities were provided for the training of teachers in grant-in-aid schools by the opening of 2 special classes, 1 in Mysore and 1 in Tumkur for training 160 teachers every year. But in pursuance of a resolution of the Conference of Educational officers that the Training classes for unpassed aided teachers should be abolished and that the stipend should be made available only to passed men at all District Normal Schools, Government ordered the discontinuance of these classes from 1st July 1920 and directed that 100 stipends of Rs. 10 each per mensem might be distributed among aided school-masters who have passed the Lower Secondary examination and made tenable in all Training Institutions of the State including the Training College. The total number of institutions and the strength therein at the end of the year 1921-22 was 11 and 588 respectively. Of the 11 institutions, 10 were maintained from State funds and 1 was aided. Of these, 8 were for males and 3 for females, the latter being the Normal Section in the Maharani's High School, Mysore, the Zenana Normal School, Mysore, and the Wesleyan Mission Normal School, Bangalore. In addition to these, special vacation classes were also held in six centres in which a large number of teachers, varying from 240 to 360, were trained every year.

Training  
College,  
Mysore.

· Previous to 1914, there was no provision in the State for training graduates and it was usual to depute two

selected graduates to the Teachers' College, Saidapet, for the L. T. course. But, in that year, the teachers selected could not get admission into the Madras College and it was therefore considered imperative that arrangements should be made for the training of graduate teachers in one of the local Normal schools. Moreover, the higher money value that the revised grant-in-aid code attached to the trained teachers led to a demand from the Managers of the aided schools to provide training for their teachers in Government Normal Schools. To meet the local requirements, the Inspector-General of Education proposed that in the Normal School at Mysore an additional English training class for graduate teachers might be started and the existing elementary English training class remodelled by raising the standard so as to restrict admission only to those who had passed at least the Matriculation examination or possessed a complete School Leaving Certificate. The proposals were sanctioned by Government and a graduate training class was opened and the designation of the Normal School changed to that of the Training College. The College developed rapidly and had at the end of 1915-16 eighteen different classes with a total strength of 230 pupils, of whom 6 were in the Graduate Training class, 16 in Pandits' and Moulvis' classes, 105 in the Kannada High School Department, 24 in the Under-Graduate Training class, 94 in the Lower Training Department and 9 in the Agricultural training class. The various classes held in the Institute were:—

- (1) Graduate training class.
- (2) Under-Graduate training class.
- (3) Upper Secondary training class.
- (4) Lower Secondary (Kannada) training class.
- (5) Lower Secondary (Urdu) training class.
- (6) Agricultural training class.
- (7) Upper Secondary (Kannada) class.

- (8) Upper Secondary (Urdu) class.
- (9) Upper Secondary Urdu training class.
- (10) Pandits' class.
- (11) Moulvis' class.

The strength of the Institution rose steadily from 278 during 1916-17 to 337 at the close of 1921-22. Of the total number of 337, 76 were Muhammadans, 193 Brahmans, 20 Lingayets, 1 Jain and 47 other classes of Hindus.

One special feature of the Graduate training class was that arrangements were made for extra Collegiate lectures in Mathematics, Science and History by experienced lecturers of the Maharaja's College and Collegiate High School. An Agricultural Training class was also attached to the College, which was, however, abolished from 1st July 1921 and the Agricultural Farm attached thereto ordered to be closed from the same date. Two Practising Schools, one A.-V. and another Anglo-Hindustani, were also attached to the College, so that the teachers undergoing training might give practical demonstration in the methods of teaching.

District  
Normal  
Schools.

During the year 1921-22, there were in all 7 District Normal Schools for men and 2 for women (including the Lower Secondary Training section of the Training College, Mysore) and 582 teachers were undergoing training during the year. Of these, 224 masters and 28 mistresses passed in the theoretical portion of the Lower Secondary Training examination and 103 masters and 10 mistresses in the practical examination.

#### MEDICAL EDUCATION.

Scholarships  
for Medical  
Education.

The Government had for a long time a system of granting scholarships to Graduates desirous of undergoing training in the Medical Colleges of Madras and Bombay with a view to secure a sufficient number of qualified

candidates for employment in the Medical Department. The number of scholarships which was at first fixed at two was subsequently raised to six, the amount of scholarships being also raised from Rs. 25 to Rs. 40 per mensem in the case of graduates and Rs. 30 for others. Some scholarships were also sanctioned for the study of the indigenous system to enable candidates who had obtained proficiency in Western medicine to acquaint themselves also with the Āyurvēdic system of treatment. Two scholarships of Rs. 50 each also were awarded to Āyurvēdic Pandits and Unāni Hakims for undergoing training in the Western system of medicine.

A Medical School was started in the State on 1st July 1917 with the object primarily of training Sub-Assistant Surgeons required for medical subordinate service and secondarily of training when accommodation is available for candidates desiring to qualify themselves as private medical practitioners.

Starting of  
Medical  
School, 1917.

The question of instituting a Medical Faculty in the State was under consideration for some time past. When the subject was considered by the University Senate in 1923, it was resolved that, in order to meet the growing and urgent demands of graduates and undergraduates of the University for the study of Medicine and in view of the fact that it is very difficult for Mysore students to secure admission to the Medical Colleges in the neighbouring Presidencies, the Faculty of Medicine may be instituted in the Mysore University and a College of Medicine opened at Bangalore. A special Committee was appointed to work out the details. The report of the Committee adopted by the Senate was considered by Government, who accorded their sanction to the institution of the Faculty of Medicine in the Mysore University and the establishment of a Medical College at Bangalore

Establish-  
ment of  
Medical  
College, 1924.

in combination with the Medical School with effect from the academical year commencing from July 1924.

#### TEXT-BOOKS.

For Higher  
Courses of  
study.

Text-books prescribed for the higher courses of study are recommended by the University and the majority of them are publications of well-known publishing firms. Suitable text-books for the lower classes, however, are more difficult to get. The need for the help of experts was felt so long ago as 1873-74 and a temporary Committee was then formed to select books and recommend courses of study for Mysore and Coorg. Mr. C. Rangacharlu, afterwards Dewan of Mysore, and Mr. Rice were on the Committee.

Text-Book  
Committee  
and its func-  
tions.

A regular Text-Book Committee was first formed in 1892 for the selection and preparation of text-books for schools. The strength of the Committee was 30, but subsequently increased to 45, composed of scholars in the various languages in the State. It is divided into a number of sub-committees to deliberate on particular classes of text-books, English text-books, Urdu text-books, etc., and to consider individual books and make recommendations to the Committee and to indicate how far the existing text-books require revision and on what lines they are to be revised. Under the above arrangement, a large number of books received for patronage were reviewed and got printed so as to be useful either for general study or for being prescribed as text-books in the schools of the State. But there was in this connection a certain amount of overlapping of functions amongst the several agencies in the State, *viz.*, the Education Department, the Board of Education and the Publication Bureau of the University, all of which were concerned in the publication of original works in Kannada. With a view to avoid this overlapping, rules have been laid down



defining the scope of action of the three bodies. According to these rules, the Education Department, with the aid of the Text-Book Committee, is to confine itself to the publication of text-books for schools according to the curricula prescribed by the Department; the Board of Education to interest itself in the publication, on modern lines, of books bearing on general knowledge and not falling under the head of text-books intended for use in schools; and the scope of the Publication Bureau has been limited to advanced treatises and works of higher study and also to the preparation of books suitable for the University grade of education. The remuneration to be paid to the authors for writing these books, which was not so far regulated but was determined on the merits of each individual case, was also regularised by prescribing rates varying from Rs. 8 to Rs. 15 per form according to the nature of the subject matter and the Inspector-General of Education was empowered to sanction remuneration up to Rs. 250 for approved books, payments exceeding this amount requiring the sanction of Government.

#### EDUCATIONAL FINANCE—GENERAL.

The amount spent on Education in the State is derived from the following sources:—State Funds, Local and Municipal Funds, and Fees—all of which are called public funds—and from endowments and contributions, which form private funds. As the expansion of educational facilities foreshadowed in the Memorandum on Education involves considerable additional expenditure, the reform contemplated costing about 22 lakhs of rupees per year in addition to the then existing expenditure, and as the resources at the disposal of Government are limited, the question of finding ways and means for meeting the additional expenditure was carefully considered by Government at the time and it was held that it would not be possible to give effect to the reforms without the

Ways and means for education.

active co-operation of local bodies. Government accordingly laid down that an Education Cess of one anna in the rupee be levied on all items of land, excise and forest revenue on which local cess is now levied and similar cess of 2 annas in the rupee in City Municipalities and 1 anna in other Municipalities and that local fund general and mohatarfa made over to the District Boards in 1917 be resumed and utilised for educational purposes, the rates of mohatarfa fixed long ago being revised suitably.

Expenditure on Education during 1921-22 and 1922-23.

The expenditure on Education during the years 1921-22 and 1922-23 was met from the following sources:—

Sources	Accounts		Percentage to total cost	
	1921-22	1922-23	1921-22	1922-23
	Rs.	Rs.		
State Funds ... ..	28,71,355	37,04,634	64.27	84.88
Local Funds ... ..	10,04,725	45,166	23.18	1.03
Municipal Funds ... ..	5,245	5,078	.11	.12
Fees ... ..	2,86,749	3,19,431	6.24	7.32
All other sources ... ..	2,79,168	2,90,033	6.20	6.65
Total ... ..	44,47,212	43,64,292	100.00	100.00

#### GOVERNMENT EMPLOYMENT AND PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Standards of Educational qualifications required for Public Service.

Educational qualifications are always considered as essential for entry into Government service. State service absorbs a considerable portion of the educated class and it has also acted as an incentive to literary and scientific education in regard to certain classes aspiring to Government service. A certain standard of general educational qualifications is insisted upon as the minimum required in respect of the several classes of appointments and it has been the policy of Government in general to give preference to persons possessing higher qualifications as against those possessing lower ones in filling up places in the public service. But with a view to give to

certain communities who are backward in education an opportunity for entering the public service, the rules regulating admission into it have been relaxed to a certain extent. The minimum educational qualifications necessary for direct recruitment to the several classes of appointments in the ministerial ranks of superior service have been fixed and members of backward communities possessing the required qualifications are preferred in filling up vacancies in those ranks. For appointments in technical Departments, however, technical examinations and professional training are considered essential. For recruitment to higher appointments in the technical Departments, candidates possessing the required general educational qualifications are selected to undergo the prescribed course of training in foreign countries.

The requirements of the Education Department in regard to educational qualifications, specially in regard to teachers employed therein, are somewhat different. While reviewing the problems relating to the improvement of education in Mysore, Government considered the question of minimum qualifications of teachers and they laid down the rule that no candidate who has not passed the S. S. L. C. Examination and has not been trained should be entertained as a teacher in the Middle School nor any one appointed as a teacher unless he has also passed the Entrance or Intermediate Examination. It has also been ordered that the Head-masters of all important Middle Schools should be graduates. The scale of pay of the tutorial and inspecting staff of Girls' Schools has been liberally provided and special grades of pay have been sanctioned for women teachers and women inspectors possessing high University qualifications. For appointments in the University, local graduates and M. A.'s who have passed with distinction are selected to fill up

In the Education Department and University.

the places of Junior Professors, Assistant Professors, Demonstrators, Lecturers, Tutors, etc., and the ranks of professors are generally recruited by persons who have undergone training in recognised Western Universities and have specialized in the subject or subjects which they are expected to teach.

#### LIBRARIES.

Development  
of Public  
Libraries in  
the State.

The development of Public Libraries throughout the State received the special attention of the Education Committee of the Economic Conference as it was considered a means of carrying enlightenment to the people. The Library organisation consisted of the following :—

- (1) Libraries in the various schools and colleges ;
- (2) Educational Library ;
- (3) The two Public Libraries in the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore ;
- (4) District and Taluk Libraries ;
- (5) Rural Libraries ; and
- (6) Travelling Libraries.

College and  
School  
Libraries.

Libraries attached to the particular institutions have been mentioned under those institutions. These libraries are intended for the use of the students and staff of the institutions concerned, and are not open to the public. Special grants were made in recent years to equip the libraries with a large range of books so as to be useful both to the teachers and the taught.

Educational  
Library.

This is located in the office of the Inspector-General of Education in Mysore and the books are lent to the departmental Inspecting Officers and school-masters and to the public only under certain restrictions. When the Public Library at Bangalore was opened, 255 volumes were transferred to it from this Library. The stock has considerably been added to during the recent years by

the purchase of not only school books in English, Kannada, Telugu and Sanskrit but also books relating to History, English literature, Biography, etc.

The City Libraries were started in the year 1914-15 under the direct control of Government and continued to be practically Government institutions till they were registered in the year 1920 with a new constitution under the Mysore Society Regulations when they were converted into aided institutions, each managed by a strong committee of 15 members, 8 of them being nominated by Government and the rest elected from among the subscribers. The Bangalore Public Library is located in the Sir K. Seshadri Iyer's Memorial Hall and that of Mysore is housed in a Hall of the Chamarajendra Technical Institute. Membership of the Libraries is open to the public on payment of a fee and a section of the reading room attached to the Libraries is open to non-members also.

Public  
Libraries at  
Bangalore and  
Mysore.

The Library at Bangalore was very much enlarged by the munificent donation of over Rs. 21,000 given by the Seshadri Iyer Memorial Committee for forming the "Sir K. Seshadri Iyer Memorial Section" in History, Economics and Politics. At the close of 1921-22, the number of subscribers in the two libraries was 452 and 187 and the number of visitors 81,733 and 84,250. The number of volumes in the libraries was 8,419 and 8,708 and the number of books lent out was 43,557 and 30,871. The fee collections were Rs. 4,814 and Rs. 2,908. The total income of the Bangalore Library was Rs. 13,040 of which Government contributed Rs. 7,000 and the Bangalore City and Civil and Military Station Municipalities Rs. 600 and Rs. 500 respectively, while the total expenditure was Rs. 12,142. The income of the Mysore Library including the Government grant of Rs. 4,250 was Rs. 7,252 and the expenditure was Rs. 5,398-1-7.

District and  
Taluk  
Libraries.

With a view to develop the scheme of Public Libraries by encouraging local initiative, the Education Committee of the Economic Conference recommended that a definite scale of grants to such libraries be laid down. Government, while appreciating the desirability of increasing the number of such libraries in the mofussil, sanctioned the following scale of grants for a period of three years from December 1917:—

Fifty per cent of local contribution or Rs. 500 whichever is less in the case of District Libraries and an amount not exceeding local contributions or Rs. 250 whichever is less in the case of Taluk Libraries.

Twenty-five per cent of local contribution or Rs. 25 per mensem whichever is less in the case of District Libraries and 25 per cent of local contributions or Rs. 15 per mensem whichever is less in the case of Taluk Libraries.

Equal to the contributions raised in both the cases.

The administration and control of these libraries was vested in an Advisory Committee and the liberal scale of grants sanctioned by Government gave an impetus to the starting of such libraries in various centres, the number of which during the year 1919-20 being 166. Grants admissible under the rules to these libraries where the amount does not exceed Rs. 250 are sanctioned by the Deputy Commissioner and President of the District Board and above Rs. 250 but not exceeding Rs. 500 by the Inspector-General of Education, while grants in excess of the above sum as also those which are not specifically provided for under the rules are sanctioned only by Government.

Rural  
Libraries.

Rural libraries were also started in villages under the management of committees consisting of five principal residents of the village. The initial expense connected with the purchase of books, furniture, etc., was met by a contribution from the people and a grant from Govern-

ment not exceeding the amount contributed, the maximum being limited to Rs. 100. One-fourth of the annual expenditure not exceeding Rs. 15 was also given when necessary. The scale of grants was revised in 1921 according to which the initial or equipment grant was made equal to local contributions but not exceeding Rs. 50 and the recurring or maintenance grant to Rs. 25 per cent of local contributions or Rs. 3 per mensem whichever is less. But these revised scales of grants could not be brought into operation as orders were issued subsequent to 12th July 1921 that these rules should be suspended until further orders.

Government in their order dated 8th February 1919 sanctioned a scheme of travelling libraries on the recommendations of the Education Committee of the Mysore Economic Conference. Owing to several defects, the benefits anticipated from the scheme were not realised and Government ordered in May 1921 that the whole scheme might be held in abeyance, the libraries being kept in safe custody in the taluk offices. On the representation of the Inspector-General of Education that these books should not thus be allowed to go to waste unutilised, Government approved of his recommendation to transfer these books to the Head-quarter A.-V. Schools, the libraries of which would thus be enriched.

Travelling  
Libraries.

A class for training those interested in library management was organised and 55 persons, mostly teachers from the A.-V., High and District Normal Schools in the State, were trained during the summer vacation of 1920. The instruction consisted of a series of lectures followed by a course of practical training at the end of which there was an examination. As the post of the Library Organiser was abolished in 1921, the scheme of training teachers in library science was held in abeyance.

Library  
training  
class.

## LITERATURE.

Literary  
activity in the  
State.

For decades after the Department of Education was constituted, the work of reviewing literary activity in the State was entrusted to the Department of Education. In 1918, it was relieved of the work. The publication in Kannada of books of modern interest and practical value and the encouragement of such books published by non-official agency in the State are of such vital importance to the general educational progress that a brief reference may be made to it here.

“As the importance of the Vernacular languages becomes more appreciated, the Vernacular literatures of India will be gradually enriched by translations of European books, or by the original compositions of men whose minds have been imbued with the spirit of European advancement, so that European knowledge may gradually be placed in this manner within the reach of all classes of the people.”

Development  
of Kannada  
Literature.

So ran the Despatch of 1854 on the subject of Vernacular instruction. The Education Department has had this important idea before it all along. Mr. Garratt and Mr. Rice, Director of Public Instruction, the latter for nearly two decades, did good work for the improvement of Kannada literature. The review for the year 1914 ended with the following words:—

“A considerable number of no mean literary merit and general importance go either unregistered or are included in the large number of journals published in different parts of the State not necessarily coming in for registration, yet judging from the quality of registered publications alone, it may be stated that no original work of an epoch-making nature has appeared during 1914. Originality of both thought and expression is still absent in most of the literary productions. It is regrettable to note again that no enterprising writer has yet ventured well to open up Kannada literature in the regions of Art, Law, Science and Travel. But then taking a retrospective



view over a period covered by the last decade or two, tendencies are clearly noticeable towards a wholesome development of Kannada literature in some directions. Kannada prose, which is admittedly poor with reference to old and mediæval dialects, is making rapid progress chiefly in the branch of fiction. Fair beginnings are also being made in the directions of Biography and History. Of late, many a writer has been contributing literary productions to several magazines chiefly with the object of enriching the language. Even in the branch of poetry, a branch often subjected to conservative conventionalities, even here, tendencies for the better are not wanting. Many a Puranic episode is being given a dramatic garb on more or less fresh lines chiefly with the object of edifying the public. So far as drama is concerned, real advance is made in form, matter and treatment. The number that came for recognition during 1919 is the largest and some of them exhibit considerable dramatic art and skill. It is hoped that, in the near future, there will be social and historical plays in good number."

As regards modern prose, it is a healthy sign that a simple language of great fluency and force has been adopted by all writers in preference to the highly artificial and laboured composition, which was prevalent for some time. Later, literary productions in poetry as in prose have begun to show a better moral atmosphere about them than their predecessors. So also is a better taste for books growing as may be seen from a larger number of books of better get up produced from year to year. Private patronage is also tending to supplement the Government patronage as may be inferred from the facts that a few books have been published of late years at the cost of private gentlemen and that magazines and newspapers are increasing in numbers and being welcomed by a growing body of subscribers. Above all, the spread of primary education among the hitherto illiterate masses and technical education among the literate classes is making slow but steady progress, with the result that the taste for reading among

Beginnings of  
a literary  
revival.

the public is growing stronger and stronger. But all this can only be taken to mean that literary revival has begun. What appears to be most needed at this juncture is an organisation of competent men with access to the stores of Western knowledge for spreading among the public useful knowledge on important subjects of every day interest, an organisation to guide effectively at once the literary activity of writers into fresh and interesting channels, and the reading taste of the public into useful and healthy branches of knowledge. Such an organisation has come into existence in the Kannada Academy which is publishing a journal and is a potent influence for the development of the chief vernacular in the State. In 1915-16, Government sanctioned a grant of Rs. 130 a month to the Academy and gave also a lumpsum grant of Rs. 1,000. The Board of Education, the University of Mysore and the Education Department are doing a great deal with a view to enrich the literature on scientific and other subjects of modern interest and practical importance. The chief difficulty in the matter till recently was that the Department had to approach specialists with individual requests for writing books and in most cases the requisitions were either not complied with or were proposed to be complied with on exorbitant terms. The best arrangement was thought to be to throw the matter open to public competition by advertising for books on the prize award system. The recommendation of the Department in this respect was approved by Government and a number of books on subjects of modern and scientific interest, such as, physics, chemistry, astronomy, botany, zoology, properties of matter, mechanics and hydrostatics, magnetism and electricity, etc., were written and printed. The number of books received for patronage during the period of six years from 1916-17 to 1921-22 was as given below:—

Year	No. of books.	Year	No. of books.
1916-17	... 241	1919-20	... 232
1917-18	... 251	1920-21	... 272
1918-19	... 130	1921-22	... 321

"In regard to the literature planned and executed as above," wrote the Inspector-General of Education in his Administration Report for 1918-19, "it is very likely that the earliest products, no matter by whom written, will not please every one and that there will be much that would meet with criticism from scholars and specialists. But like all plastic arts it has to be developed from crude beginnings, and further, unless there is a beginning of some sort, there could be no development. As in painting and sculpture, a succession of touches is required to improve the picture to perfection, and they, who expect by means of Committees and other collective agencies to bring about a perfect product at the very commencement, forget to some extent that authorship like art is an individual affair, and aims at the impossible or what is possible only in rare cases of genius. To compare the early beginnings of Kannada with the high developments of English and French and despair our own conditions and resign ourselves to inactivity is a fallacious and stultifying process. It is to expect, as Sir Rabindranath Tagore put it, that all people shall be born adults instead of infants; it does not allow for the vital process of growth and development which are of the very essence of true progress. Imperfect, therefore, as our productions may be, they are a hopeful sign of the possibilities that may be realised by constant efforts on the part of the educated."

#### PRINTING PRESSES, NEWSPAPERS AND PERIODICALS.

Private enterprise in the direction of printing was first stimulated in the year 1862 by the establishment of a Press known as the "Vichara Darpana" Press in the City of Bangalore. The Book Depot Press is the next oldest in the City; it was established in 1872. A Press started by an Anglo-Indian gentleman, at which *The Bangalore Herald* and *The Bangalore Spectator* were printed, appears to be the oldest in the Civil and Military Station.

Private  
Printing  
Presses at  
Bangalore.

Another English newspaper known as *The Bangalore Examiner* was being printed in another printing press also started by an Anglo-Indian gentleman. A Kannada newspaper, the first of its kind in the Civil and Military Station, was also printed by it. Later on, another gentleman started *The Daily Post* and established a Press for it. His Press was subsequently amalgamated with *The Examiner* Press and the combined press became known thereafter as the *Daily Post* Press. The Caxton Press was established in 1871 on a small scale for the publication of a tri-weekly paper. A bi-weekly known as *The Evening Mail* was for long being printed in it. This Press has been recently transferred to the City. Among other Presses in the City is the Bangalore Press, owned by the Bangalore Printing and Publishing Co., started in 1916.

At Mysore.

In Mysore City, the *Star* Press seems to be the oldest, having been established in the year 1868. The "G. T. A." Press is also well known there. The "Wesleyan Mission" Press at Mysore has also been turning out good work.

Recent progress in Printing.

Most of the private presses referred to were using hand presses until very recently. With the increase in trade and other activities, some of these have installed new printing machinery. Including the two Government Presses, there were during the year 1922-23, 88 printing presses in the State. Of these, 37 were in the Bangalore District, 25 in the Mysore District, 9 in the Kolar District, 4 in the Kadur District, 7 in the Shimoga District and 2 each in the Tumkur, Hassan and Chitaldrug Districts. In Bangalore and Mysore, the bigger presses use electric power for working their machinery.

Newspapers.

Among the oldest newspapers in the Vernacular were the *Kasim-ul-Akbar* in Hindustani, started in 1863, and

the *Karnataka Prakashika* in Kannada, begun in 1865 but discontinued at the end of 1898. There were 16 newspapers and 50 periodicals in circulation during the year 1923, of which 26 were in English, 32 in Kannada and 8 in more than one language. Of the 50 periodicals, one was a comic journal, three dealt with scientific topics, 20 with educational and literary matters, 10 with religion, three with philosophy, one with Government orders and reviews of reports, etc., issued by Government and 12 with miscellaneous matters. Thirty-six of the periodicals were monthly, 10 quarterly, three weekly and one fortnightly.

Act No. XX of 1847 (as introduced in British India) which provides for the encouragement of learning by the enforcement of the right called copyright was introduced into Mysore by the Government of India Notification No. 176, dated 12th September 1867. Simultaneously, for the regulation of printing presses and newspapers, for the preservation of copies of books printed in the territories of Mysore, and for the registration of such books, Act No. XXV of 1897 was passed. This was subsequently amended by Regulation No. I of 1894. Later on in 1908, to provide for the efficient control of the publication of newspapers and other printed works containing public news, Regulation No. III of 1908 was passed. When the European War of 1914 broke out, the Mysore Naval and Military News (Emergency) Regulation No. VII of 1914 was passed. This has ceased to be operative now. A bill for amending Regulation No. III of 1908 has been introduced into the local Legislative Council and is now under active consideration.

Regulations  
regarding  
Printing  
Presses and  
Newspapers.

#### FURTHER PROGRESS IN EDUCATION.

The following is a brief summary of the progress made up to the beginning of 1928 in the various directions

since 1923-24, the date up to which the progress described in the main section is confined :—

(1) There was a comprehensive reorganization of the controlling agencies of the Department and the designation of the Head of the Department was changed from 'The Inspector-General of Education' to 'The Director of Public Instruction.' The responsibilities and the functions of the several grades of officers were revised as detailed in the appropriate place above.

(2) The Financial and the Local Examination sections of the office of the Head of the Department were reorganized and their functions clearly defined.

(3) The scheme of medical inspection of boys in the High and Middle Schools in the Bangalore City was brought into effect.

(4) The rules and the syllabuses of the commercial examinations were revised so as to place the Mysore Government Commercial Examinations on a par with those conducted by the Madras Government.

(5) Primary and middle school education was remodelled each on a four-year basis and the schools which included primary and middle school classes were bifurcated.

(6) The control over the primary schools in the City of Bangalore was transferred to the Municipal Council.

(7) The rules for the Lower Secondary Examination were suitably revised.

(8) The grant-in-aid to the Village Elementary Schools was enhanced by Rs. 2 a month.

(9) The School Committees were reconstituted and their powers and duties revised.

(10) Rules regarding grant-in-aid to private hostels was revised and larger encouragement was given to private hostels.

(11) An Advisory Committee for the enhancement of the Education of Muhammadans was formed.

(12) A separate fund called the Muhammadan Scholarship fund was constituted to be administered by the Head of the Department assisted by a Special Committee.

(13) The Zenana Normal School at Mysore was converted into a Boarding School.

(14) The Chamarajendra Sanskrit College was ordered to be thrown open to all castes and its control was transferred to the Education Department.

(15) Practical instruction classes in leather work, mat-making, smithy, etc., were opened in certain Panchama Schools and a Boarding House for the Adikarnataka students of High Schools at Bangalore was opened.

(16) The control of the Industrial Schools was transferred to the control of the Industries and Commerce Department.

(17) The Scheme of scholarships was systematised.

(18) The standard plans for school buildings were improved and a large number of new school buildings were constructed.

(19) The equipments of schools were standardized.

(20) The Women's Home at Mysore was reorganised and converted into a Vocational Institute for women in which certain art-industrial subjects were taught.

(21) A Vocation Training Class for Lower Secondary trained teachers to serve as a sort of refresher was instituted.

(22) The holding of a Vocation Training Class in Elementary Science for Science teachers was organised.

(23) The curricula of Adikarnataka Primary Schools providing for both general and vocational instruction was revised.

(24) The execution of building works hitherto done by the Department was transferred to the Public Works Department.

(25) Certain additional powers were delegated to the Head of the Department in order to minimise delay and unnecessary correspondence.

(26) The minimum pay of Head Masters of High Schools and District Inspectors of Education was fixed at Rs. 200 per mensem.

#### STATISTICS OF PUBLIC INSTRUCTION.

Of the two statements appearing at the end of this Chapter, the first is a comparative table of schools and scholars for five decades—1881 to 1921—and for the year 1923 and the second sets out the expenditure incurred on education in the State and the cost of educating each pupil during the same period.

Comparative  
tables of  
Schools and  
Scholars and  
Expenditure,  
1881 to 1921  
and for 1923.

TABLE I.

COMPARATIVE TABLE OF SCHOOLS AND SCHOLARS FOR FIVE DECADES—1881 TO 1921—AND FOR THE YEAR 1923.

Institutions and Scholars	On 30th June 1881	On 30th June 1891	On 30th June 1901	On 30th June 1911	On 30th June 1921	On 30th June 1923
PRIMARY SCHOOLS ...	907	1,306	1,946	2,077	8,800	7,196
Scholars { Boys ...	35,219	40,261	62,118	60,168	183,108	190,755
{ Girls ...	3,077	6,832	13,375	14,636	38,866	48,158
SECONDARY SCHOOLS	166	230	237	303	522	546
Scholars { Boys ...	3,007	20,035	24,230	29,972	65,582	84,917
{ Girls ...	127	3,099	3,111	7,544	14,835	4,107
ARTS COLLEGES ...	4	5	8	8	1	...
Scholars { Boys ...	129	481	504	624	17	...
{ Girls ...	3	...	12	10	...	...
ORIENTAL COLLEGES	...	...	...	...	...	4*
Scholars { Boys ...	...	...	...	...	...	324
{ Girls ...	...	...	...	...	...	...
SPECIAL SCHOOLS ...	10	54	48	67	364†	82
Scholars { Boys ...	1,118	2,168	1,380	2,633	9,605	3,586
{ Girls ...	27	46	98	161	1,239	234
PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS ...	...	1	5	5	10	11;
Scholars { Boys ...	48	158	177	452	550	...
{ Girls ...	...	5	25	43	67	...
TOTAL OF SCHOOLS ...	1,017	1,596	2,244	2,460	9,697	7,839
Scholars { Boys ...	39,473	62,993	73,990	92,873	258,764	220,062
{ Girls ...	3,214	9,977	16,601	22,376	64,983	52,564
PRIVATE SCHOOLS ...	§	1,814	1,765	1,807	782	953
Scholars { Boys ...	...	23,457	20,994	22,306	9,887	14,141
{ Girls ...	...	...	483	598	915	1,003
GRAND TOTAL OF SCHOOLS	1,087	3,410	4,009	4,267	10,479	8,792
Scholars { Boys ...	39,473	86,450	99,384	116,179	268,651	234,223
{ Girls ...	3,214	9,977	17,084	22,974	65,898	53,571

\* These were not under the management of the Department of Education during certain decades.

† Include 290 Practical Instruction classes.

‡ Include Special Schools.

§ Were not in existence on this date.



TABLE II.

EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION AND THE COST OF EDUCATING EACH PUPIL IN THE DECADES FROM 1881 TO 1921 AND FOR THE YEAR 1923.

	1881		1891		1901	
	Total expenditure	Cost of educating each pupil	Total expenditure	Cost of educating each pupil	Total Cost	Cost of educating each pupil
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.
English Colleges ...	23,880	215 4 0	67,374	148 13 0	141,718	256 0 0
Secondary Schools ...	163,596	237 3 9	233,700	10 15 0	351,247	13 0 0
Primary Schools ...	186,965	20 3 0	157,643	3 8 0	275,979	4 6 0
Special Schools ...	8,578	275 8 3	30,703	70 0 0	56,846	26 0 0
Direction and Inspection ...	39,150	...	41,443	...	79,767	...
Scholarships ...	1,573	...	21,404	...	50,990	...
Buildings ...	2,880	...	62,635	...	79,944	...
Miscellaneous ...	17,276	...	30,693	...	63,858	...
	1911		1921		1923	
	Total Cost	Cost of educating each pupil	Total Cost	Cost of educating each pupil	Total Cost	Cost of educating each pupil
	8	9	10	11	12	13
	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.	Rs.	Rs. a. p.
English Colleges ...	221,492	362 0 0	477,528	477 0 0	523,795	461 5 6
Secondary Schools ...	321,870	14 0 0	1,490,860	19 0 0	1,345,265	23 0 0
Primary Schools ...	351,435	5 0 0	1,450,982	7 0 0	1,376,867	6 0 0
Special Schools ...	167,759	44 0 0	447,630	31 0 0	366,785	90 0 0
Direction and Inspection ...	113,647	...	343,515	...	400,310	...
Scholarships ...	113,474	...	235,600	...	121,943	...
Buildings ...	273,335	...	365,043	...	153,876	...
Miscellaneous ...	144,664	...	350,795	...	365,544	...

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  13. R. NATHAN.—Imperial Gazetteer of India (1907), IV, Chapter XII.
  14. Annual Reports on the working of the Mysore Education Department up to the year 1926-27.
  15. Review of the Progress of Education in the Mysore State for the Quinquennium 1911—1916.
  16. Various Government Orders issued from time to time on matters relating to Education, too numerous to mention. The following, however, may be specially noted :—  
(a) G. O. No. 1321-80—Edn. 96-19-1, dated 5th August 1919, publishing a Memorandum on the Progress of Education in the Mysore State.  
(b) G. O. No. 11180-250—Edn. 498-20-1, dated 25th May 1921, reviewing problems relating to the improvement of Education in Mysore and laying down the future policy.  
(c) Subsequent orders giving effect to the policy enunciated in the above order issued up to end of 1927.
  17. Various Addresses of successive Dewans of Mysore delivered to the Representative Assembly—1881-1927.  
Annual Reports of the University, 1917-18 to 1923-27.  
Mysore General Administration Reports, 1916-17 to 1923-27.  
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## CHAPTER VIII.

### SURVEYS.

#### SECTION I—TRIGONOMETRICAL AND OTHER SURVEYS.

ALMOST the first attempt at a survey of any kind of Mysore was made, in the beginning of the nineteenth century, by Dr. Francis Buchanan (who subsequently assumed the name of Hamilton) under the express orders of the Marquis Wellesley, then Governor-General of India. Buchanan-Hamilton's *Journey through Mysore*, which is referred to at some length below, is a work of unique interest. Buchanan prefixed to his work a map, which was prepared for him by Major C. Crawford who afterwards became Surveyor-General of India (1814-16) and is known as one of the first to attempt to measure the height of the Himalayan peaks in 1802. This map was intended by Buchanan to enable the reader to trace his route through the country he traversed and to judge of the opportunities he had of viewing the country. Major Crawford's map was framed apparently on simple lines. On a map of Major Rennel, he laid down a sketch of Buchanan's route. The very imperfect nature of the materials at Major Crawford's disposal rendered many errors unavoidable, and though Buchanan utilised a map he later received from Lieutenant-Colonel Mackenzie to rectify them, he records his regret that he did not receive it in time to avail himself of the numerous geographical improvements Mackenzie had effected in his production.

First attempt  
at a Survey of  
Mysore.

Neither Mackenzie's nor Crawford's map of Mysore can be described as the earliest map attempted of Mysore.

The earliest  
maps of  
Mysore.

A part of Mysore is figured in the map of the "Carnatic," which forms the frontispiece to Robert Orme's *History of the Military Transactions of the British Nation in Indostan*, Volume II, published in 1778. This is, so far as is known, the earliest attempt to depict Mysore on any modern map. This map, however, is more historical than geographical. Very similar is the other map of Mysore included in Orme's *Historical Fragments of the Mogul Empire, of the Morattoes, and of the English concerns in Indostan from the year M.D.C. LIX*, which was first published in 1782, and republished, after Orme's death, in 1805. The longitudes in this map are measured from East of London. This is a tolerably good map, but not being laid from actual surveys is only approximate as to positions of places, etc. Major Dirom's *Narrative of the Campaign in India which terminated the war with Tippoo Sultan in 1792*, published in 1792, has a much better map though only partially descriptive of Mysore. This map was, we are told, constructed from "a late Survey of that part of the Malabar Coast by Captain Montessor, and from the Survey of the other countries by Captains Beatson and Allen" and "published by Major Rennel in 1790." This was Major Rennel, the "Father of Indian Geography." His *Memoir of a map of Hindoostan*, which was first published in 1788, is well known. The method of surveying adopted by him was to fix the positions of a considerable number of stations by astronomical observations for latitude and longitude and to measure the intervening distance with the chain or with the 'measuring-wheel.' The correct determination of longitudes was his chief difficulty and although he utilized the work of several independent observers in India, his maps can only be considered, according to competent authority, as "approximations to accurate cartography."

In 1800, William Lambton, who had formerly served under Colonel Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington, initiated the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India, the first base line of 743 miles being measured near Bangalore with the chain. During the next two years, Lambton was employed in fixing, by triangulation, a large number of points in Mysore, to serve as the basis for the topographical survey then in progress under Colonel Colin Mackenzie, afterwards Surveyor-General of India and well known by his Manuscript collections. Lambton was indefatigable in his work and his work resulted among other things in the correction of Rennel's errors, especially as to the breadth of the peninsula at its Southern extremity—between Mangalore and Madras, about 40 miles—and in the positions of the chief towns.

The beginning of the Great Trigonometrical Survey.

Colonel Colin Mackenzie's labours ended in a new map of Mysore, which has been referred to above. The map prefixed to Colonel Wilks' *History of Mysore* (1808) is specifically stated to have been laid from the "late Surveys of Mysore" by Colonel Mackenzie. It was apparently specially constructed by Mackenzie and presented to Wilks as "a mark of sincere regard" by Colonel Mackenzie. This is an excellent map. A copy of the same map seems to have been forwarded by Mackenzie to Buchanan, who, through its aid, as above remarked, corrected the many errors of Major Crawford's map, which he used for his publication.

Mackenzie's new map of Mysore.

In 1818, the head-quarters and control of the Trigonometrical Survey were transferred from Madras to Calcutta. Under the guidance of General J. T. Walker, who became Superintendent of the Trigonometrical Survey in 1861, the geodetic work of Lambton and others was widely expanded. The Vizagapatam, Bangalore and Cape Comorin base-lines were re-measured and all

Further extension of work in Mysore.

that great work, whose results are embodied in the volumes of the *Account of the operations of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India*, was accomplished. In so far as this State is concerned, the heights of numerous conspicuous hills and points throughout the country have not only been fixed by the Great Trigonometrical Survey, but also continuous lines of levels have been carried in various directions that admit of the work done in both the Irrigation and Roads and Buildings' Branches closing on fixed bench marks, thus affording an opportunity for recording such a network of levels (unexampled in probably any other part of India) as must prove of invaluable service in all future Engineering operations—irrigation, navigation, drainage, water supply, roads, railways, etc.

Trigonometrical Stations.

The following statement gives the number of Stations of the Great Trigonometrical Survey, situated in the State:—

District	No. of Stations in the district.	District	No. of Stations in the district.
Bangalore	... 21	Hassan	... 5
Kolar	... 11	Shimoga	... 14
Tumkur	... 10	Kadur	... 5
Mysore	... 7	Chitaldrug	... 9

The Deputy Commissioners of districts and their subordinates are required to inspect annually all the stations in their jurisdiction and to execute repairs to such of those as are in need of the same.

Colin  
Mackenzie's  
Topographical  
Survey.

Early in the nineteenth century, Colonel Colin Mackenzie introduced a system of detailed topographical survey, based on a triangulation of some sort. While Lambton was engaged at Madras, Mackenzie had independently measured bases in Mysore and connected them by triangulation. Mackenzie's labours resulted in a topographical

survey on the one inch scale of over 40,000 square miles in Mysore and the adjacent districts, and it was on this survey that the plane-table was employed in India. Its form, however, and method of use differed materially from those now in vogue. His map of Mysore has been referred to above.

In 1874, the question of a detailed topographical survey of the State was taken up by Sir Richard Meade, then Chief Commissioner in Mysore. The idea of such a survey originated with the Surveyor-General of India, who forwarded some specimens of the Oudh, Rajputana and other surveys, the first being on a scale of four inches to the mile and all the rest on one inch. He also sent a few sheets of revenue details on scales of 32 and 16 inches. Major B. R. Branfil, of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India, visited Bangalore and drew up a draft scheme for the Topographical Branch of the Mysore Survey and submitted the same to the Chief Commissioner on 20th July 1874. His proposal, in brief, was to form a topographical branch of the Mysore Survey, whose duty it should be to compile a map from existing materials utilizing to the utmost the topographical details of the Cadastral Survey, particularly the boundaries, cultivated areas, etc., and to provide itself such details as cannot be adequately shewn or undertaken by the fiscal Surveyors. For this purpose, he considered it indispensable, whatever else might be required, that a minute network of minor triangulation should be spread over the country dependent on the Great Trigonometrical Survey triangulation, and so extended as to furnish sufficient accurately fixed points to render the cadastral village maps capable of incorporation in general (smaller scale) maps. This minor triangulation was to be of a double kind, primary and secondary; the primary, for filling up the great tracts left between the Great Trigonometrical

Detailed  
Topographical  
Survey.

Survey lines (or series) with a network of large triangles of an adequate degree of accuracy to be obtained only by a high class instrument (the 10-inch or 12-inch Theodolite) and the secondary, for breaking up the large triangles into an internal network of small triangles, and a host of fixed points accurately determined from them. The triangulation required was, in fact, designed to furnish a complete skeleton map of the State, shewing the position (latitude, longitude and height above sea) of all the conspicuous landmarks that exist, either natural or artificial. The primary triangulation was to be done at once commencing from the north-west and the secondary was to follow the survey and demarcation, the demarcation preceding the secondary triangulation. To supplement the cadastral survey work, and to some extent to make up for its deficiencies, the topographical branch of the survey was specially to take up hill-drawing, with the plane table, and other subsidiary instruments. The standard scale of the topographical maps for India, *i.e.*, one inch to one mile, was to be adopted for the State. A prominent feature of this scheme was the great multiplication of fixed Trigonometrical points, required to work up the village maps into their proper geographic position, shape and size, as well as to base the hill-drawing on. As it was also contemplated that a minute register should be kept along with the plane table, whenever that instrument (and the plane table is a true triangulating instrument) is used to fix a fresh point, or to run a traverse with, not only would hill-drawing be easily checked and errors detected but also a larger or smaller scale map could be constructed afresh without further survey. As regards the production and publication of the final topographical maps, a new map office and department for the maps produced was not deemed necessary, as it was hoped that the necessary reductions and reproduction might be done in one of the



existing map offices at Madras, Poona, Dehra Dun or Calcutta. As regards general supervision, it was suggested that the same should be under one of the Superintendents of Survey in India, either under the Surveyor-General of India, who was also Superintendent of Topographical and Revenue Surveys in Bengal, or under the Superintendent of the Great Trigonometrical Survey of India, who since the days of Colonel Waugh (1843-1861) was also Superintendent of the Trigonometrical and Topographical Surveys and had had several special topographical surveys under him, for the most part outside of Bengal, or under the Superintendents of the Madras or Bombay Revenue Survey parties. If none of these Superintendents could accept the supervision, it was suggested that a local Superintendent might be appointed to the responsibility and nominal charge "on condition that he should submit a full professional report annually to one of the abovementioned Superintendents, who would examine and report professionally on the quality of the work and the amount of progress made." Major Branfill also thought it desirable to add that "a few natives of the Province should be trained in topographical surveying, in order that His Highness the Maharaja on coming of age may find amongst his own countrymen some technical knowledge and skill in a Department closely connected with the material prosperity and progress of the country." The proposal of Major Branfill was accepted, Lieutenant Colonel R. H. Sankey, then Chief Engineer of Mysore, generally agreeing with it, except as to the scale of the map to be produced. He showed a general inclination for a map on a scale of two inches to the mile for all ordinary purposes. What made the scheme practical was the work which had already been accomplished. At the time this proposal was put forward, there were the following data available: three lines of the great triangulation of India; one from the north to

south, and one from east to west, both passing through Bangalore, and one from Chandragutti, on the extreme north-west of the State, running southward along its western boundary, as far as Coorg. There was also in progress the cadastral village maps on the scale of eight inches to one mile, besides sundry desultory Surveys for irrigation, roads, ghats, railways, or other purposes. The detailed Topographical Survey on the lines indicated above commenced in April 1876, and was carried out by officers of the Survey of India under the orders of the Surveyor-General. Triangulation was completed in 1884-85, and the detailed Topographical Survey in September 1886. The total cost of the operations was Rs. 8½ lakhs. The Survey was on the scale of one inch to the mile, except in the case of State forests, which was on the four-inch scale. The whole extended to 70 standard sheets of maps. Unfortunately, the different redistributions of districts and taluks interfered with much of their utility. The map of Mysore State published in 1893 under the direction of Colonel H. R. Thuiller, R. E., Surveyor-General of India, was laid out from this Survey (1876-1886). It is on a scale of one inch-16 inches.

Revenue  
Survey.

As regards the system of Revenue Survey adopted in Mysore, see *ante* Chapter II—Revenue Departments, Section 1(a)—Revenue Survey and Settlement.

Forest  
Surveys.

As for measures adopted in Mysore for the systematic surveying and mapping of the State Forests in Mysore, see *ante* Chapter II—Revenue Departments, Section 3—Forest Administration.

#### SECTION 2.—ARCHÆOLOGICAL SURVEY.

Early  
History.

Though the organization of a Department for conducting a regular Archæological Survey of the State for the

purpose of studying and conserving its antiquities dates from comparatively recent times, it is of interest to note the early attempt made to get some control over them. It is related of Chikka-Dēva-Rāja, who ruled from 1672 to 1704, that he had lists and copies made of the inscriptions throughout his Kingdom. His object, however, was to check the endowments made to them and to see that the purpose of the grants was duly carried out. The register so compiled was unfortunately one of those in the royal library, which was ordered by Tīpu Sultān to be taken for boiling the *lulti*, or gram, for the horses. On the restoration of the Kingdom to the present dynasty in 1799, Colonel Colin Mackenzie, when he was in charge of the Survey operations in the State, took copies of several thousands of inscriptions he found scattered throughout the country. These formed part of his wellknown collection, which is now lodged partly at the Oriental Mss. Library at Madras and partly at the India Office Library in London. Neither of these collections, even if they were available, prove of any great value, because, for purposes of critical study of inscriptions on modern lines, mechanical facsimiles are an absolute necessity.

The beginnings of the Archæological Survey in Mysore may be said to date from the year 1805, when Mr. Lewin Bowring, Chief Commissioner of Mysore and Coorg, deputed Major Dixon to obtain photographic copies of inscriptions in various places in the State, where they were known to be numerous such as Chitaldrug, Harihar and Belgami. These photographs were placed in the hands of Mr. Lewis Rice, then Director of Public Instruction in Mysore, for decipherment and translation. In 1879, Mr. Rice issued a volume called *Mysore Inscriptions*, containing translations of all the inscriptions photographed and of some others collected by himself. In 1884, Mr. Rice was appointed Director of Archæological

The modern beginnings of the Survey.

Researches, in addition to his duties as Education Secretary to Government. In 1886, he published a volume of *Coorg Inscriptions*. In March 1888, a regular Archæological Department was formed under him. In 1889, he published the volume of *Sravana Belgola Inscriptions*, consisting of 144 Jaina inscriptions collected at Sravana Belgola. So much interest was excited by this work, that, in April 1890, Mr. Lewis Rice was, at the instance of Sir K. Seshadri Iyer, then Dewan, relieved of his other duties and Archæological work received his sole attention from then, except during a short period, when he was employed in the issuing of the second edition of the *Mysore Gazetteer*.

First Results  
of the Survey.

The exploration and copying of all the inscriptions found in the country on an organized basis, district by district, were now entered upon. The results of the Archæological Survey were published in successive volumes of the series known as the *Epigraphia Carnatica* according to the list given below. The last of these (No. IX) bears the date 1905, but was actually issued in 1906. The total number of inscriptions thus collected and published with translations in the above volumes is nearly 9,000.

LIST OF PUBLICATIONS IN THE *Epigraphia Carnatica*  
SERIES WITH DATES.

Number of volume	Name of volume	Date of issue
I	Coorg Inscriptions ... ..	1886
II	Inscriptions at Sravana Belgola ... ..	1889
III	Do in Mysore District, Part I ... ..	1894
IV	Do do Part II ... ..	1898
V	Do in Hassan District ... ..	1902
VI	Do in Kadur District ... ..	1901
VII	Do in Shimoga District, Part I ... ..	1902
VIII	Do do Part II ... ..	1902
IX	Do in Bangalore District ... ..	1905
X	Do in Kolar District ... ..	1905
XI	Do in Chitaldrug District ... ..	1902
XII	Do in Tumkur District ... ..	1904

In 1909, Mr. Rice issued a volume entitled *Mysore and Coorg from the Inscriptions* summing up the historical and other information contained in the above volumes. The results of the Survey have exceeded expectation. The discovery of the edicts of Asoka at Siddapura and other places in Molakalmuru Taluk, Chitaldrug District, by Mr. Rice in 1892 has been said to mark an epoch in Indian Archæology. It has lifted the veil for centuries back from the ancient history of India, especially that of the south. The Jaina traditions relating to Bhadrabāhu and Chandra Gupta have excited great interest in learned circles. The inscriptions at Sravana Belgola have established beyond doubt the antiquity of the Jains and their priority to the Buddhists, while at the same time, they have furnished new information of the utmost importance regarding Kannada literature and its antiquity. It is worthy of note that though the Jain sect is one of the most ancient in India, its discovery should have been first made in Mysore. The connection of the Sātavāhanas or Āndhras with this State has been established, and this has served to bridge the gap between the fall of the Mauryas and the rise of the Kadambas. The forgotten dynasties of the Mahāvalis or Bānas, and of the Pallavas and Nonambas or Nōlambas have been brought to light. The Gangas, who ruled Mysore for nearly the whole of the first millennium of the Christian era, but whose very name had dropped into oblivion, have been restored to history. Much light has been thrown on the part played by the Rāshtrakūtas. The chronology of the Chōlas has been finally fixed. Information relating to the Chalukyas and Kalachuryas has been much extended. In regard to the powerful indigenous line of Hoysala kings, their birth-place has been discovered and their annals exhibited in great detail. Of later dynasties, including those of Vijayanagar and the Mysore rulers, it is sufficient to say that new and important information has been gathered for all periods down to the latest.

Attention was also paid to the collection and transcription of several ancient works in manuscript in Kannada and Sanskrit. These works were sent to the Oriental Mss. Library at Mysore for preservation. The following classical works in Kannada language were also published in the series known as *Bibliotheca Carnatica* series :—

Karnātakabhāsha Bhūshana by Nāgavarma	...	1884
Karnātika Sabdānusāsana by Bhattakalanka-		
dēva	... ..	1890
Pampa Rāmāyana by Nāgachandra	...	1892
Pampa Bhārata by Pampa	...	1898
Kavirājamārga by Nripatunga	...	1898
Kāvyaśālokana by Nāgavarma	...	1903

With regard to the ancient architectural monuments in the State, brief descriptions of a few of the most important of these were given in the introductions to the volumes of *Epigraphia Carnatica*. A list of *European Tombs and Monuments in Mysore* was compiled in 1906, with the epitaphs and inscriptions on them, to form one of the Indian Monumental Series of the Imperial Government. In the conservation of ancient buildings and monuments of archæological interest in the State, some of the important items which have received attention are :—(1) The restoration of the ruined temple of Kēdārēsvara at Halebid, (2) renewing the ornamental watch-towers erected on crowning heights at the four cardinal points round Bangalore by its founder Kempe Gowda and placing them under proper custodians; and (3) putting up a railing round the Asoka inscriptions at Molkalmuru.

Progress  
during 1906  
to 1922.

Mr. Rice retired from service at the end of June 1906 and was succeeded by Mr. R. Narasimhachar, his former Assistant. During the period of sixteen years ranging from July 1906 to July 1922, the work of the search for

inscriptions was continued with vigour and several inscriptions which had so far escaped notice were collected. Some of the inscriptions which had not been satisfactorily deciphered during the earlier years were now thoroughly revised. A summary of the contents of these inscriptions and, in the case of important epigraphs, their facsimiles, were published in the *Annual Reports* of the Department, which owing to this and other causes attracted wider attention both in India and Europe. Large numbers of records having been collected for each District, it was arranged to issue *Supplements* to the various volumes of the *Epigraphia Carnatica* Series with the texts, transliteration, translation, etc., of the new records. Under this arrangement, the Kannada texts of the inscriptions of the Mysore and Hassan *Supplements* have been fully printed, those of the Bangalore and Tumkur *Supplements* have been sent to the Press and those of the Kolar *Supplement* have been got all but ready for the press. The *Sravana Belgola* volume has been thoroughly revised with 350 new records included and sent to the press. A general *Index* to the inscriptions published in the *Epigraphia Carnatica* volumes and an *Index to the Annual Reports* of the Department from 1906 to 1920 have also been completed and sent to the press. The newly discovered inscriptions have brought to light several facts, not known before, with regard to the Kādambas, the Rāshtrakūtas, the Chālukyas, the Cholas, the Santāras, the Kongalvas, the Chengalvas, the rulers of Punnād, Vijayanagar and Mysore, besides the chiefs of Avati, Bēlūr, Hadinādu, Hole-Narsipur, Halikal, Sugatur, Ummattur and Yelahanka. They have added considerably to our knowledge, especially with regard to the Gangas, whose history may now be regarded as almost definitely settled. The work of the Department in connection with this dynasty has been appreciated by several competent scholars.

Collection of  
Mss.

Attention has also been paid to the collection and transcription of manuscripts. With regard to these, it may be stated that two of Bhāsa's dramas, namely *Svapnarāsvaddatta* and *Pratījnayaugandharāyana*, were discovered by the Department before they were published in Travancore. Another important find has been the Jaina work, *Lōkavibhāga* which supplies the date *Saka* 380 as the 22nd year of the reign of Simhavarma, the Pallava King of Kānchi, thus furnishing a welcome clue to Pallava Chronology. Among other manuscripts of interest are the medical work *Kalyānakāraka* of Ugrāditya, a contemporary of the Rāshtrakūta King Amoghavarsha I and of the Eastern Chālukyan King Kali Vishnuvardhana, in which the distinction between prevention and cure is regarded as the fundamental basis of the healing art; and *Alankārasudhānidhi* of Sāyanāchārya, which gives helpful information regarding the Vijayanagar prince, Sangama II, and Sāyanāchārya's younger brother, Bhōganātha. The revision of the important Kannada work *Sabdānusāsana* has also been in hand during this period.

Nummatics.

Numismatics also received considerable attention. The coins relating to the Āndhrabhṛitya Kings Mudānanda and Chutukadānanda and to their Viceroy, probably stationed at Chitaldrug; the Mahārathis, Jadakana Kalaya and Saijakana Chalaka; the silver *dinari* of the Emperor Augustus; and the Chinese coin supposed to have been issued during the reign of the Emperor Han Wuti, were discovered at Chitaldrug. Some Hoysala gold coins, including *panams* not noticed before, were found at Halebīd. The silver coins in the Bangalore Museum were examined and identified by the Department. A coin cabinet was formed for the use of the office, containing a large collection of gold, silver and copper coins which have been from time to time described and illustrated in the *Annual Reports*.



Architecture and sculpture did not escape notice. Several temples built in the Dravidian and Hoysala styles of architecture most of them not noticed before, were described and illustrated in the *Annual Reports*. A large number of individual works of art, signed works of artists, portrait statues, and *vīragals*, *māsāhals*, Naga stones and other sculptures of archæological interest were published for the first time. The work done by the Department under this head has induced authorities on Indian art and sculpture not only to take greater interest in the artistic works of Mysore but also to form a more favourable estimate of their merit as works of art. Three monographs on the temples at Somanāthpur, Bēlūr, and Dodda-gaddavalli, forming numbers I to III in the series entitled *Architecture and Sculpture in Mysore*, were published in 1917 and 1919. A monograph on the Halebid temples was also projected.

Architecture  
and  
Sculpture.

Excavations on a small scale were conducted at Chitaldrug, Talkad and Halebid. Old coins, pottery and other antiquities were unearthed at these excavations. A few cromlechs were also opened and ancient pottery and other relics obtained. Detailed descriptions of the work done in connection with these excavations will be found included in the Department's *Annual Reports*.

Excavation  
Work.

With regard to the conservation of the ancient monuments in the State, Government passed an order in 1920, laying down a scheme for their proper preservation and systematic inspection. In accordance with this order, a revised and classified list of important monuments in the State has been drawn up and issued. Definite rules have also been passed in the matter for the guidance of Revenue and Public Works officers throughout the State.

Conservation  
of Ancient  
Monuments.

Recent Work  
of the  
Department.

Mr. Narasimhachar retired from service in July 1922 and was succeeded by Dr. R. Shama Sastry, who was appointed Director of Archæological Researches, in addition to his own duties as Curator of the Oriental Library, Mysore. The administrative control of the Department was vested in the Mysore University and in September 1922, the Archæological office was shifted from Bangalore to Mysore. The work of the department continues to be conducted on the same lines as before. Vigorous efforts are being made to complete the Supplemental Volumes of inscriptions referred to above. The completion of the revised editions of *Inscriptions at Sravana Belgola* and the *Karnātaka Sabdānusaśāna* was undertaken by Mr. Narasimhachar, after his retirement, and these volumes were issued by him in 1923. Rules have been issued by Government impressing on all officers of the Muzrai, Revenue and Public Works Departments the necessity for their consulting the Archæological Department in all matters relating to the preservation of ancient monuments in the State. A Museum is being formed as an adjunct of the department. A change has been made in the form of the *Annual Report* by publishing *in extenso* all the inscriptions discovered during the year in the Report of the year itself instead of giving mere notices of them in it and postponing their full publication till sufficient matter is collected for a Supplemental volume. An attempt has also been made in the *Annual Report* for 1923 to fix definitely the age of the Guptas, Bānas, Kadambas and Gangas in the light of inscripational, astronomical and other data available on the subject.

Establish-  
ment: Past  
and Present.

When the Department was organized in 1888, only a temporary establishment costing Rs. 7,576 per annum was sanctioned, exclusive of the pay of Mr. Rice, who was then also the Director of Public Instruction. As the work

of the Department increased, additional establishment was sanctioned. A separate establishment costing Rs. 183 per mensem was allowed to the Government Press from the Archæological budget, for the printing of the Archæological works in the Government Press. The establishment was, in 1898, made a permanent one. The cost of the Department reached its maximum in 1903-04, when it was estimated at Rs. 40,315. As the work of the Department approached completion, a reduction of six hands, costing Rs. 265 per mensem, was effected in the establishment attached to the Department in August 1905. Again, on the retirement of Mr. Rice, the cost of the establishment was further reduced by Rs. 5,304 per annum. The whole of the establishment maintained at the Government Press for doing the work of the Archæological Department was also dispensed with. Mr. Narasimhachar was placed in charge of the Department first under the designation of the "Officer in charge of Archæological Researches in Mysore," subject to the administrative control of the Inspector-General of Education in Mysore. In December 1916, his official designation was changed to Director of Archæological Researches in Mysore. When he retired in 1923, the cost of the establishment was still further reduced and the administrative control over it was transferred to the University of Mysore. The present cost of the Department is estimated in the budget for 1928-29 at Rs. 20,900 comprising of a Director who is also Curator of the Oriental Mss. Library at Mysore, an Assistant and the necessary clerical staff.

### SECTION 3.—ETHNOGRAPHIC SURVEY.

An Ethnographic Survey of the State has been completed under the orders of Government passed on 22nd May 1903. This survey was undertaken in consonance

Origin and  
Progress of  
the Survey.

with a general Anthropometric and Ethnographic Survey of India inaugurated by the Government of India in 1901, after the Census of India of that year, at the suggestion of leading anthropologists in Great Britain and Ireland. The Survey as a whole was under the guidance of Mr. (later Sir Herbert) Risley, and Southern India, including Mysore and the associated States of Travancore and Cochin, was placed in charge of Mr. E. Thurston, then Superintendent, Madras Government Museum. Mr. Thurston, however, undertook only the anthropometric part of the Survey in Mysore, leaving the Ethnographic portion to be done by a local officer. In 1903, Government appointed the late Mr. H. V. Nanjundayya, then General and Revenue Secretary to Government, to undertake this Survey in addition to his own duties.

Its publica-  
tions.

With the aid of a small special staff, Mr. Nanjundayya carried out the requisite investigations and from time to time issued tentative Bulletins incorporating in them notes collected in regard to thirty-four of the main Castes and Tribes found in the State. The notes collected in connection with fifty more Castes are awaiting publication. The question of completing the Survey and of issuing a consolidated volume uniform with the " Tribes and Castes of Southern India " and similar publications has been now taken up by Government. The notes included in this volume on " certain of the Castes and Tribes of the State in Volume I, Chapter VI (*Ethnology*), are partly based on the information collected by this Survey.

#### SECTION 4.—METEOROLOGICAL SURVEY.

Initiation of  
Meteorological  
observation  
in Mysore.

The inception of the State Meteorological Department has to be sought for in the necessity felt, some years ago, for a widespread record of observations for the scientific study of the weather in India. The work of the local

department has accordingly been in close co-operation with the Imperial Meteorological Department. The Imperial Department grew out of a provincial system, which, quite apart from the Madras Observatory, which has been in existence since 1796, and the Bombay Observatory since 1841, was organized in 1865 under the orders of the Secretary of State for India in Council, and is the result of the recommendations of a special Commission appointed by the Government of India for considering the necessity for a systematic record of meteorological phenomena in order to furnish data for the investigation of the relations of climate and weather and disease in India and the collection of all data that might be of value in connection with proposed sanitary improvements and projects. The Provincial Departments were five in number, but they had no unifying head for co-ordinating their work. They collected some useful data, but these were found to be of little use for the investigation of the larger phases and changes of weather in India. The Government of India accordingly decided in 1875 to imperialize the system, and sanctioned the necessary arrangements for the extension of the work of observations to the whole of India, for the adoption of uniform methods of observation, and for the systematic discussion of the observations as a whole. The Imperial Department thus formed was placed under Mr. H. F. Blandford, a scientific officer of proved abilities, who securely laid the foundations for the present efficiency of the Department. Though he was invested by the Government of India with full powers to give effect to the sanctioned reforms, he was too fully occupied to give attention to extending the domain of meteorological work to the larger Indian States. To his successor Sir John Elliot, K.C.I.E., the present constitution of the Department is mainly due. As a result of his discussion with Sir K. Seshadri Iyer, then Dewan of the State, it was

resolved, in 1891, to establish a set of local stations under favourable conditions, with one of them as a first class observatory. The main object in view, in opening these stations, was to secure and record observations concerning the conditions of the weather in different parts of the State as a help to making a forecast of the character of the seasons. Mr. John Cook, who was at the time Principal of the Central College, Bangalore, was deputed to Calcutta in November 1891, and on his return he submitted proposals for the organization of a Meteorological Department in the State. Mr. Cook was placed in charge of the Department, under the designation of Meteorological Reporter to Government which was subsequently changed into that of Director of Meteorology in Mysore. Four second class observatories were established during 1892-93 at Bangalore, Mysore, Hassan and Chitaldrug. The necessary instruments were obtained from the Government of India and observations began to be recorded from 1st April 1892 at Bangalore, from 1st August 1892 at Chitaldrug, from 20th November 1892 at Hassan and from 10th May 1893 at Mysore. In 1893-94, the Bangalore Observatory was built, close to the Central College, on the model of the Meteorological Observatory at Alipore, Calcutta, and its status was on 1st January 1895 raised to the first class. The self-recording instruments which had been ordered for in the interval were also installed in the new building, and since the date mentioned, this observatory has been working uninterruptedly as an Observatory of the first class and has earned a name for itself. It is, in several respects, in the words of the late Sir John Eliot, the best equipped Meteorological Observatory in India. A high level Observatory, situated as it is in the centre of the Indian Peninsula, at the height of 3,000 feet above the sea level, its recorded results have been of the greatest value for a proper study of the Meteorology of India.

In 1907, at the suggestion of the Director-General of Indian Observatories, the two second class observatories at Hassan and Chitaldrug were reduced to the third class. In 1912, the Observatory at Mysore was, as a measure of retrenchment, reduced to the third class. As the readings taken at 8 hours (local time) were considered sufficient in the second class observatories, observations are taken at 8, 10 and 16 daily, while only one set of observation is taken at 8 hours in the third class observatories. All the meteorological observatories now in India are of the third class, except those at the Presidency towns and at the capitals of a few Indian States.

Recent changes.

The observations taken at 8 hours at Bangalore, Mysore and Chitaldrug are daily telegraphed to Simla for the preparation of the Daily Weather Report. The new method of despatching weather telegrams initiated by the Imperial Department, *viz.*, giving the actual readings of the various instruments, was adopted permanently from 1st January 1924 as in British India. The Bangalore Observatory also sends weather telegrams to Bombay and Madras. The Hassan Observatory has since 1893 been only recording observations at 8 hours as the despatch of telegrams to Madras from that Station was stopped as a measure of retrenchment. The results of observations of all the observatories are daily sent to Bangalore by post. The registers of the daily 8 hours observations with copies of the daily weather telegrams are forwarded from all the four observatories punctually every month to the Meteorological Office, Simla. The monthly Register of the daily 10 hours and 16 hours observations at Bangalore is despatched to Calcutta.

Daily observations: despatch of telegrams, etc.

About ten years ago, following European and American Meteorologists, the Imperial Department of Meteorology, in India began the study of atmospheric changes in the

Pilot Balloon Observations.

higher levels, first by means of kites, and then with the aid of pilot balloons. This was tried at a few selected centres like Simla, Agra, etc., in Upper India and soon the need for such a centre in Southern India was felt. At the suggestion of the Director-General of Observatories, pilot balloon observations were started at the Bangalore Observatory on 19th May 1915, by means of a theodolite for investigating the velocity and direction of upper air currents at different heights. The observations thus secured give valuable information regarding the movements in the upper strata of the atmosphere. From 1st January 1924, the results of these balloon flights are being telegraphed to Simla on all the days on which the flights are possible. At Simla, they are made use of in making up the daily Forecast of Weather. On certain specified days, during the year, balloon flights are also conducted at the Bangalore Observatory, the results of which are used by the International Society for the investigation of Upper Air.

**Rain Gauges  
in the State.**

In 1893, there were in the State 150 rain gauges distributed among the eight districts as follows:—Bangalore, 25; Kolar, 19; Tumkur, 27; Mysore, 21; Shimoga, 17; Kadur, 11; Hassan, 15 and Chitaldrug, 16. Till then, they were under the control of the Public Works Department. In that year, the control over them was transferred to the Meteorological Reporter. In 1924, the number of gauges stood at 226 distributed thus:—Bangalore, 30; Kolar, 28; Tumkur, 41; Mysore, 37; Shimoga, 24; Kadur, 19; Hassan, 24; and Chitaldrug, 23. All the rain gauges are subject to annual inspection by the Revenue Officers. The diameter of the rain gauges in the State is 4.7 inches as against 5 inches, which is the diameter of the rain gauges in British India. One advantage of the gauge in use in the State is that 10 cents of rain collected in this gauge correspond to



1 oz. and an apothecary's four or eight ounce measure can be used in case of accident to the specially graduated glass. These gauges were in use before the control over them was taken over by the Meteorological Department. Their retention was specially confirmed by Government in an order dated 28th August 1896.

The observations recorded in the four observatories are published annually. In addition to this, a Report on Rain Registration in Mysore is also published every year. The Hourly Records of the Weather Elements obtained with the self-recording instruments at the Bangalore Observatory have been tabulated up-to-date and two volumes of Mysore Meteorological Memoirs embodying the Hourly Means of the various elements for the periods of 1895-1898 and 1899-1906 have been published. As Government have ordered the publication of the Hourly values in annual volumes beginning with 1907, they are being thus issued.

Publication of observations.

The work done by the Mysore Meteorological Department forms an integral part of the work done by the Imperial Meteorological Department for the benefit of meteorological science with special reference to India. Apart from the useful local work it does, the policy of the Department, as directed by Government, has been to co-operate with the Imperial Meteorological Department in collecting data for a comprehensive study of the meteorology of India as a whole. Mysore forms a Meteorological Province by itself with certain broad and well defined features. Before the Mysore Department was constituted, there were no accurate and reliable data concerning the climatological and weather conditions of Mysore. The statistics collected during the past thirty-four years have been utilized by the Revenue, Agricultural and the Public Works Departments.

General view of the Department's work.

## SECTION 5.—GAZETTEERS AND REPORTS.

Earliest  
statistical  
account of  
Mysore.  
Buchanan-  
Hamilton's  
*A journey  
through  
Mysore.*

As stated above, almost the first statistical account of the State was that drawn up by Dr. Francis Buchanan-Hamilton in his work *A journey from Madras through the countries of Mysore, Canara and Malabar*. Every page of it teems with valuable information, but the disjointed style inseparable from the nature of a daily *Journal* makes it difficult to consult, and it is much to be regretted that the accomplished author had not the opportunity of throwing the work into a more suitable form for publication. The printing of the work was undertaken before he reached England, and before he could, as he desired to do, abridge it and recast it for publication. He had, therefore, to content himself with merely revising the manuscript and passing it for the press. The result is a work, which though valuable for the information it contains, is prolix to a degree. At the time Buchanan-Hamilton was commissioned to undertake a journey from Madras through the countries of Mysore, Kanara and Malabar, *i.e.*, the territories forming the restored kingdom of Mysore and the large tracts of country ceded to the British as the result of the Wars with Tipu Sultān, he was employed in the Medical service of the East India Company on the Bengal Establishment and had been well known for his valuable botanical researches in Burma and Chitagong. He was a Fellow of the Royal Society and of the Society of Antiquaries of London and was well fitted to undertake the task allotted to him. In his instructions, dated 20th February 1800, Marquis Wellesley directed Buchanan's attention to a variety of subjects on which he desired him to report after careful inquiries. Among these were agriculture including vegetation, cattle, farms, natural productions, arts, manufactures and commerce, climate and seasons, mines, quarries, minerals and mineral

springs, people, their condition, their sects and tribes, weights and measures and currency in use, etc. Buchanan began his travel on 23rd April 1800 at Madras and ended it at the same place on 6th July 1801. His work entitled "*A Journey from Madras through the countries of Mysore, Kanara and Malabar*" was published under the authority and patronage of the Honourable the Directors of the East India Company in 1807 in three quarto volumes and subsequently reprinted in two volumes octavo at Madras, in 1870. Though as remarked above, tedious in parts, it gives an excellent picture of the condition of that larger Mysore which formed Tipu's Kingdom. The disastrous effects of successive wars on the people and the country are writ large on every page of this work. Buchanan's Diary, however, is in the main, descriptive, and is written in the chronicler's vein. It can hardly be described as a regular Survey, except in the larger sense of the term. Still, it is of vast importance for a correct understanding of the condition of the country and the people, their arts and manufactures, and their habits and manners, at the restoration to power of the present ruling house of Mysore.

While Dr. Buchanan-Hamilton was engaged in his travels, Colonel Colin Mackenzie, to whose work a partial reference has been made above, was commissioned by the Governor-General to make a survey of Mysore. He was allowed only three assistants, with medical officer as surgeon and naturalist. In spite of many difficulties, however, the survey was continued till 1807. The result was not only a valuable contribution to geographical knowledge, but considerable materials were also acquired of the statistics and history of the country. These were recorded in folio volumes transmitted to the East India Company. Copies of eight volumes, attested by Colonel Mackenzie's signature, are

Colonel Colin  
Mackenzie's  
Report on  
Mysore and  
Mss.

deposited among the records of the Mysore Residency at Bangalore. The most novel and important of the discoveries made by Colonel Mackenzie was that of the existence of the sect of Jains in India, which he was the first to bring to notice. His manuscript collections, according to the catalogue issued by Professor H. H. Wilson, include, 1,568 manuscripts of literary works, 2,070 local tracts, 8,076 copies of inscriptions, 2,150 translations, 2,709 plans and drawings and 146 images and antiquities. The manuscripts of his collection are now lodged partly in the Madras Oriental Manuscript Library and partly in the India Office Library, London. The manuscripts relating to Mysore are in Kannada, Telugu and Marāthi languages, and include, besides collections of inscriptions, local tracts and historical notices. Among these may be mentioned the following few:—Account of the genealogy of Kings (Telugu); Account of Hale Bidu in Mysore (Telugu); Account of Chitra (Kal) durga (Marathi); Account of Seringapatam (Marathi); the genealogy of Vishnuvardhana (Kannada), etc.

Dr. Benjamin  
Heyne's  
Statistical  
Fragments of  
Mysore.

The first Surgeon and naturalist attached to the Mysore Survey was Dr. Benjamin Heyne, whose papers on a variety of subjects relating to Mysore and the adjoining countries were published in London in 1814 under the title of *Tracts, Historical and Statistical, on India*. His *Statistical Fragments on Mysore* was included in the *Selections from the Records of the Mysore Commissioner's Office* issued at Bangalore, under the authority of the Government of India, in 1864. It is an attempt at a brief description of Mysore, its people and products. Heyne was a naturalist and so gave some prominence in his account to meteorology, botanical features, geological and mineral aspects. Other information contained in his *Fragments* is an account of the method of "making

steel in the Mysore Country." Dr. Heyne subsequently became the East India Company's Botanist at Madras, and, in that capacity, was sent up to Bangalore to induce the people to grow potatoes. In 1805, he reported that they had actually been on sale in the bazaars, and that he would soon be able to supply Madras with them. His economic and botanical reports are included in the four volumes containing his own and Dr. Roxburgh's researches into the botanical condition of the country and the state of its indigenous industries now lodged in the Madras Record Office.

Dr. Heyne's successor in the post of Surgeon-naturalist was the gifted Dr. John Leyden. Beyond a few anecdotes and verses in his *Poetical Remains* published in London in 1819, it has been impossible to secure anything of his specially devoted to this State, though it is on record that "he drew up some useful papers, which he communicated to the Government, relating to the mountainous strata and their mineral indications; as to the diseases, medicines and remedies of the natives of Mysore, and the peculiarities of their habits and constitution by which they might be exposed to disease; as to the different crops cultivated in Mysore and their rotation; and to the languages of Mysore, and to their respective relations." Heyne's observations were confined to the north and east; Leyden's papers, if traced, would give us information regarding the south and west.

Dr. John  
Leyden's  
missing  
papers.

It has been remarked of Leyden by Sir John Malcolm, a former Resident of Mysore, that "he rose by the power of native genius, from the humblest origin to a very distinguished rank in the literary world. His studies included almost every branch of human science, and he was alike ardent in the pursuit of all. The greatest power of his mind was perhaps shown in his acquisition of modern and ancient languages. . . ."

His end was most sad. On the conquest of Java in 1811, he accompanied the Governor-General, Lord Minto, to that island, and hearing at Batavia of a library containing a valuable collection of oriental manuscripts, hastened to explore it. The long low room, an old depository of effects belonging to the Dutch Government, had been shut up for some time, and the confined air was strongly impregnated with the poisonous quality which has made Batavia the grave of so many Europeans. Without the precaution of having it aired, he rushed eagerly in to examine its treasures, was seized in consequence with a mortal fever, and died on the 28th August, after three days' illness, in the 36th year of his age.

Southey wished "that Java had remained in the hands of the enemy, so Leyden were alive," while Sir Walter Scott paid the following tribute to his memory in the *Lord of the Isles*:—

His bright and brief career is o'er,  
And mute his tuneful strains;  
Quenched is his lamp of varied lore,  
That loved the light of song to pour;  
A distant and a deadly shore  
Has Leyden's cold remains.

The centenary of Leyden's birth was celebrated with public rejoicings in 1875 at his native village of Denholm, on the banks of the Teviot, in Scotland.

Colonel Mark  
Wilks' History  
of Mysore and  
Report on the  
Interior  
Administra-  
tion of Mysore.

Colonel Mark Wilks, distinguished as the historian of Mysore, at which Court he was for a time Resident, published his well-known work under the title of *Historical Sketches of the South of India in an attempt to trace the History of Mysoor*, in three volumes quarto, the first of which appeared in London in 1810, and the last two not till 1817, owing to his appointment during the interval as Governor of St. Helena, which office he held

until the imprisonment on that island of the Emperor Napoleon Buonaparte. "It displays," as an old reviewer justly observes, "a degree of research, acumen, vigour, and elegance, that renders it a work of standard importance in English literature." A reprint, in two volumes octavo, was published in Madras in 1869. Prior to the publication of his *History*, in November 1804, Wilks had written and submitted to the Governor-General in Council, a *Report on the interior administration, resources and expenditure of the Government of Mysore*, which has been printed and reprinted twice over, once in 1861 and again in 1864. It is one of the papers included in the *Selections from the Records* referred to above. It is a most valuable document for forming a correct idea of the administration of the State during the five years immediately following the restoration of the Hindu Dynasty after the Treaty of 1793.

On the vesting of the Government in the Commissioners appointed by the Governor-General in Council in October 1831, a memorandum in the shape of *Notes on the state of affairs in Mysore* was drawn up for the information of the Governor-General. These *Notes* were intended to form a basis for revision "on passing through the country, until a complete and correct view of its actual state can be fully ascertained and recorded; for at present it has been found exceedingly difficult, from various causes, to obtain correct information either of the past or of the present state of affairs." It was framed "on information derived partly from the public accounts, but principally from the best informed persons, in and out of office; the object being to collect into one general and connected shape, all that is useful to be known" of the country and its revenue and other institutions. The *Notes* treat of Mysore under its six principal divisions, viz., the Faujdaries of Bangalore, Madgiri, Chitaldrug,

Report of the  
Commission  
Period.

Ashtagram, Manjarabad and Nagar. There is internal evidence to believe that the Report was drawn up by Sir Mark Cubbon, probably in 1834, on his assumption of office as sole Commissioner of Mysore. The Report is a businesslike one and was followed, as foreshadowed, by three Reports, one in the *Nagar Division of Mysore* dated 19th May 1838 by Hudleston Stokes, M. C. S., who was then its Superintendent; another on the *Malnad of the Ashtagram Division* dated 19th December 1839 by Major H. Montgomery, Superintendent of that Division; and a third on the *Chitaldrug Division* dated 1st January 1842 by Captain F. Chalmers, lately Superintendent of that Division. Though styled "Reports," these are really monographs on these Divisions and would be called "Gazetteers" of the Divisions in the language to-day. Of these Reports, that on the Nagar Division is full and comprehensive and contains matter of much interest. All these Reports are included in the *Selections from the Records of the Mysore Commissioner's Office* mentioned above, which was issued, under the authority of the Government of India in 1864, by Mr. Lewin Bowring, then Chief Commissioner of Mysore. Apart from these Reports, Sir Mark Cubbon submitted in 1855 a *General Memorandum* to the Marquis of Dalhousie and since that time Administration Reports were regularly issued until 1891, when it was made quinquennial. Thirty-five years of British administration changed the aspect of the country so much that, by 1867, the need for a handy and authentic digest of extant information on the State was acutely felt. The first step taken towards supplying the want was in June 1867, when a circular was addressed by Mr. C. B. Saunders, the Offg. Chief Commissioner, to the Superintendents of Divisions, directing the compilation for each District of a *Gazetteer* similar to the one then lately published of the Bhandara District in the Central Provinces. In pursuance of these



orders, during the next two years nine manuscript volumes were prepared. Only two, however, came to be printed, namely one for Mysore District, by Mr. H. Wellesley; and one for Kolar, it is presumed, by Mr. B. Krishniengar, C. S. I. Of the remainder, those for Bangalore and Kadur were not completed; the one for Shimoga was prepared by Captain Cumming; that for Hassan by Major W. Hill; that for Tumkur by Major C. Pearse and that for Chitaldrug by Mr. Krishna Rao. The Report on the Census of 1871 by Major Lindsay naturally superseded much of the statistical information contained in these volumes, which moreover widely differed from one another in the treatment of the variety of subjects included in them. In 1872, Mr. Lewin Bowring, till then Chief Commissioner in Mysore, brought out his *Eastern Experiences*, which included much matter of historical and topographical nature.

The design to appoint an Editor who should bring out one work on a uniform plan was next adopted and eventually, in 1873, with the sanction of the Government of India, the duty was entrusted by Sir Richard Meade, then Chief Commissioner, to Mr. B. L. Rice, C. I. E., then Director of Public Instruction in Mysore, whose personal knowledge of the State, its people, its antiquities and its dominant language was unrivalled. He issued in 1876 the *Gazetteer of Mysore and Coorg*, of which two volumes were devoted to Mysore and one to Coorg. The work was well received, the late Sir William Wilson Hunter expressing his warmest approval of it. The work was divided into two volumes, the first treating of Mysore in general, and the second of Mysore by districts, eight in number. In 1897, he brought out, at the direction of Government, a revised edition, also in two volumes, bringing up the statistics to date and adding much valuable fresh information bearing on the geological,

Mr. Rice's  
Gazetteer of  
Mysore.

historical, and other aspects of the State. He was also responsible for the volume on *Mysore* included in the *Imperial Gazetteer of India*, which was issued in 1908.

Other Reports  
and Publica-  
tions.

Since the publication of the last edition of the *Gazetteer*, much progress has been recorded in almost every Department of the State. With the cessation of the quinquennial Report on the Administration of the State, the issue of the yearly Report was resumed. Apart from the Reports on the Census operations conducted in the State in the years 1901, 1911 and 1921, which have rendered obsolete the older statistics relating to population and other general statistics, there have been issued many Departmental and other Reports of value to which special references will be found in the different chapters of this *Gazetteer*.

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## CHAPTER IX.

### MISCELLANEOUS DEPARTMENTS.

#### SECTION 1—MUZRAI DEPARTMENT.

##### GENERAL.

The origin and definition of the word "Muzrai."

THE word "Muzrai" is derived from a Persian word "Mujra" which means deduction or allowance and it was, through colloquial usage, changed into Muzrai and applied generally to an allowance granted for religious or charitable purposes. Hence, all grants made for religious or charitable purposes and for the up-keep of religious and charitable institutions come under the head "Muzrai."

Muzrai Department.

The Muzrai Department is entrusted with the administration of revenues of religious and charitable institutions belonging to Hindus and Mahomedans, such as, temples, chatrams or feeding houses, mutts, durgas, masjids, etc., enjoying land and money inams and interest from certain deposits of money lodged by votaries for the fulfilment of certain vows. Subsistence or personal grants, such as *Varushāsanam*, *Nagad Bhatamānyams*, *Yomias*, and other charitable allowances given for the subsistence of the holders, are also administered by the Muzrai Department.

Distinction between "Muzrai" and "Inām."

Formerly, Muzrai included Inām also. Muzrai and Inām are linked together, and, in many respects, their connection is intimate. After the introduction of the

Inam Settlement into the State, a distinction was made between Muzrai and Inām. At present, all ready money grants come under the head "Muzrai" and all endowments in lands under "Inām."

*Prior to the Rendition.*

During the administration both of Tipu Sultān and Pūrnaiya, the Muzrai affairs were managed by the Amildar and the Faujdar under the oral and written orders of the Dewan; and subsequently, His Highness the late Maharaja Krishnaraja Wodeyar Bahadur III kept the control of the institutions under his immediate supervision. On the administration passing into the hands of the British Commission in 1831, the management of these institutions was vested in the Superintendents and their subordinate District officers. In 1852, the Commissioner, Sir Mark Cubbon, considered it expedient that the management of the affairs of the Muzrai institutions throughout the State should be transferred to and placed under the orders of his office, and he issued a set of rules with a view to ensure greater efficiency in the work of the institutions. In 1861 again, on the eve of his departure, Sir Mark Cubbon retransferred the supervision of the institutions to Divisional Superintendents. In 1867, Indian Muzrai Assistant Commissioners were appointed and they were entrusted with the general supervision over the work of the Amildars, themselves being subordinate to Deputy Commissioners, the final authority in all matters vesting with the Chief Commissioner. In 1876, the immediate control over Muzrai institutions was, under the Chief Commissioner's orders, transferred to the Huzar Daftar Department, proposals for important changes and other correspondence not coming within the category of routine work alone being submitted through the Divisional Commissioner. The change took effect from the 1st January 1877, and, in

introducing it, new rules were framed with a view to improve the system of accounts and the efficiency of the department generally.

*After the Rendition.*

Administra-  
tion and  
staff.

After the Rendition, the management of the institutions reverted into the hands of the Deputy Commissioners of Districts, a small establishment being maintained in the Dewan's Office to deal with the papers bearing on Muzrai matters. A great need for reform in the management of the State Muzrai Institutions then continued to be pressed upon the attention of Government in several meetings of the Representative Assembly, and in December 1891, Government, on a consideration of the large interests involved and realizing the need for the reforms urged, appointed a special officer as Muzrai Superintendent to enquire into the subject on the spot and to carry out the needed reform in the case of each institution under the general or special orders of Government. To facilitate the disposal of the various questions by Government, the Muzrai Superintendent was also appointed *ex-officio* Secretary to Government. This arrangement continued till about the close of the official year 1921-22, when the post of the Muzrai Superintendent and Secretary to Government was abolished and the Revenue Commissioner in Mysore was appointed Muzrai Commissioner with sufficient powers of control and supervision over the District Officers.

Muzrai Institutions have been endowed with land ināms, the annual value of which is nearly 11 lakhs, in addition to ready money grants amounting to Rs. 3,24,600. (*Vide* statement I).

Classes of  
Muzrai  
institutions.

For purposes of management, the institutions are divided into three classes :—

- (1) *Major*.—Those having a total income from all sources exceeding Rs. 1,000 per annum and a few others of special importance to be specified from time to time.
- (2) *Minor*.—Those with an income ranging between Rs. 100 to Rs. 1,000.
- (3) *Village Institutions*.—Those with an annual income of less than Rs. 100.

Detailed instructions for the management of second and third class institutions have been issued.

The law relating to Muzrai Institutions in Mysore has been consolidated and codified into a Regulation known as the Muzrai Regulation, 1913, which was passed in October 1913 and came into force on 1st January 1914. The Mysore  
Muzrai  
Regulation.

Provisions relating to religious and charitable institutions and to Mutts and similar institutions are contained in Chapters II and III respectively, while Chapter IV deals with the claims, appointment and removal, etc., of *pūjāris* and other hereditary temple servants.

Rules have been issued under Sections 13, 15 and 35 of the Muzrai Regulation, dealing with the maintenance of accounts in religious and charitable institutions, the conduct of business by *Dharmadarsis* and other cognate matters.

The standing orders relating to the Department have been compiled and published in the form of a Manual. The Muzrai  
Manual. Two supplements have also since been published.

A library of standing works relating to temple worship and religious practices has been formed in the Muzrai Commissioner's Office, and the Library is also being enlarged every year. Subject to certain specified conditions, a collection of books bearing on Oriental Philosophy, Religion, etc., has been lent to the Mythic Society. Library.

Bangalore and they are kept in the society premises in a special bureau marked "Muzrai Department, Loan Section."

## APPENDICES.

*I. Statement showing balances, cash grants, etc., of institutions.*

Balances on 30th June 1923			Cash grants, annual budget figures for 1923-24					
	Invested	Uninvested	Chattrams	Temples	Mats	Palace institu- tions	Muhammadan institutions	Allowances, grants-in-aid, etc.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Government of India 3½ per cent loan.	608,800	10,22,700†	60,218	125,264	60,118	55,192	12,405	11,045
Mysore Govern- ment 6½ percent loan of 1940.	241,000	...	...	...	...	...	...	...

† Out of this, a sum of Rs. 509,000 has been ear-marked for investment in Mysore Government 6½ per cent loan of 1940.

*II. Statement showing the number of different institutions in the State.*

Major				Minor
Chattrams	Temples	Rest-houses	Muhammadan institutions	
36	87	24	7	1,316



III. List showing religious and charitable institutions outside the Mysore State receiving grants from the Mysore Government :—

No.	Name of institution and place where it is situated	Amount of allowance per year	Payment where made
<b>CHATRAMS.</b>		Rs. a. p.	
1	His Highness the Maharaja's Chatram and certain charities established in the Sri Venkataramaswami temple at Tirupati, Chittoor District.	12,036 9 6	Bangalore.
2	His Highness the Maharaja's Chatram at Benares.	2,663 3 3	Do
3	Barabazar Santarpane during Shasti festival at Subrahmanya, Uppina Angadi Taluk, South Canara District.	2,000 0 0	Hassan.
Total ...		16,919 12 9	
<b>MATHAS AND BRINDAVANAMS.</b>			
4	Hattiramji Matha at Tirupati ...	250 0 0	Bangalore.
5	Jangamvadi Matha at Benares ...	240 0 0	Mysore.
6	Sri Alagiva Manavala Ramanujayyar's Matha at Vishnu Kanchi, Conjeevaram.	58 1 0	Mulbagal.
7	Sirur Matha at Udipi ...	19 0 0	Belur.
8	Kanur Matha at Udipi ...	349 1 0	Tirthahalli.
9	Pejever Matha at Udipi ...	261 13 0	Do
10	Futtige Matha at Udipi ...	403 10 0	Nagar.
11	Pradarkere Matha at Hosballi (Udipi Taluk).	174 9 0	Do
12	Palamara Matha at Udipi ...	349 1 0	Koppa.
13	Sri Satyavarahaswami's Brindavana at Santabudur (Anantapur District).	230 13 0	Madhugiri.
14	Memorial at Calcutta ...	5,919 0 0	
Total ...		8,315 0 0	

## III.—concl'd.

No.	Name of institution and place where it is situated	Amount of allowance per year	Payment where made
TEMPLES.		Rs. a. p.	
15	Sri Venkataramanaswāmi temple at Tirupati (Chittoor District).	5 13 0	Bangalore.
16	Do do ...	13 2 0	Honnali.
17	Do do ...	3,130 0 0	Bangalore.
18	Sundry temples at Benares:— Sri Muddukrishna Dēvaru Rs. 60 ... Sri Subrahmanyaswāmi Rs. 60 ... Sri Depaji Swami Rs. 120 ...	240 0 0	Mysore.
19	Sri Arunachaleswaraswāmi at Tiruvannamalai.	496 6 0	Bangalore.
20	Sri Arthanāriswaraswāmi at Tiruchangode.	290 15 0	Seringapatam.
21	Sri Jambukēśvaraswāmi at Jambukēśvara, Trichy.	131 12 0	Bangalore.
22	Sri Ranganātheswāmi at Srirangam, Trichy.	200 0 0	Do
23	Sri Yantrodhāraka Mukhya Prāna Dēvaru at Humpi.	34 15 0	Molakalmuru.
24	Sri Ranganātheswāmi at Gudupalli (Pennkonda Taluk).	4 6 0	Bagepalli.
25	Sri Anjanēyaswāmi at Santebidnur (Anantapur District).	58 9 0	Madhugiri.
26	Sri Anantapadmanābaswāmi at Udipi	236 6 0	Tirthshalli.
27	Sri Krishna Dēvaru at Udipi ...	6,807 0 0	Do
28	Do do ...	14 8 0	Do
29	Sri Vamanagiri Durga Dēvi on the hill of Kanabur village, Udipi Taluk.	4 6 0	Do
30	Sri Subrahmanyesvara at Kalakunda, Uppina Angadi Taluk, South Canara.	651 13 0	Manjarabad.
31	Do for Agama service...	144 12 0	Do
32	Sri Ramachandra Dēvaru at Savanur, Dharwar District.	5 13 0	Honnali.
33	Sri Trivikrama Dēvaru at Swadi, Sirsi Taluk (Bombay).	4 6 0	Shikarpur.
34	Sri Banasankari at Bādami (Kaladgi District).	116 6 0	Davangere.
35	Hayagrivadēvaru in Parakāla Matha at Tirupati.	1,320 14 0	Bowringpet.
	Total ...	13,781 0 0	
	Grand total ...	39,016 5 9	

IV. Statement showing the particulars of Muzrai Institutions under the management of the Palace Authorities in the State:—

No.	Name of Institution	Amount		
		Rs.	a.	p.
1	His Highness the Maharaja's Chatram in Mysore ...	19,450	0	0
2	His Highness the Maharaja's Sanskrit College in Mysore ...	7,222	15	11
3	Sri Prasanna Krishnaswāmi Temple.	13,722	0	0
4	Varāhaswāmi Temple ...	4,329	0	0
5	Lakshmiramanaswāmy Temple ...	2,019	0	0
6	Trinēswaraswāmi Temple ...	2,011	0	0
7	Chāmundēswari Temple on the Chāmundi Hill ...	11,748	0	0
8	Chamanpatti Dēvēsvara Temple ...	178	12	0
9	Bettada Padagudi ...	60	0	0
10	Panchagavi Matt ...	626	0	0
11	Japadakatte Matt ...	350	0	0
12	Sanjivaraj Urs' Temple, Mysore ...	120	0	0
13	Sri Sōmēsvara Temple, Fort, Mysore.	8	12	0
14	Byravaswāmi Temple, Fort, Mysore.	8	12	0
15	Venkataramanaswāmi Temple, Fort, Mysore ...	287	14	0
16	Vināyaka Temple, Western Fort Gate, Mysore ...	58	3	0
17	Ānjanēya Temple, Southern Fort Gate, Mysore ...	104	12	0
18	Remuneration for dragging cars ...	100	0	0
	Total ...	62,405	0	11
	Deduct amount transferred to Education Budget on account of Mysore Sanskrit College ...	7,223	0	0
	Total ...	55,182	0	11
				a year

V. Statement showing the institutions receiving annual grants-in-aid from State Funds during the year 1923-24 :—

No.	Name of Institution	Amount		
		Rs.	a.	p.
1	Friend-in-need Society, Civil and Military Station, Bangalore ...	600	0	0
2	Girdlestone Home for incurables, Civil and Military Station, Bangalore ...	300	0	0
3	Srinivasa Mandiram Orphanage, Bangalore City ..	1,200	0	0
4	Arya Dharma Bōdhini Sabha ...	225	0	0
5	Ubhaya Vēdānta Pravartana Sabha, Mēlkōte ...	120	0	0
6	Anāthālaya, Mysore ...	600	0	0
7	Abalāsrama, Basavangudi, Bangalore City ...	300	0	0
8	Ganesha Utsava in the Sri Chāmārājendra Sanskrit College, Bangalore ...	25	0	0
9	Sanskrit College, Mēlkōte ...	3,240	0	0

SECTION 2—HORTICULTURE AND PUBLIC GARDENS.

HORTICULTURE.

Horticulture and climatic conditions.

The Mysore State enjoys a climate most favourable to horticulture. Its chief centre, the Bangalore District, which is also the centre of horticulture, may be said to be sub-tropical, as compared with the tropical climate of Madras and the distinctly temperate or alpine condition of the Nilgiris. In the State itself, these tropical and temperate conditions are represented in the planting districts and hilly ranges respectively. In Bangalore, with judicious treatment, most of the plants of these extreme climates can be grown. The rainfall in the State is extremely varied in its character and is suitable for both dry and wet cultivations. The rainy and summer

seasons are fairly good, but the winter is not long enough to allow of sufficient rest for fruit plants, such as peaches, plums, etc., so that artificial methods of wintering have to be adopted. On the whole, the climate of Bangalore is more suitable for the cultivation of fruits and vegetables, both local and European, than most other places in India.

In parts of the *malnād*, where the rainfall exceeds 90 inches, irrigation depends exclusively upon rains. Where it is less than 90, innumerable small tanks have been constructed to supply water whenever the rains hold off long. In the *maidān*, owing to scanty rainfall and the peculiar configuration of the ground, tanks are an absolute necessity and almost every likely site has been made use of for constructing a tank. Ninety per cent of the tanks are what are termed "minor," that is, tanks assessed at less than Rs. 300 per annum.

Irrigation and other water facilities.

Channels drawn from perennial streams and rivers are also being used for irrigation. Wells are dug for garden cultivation.

The areas irrigated under the different systems are as follows:—

Tanks	...	...	5,00,000	acres roughly.
Channels	...	...	1,00,000	do
Wells	...	...	62,000	do
Rain	...	...	2,00,000	do

As far as horticultural crops are concerned, well irrigation is the most important. Vegetables are chiefly cultivated in low land, where the water level is fairly high and water is lifted with the help of *picottas*. In places where the water level is low, *mholes* are used. In a few large estates, started round Bangalore, pumps are used for lifting water. Oil engines are now being replaced by motors driven by electricity.

Soils suitable  
for Horticulture.

The soil in the Mysore State is generally productive. Of the various soils such as clayey, loamy, sandy and gravelly soils found in the State, loamy soils are preferable for horticultural crops. It is not always possible to find the ideal condition and very often the texture of soils has to be improved by artificial means. Drainage is one of the most important factors in the cultivation of fruit trees. In and around Bangalore, fruit plants are cultivated in well-drained, red, loamy soils and vegetables in the deep soils of low areas.

The tools  
employed.

In the matter of implements, the cultivators of fruits and vegetables are not so backward as the cultivators of field crops. They use both the local and European tools. The chief difference between the two sets of tools is that, in the case of local tools, the man has to work towards him with a pulling action whereas in the case of imported implements he has to work away from him with pushing action. The gardeners here are naturally more accustomed to the former way of working and almost all European implements which could be worked similarly are used by them. The chief implements used in gardening are the following:—

- |  |                     |
|--|---------------------|
| (1) <i>Guddali</i> .—One sided pickaxe used for deep digging.                            | (5) Pick axe.       |
| (2) <i>Mamtee</i> .—A spade used for digging soil and for surface digging in soft soils. | (6) Rake.           |
| (3) <i>Kale Kothu</i> .—Miniature <i>guddali</i> for removing weeds and stirring soil.   | (7) Trowel.         |
| (4) <i>Hārekōlu</i> .—Crowbar.   | (8) Handfork.       |
|  | (9) Sickle.         |
|  | (10) Pruning Knife. |
|  | (11) Hedge shears.  |
|  | (12) Pruning saw.   |
|  | (13) Watering can.  |

The digging fork, the spade and the shovel are used only in Government and a few big private gardens.

The cultivation of all crops in horticulture is intensive. As they are not grown on such large scale as field crops, and as they are more paying, the growers do not hesitate to improve the soil by adding different kinds of soil constituents and manures according to the necessity and even to renew the whole soil as in the case of flower plants. The plough is generally replaced by the spade and the soil is dug usually to  $1\frac{1}{2}$  to 2 feet in depth. On large areas, ploughing is done to prepare the land. The local plough is the commonest, but improved ploughs are gradually taking its place. In the case of a few large estates, tractors are used for ploughing with mould board or Disc ploughs. The improved plough has a decided advantage over the local one in as much as it inverts the soil.

Preparation  
of the land.

Heavy manuring is necessary for the cultivation of vegetables, fruits and flowers. The common manures are the following:—Cattle manure, horse manure, sheep manure, nightsoil, town rubbish, leaf-mould, wood-ashes, oil cakes, bonemeal, lime, nitrate of soda, sulphate of ammonia, sulphate of potash, *kainit* superphosphate and nitrate of potash are used in large estates and Government gardens and farms where scientific and experimental cultivation is done. Liquid and green manures are also used in some cases.

The manures  
used.

The work of the Horticultural Department may be classified into three main divisions, *viz.*, scientific, economic and ornamental. The sciences which are applied are chiefly Botany, Entomology, Mycology and Chemistry. Economic work includes the cultivation of fruits, vegetables and other useful plants yielding fuel, timber, shade, fibre, medicine, etc. Ornamental horticulture consists of flower and landscape gardening. Horticultural education and popularising horticulture also form

Principal  
sections of  
Horticulture  
and work  
connected  
with it.

part of the work. Lastly, the development of Hill Stations and Town Planning are included in the sphere of the department. Practically all the work falling under the head of scientific research is done at the Government Botanical Garden, Lal-Bagh, Bangalore, which is the centre of all horticultural activity in the State. The different sections of work done here are described below.

(a) Botanical work.

The systematic maintenance of a representative section, the constant importation of new plants and the collection of different kinds of plants form the chief effort in Botanical work. Most of these plants are planted in groups according to their genera. Labels containing the scientific and common names of the plant, the natural order to which it belongs and its habitation are provided. This arrangement is much appreciated by botanists and college students. An Herbarium containing a large and valuable collection of specimens, representing chiefly the Flora of the Mysore State, is also maintained. The dried specimens in the Herbarium together with the collection of live plants in the garden close at hand afford unique facilities for the study of Botany in the State. There is also a most valuable collection of paintings of botanical subjects drawn by the Artist of this department.

(b) Economic Section.

In the Economic Section of Botany, hybridising and plant breeding work is done. New plants of commercial importance are introduced, their cultivation is tried and their uses are investigated. Those plants which are found suitable are propagated in the Nursery and distributed to the districts.

The Bureau of Economic Botany is maintained for the study of Economic plants and their products. It has two primary objects in view, *viz.*—



(1) To furnish by means of extracts and references from the chief technical publications, systematically arranged in ledger cabinets, ready and up-to-date information on the cultivation of Economic plants and the manufacture and commerce of the products derived from them; and

(2) To exhibit for study by the public, the seeds and other useful parts of economic plants, as samples of economic or commercial vegetable products, raw and in various stages of preparation or manufacture.

The economic garden in the Lal-Bagh affords further facilities for the study of living specimens of economic plants. (c) Bureau of Economic Botany.

The study of insect and fungus pests forms another section of work. These pests on vegetable and flower and fruit plants are studied and preventive and remedial measures are found out. Among insect pests, scales, green and brown and mealy bugs, aphids, and stem borers; and among fungus diseases, mildew, rust, and sooty mould are general. The staff not only treats the diseases on plants in the Government Gardens but also goes round private gardens, specially neighbouring orchards, and does spraying work, for it is chiefly in the latter that fruit plants are propagated and sold and, if they are not treated, the pests would get largely distributed in different localities. (d) The study of insect and fungus pests.

With the object of controlling these diseases, all incoming and outgoing plants are subjected to thorough examination and are then fumigated in the *Fumigatorium*, which is a special construction prepared for the use of hydro-cyanic gas. All plants are then sent out to their respective destinations under a guarantee of being free from insect or other pests. The fumigatorium.

Attached to the office there is a seed-store and sale-room in which seeds, both acclimatised and imported,

Seed-store and saleroom. are sold to the public as also plants propagated and grown in the Lal-Bagh Nurseries.

Seed-testing house. The seeds are tested in the seed-testing house with a view to determining their germinating power, purity and vitality. Seeds from private nurserymen are also tested free for them.

Nurseries. The nurseries consist of the indoor or tropical sections, the outdoor nursery and potting sheds, seed-house, bulb-stores, and the like. The Seed House has been fitted for placing the newly sown seeds under the most suitable condition for germination and to protect them against the extremes of temperature. Similarly, for the proper treatment of the seedlings, a glass-roofed verandah with suitable staging has been provided. The Potting shed is fitted with a full range of stone benching for transplanting, potting and establishing young plants prior to putting them to their quarters in the beds. The propagating frames are fitted with glass shutters, moveable shading and bottom heat pits. These frames are intended chiefly for propagating tender plants by cuttings and germinating seeds requiring a closed temperature. The Indoor Nursery Beds are protected by an iron-framed roofing, supported on stone pillars, and covered by creepers, which allow for adjusting the shade by pruning. These beds afford suitable accommodation to the newly imported young stock, which have to be acclimatised. In the Outdoor Nursery, hardy plants are stocked in large numbers for sale to the public. It is divided into four sections consisting of the following:—

- (a) Soft wooded plants.
- (b) Fruit trees.
- (c) Ornamental trees and shrubs.
- (d) Economic and Commercial plants.

This Nursery is enclosed and partitioned with trellis, over which different kinds of creepers are trained for propagation, which at the same time form wind-belts. Proper shade is provided by planting suitable trees.

The Library, which is situated in the Office building, adjoining the Bureau of Economic Botany, contains a large number of books on Floriculture, Pomology, Olericulture, Landscape and Economic Gardening, Town-planning and allied subjects. It is open not only to the Departmental staff but also to the public. Next to the library, there is a small Laboratory for analysis of soils, economic products, fruit preserving, etc.

The Library  
and  
Laboratory.

The Horticultural Class is meant for training sons of landlords who wish to grow fruits, vegetables, etc., and also to train men who desire to take up service under the Government or private agencies, such as Overseers and Supervisors of gardens. The students get a monthly scholarship of Rs. 10 from Government. Besides horticulture, practical and theoretical, they are taught the allied subjects of botany, entomology, chemistry, etc.

The  
Horticultural  
Class.

The Mali Class students are taught practical gardening in the Nurseries and gardens and in the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm. This institution is chiefly intended to meet the great demand that exists for gardeners in private houses.

The Mali  
Class.

Two Horticultural Shows are held every year in the Lal-Bagh, the Winter Show in February and the Summer one in August. They serve largely to educate the people, and students particularly, in Flower and Vegetable cultivation, besides providing a great pleasure to those who love flower culture.

Horticultural  
Shows.

## VEGETABLE CULTURE.

Conditions  
favouring  
Vegetable  
Culture.

The Mysore State has the necessary soil, climate and elevation to grow all the European and Indian Vegetables to perfection almost throughout the year. The cultivation of European vegetables on a commercial scale is confined to Bangalore and its surrounding Taluks to meet the demands of military and European residents. The cultivation of European vegetables is spreading throughout the State as a result of the propagandist work of the Horticultural Inspectors. The local raiyat has a better knowledge of the cultivation of vegetables than the raiyats of other parts of India. There is a considerable export trade in vegetables to Bombay, Madras and other district head-quarter towns. The raiyat selects his land at a spot where there is easy marketing, transport facilities are available, and a good supply of water is assured throughout the year. In selecting land, he avoids water and alkaline soils containing harmful salts. Once a year, during the summer, the land is deeply trenched to a foot depth with a crow-bar to eradicate *Hariali* and nut grasses. The chief manures used locally are:—Night-soil, sewage, farm yard manure and municipal refuse. The chief implements used are crow-bar, *guddali*, small and big, *mammattes* and sickles, *picotah* for lifting of water for small plots and single *mhote* for larger pieces of land. Oil engines and electrical motor pumps are used by a few enterprising cultivators. The raiyat has still to be educated in the scientific methods employed in vegetable culture, as practised in Western countries, such as the use of labour saving appliances, chemical fertilisers, green manures, liquid manures, seed selection, rotation of crops, inter-cultivation; also such operations as earthing up, blanching, etc., at the proper time, the proper method of combating insect and fungus pests. He has yet to be trained to

appreciate better varieties of vegetables than what he grows. There are countless excellent vegetables, such as Broad Beans, Artichoke, English Marrow-fat peas, Runner Beans, Butter wax pod, French Beans, Asparagus, Sugar corn, etc., which can be successfully grown here; but these are unknown to the local raiyat. The Sunkal Tank Farm has done a great deal of useful work in trial, propagation and distribution of better varieties of vegetables. The use of cold storage, scientific methods of packing for export, preservation of vegetables for use during times of scarcity by sterilising, bottling, sun-drying etc., are altogether unknown in the State.

The following Indian Vegetables are grown throughout the State:—

List of Indian  
Vegetables  
grown in the  
State.

1. Mane avara (*Dolichos Lablab*).
2. Bilimane avara (*Dolichos lablab var.*).
3. Ghatt avara (*Dolichos minimus*).
4. Ground-nut (*Arachis hypogea*).
5. Cowpea (*Vigna-catiang*).
6. Garden Red Gram (*Caganus indicus*).
7. Gorikai (*Trigonella tetrapetala*).
8. Mullu badane (*Solanum esculentum var.*).
9. Brinjal (*Solanum esculentum*).
10. Cucumber (*Cucumis sativus*).
11. Budame balli (*Cucumis species*).
12. Onion (*Allium cepa*).
13. Arum (*Arum esculentum*).
14. Churna gedda (*Arum campanulates*).
15. Kesava (*Arum colacasia*).
16. Cassava (*Manihot ultissima*).
17. Sweet Potato (*Ipomea batatas*).
18. Bendakai (*Hibiscus esculentus*).
19. Bozella (*Hibiscus subdariffa*).
20. Pundarika (*Hibiscus Cannabinos*).
21. Radish (*Raphinus sativus*).
22. Drumstick (*Moringa pterygosperma*).
23. Magaliberu (*Hemidesmis indica var.*).

24. Musk melon (*Cucurbita morchara*).
25. Sweet pumpkin (*Cucurbita alba*).
26. Watermelon (*Citrullus vulgaris*).
27. Tondekai (*Bryonia umbellata*).
28. Ash gourd (*Benincasa cerifera*).
29. Luffa (*Luffa acutangala*).
30. Thuppatharakai (*Luffa aegyptiaca*).
31. Bitter gourd (*Momordica charantia*).
32. Gid Hagalu (*Momordica dioca*).
33. Bottle gourd (*Lagenaria vulgaris*).

## SPICES.

1. Ginger (*Zingiber officinale*).
2. Pepper (*Piper nigrum*).
3. Turmeric (*Curcuma longa*).
4. Chillies (*Capsicum annum*).
5. Garlic (*Allium sativum*).

## INDIAN GREENS.

1. Dantu soppu (*Amaranthus gangeticus*).
2. Chilkarive soppu (*Amaranthus mangostanus*).
3. Harive soppu (*Amarantus inamoenus*).
4. Serrekeeray (*Amarantus campestris*).
5. Soppu (*Amarantus olerareus*).
6. Honoganesoppu (*Alternanthera sesilis*).
7. Sakotti soppu (*Chenopodium viride*).
8. Kottumbari soppu (*Coriandrum sativum*).
9. Mentiyada soppu (*Trigonellafoenum graecum*).
10. Agase soppu (*Sesbanea grandiflora*).
11. Dodda gora (*Portulaca oleracea*).
12. Hulibacheli (*Portulaca quadrifida*).
13. Doddabasali or Indian spinach (*Basella rubra*).
14. Mangaruvalli balli (*Vitis quanrangularis*).
15. Buddakakaratige (*Cardiospermum Halicacabum*).
16. Sabbasige soppu (*Peucedanum graveolens*).
17. Sukke soppu (*Rumex Vesicarius*).
18. Kachi gida (*Solanum nigrum*).
19. Pullampurasi soppu (*Oxalis corniculata*).
20. Areekeeray (*Bytteneria hervacea*).
21. Pisonia alba (*Lettuce tree*).

Pith flowers and immature fruits of plantains and immature fruit of Jack are also used as vegetable.

The following is a list of some new varieties of vegetables grown at the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm, Bangalore, and distributed largely among raiyats :—

New varieties of vegetables distributed among raiyats.

(1) Ground-nut (*Arachis hypogea*).

(a) Virginia (b) Mauritius (c) Spanish peanut (d) Small Japan and (e) Big Japan.

These varieties are richer in oil content and easy to harvest as the seed-pods grow nearer to the surface of the ground.

(2) Brinjal (*Solanum esculentum*). These are imported from America and Germany; contain very little seed; each fruit weighs as much as 3 to 4 lbs.

- (a) Black Beauty ... Colour of the fruit purplish black and shape large and round.
- (b) New York ... Improved spineless, large, purple oval fruit.
- (c) Round white ... Medium sized fruit.
- (d) Long white ... Medium sized fruit.
- (e) Long green ... Good flavour, hardy and higher yielder.
- Ernegeri.
- (f) Negro prince ... Small round black fruits borne in clusters.

(3) Ginger (*Zingiber officinale*).

"Mango scented ginger," a variety of ginger imported from Calcutta has the flavour of green mango and free from pungency.

(4) Cassava (*Manihot ultissima*).—Five sweet varieties imported from Travancore consisting of black skinned and white skinned varieties useful for starch making as well as food.

(5) Capsicum Chilli (*Capsicum anum*).—These varieties were imported from America and Europe.

- (a) Chinese Giant ... This is the largest variety grown under cultivation. Thick flesh, very mild flavour, each fruit weighs about 1 lb.
- (b) Tobasco ... Fruits small but very hot.
- (c) Ruby king ... Large sized long fruit. Flavour sweet and mild and may be eaten raw like an apple or tomato.
- (d) New Sweetmeat ... Fruit rich crimson scarlet, conical shape, flesh very thick and sweet.
- Glory.
- (e) Cherry red ... A small round variety. Flavour is very hot.
- (f) Elephant's Trunk ... Large long fruits, very mild flavour.

(6) Onion (Bellary).—This is a large white variety of mild sweet flavour.

(7) Bendikai (*Hibiscus esculentus*).

"White velvet"... Long smooth, round and velvety pods, fleshy and free from fibre.

"Long Green"... Pods free from thorns, green and slender.

European  
Vegetables  
grown at  
Bangalore.

The following is a list of European vegetables grown in Bangalore :—

1. Potatoes (*Solanum tuberosum*).
2. Beet root (*Beta vulgaris*).
3. Carrot (*Daucus carota*).
4. Turnip (*Brassica rapa*).
5. Table radish (*Raphanus sativus*).
6. Tomatoes (*Lycopersicum esculentum*).
7. Chow Chow (*Sochium edula*).
8. Cabbage (*Brassica oleracea Capitata*).
9. Cauliflower (*Brassica oleracea Botrytis Cauliflora*).
10. Knol Khol (*Brassica oleracea caulo-rapha*).
11. Vegetable marrow (*Cucurbita pepo*).
12. Dwarf French or Kidney Beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris*).
13. Lima Bean (*Phaseolus lunatus*).
14. Artichoke Jerusalem (*Helianthus tuberosus*).
15. Garden Pea (*Pisum sativum*).
16. Maize (*Zea Mays*).
17. Mint (*Mentha viridis*).
18. Celery (*Apium graveolens*).
19. Lettuces (*Lactuca sativa*).

List of  
important  
European  
varieties  
distributed  
among  
raiyats.

The following is a list of some important new European varieties grown at the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm, Bangalore, and distributed widely among the raiyats :—

1. Potatoes (*Solanum tuberosum*).
- (a) Brownell's Beauty... They were imported from Australia. Large.
- (b) Up-to-date ... oval, flesh white and mealy, flavour excellent.
- (c) Great Scot ... High yielder and comes to maturity much earlier than local varieties.
- (d) Italian Beauty ... The crop matures in four months. Extremely hardy and high yielding variety. Shape of the tubers rather irregular and round. Eyes sunken. Flesh waxy and yellow.



## 2. Tomatoes (Imported from Europe and America).

- (a) Ponderosa ... A good marketable purplish pink, fruit very solid: attains greatest size each fruit weighing as much as 1 lb. or more.
- (b) June Pink ... Pink coloured fruits, shape flattened and slightly corrugated, flavour good.
- (c) Golden Queen ... Large yellow fruit, shape smooth and flattened. Flavour excellent: better than all red varieties.
- (d) Yellow Plum ... Shape of the fruit is like a plum. Colour is bright lemon yellow. Fleshy and excellent flavour.
- (e) King Humbert Scarlet. Smooth glassy fruits. Shape like plum, keeps well.
- (f) Yellow Pear ... Yellow coloured fruits of good flavour. Shape is like a pear.
- (g) Red Pear Shaped ... Fruits bright red of true pear shape.
- (h) Golden Nugget ... Fruits borne in clusters containing as much as 60 fruits in a bunch. Shape globular and smooth. Colour bright golden. Flavour very superior.
- (i) Peachbow ... Shape like peach. Pink coloured fruits. Flavour excellent.
- (j) Marvel of the Market. Large round variety and a good yielder.

## 3. Dwarf French or Kidney Beans "Canadian Wonder."

Longer pods than the local varieties. Prolific yielder. Seeds pink, in colour. Imported from Europe.

4. Garden Peas (*Pisum sativum*).

(a) "Pilot (b) Tremendous" imported from Europe. Ready for table in 50 days. Green pods and seeds three times larger than the local variety. Flower excellent. Dry seeds have wrinkled surface and are greenish white in colour.

5. Maize (*Zea Mays*).—Imported from America.

- (a) "Moro" ... White seeds, large cobs. Ready for harvest in 83 months. Extremely hardy variety and does not deteriorate.
- (b) "Golden Beauty" ... Very large yellow seeded cobs ready for harvest in 3 months.

Both the varieties yield three times more than the local variety and also can be grown as a fodder crop throughout the year.

6. Cabbage Lettuce (*Lectuca sativa*).

- (a) "May King" ... Imported from Europe. Resembles a small cabbage and is of an excellent quality.

7. Soy Bean (*Glycine hispida*).—There are several varieties under trial, either bushy or creeping in habit. The colour of the seed is either black, creamy white or yellow. Plants are hardy, can be grown as dry crop in the rains or as an irrigated crop.

- (a) "Lage round Japan." Plant bushy. Seeds are as big as peas, creamy white in colour. Flavour excellent.

8. Edible podded or Sugar peas (*Pisum sativum*).—The pods of this variety are gathered broken and cooked like stringless beans when the peas start to develop in the pod or have reached about half their full size. Flavour is extremely sweet. Green succulent pods are ready for harvest in 45 days from the date of sowing.

9. Sugar corn (*Zea Mays*).—Imported from America.

- (a) "Howling Mob" (b) "Golden Bantam"

This is an extremely sweet variety and therefore much used as vegetable before cobs mature. Plants are like ordinary field corn but dwarf and produce large number of tillerings full of sweet cobs. The green cobs are ready for table within 50 or 55 days from the date of sowing. This is also valuable as a short duration fodder crop.

The following is a list of imported vegetables grown only at the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm and distributed among the raiyats:—

(1) Asparagus (*Asparagus officinalis*) Imported from Europe. A hardy perennial grown for its immature shoots.

- (a) "Sutton's perfection" is a good variety.

(2) Dwarf French butter wax beans (*Phaseolus vulgaris*).

- (a) Golden butter wax ... Imported from Europe, fleshy yellow pods, entirely free from fibre, flavour excellent.

(3) Runner Beans (*Phaseolus multiflorus*).—Imported from America to be grown on trellis. Yield of the runner beans three times more than Dwarf French beans.

- (a) "Kentucky wonder" Brown seeded brown fleshy pods measuring 7 to 8 inches long, stringless, flavour excellent.

- (b) "Golden Cluster" ... White seeded long flat pods measuring 7 to 8 inches, colour rich golden yellow, flavour excellent.

List of new  
Sunkal  
vegetables  
distributed  
among  
raiayats.

(4) Broad Bean (*Faba vulgaris*).

(a) "Benary's white" ... Is a good variety imported from Germany ready for harvest within three months.

(5) Sword Bean (*Canavalia gladiata*).—A superior white seeded bushy variety imported from Ceylon and can be grown without trellis. The local variety is a creeping one.

(c) Bush Lima (*Phaseolus lunatus*).—Henderson's Bush Lima is of American origin and can be grown like Dwarf French beans without trellis but the local variety is a small seeded creeping one.

The following is a list of new vegetables grown only in the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm, Bangalore:—

List of new vegetables grown at Sunkal Farm.

- (1) Arrow root (*Marantha arundinacea*).
- (2) Asparagus (*Asparagus officinalis*).
- (3) Artichoke Globa (*Cynara scolymus*).
- (4) Artichoke jerusalem (*Helianthus tuberosus*).
- (5) Parsnip (*Pastinaca sativa*).
- (6) Leeks (*Allium porrum*).
- (7) Dwarf French butter wax bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris*).
- (8) Runner Beans (*Phaseolous multiflorus*).
- (9) Broad Beans (*Faba vulgaris*).
- (10) Sword Beans (*Canavalia gladiata or ensiformis*).
- (11) Bush Lima Bean (*Phaseolus lunatus*).
- (12) Soy Bean (*Glacine hispida*).
- (13) Goa Bean (*Psephocarpus tetragonolobus*).
- (14) Bombara Ground Bean (*Kerstigiella jeocarpa*).
- (15) Edible podded or Sugar Peas (*Pisum sativum*).
- (16) Sugar Leaf Cabbage (*Brassica oleracea capitata*).
- (17) Red pickling cabbage (*Brassica oleracea capitata*).
- (18) Savoy Cabbage (*Brassica oleracea Bullata gummi-fera*).
- (19) Brussels Sprouts (*Brassica oleracea var. Bullata gummi-fera*).
- (20) Sugar corn (*Zea Mays*).
- (21) Mushroom (*Agaricus campestris*).
- (22) Palwal (*Trichosanthes dioica*).
- (23) Dioscorea aculeata var. Binato.
- (24) Dioscorea elata var. Dampol.

Herbs grown  
at Sunkal  
Farm.

- (25) *Dioscorea elata* var. Kinampay.
- (26) *Dioscorea elata* var. Basol.
- (27) *Dioscorea elata* var. Lebe.
- (28) *Dioscorea macrta* var. Batomgas.
- (29) *Dioscorea aculeata* var. Binang.
- (30) *Dioscorea aculeata* var. Limalima.
- (31) *Dioscorea aculeata* var. Licamas.
- (32) Endive (*Cichorium endiva*).
- (33) Parsley (*Petroselinum sativum*).
- (34) Spinach (*Spinacea oleracea*).
- (35) Sage (*Salvia officinalis*).
- (36) Hyssop (*Hyssopus officinalis*).
- (37) Thyme (*Thymus bulgaris*).
- (38) Peppermint (*Mentha piperita*).
- (39) Lavender (*Levendula spioa*).
- (40) Rosemary (*Rosemarinus officinalis*).
- (41) Water cress (*Nastutium officinalis*).
- (42) Borage (*Barago officinalis*).
- (43) Fennel (*Foeniculum vulgare*).
- (44) Indian Pennywort (*Hydrocotyle asiatica*).
- (45) Dill (*Peucedanum graveolens*).
- (46) Caraway (*Carum carui*).
- (47) Cumin (*Cumminum cyniunum*).
- (48) Fenugreek (*Trigenella fenugraecum*).
- (49) Basil (*Ocimum minimum Ocimum Basilicum*).
- (50) Rue (*Ruta graveolens*).
- (51) Sorrel (*Rumex acetosa*).

#### PUBLIC GARDENS AND PARKS.

The  
Department  
and its work.

The Department is under the control of an officer designated as "The Superintendent, Government Gardens." The more important functions of the Department are :—

1. Administration and upkeep of the various Government Gardens in the charge of the Department.
2. Industrial and commercial planting, distribution of economic plants and seeds and affording technical assistance and imparting horticultural education.
3. Working of the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm.

4. Supervision of the Nandi Hill Station.
5. Development of Hill Stations.

The Superintendent, Government Gardens, is also in charge of the Museum Department. He is, besides, since 1922 "Consulting Architect to Government," a capacity in which he gives his expert opinion and advice on designs of important buildings and architectural work generally as also on important town-planning operations and other improvements undertaken by the Mysore and Bangalore City Municipalities and other local bodies.

The Gardens in Mysore have been, since 1923, placed in charge of a whole time Curator.

The Government Gardens, otherwise known as the Lal-Bagh, has maintained its reputation as a local centre of interest and recreation and as an institution of scientific and technical utility. The occasions on which the Lal-Bagh has been made use of for entertainments such as congratulatory addresses, farewell parties, moonlight concerts, fancy bazaars, golf and cycle meets are very numerous and are again a proof of the increasing popularity of the institution. Two horticultural shows are being held every year in summer and winter respectively and prizes are awarded for the best exhibits.

The  
Government  
Gardens,  
Bangalore.

An important event in the annals of the Lal-Bagh has been the erection of the Equestrian Statue of His Highness Sri Chamarajendra Wadiyar Bahadur, the late Maharaja of Mysore, which was done during the year, 1908-09. The statue was transferred from the Curzon Park at Mysore, another one having been secured for that place.

There is a Seed Depôt and Sale Room and an Implement Depôt attached to the Depôt and situated in the Lal-Bagh. The Seed Depôt collects all indigenous botanical seeds for purposes of exchange with other institutions, procuring all the necessary imported seeds required

for the sale room and garden use. A library containing Books and Journals on Botanical and Horticultural subjects and a Bureau of Economic Botany containing information and references on most of the commercial plants have been maintained for the use of the public. Horticultural education is also imparted to students and teachers. Botany students from high schools and colleges pay frequent visits to look up botanical drawings and specimens. Demonstrations about preparation of presentation and preservation of plants and other natural history objects and garden operations are also organised. A demonstration of the kind was arranged for European girl scouts during the year 1922-23.

The need for a restaurant in the Lal-Bagh was being felt by the visitors for a long time, the more so with the increase in the extent of the garden. The subject of providing one was taken up seriously about September 1914 and, on 20th December 1915, two separate restaurants, one for Europeans and another for Indian Refreshments, were started in the block of buildings popularly known as "Darwinia" in the centre of the Terrace Garden, after effecting some small alterations to it to suit the purpose. No liquor is allowed to be sold in the Restaurants. The institution is increasing in popularity and visitors feel that a long felt want has been met.

Among the Gardens maintained by the Department in Bangalore are:—The Cubbon and Kumara Parks, the gardens attached to the Victoria and Minto Ophthalmic Hospitals, and the garden included in "Ballabrooie," for sometime the official residence of the Dewan of the State.

Gardens in  
Mysore.

As a large number of gardens are situated in Mysore and the responsibility of maintaining them in an efficient condition has increased, a qualified Officer designated as Curator, was, in 1923, appointed to be in charge of it. The more important gardens included in this Sub-Division

are:—the Curzon Park, the Gordon Park, and the Government House Garden. The following smaller gardens are also attached to it:—

(1) "Lake View," the official residence of the Dewan of the State.

(2) Private Secretary's Quarters.

(3) Durbar Surgeon's Do

(4) Indian Guests' Do

(5) "Padmalaya."

(6) "Seshadri House."

(7) Representatives' Home.

(8) University Gardens.

Under Departmental Gardens, the following form part of it:—

(1) Sir Kantaraj Urs' House.

(2) Peoples' Park.

(3) Exhibition Grounds.

(4) Sewage Farm.

On account of its historic interest, the island of Seringapatam, of which the Daria Dowlat Bagh is one of the chief attractions, continues to attract travellers from foreign countries as also local sight-seers and visitors. This garden is being invariably honoured by visits by all distinguished visitors to Mysore and the Royal family of Mysore continue to occasionally grace the garden with their visits.

Daria Dowlat  
Bagh,  
Seringa-  
patam.

As the designation indicates, the Sunkal Tank Experimental Farm, Bangalore, is run on experimental lines. It deals with the introduction, cultivation, propagation and distribution of exotics, representing the several kinds of edible fruits, vegetables and economics of either commercial importance or value. The introduction of seeds and plants by exchange with other botanical institutions

Sunkal Tank  
Experimental  
Farm.

throughout the world receives continuous attention at the Farm.

**Hill Stations.** The supervision of the Hill Stations of the State was assigned to the Gardens Department by an order of Government dated 29th December 1914, a grant of Rs. 12,000 to start work only on the Nandi Hill being made by Government at the same time. The Department took actual charge of the Nandi Hill Station from the Public Works Department on 1st April 1915, and undertook the necessary repairs to the bungalows and the provision of equipment and other facilities required by the visitors. The Railway line to this station was completed during the year 1915-16, and the first train to the station was run on 1st August 1915. The importance of this Railway connection with Bangalore cannot be overestimated. A telephone line from the Nandi Railway Station to the top of the Hills has also been opened for the convenience of visitors. The amenities to the visitors include the following:—

(1) Water, got analysed periodically by the Bacteriologist, pumped up to a cement cistern, drawn by taps and supplied to all bungalows in vessels carried by bullocks.

(2) Ordinary articles of oilman stores stocked and sold almost at Bangalore prices for vegetarians and non-vegetarians.

(3) Free supply of crockery, cutlery, copper and brass vessels for vegetarian and non-vegetarian visitors.

(4) A high class Indian Hotel.

(5) The lending of the services of *malies*, if required.

(6) The services of an experienced *Kotwal* for getting milk, vegetables and other perishables daily, if required, by customers.

(7) High class aerated water prepared fresh on the Hills at prices cheaper than at Bangalore.

(8) Two Tennis Courts with accessories complete.

(9) Special Police arrangements during the season.



There are clear indications that the Hill Station is growing in popularity and that the public is availing itself of the advantages offered by the Government. Until 1923, there was a Curator in charge of this Station. The post was, however, abolished in that year. The number of visitors to the Nandi Hill Station and the receipts from them during the last eight years is shown below :—

Year	Number of Visitors	Receipts
1915-16 ... ..	350	1,125
1916-17 ... ..	608	3,332
1917-18 ... ..	681	2,381
1918-19 ... ..	878	3,923
1919-20 ... ..	826	3,084
1920-21 ... ..	851	3,898-
1921-22 ... ..	765	2,882
1922-23 ... ..	589	2,819

Since 1921-22, there has been a noticeable fall in the number of visitors to this Station though it has recently shown a tendency again to go up.

### SECTION 3—THE GOVERNMENT MUSEUM.

The establishment of a Museum in Bangalore for the exhibition of natural and artificial products of Mysore was at first considered in the year 1864 and the following circular letter was addressed to the Superintendents of Divisions by the Chief Commissioner of Mysore :—

Origin and  
Development.

"The establishment of a Museum for the exhibition of natural and artificial products of Mysore being in contemplation, I have the honour, by desire of the Commissioner, to request that you will, both personally and by the aid of the Deputy Superintendents, endeavour to contribute such articles of interest as may be procurable within your Division. The collection of such specimens must necessarily be the work of time, and as it is to be hoped that private individuals will lend assistance in presenting articles of various descriptions, it does not appear

to the Commissioner to be necessary that any great expense should be incurred, though at the same time his sanction will be given for the expenditure of moderate sums when necessary. It is probable that ample space will be available for exhibiting the collection on the construction of the new Public Offices; but no difficulty, it is expected, will be experienced in procuring sufficient accommodation even at the present time. The Commissioner desires me to direct your attention to the many works of antiquity and ancient art, such as Sculptures, Coins, Inscriptions, etc., which are to be found in many parts of the Province, and which possess a high interest in a Historical, Geographical and Social point of view; inscriptions, especially, being most numerous in the Nagar Division. A collection of such coins as are procurable at Bangalore has already been made, and in the case of Sculptures and Inscriptions where the original cannot be removed, copies may be made. In order to avoid an unnecessary accumulation of the same articles from different sources, where there is no real distinction in quality, form, texture, or other peculiar feature, I am directed to request that you will be good enough in the first place to submit a report exhibiting the special products, natural and artificial, of your Division, so that the extra cost of transit, etc., from distant places of articles procurable at or near Bangalore may be averted."

In response to this letter, specimens from all parts of the State began to pour in and the collections were housed temporarily, in 1865, in a portion of the old Cantonment Jail. From time to time, fresh instalments were received until the collections quite outgrew the space which could be found for them in the temporary building. They were then removed to another building in the Museum road. Even this building was found to be quite inadequate and the construction of the present building, an exceptionally handsome one of its size, was put in hand in the year 1877 as a famine work. The specimens were then transferred to the new building in the year 1878.

From the start, the Museum was freely thrown open to the public throughout the week with the exception of

Sundays and other holidays. Since April 1916, however, to meet the convenience of the public, the Museum is kept open on Sundays and closed on Wednesdays. A Reading Room and Library, first opened in 1887, is attached to it and is accessible to the reading public. The Library consisted of some 2,000 volumes.

Dr. Edward Green Balfour, well known as the author of an Encyclopædia of India, who was largely instrumental in establishing, in 1850, a Government Central Museum at Madras and was for nine years its Superintendent, was the first officer to be placed in charge of the Museum. He practically commenced this Museum in 1866. He was succeeded by Dr. Oswald, who was followed by Mr. Mackenzie. The latter was succeeded by Mr. Cameron who was also Superintendent of Government Gardens at Bangalore. The arrangement, under which the officer in charge of Government Gardens is also in charge of the Museum, still continues.

The Museum is quite a popular institution as may be inferred from the increasing number of people visiting it from year to year. The number of visitors which stood at 348,073, in 1880-81, increased to 468,197 in the year 1923-24. Very large crowds visit on the Karaga and other festival days.

The collections have been augmented, improved and arranged under different groups, as detailed below, labels have been provided in all cases and descriptive and classified lists have been compiled. A separate place has been appropriated for articles belonging to one and the same section. The entrance hall is assigned to exhibits of archaeological interest. The main hall is divided into three portions, the right wing being utilized for geological specimens, the left wing for economic products and the main hall for Ethnology and Art. The whole of the upper storey has a valuable collection of Natural Collections.

History specimens arranged according to their different groups:—

(i) Geology.

(ii) Botany.—There are a few models and some carpological exhibits here which are worthy of note.

(iii) Zoology.—There is a fair collection of Fauna.

(a) Mammals.—In this section are to be found a fine head of the Indian bison (*Bos gaurus*); and a collection of 23 skins of rodents, presented by the Bombay Natural History Society, taken from among the specimens collected by them during a Mammalian survey conducted by them in Mysore (1913), to which Government contributed a sum of Rs. 2,000.

(b) Birds.—The collection is fair but requires to be improved.

(c) Fishes.—Almost all the specimens, save a few, are marine.

(d) Shells and Corals.—This group is composed entirely of foreign specimens.

(e) Reptiles and insects.—The collection is not fully representative.

(iv) Archæology and Epigraphy.—The exhibits consist of figures, stone tablets with inscriptions, copper plate inscriptions and inscriptions on other materials. This section has a collection of seals of the late Anche (local post) used for granting receipts on postages levied in cash, arranged with a print from each on cardboard attached. This system of issuing receipts was in use in the State from the time of Chikka-Dēva-Rāja Wodeyar in the 17th century up to the year 1889, when the Department was amalgamated with the British Postal Service. A large Burmese bell presented in 1906 by Col. H. V. Cox in the name of the 69th Punjabis, when the Regiment left Bangalore, is also to be seen in this section. It was found in a Buddhist Temple and bears an inscription. The bell will be seen under the staircase in the entrance hall. A statue of Nammālvār, the Srivaishnava saint seated in the mode called *Padmāsana* expounding Dravida Prabandha, transferred from a ruined temple at Nanjangud; the Atakur Stone dated *Saka* 872 (950 A.D.); a facsimile of the Inscription of Sundara Pāndya at Srirangam and the Begur Stone (about 890 A.D.) on which will be found a rude but interesting battle scene represented, are other noteworthy objects in this section.

(a) Numismatics.—The collection is fair but not sufficiently representative. This Museum contains probably the finest known collection of purely Mysore coins. The 157 Roman Coins found near Subedar's Chattram, on the Bangalore-Hindupur Railway, dating between 23 B.C. to 51 A.D., and the Buddhist lead Coins found by Mr. A. Mervyn-Smith at Chandrawalli, Chitaldrug District are included in this section. Catalogues of Coins in the Museum

have been frequently issued by Government; the last published being by Capt. R. H. Tufnell. A new catalogue is under preparation.

(b) ART.—There are some palaeolithic and neolithic exhibits as also a few modern examples of implements, pottery, jewellery, baskets, dress, musical instruments, etc.

With a view to advertise and encourage the products of arts and to enable the public to readily obtain good specimens of work of Mysore, an art sale room was opened in the Museum in August 1893 on the recommendation of Col. P. D. Henderson, c.s.i., then British Resident at Bangalore. This sale room was, however, abolished during the year 1913-14 and the articles belonging to it were transferred to the "Mysore Arts and Crafts Institute Sales Depôt" which was opened under the auspices of the Mysore Economic Conference. Artware sales.

The Museum is maintained by Government. The grant made for its up-keep in 1923-24 was Rs. 3,900 and the expenditure incurred during the year was Rs. 3,605. Maintenance cost.

With a view to stimulate industrial and commercial activities in the State and to provide people with facilities to acquaint themselves with new commodities that can be manufactured within the State and the means by which local products may be made to withstand competition and find openings in other markets, Government passed Orders in 1917-18 on the establishment of Industrial and Commercial Museums which will be found dealt with in the Section on Arts and Manufactures. Industrial and Commercial Museum.

The Museum has been helpful in arranging for collections of local arts and manufacture required by foreign and other exhibitions—such as the Franko-British Exhibition, 1903, to which a collection of sandalwood carvings, rosewood articles inlaid with ivory and twenty-two samples of stone used in building the new Palace at Mysore was forwarded. A stand with folding panels to Aid to Foreign Exhibitions, etc.

exhibit the fine collection of bromide enlargements of Khedda operations, temples and rustic scenery, prepared for the Chicago Exhibition (1892-93) is deserving of mention. These pictures serve to give the sportsmen and tourists a fair idea of what can be seen in the State. The War Trophies (Three Machine Guns and Field Gun), which were brought from the Field with the Imperial Service Lancers Regiment, were lodged in the Museum in 1921.

#### SECTION 4—AMRUT MAHAL.

##### *Prior to the Rendition.*

Amrut Mahal  
Cattle: Its  
origin.

The "Karuhatti" establishment of the Vijayanagar Viceroy (sometime between 1572 and 1600) at Seringapatam consisted of Hallikar cows imported from Vijayanagar. This may be said to have been the nucleus of the Amrut Mahal cattle. The Seringapatam cattle passed into the hands of the Wodeyars of Mysore, some of whom, notably Chāmarāja Wodeyar (1617-1636), Kantirava Narasarāja Wodeyar (1638-1658), and the celebrated Chikka Dēvarāja Wodeyar (1672-1704) made their own additions to them from time to time, assigning "Kavals" in different parts of the kingdom.

Formation of  
the Cattle  
Department.

It was in Chikka Dēvarāja Wodeyar's time that the cattle establishment obtained recognition as one of the departments of the administration. It was called "*Benne Chavadi*" or establishment of cows "both as a breeding stud and to furnish milk and butter for the palace." He introduced for the first time the system of branding them with his initial DE.

Under Haidar  
Ali and Tipu  
Sultān.

The accumulated herds of the Rājas of Mysore passed on to Haidar Ali, when he usurped the throne. In extending his conquest and in reducing the numerous rulers

who had held sway over more or less extensive tracts in Mysore, he acquired also the herds of superior cattle belonging to them. Haidar seems to have made extensive use of the cattle which he had appropriated in the movements of his army equipage and is popularly credited with having kept at least 60,000 bullocks in different parts of the State, though they were not organized as carefully and in as minute a detail as was afterwards done by Tipu, on a system which has in essential points been adhered to ever since. Tipu added to these herds those of the Palegar of Hagalvadi. Chikka Dēvarāja Wodeyar's suggestive name of "*Benne Chavadi*" was changed in his time into a more pompous one of Amrut Mahal from *Amruta*—Nectar. Tipu took great interest and issued a "*Hukumnama*" or regulation for the Department, the greater part of which continued to be observed after the taking of Seringapatam and the same system was afterwards followed by the British officers. The Dairy Department seems to have been on a large scale and Amildars were expected to train the young steers, which were allowed to graze in the raiyats' fields and were classified when required, as gun bullocks, plough bullocks, etc. There was an annual muster of the herds and Tipu frequently attended it in person and distributed rewards. Such was the composition of the Amrut Mahal cattle inaugurated by Chikka Dēvarāja Wodeyar, reconstituted by Haidar Ali and thoroughly organized by Tipu Sultān.

"It was this establishment," wrote Sir Mark Cubbon, "which enabled Haidar Ali to march 100 miles in two days and a half to the relief of Chidambaram and after every defeat to draw off his guns in the face of his enemies; which enabled Tipu Sultān to cross the peninsula in one month for the recovery of Bednur, and to march 68 miles in two days before General Meadows,

Historic  
testimony  
regarding the  
value of the  
breed.

which, in later times, enabled General Pritzler to march 346 miles in 25 days in pursuit of the Pēshwa; and which enabled General Campbell, after the failure of his Bengal equipments, to advance upon Ava and bring the war to a favourable termination. It was also this establishment which enabled the Duke of Wellington to execute those movements of unexampled rapidity which are the admiration of every military man and in consideration of whose services he recommended it to protection in a letter addressed at the close of the war to the Commander-in-Chief." Allusions in the Wellington *Despatches* show that the Great Duke often, during the Peninsular War in Spain, regretted that he had not the assistance of the Amrut Mahal cattle.

From 1799 to  
1861.

After the fall of Seringapatam in 1799, the oxen attached to Tīpu Sultān's army were taken over by the British and combined with their public cattle, while the breeding establishment, maintained for the purpose of securing a constant supply of suitable bulls, was left in charge of the State, on condition the State bore the cost of maintenance and offered to the Hon'ble the East India Company all male calves of 1½ years and upwards for 14 star pagodas a head. Another breeding establishment was also maintained by His Highness the Maharaja for his private use. Owing to the comparatively low value of land in those days, a large extent of land consisting of grazing grounds called *Kavals* was set apart for the use of these establishments.

The inducements which had led Haidar and Tīpu to keep up its efficiency were, however, wanting and by the end of 1813, the cattle had degenerated to such a degree that the management was taken over by the British (Madras Government) and 10,914 head of breeding cattle, the exact number made over to His Highness' Government in 1800, were received back while the latter



Government allowed all rules, customs and privileges to continue as formerly. The whole of the *Kavals* allotted to the Amrut Mahal, amounting to 143, were delivered over to the British and continued upon the former system, the rent realized upon them being collected and paid by the British to the Mysore Government. The right of grazing, in alternate years, the stubble in villages in sixty taluks was also conceded. This latter privilege was withdrawn in the year 1835 as it was found to greatly hinder the efforts of the land-owners to improve their lands. A Commissariat officer (Captain Harvey) was placed in charge with a suitable establishment and up to the 31st July 1816, the number of cattle had increased to 14,399, exclusive of 900 calves transferred as fit for service. By 1823, the original number had nearly doubled itself, besides supplying for the public service young bullocks equal to one-fourth part of the increased establishment. In 1839, the above system having been found impossible to work consistently with justice and good order of the country, the Government of India deemed it indispensably necessary to place the breeding establishment in Mysore under the immediate control and management of the Commissioner for Mysore. In the year 1840, the Mahārāja's Amrut Mahal was taken over by the Chief Commissioner, a number of cattle required for the use of the palace being reserved with an allotment of the required extent of grazing land. The other Amrut Mahal establishment maintained by the British Military authorities was also transferred to the control of the Chief Commissioner. Both the establishments thus came under his direct control and a special officer was appointed for their management. A detailed survey of all the *Kavals* with the object of ascertaining their limits and the rights and privileges existing therein was also undertaken. In 1860, from motives of economy, Sir Charles Trevelyan, then Governor of Madras,

ordered the establishment to be broken up, and the herds to be sold and the *Kavals* surrendered to the Mysore State without any reservation but the results proved to the detriment of the public service. In the year 1865, the Madras Government, with the sanction of the Government of India, resolved upon re-establishing the Department. The Amrut Mahal was, therefore, with the cordial approval and assistance of the then Mahārāja, re-established in December 1867, with 5,935 head of cattle. All the *Kavals* which were formerly used by them and which had not been otherwise disposed of were reserved for grazing. On the death of the Mahārāja Krishnarāja Wodeyar Bahadur III in 1868, the number of the palace cattle was still further reduced and the 30 *Kavals* assigned to them were leased to the Madras Government on a nominal rental. In 1871, there were 9,800 head of all sizes, exclusive of 1,000 young male cattle in the Training Depôt. It was arranged that 100 breeding bulls estimated at Rs. 8,000 as equivalent to a small rent in recognition of the sovereignty over all the *Kavals* in possession of the Commissariat Department, should be handed over to the Mysore Government annually to be stationed at various points in the country for the purpose of improving the breed of cattle used by the raiyats. This arrangement continued till the Rendition, a training depôt was also maintained at Hunsur by the Madras Government, where these cattle were kept after purchase until they were trained for use as draught cattle.

Herds and  
*Kavals*.

The cattle were divided into 30 herds containing from 200 to 700 head of cattle each; for the grazing of which, 208 *Kavals* or pasture grounds were allotted in various parts of the country. *Kavals* are divided into hot weather and cold weather *Kavals* according to the seasons of the year during which they are of most use. The hot weather

*Kavals* are generally the beds of tanks in which grass springs up during the hot months and near which there are trees for the purpose of affording shade to the cattle during the heat of the day. These are very valuable *Kavals* and are reserved as far as possible for the sole use of Government cattle. The cold and wet weather *Kavals* are those which during those seasons have plenty of grass and water, but which during the hot weather dry up and are of little use to the department; in both the latter descriptions of *Kavals*, the raiyats' cattle are permitted to graze certain fixed portions, and after the Government cattle have left for their annual visit to the jungles, the *Servegars* are permitted to sell some part of the grazing, and from the funds thus obtained, the *Kavalgars* or guards are paid and other expenses met. This privilege ceases at the end of July each year. The right of grazing the stubble in the Amrut Mahal *Kavals* was being sold by the *Servegars* till 1919, when Government ordered that this right should be sold by the Amrut Mahal Department by public auction, the *Servegars* being paid 20 per cent of the net realizations to meet his expenses. In the dry weather, when want of forage and water prevails in the open country, the herds are conducted to the south-western jungles, where the natural moisture of the soil, the early showers, and the shelter afforded by the trees are favourable to vegetation. They arrive there in May and return to their pastures in September, when the grass is in great abundance all over Mysore.

The calves are castrated in November, the cold weather being found peculiarly favourable to the success of the operation, and invariably between the age of five and twenty-four months, as their growth is supposed to be promoted by early castration, and it is attended with this important advantage, that it prevents the cows being

Castration of calves.

impregnated by inferior bulls and consequently prevents the breed from degenerating.

**Training the calves.**

Till the year 1908-09 when bulls were supplied to Madras Government under contract, they were being separated from the herds after four years of age and transferred to the Public Cattle Department after a year, perfectly trained and fit for work. The supply of bulls to the Madras Government ceased from the year 1908-09. The Mysore Imperial Service Transport Corps having been converted into a bullock corps, the Amrut Mahal bulls are supplied to this corps at a fixed rate, the surplus cattle being sold annually by the Amrut Mahal Superintendent in different important centres. The average price realized from each bullock during the sale in 1920-21 was Rs. 146-9-11 which is the highest on record.

**Their growth and decline.**

They arrive at their full strength at seven and are past their vigour at twelve; they work till fourteen or fifteen, after which they decline rapidly and generally die at eighteen years of age.

**Catching bullocks.**

At the age of three years, the catching of bullocks takes place, previous to which they are nearly as wild as the inhabitants of the jungle. The bullocks are first driven into a large oval enclosure, which they are made to enter with much difficulty. This communicates with a square yard, surrounding an inner enclosure about twenty feet square, which is surrounded with a strong fence made of wooden posts placed close together and about twenty feet high. When they are collected in this, the opening is closed. The trainers then ascend on the top of the fence and throw a noose round each of the bullock's horns. This done, the end of the rope is passed between posts near the grounds, and the animal is drawn

close up and secured by people on the outside. The passage is then opened and old trained bullocks admitted. One of the latter is bound by the neck to one of the wild animals, which being done, the rope is loosened, when he immediately endeavours to escape. His trained comrade, however, to whom he is coupled, restrains him, though but partially; accordingly, the two leave the enclosure, at tolerable speed. The rope by which the untrained bullock was originally noosed is allowed to remain attached to his horns, and when they approach one of the strong posts placed in the immediate vicinity of the enclosure, the rope is quickly turned round it, by which the animals are again brought up. The untrained bullock is then well secured by the neck with as little latitude of motion as possible. There he is kept alone for about two days, until he becomes considerably tamed and worn out with unceasing efforts to escape.

The next operation consists in attaching to the animal a couple of blocks of wood so heavy as to be moved with some difficulty, and giving him as much liberty as this admits of. He is then admitted to the company of old trained cattle, and from the twofold effects of example and partial restraint, he gradually becomes submissive. The bullocks are then grazed. In the old days this was done (in the vicinity of Hunsur) for a further period of three years, being tied up regularly each evening in lines. They are then transferred to the Department to undergo final breaking for the public service.

*After the Rendition.*

On the 1st January 1882, the Mysore Government purchased at a cost of Rs. 2,25,000 the Amrut Mahal cattle from the Madras Government. It was stipulated that Madras Government should relinquish the pasture grounds and that the State should supply the Madras Government for ten years with three-year old bullocks

Stipulation  
with the  
Madras  
Government.

at Rs. 50 per head not exceeding 400 in number annually. The Madras Government were allowed to retain the necessary grazing grounds for the use of the cattle forming the Training Depôt establishment, on the understanding that the grazing grounds were to be held only for the purposes and during the maintenance of the Depôt at Hunsur and, should at any time the said Training Depôt be given up, the grazing grounds will, *ipso facto*, at once revert, without any claim for price or compensation, to the Mysore State.

In 1886, the limit of supplying annually 400 bullocks was reduced to 200 at the same price. In the year 1891-92, the original term of ten years, the period of contract, expired and, in the following year, the contract was renewed for a further period of five years. The Madras Government discontinued purchasing the Amrut Mahal steers from 1907 owing to the reduction of establishment of transport bullocks in the Secunderabad Division. The Training Depôt at Hunsur was closed and the 16 *Kavals* belonging to the Training Depôt were handed back to the Mysore Government in March 1908.

Number of  
herds, etc.

There were, in 1882, 30 herds with 12,502 head of which 4,618 were cows and 177 breeding bulls. The herds were organized into 7 *Tukadis* or Divisions each in charge of a *Dardga*. They were broken up in 1887, and their number reduced to sixteen. In 1889, steps were taken to form special herds of big and fine cattle. Towards the end of the year 1893-94, the number was increased to 22 and the divisions in charge of *Darūgas* from 4 to 6 in view to securing more efficient supervision of both men and cattle. During 1902-03, the number was reduced from 22 to 18 and from the savings thus effected, the pay of the executive staff was raised tentatively with the object of inducing qualified men to take

up service in the Department. In 1917-18, the number of cattle was 8,100. The number of herds was 18 under five Darogas and two Assistant Darogas. The average number of bulls and heifer calves produced each year was 1,445. The number of bulls was 122, the average being 7 for each herd. In September 1922, the Government decided to reduce the Department by one-third and throw open some of the *Kavals* for cultivation. This decision of Government is being given effect to gradually and at present (on 1st January 1924) there are 17 herds consisting of 2,356 bulls and 5,969 cows. At the close of the official year, 1923-24, the number of cattle was 8,049. The birth rate during the year was 27.6 as against 28.5 in the previous year. A Training Depôt was opened in September 1924 in Hunsur and it has proved helpful in placing broken cattle in the market which have brought in a high price.

Although the supply to British Government has been discontinued, the principal object of the Department has been to maintain the breed of the Amrut Mahal cattle at a high standard of purity and efficiency. It has also become possible now to supply a better class of young stock to the public. Steers are supplied to the Mysore Imperial Service Transport Corps after they are accustomed to being tied up.

Object of the  
Department.

The Department was placed till 1896-97 in charge of the Military Assistant to Government assisted by an officer subject to his control. In August 1897, Government sanctioned the appointment of the Superintendent of the Amrut Mahal Department. The Department was made a subordinate branch under the control and direction of the Military Department of Government. The control and direction of the Department was transferred in 1915-16 from the Military Secretary to the Chief

Direction.

Commandant, Mysore State Troops. The control of the Department was transferred to the Director of Agriculture in September 1923 and the Live Stock Expert was placed in charge of it. The Department was subsequently placed under the direct control of the Director of Agriculture and the question of reorganising the Department and placing it on a more efficient basis is under the consideration of Government.

Throwing  
open *Kavals*  
for cultivation.

Till recently, the Department had 395,062 acres of pasture land. In 1915-16, Government ordered that a joint inspection of *Kavals* in each district should be held by the Deputy Commissioner and the Superintendent, Amrut Mahal Department, with a view to ascertain by local enquiries what extent of land can be conveniently spared for cultivation. In pursuance of this, it was arranged during the year to throw open 69,007 acres of the *Kavals* when *bona fide darkhasts* were received for them.

In 1918, an extent of 124,903 acres and 35 *guntas* of the Amrut Mahal Kaval lands were ordered to be surrendered to the Revenue Department. For securing the interests both of the raiyats and the Department, joint inspections of lands which are to be made over to the Revenue Department have been ordered to be made by the Deputy Commissioner concerned with the Amrut Mahal Superintendent; and it has been further ordered that lands should be selected only after such inspection.

A special Committee consisting of the Revenue Commissioner as Chairman, the Director of Agriculture, the Chief Commandant and the Amrut Mahal Superintendent was appointed by the Government to consider the question of throwing open more Kaval lands for cultivation. This Committee resolved to surrender 25,875 acres, 3 *guntas* of land to the Revenue Department. This surrender was accordingly carried out. At the same time,



of the Kaval lands previously surrendered, 49,631 acres, which were not fit for cultivation, were retransferred to the Amrut Mahal Department. The area reserved to the Department for grazing purposes was only 251,905 acres on the 1st January 1924. This acreage includes some State Forests and Tank-beds as well. During the year 1923-24, a further extent of 6,148 acres was surrendered to the Revenue Department. The number of acres at the disposal of the Department on 1st July 1921 was 317,614 and the area placed under the Revenue Department for cultivation, subsequent to the above Government order, amounted to 77,448 acres. During the year 1923-24, an extent of 6,148 acres valued at Rs. 3,07,400 was surrendered by the Department.

The distribution of the Kavals between the different herds has been revised so as to concentrate the *Kavals* as much as possible in contiguous taluks instead of having the *Kavals* attached to one herd dispersed over several districts, and a proportion has been reserved under the direct control of the Amrut Mahal Officer to provide for unforeseen contingencies such as failure of rain, outbreaks of disease, etc.

The eighteen excess *Kavals*, nine in the Bangalore District and nine in the Mysore District, covering an extent of 18,373 acres, in the possession of the British Military Department, were retroceded to the Durbar in 1917 and about 18,000 acres of plantations and *Kaval* lands in the Kolar, Bangalore and Tumkur Districts were leased to the British Military Grass Farm authorities in that year for a period of ten years at an annual rental of Rs. 11,423. The terms of the lease are printed as an accompaniment to the Government Order No. R. 9071-7—Pt. 48-06-76, dated 28th February 1917.

Distribution  
of Kavals.

Retrocession  
and lease of  
some of the  
Kavals.

Effects of  
seasonal  
conditions.

The Amrut Mahal cattle being supported entirely on such grazing as is to be had in the *Kavals*, their welfare is primarily dependent on the season. When rain has been plentiful, it has often been unseasonable or unequally distributed; and the effects of a bad season are felt not only in the increased number of deaths, but in diminished births, both in that and the succeeding year.

The size of the cattle depends a good deal on the favourable character of the two first seasons after they are born. If rain fails during that period, pasture is scarce, the young animals are stunted and never develop properly, and the proportion of large sized bullocks produced is very small when compared with the total number born.

Registry of  
cattle.

The cattle are registered by means of branding calves with herd and serial numbers and periodical returns are submitted to Government showing births, deaths and other details. The arrangement has the effect of securing more accurate statistics and to some extent prevents fraud.

Supply of  
breeding bulls  
and cows.

The special breed of the Amrut Mahal cattle, which is peculiar to Mysore, has been attracting the attention of cattle breeders in India and also in foreign countries. In November 1907, an application was received, through the Inspector-General, Civil Veterinary Department, Calcutta, for two good specimen bulls and three cows for being sent to England for breeding purposes to meet the wishes of His Grace the Duke of Bedford. Good animals were selected and trained and delivered at Bombay about the end of March 1908 for being shipped to England. During 1913-14, at the request of the Professor of Agriculture at Poona, 10 breeding bulls were supplied to him. Special facilities are also afforded to the raiyats for obtaining bulls for breeding purposes. Three bulls

are supplied to each District Board and bulls are also sold at half price to raiyats owning large herds of cattle. Six bulls have been supplied free of cost, as an experimental measure, to the villages bordering on the Western Ghats in the Nagar and Sagar Taluks of the Shimoga District where, in spite of an abundance of pasturage and a plentiful supply of water, the condition of cattle is very poor. The average price of each bull given to the raiyat for breeding purposes is fixed by Government at Rs. 150.

The old practice of granting presents to Servegars, etc., of the Department for the best results shown was revived during 1908-09. An allotment of Rs. 300 annually in the budget is made for this purpose. Rewards are given in the shape of gold and silver bangles.

Rewards to  
cattle  
attendants.

During the year 1889-90, with a view to improve the breed of sheep, a farm was started under the charge of the Department. At the end of that year, the farm consisted of six rams of Australian cross-breed and 56 ewes. No separate establishment was sanctioned for the farm. The work was carried on with the aid of the attendants of the herd of the Tumkur Range, the Darōga of which had the control over it. In 1895-96, there were 1,926 head in the farm. During that year, all the good young rams were reserved to be distributed to owners of flocks and a beginning made to improve the breed. In 1897-98, a permanent establishment at a cost of Rs. 21 per mensem for the better management of the Australian flock of sheep was sanctioned. A sum of Rs. 200 was also sanctioned for the construction of sheds to protect the above sheep against the weather. The maintenance of the farms under each of the six Darōgas not having been found profitable, arrangements were made in 1901-02 to dispose of all the flock retaining about

A Sheep  
Farm.

250 sheep of Australian and Cashmere breeds. There were 188 female and 73 male Australian sheep during 1918-19. The control over the sheep farm was in September 1921 transferred to the Live Stock Expert in Mysore, for being managed as a separate concern at different centres in the State.

**Cattle pounds.** The necessity of erecting a few cattle pounds in some of the *Kavals* to prevent trespass of village cattle was sanctioned by Government in 1906-07. A few pounds in some of the important *Kavals* have also been opened since then.

**Sinking wells.** Government in 1906-07 raised the grant of Rs. 460 to Rs. 800 for sinking wells and restoring old tanks in some of the *Kavals* for watering cattle during the hot season. The work of restoring every year old *Kattes* in some of the more important *Kavals* has been kept in view by the Department.

**Receipts and Expenditure.** The receipts and expenditure of the Department during 1920-21 were 60,580 and 43,068 respectively as against 123,524 which is the highest on record and 39,493 of the previous year, *viz.*, 1919-20. Owing to adverse seasonal conditions and slackness in the cattle market, the receipts have not been favourable during the last few years. During 1922-23, the receipts amounted to Rs. 59,874 and the expenditure to Rs. 33,258. The gross revenue of the Department has, however, increased to Rs. 96,334 in the year 1923-24, the expenditure during the year remaining at Rs. 37,058. The contract for supplying bullocks to the Military having ceased, the Department is being now worked as a high class cattle breeding and quasi-commercial concern, for the benefit of the agriculturists and others interested in cattle breeding. Raiyats are encouraged to take up breeding of

these high class animals instead of the inferior animals, and the fact that these high class animals are available for sale is published widely to attract breeders from outside the State. Male stock of all ages and female stock of more than 10 years and some young heifers also are sold by auction at different centres in the months of November, December and January every year. Animals are also available for sale at all times on *darkhast* at fixed prices. The animal sales are advertised in the leading English and vernacular papers. A small training Depôt has also been established for the present at Hunsur, where a small number of animals are trained to rope, and yoke also; animals are specially trained for customers under separate arrangement at moderate charges. During the official year 1923-24, the number of cattle sold was 679 against 625 in the previous year. The amount realized from the sales in 1923-24 totalled to Rs. 41,150 against Rs. 39,715 in 1922-23, the average realization per head in 1923-24 being Rs. 60-6-0 as against Rs. 63-9-0 in the previous year. The question of reorganizing the Department and placing it on a more efficient basis is now under the consideration of Government.

The receipts and expenditure of the Department during 1920-21 were Rs. 60,580 and Rs. 43,068 respectively as against Rs. 1,23,524, which is the highest on record, and Rs. 39,493 of the previous year, *viz.*, 1919-20.

Receipts and Expenditure.

#### SECTION 5—THE VETERINARY DEPARTMENT.

With a view to start and eventually develop bacteriological investigation of cattle diseases, the Government, in April 1905, approved of the Senior Surgeon's proposal to give the necessary training to the Veterinary Officer attached to the Imperial Service Regiment, by deputing him to undergo a three months' course of training in the

Origin of the Department.

Bacteriological Laboratory, Bangalore. The beginnings of the Civil Veterinary Department were laid in 1905-06 by the appointment of a trained Veterinarian in March 1906 as an Inspector of Cattle Diseases. He was at first placed under the control of the Chemical Examiner and Bacteriologist to Government and subsequently, in 1906-07, under the Revenue Commissioner for purposes of efficient control and discipline. His duties were to investigate the nature of epidemic diseases among cattle, to visit localities where such diseases were prevalent and to adopt measures for checking their ravages. He was also to devote his attention to improve veterinary knowledge in rural parts by organising and encouraging local effort, and by instructing rural cattle doctors and large cattle owners in the scientific diagnosis of cattle diseases and a proper application of easily available indigenous drugs.

Its organiza-  
tion.

During 1906-07, the scheme was further developed and, in September 1907, with a view to adopt systematic measures for investigation, prevention and treatment of diseases of horses and cattle belonging to the raiyats, Government sanctioned the scheme proposed by the Revenue Commissioner for the organization of the Civil Veterinary Department at a cost of Rs. 49,776 annually, when fully introduced, besides an initial cost of Rs. 10,000 for opening 12 hospitals and 18 dispensaries throughout the State.

Provision was, however, made for the establishment of only seven hospitals and dispensaries, one in each of the districts in addition to one at Bangalore, as the entire scheme could not be brought into operation for want of a sufficient number of qualified men. The recruitment of the necessary staff and their preliminary training began in January 1908, when the hospital at Bangalore was started, and, on the 1st of May of the same year,

hospitals and dispensaries were opened at Kolar, Mysore, Hassan, Chikmagalur and Chitaldrug. Two more were opened in April 1909, one at Tumkur and the other at Shimoga. Each of the district head-quarters has now the benefit of a veterinary hospital with an Assistant Inspector in charge thereof. Two additional Assistant Veterinary Inspectors were appointed temporarily in November 1910 to be employed chiefly on inoculation work in places where infectious cattle diseases prevail and were made permanent during 1913-14.

In his address to the Representative Assembly in October 1917, Sir M. Visvesvaraya, the then Dewan, said that "in view of the increasing demand for veterinary aid, Government propose to start from two to four new dispensaries every year, for some time to come. During 1916-17, dispensaries were started at Channarayana, Bangalore District; Nagamangala, Mysore District; Davangere, Chitaldrug District; and Sagar, Shimoga District. Four dispensaries were opened, during 1917-18, at Chikballapur, Kolar District; Madhugiri, Tumkur District; Saklespur, Hassan District; and Tarikere, Kadur District. During 1919-20, four more dispensaries were opened at Dodbhallapur, Bangalore District; Chintamani, Kolar District; Hunsur, Mysore District; and Channarayana, Shimoga District. During 1923-24, three dispensaries were opened at Challakere, Chitaldrug District; Arsikere, Hassan District; and Malvalli, Mysore District; bringing the total number of Veterinary Hospitals and dispensaries at the close of the year 1923-24 to twenty-three.

The most common diseases met with in the State are rinderpest, black-quarter, foot and mouth disease, anthrax and hæmorrhagic septicæmia. Preventive measures, such as inoculation of all healthy cattle against the various diseases, have been found very successful. As soon as any infectious disease breaks out in a village, the nearest

Veterinary Inspector, on request, visits the infected place and inoculates all the healthy cattle free of charge and also renders all necessary assistance to cattle owners. Preventive inoculation has completely removed the superstition of the raiyat population and the demand for it has considerably increased.

The following statement shows the total number of inoculations made in the whole State during the year 1923-24 :—

Rinderpest	Blackquarter	Hæmorrhagic Septicæmia	Anthrax	Total
41,664	16,194	5,277	7,068	70,203

Lectures and Demonstrations.

Advantage is taken, by the Department, of the numerous Cattle Shows, Taluk Conferences and other public gatherings to deliver lectures to the population on repression of contagious diseases, curative treatment of Rinderpest and Septicæmia Hæmorrhagica and other diseases and the improvement of milch cattle. The advantages derived by them from the veterinary institutions by resorting to them in time and sending up the outbreak reports promptly are also explained.

Even when there are no outbreaks of any epidemic disease, Assistant Veterinary Inspectors in charge of Hospitals and Dispensaries have to go on a systematic tour of 10 and 15 days respectively every month, on propagandist work, visiting village after village in their respective jurisdictions and giving any professional aid that may be necessary.

The District Veterinary Inspectors have been instructed to prepare short leaflets on cattle diseases, cattle breeding and rearing, the preservation and economy of fodder and to distribute them freely among cattle owners during their itineration. They have also been instructed



to carry a small quantity of drugs and the more common surgical appliances to demonstrate to the cattle owners the advantages of modern methods of treatment. A "*Manual of Veterinary Science*" in Kannada called "*Pasu Vaidya Sangraha*" has been published by Government and kept ready for sale to the public, at the Central Book Depôt, Bangalore.

The treatment of cattle in the State is free. At the Veterinary Hospitals of Bangalore and Mysore, a fee of four annas is charged for a horse and one anna for a dog per day for treatment. For the castration of a horse or pony, the charge is Rs. 5 for a country bred and Rs. 10 for a thorough bred animal exclusive of feeding and grooming, which the owner of the animal has to arrange for. *Tats* belonging to Shānbhogs, Patels and other raiyats are castrated free.

Treatment of cattle.

In order to prevent deterioration and to improve the breed of cattle, vigorous steps are being taken to have all deformed and stunted bulls castrated by an improved method, in addition to placing good breeding bulls in several Veterinary Institutions and sending them from village to village, for service. Though it is hard to convince the raiyats of the usefulness of early and comparatively painless improved method of castration, no less than 7,200 bulls have been castrated during the year 1920-21, showing that, in course of time, the raiyats will resort only to this method.

During 1914-15, the formation of a mobile corps consisting of 4 Veterinary Assistant Inspectors and 4 Salustries was sanctioned for undertaking, in co-operation with the Madras Civil Veterinary Department, an organized campaign against Rinderpest in the frontier taluks for a period of 3 years. In February 1918, orders were passed increasing the number of these Assistant Inspectors to 3

A mobile corps.

who would form a sort of Mobile Corps to be deputed for work according to necessity in any part of the State, under the orders of the Superintendent, for duty on occasion of epidemics.

Re-organization of the Department.

The Department was re-organized in 1918 under Government Order No. R. 8854-63—Agri. 27-16-11, dated 27th February 1918, and in 1920 under Government Order No. R. 13584-5—R. M. 22-19-14, dated 22nd June 1920 and again in 1921 under Order No. 7255-6—A. & E. 80-20-5, dated 5th February 1921. The Office of the Superintendent was also re-organized in Government Order No. 10652-3—A. & E. 80-20, dated 3rd May 1921. The ultimate strength and cost of the establishments according to the re-organization of the Department is shown below :—

Superintendent	Assistant Superintendents	Veterinary Officers	Veterinary Inspectors	Office Establishment	Hospital & Dispensary Subordinates	Total
1 on Rs. 300-15-600	2 on Rs. 150-10-200	9 on Rs. 120-10-140	4 on Rs. 97-2-107 38 on Rs. 72-5-97 and 19 on Rs. 47-5-73	13	36	66,147

During 1918-19, the Department was managed by one Assistant Superintendent, four Veterinary Inspectors and 14 Assistant Veterinary Inspectors.

In addition to the revised scale of pay, a charge allowance of Rs. 10 per month to the Assistant Veterinary Inspectors in charge of an hospital or dispensary was sanctioned in 1918-19 by Government to make the service more attractive.

Administration.

The Department was under the control of the Revenue Commissioner till September 1920, when it was transferred to the control of the Director of Agriculture in Mysore.

According to the new scheme, the executive gazetted staff consists of a Superintendent with head-quarters at Bangalore and two Assistant Superintendents with head-quarters, one at Bangalore and the other at Shimoga. The Superintendent inspects Hospitals and Dispensaries and has general supervision and control of the work of the Veterinary Officers and Inspectors. The Assistant Superintendents having jurisdiction over 4 Districts each supervise the work of Veterinary Inspectors and direct all operations in their jurisdiction to prevent the spread of epidemics and supervise cattle breeding operations. They will also be in charge of propagandist work giving lectures to rural population on Veterinary subjects.

The officers of the Department are recruited from persons holding diplomas from the Veterinary College of Bombay or Madras or other recognized Veterinary Institutes in India. Three scholarships of the value of Rs. 40 per mensem at Lahore and one of the value of Rs. 30 at Bombay are being granted for the study of Veterinary Science.

A consulting library has been formed in the office of the Superintendent. It is well equipped with many choice and useful standard works. Besides, the Department is supplied with periodical journals which are circulated among the Veterinary Inspectors of the Department.

A Veterinary Library.

The services of the Department are being appreciated by the cattle owners and there has been an increasing demand for more veterinary institutions in every district.

Results achieved.

To make provision for the prevention of cruelty to animals, the "Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Regulation" (No. I of 1895) was passed in June 1895.

Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Regulation.

This Regulation virtually repealed the Bengal Act, I of 1869, which was in force only in the City of Bangalore within municipal limits. Under Sections 3 and 4 of this Regulation, cruelty to animals in public places and sale, in such places, of animals killed with unnecessary cruelty, and the operation called *phuka*, are punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 100 or with imprisonment for a term which may extend to 3 months or with both. Killing animals with unnecessary cruelty is punishable under Section 5 of this Regulation with fine which may extend to Rs. 200 or with imprisonment for a term which may extend to 6 months or with both. Under Sections 6 and 7, employing anywhere animals unfit for labour and permitting diseased animals to go at large or to die in public places are punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 100. The Regulation is in force in all district head-quarters and Section 57 of the new Police Regulation gives the Police full powers to deal with all instances of flagrant cruelty to animals.

Regulation VI  
of 1899.

To provide for and regulate the destruction and segregation of stray dogs and of diseased horses and cattle, Regulation VI of 1899 was passed in December 1899. A breach of the rules under this Regulation is punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 50 and when the breach is a continuing one, with a further fine which may extend to Rs. 5 for every day after the first during which the breach continues.

#### SECTION 6—THE GOVERNMENT PRESS.

##### *Prior to the Rendition.*

Early  
History.

In the year 1840, the Reverend J. Garret who was managing a Printing Press for the Wesleyan Mission in Bangalore appears to have influenced Sir Mark Cubbon

the then Chief Commissioner, to establish a Government Press for doing Government printing.

The suggestion was taken up and the Government Press was established in the year 1843 for the purpose of printing Departmental Proceedings, forms, records and other miscellaneous matter. Eventually, Mr. Garret himself was appointed as the first Superintendent of the Government Press. The *Mysore Gazette* was first published in 1806 by Mr. L. Ricketts as Editor, and the office of Compiler of the *Mysore Gazette* was held independently by Mr. J. Lacey from 1867 to 1869, when it was combined with that of the Superintendent, Government Press. At this time, the Press consisted of only 5 Hand Presses and a small staff of about 30 men. The Press was first located in the old Tippu Sultan's Palace, Fort, Bangalore, and subsequently, on the completion of the Public Office Buildings, was removed there. A separate building for the Press consisting of one quadrangle was built in 1873.

#### *After the Rendition.*

Mr. T. T. Leonard was appointed full-time Superintendent in 1886 and during the time he held office, which continued for about 13 years, a number of improvements were effected, of which the most important was the replacement, in part, of Hand-Press printing by machines three of which were imported in 1893. Two more machines were added in 1903. A second quadrangle was added to the main building in 1894.

Development  
of the Press.

During 1903-04, on the suggestion of the Superintendent, Government Press, Mr. Fisher of the Madras Government Press was asked to inspect the Central Press, Bangalore, and he made certain proposals for improvement. Upon a consideration of the opinions of the Committee appointed to report on the proposals

Re-organisa-  
tion of 1906.

250 sheep of Australian and Cashmere breeds. There were 188 female and 73 male Australian sheep during 1918-19. The control over the sheep farm was in September 1921 transferred to the Live Stock Expert in Mysore, for being managed as a separate concern at different centres in the State.

**Cattle pounds.** The necessity of erecting a few cattle pounds in some of the *Kavals* to prevent trespass of village cattle was sanctioned by Government in 1906-07. A few pounds in some of the important *Kavals* have also been opened since then.

**Sinking wells.** Government in 1906-07 raised the grant of Rs. 460 to Rs. 800 for sinking wells and restoring old tanks in some of the *Kavals* for watering cattle during the hot season. The work of restoring every year old *Kuttas* in some of the more important *Kavals* has been kept in view by the Department.

**Receipts and Expenditure.** The receipts and expenditure of the Department during 1920-21 were 60,580 and 43,068 respectively as against 123,524 which is the highest on record and 39,493 of the previous year, *viz.*, 1919-20. Owing to adverse seasonal conditions and slackness in the cattle market, the receipts have not been favourable during the last few years. During 1922-23, the receipts amounted to Rs. 59,874 and the expenditure to Rs. 33,258. The gross revenue of the Department has, however, increased to Rs. 96,334 in the year 1923-24, the expenditure during the year remaining at Rs. 37,058. The contract for supplying bullocks to the Military having ceased, the Department is being now worked as a high class cattle breeding and quasi-commercial concern, for the benefit of the agriculturists and others interested in cattle breeding. Raiyats are encouraged to take up breeding of

these high class animals instead of the inferior animals, and the fact that these high class animals are available for sale is published widely to attract breeders from outside the State. Male stock of all ages and female stock of more than 10 years and some young heifers also are sold by auction at different centres in the months of November, December and January every year. Animals are also available for sale at all times on *darkhast* at fixed prices. The animal sales are advertised in the leading English and vernacular papers. A small training Depôt has also been established for the present at Hunsur, where a small number of animals are trained to rope, and yoke also; animals are specially trained for customers under separate arrangement at moderate charges. During the official year 1923-24, the number of cattle sold was 679 against 625 in the previous year. The amount realized from the sales in 1923-24 totalled to Rs. 41,150 against Rs. 39,715 in 1922-23, the average realization per head in 1923-24 being Rs. 60-6-0 as against Rs. 63-9-0 in the previous year. The question of reorganizing the Department and placing it on a more efficient basis is now under the consideration of Government.

The receipts and expenditure of the Department during 1920-21 were Rs. 60,580 and Rs. 43,068 respectively as against Rs. 1,23,524, which is the highest on record, and Rs. 39,493 of the previous year, *viz.*, 1919-20.

Receipts and  
Expenditure.

#### SECTION 5—THE VETERINARY DEPARTMENT.

With a view to start and eventually develop bacteriological investigation of cattle diseases, the Government, in April 1905, approved of the Senior Surgeon's proposal to give the necessary training to the Veterinary Officer attached to the Imperial Service Regiment, by deputing him to undergo a three months' course of training in the

Origin of the  
Department.

Veterinary Inspector, on request, visits the infected place and inoculates all the healthy cattle free of charge and also renders all necessary assistance to cattle owners. Preventive inoculation has completely removed the superstition of the raiyat population and the demand for it has considerably increased.

The following statement shows the total number of inoculations made in the whole State during the year 1923-24 :--

Rinderpest	Blackquarter	Hæmorrhagic Septicæmia	Anthrax	Total
41,664	16,194	5,277	7,068	70,203

Lectures and Demonstrations.

Advantage is taken, by the Department, of the numerous Cattle Shows, Taluk Conferences and other public gatherings to deliver lectures to the population on repression of contagious diseases, curative treatment of Rinderpest and Septicæmia Hæmorrhagica and other diseases and the improvement of milch cattle. The advantages derived by them from the veterinary institutions by resorting to them in time and sending up the outbreak reports promptly are also explained.

Even when there are no outbreaks of any epidemic disease, Assistant Veterinary Inspectors in charge of Hospitals and Dispensaries have to go on a systematic tour of 10 and 15 days respectively every month, on propagandist work, visiting village after village in their respective jurisdictions and giving any professional aid that may be necessary.

The District Veterinary Inspectors have been instructed to prepare short leaflets on cattle diseases, cattle breeding and rearing, the preservation and economy of fodder and to distribute them freely among cattle owners during their itineration. They have also been instructed



to carry a small quantity of drugs and the more common surgical appliances to demonstrate to the cattle owners the advantages of modern methods of treatment. A "Manual of Veterinary Science" in Kannada called "*Pasu Vaidya Sangraha*" has been published by Government and kept ready for sale to the public, at the Central Book Depôt, Bangalore.

The treatment of cattle in the State is free. At the Veterinary Hospitals of Bangalore and Mysore, a fee of four annas is charged for a horse and one anna for a dog per day for treatment. For the castration of a horse or pony, the charge is Rs. 5 for a country bred and Rs. 10 for a thorough bred animal exclusive of feeding and grooming, which the owner of the animal has to arrange for. *Tats* belonging to Shanbhogs, Patels and other raiyats are castrated free. Treatment of cattle.

In order to prevent deterioration and to improve the breed of cattle, vigorous steps are being taken to have all deformed and stunted bulls castrated by an improved method, in addition to placing good breeding bulls in several Veterinary Institutions and sending them from village to village, for service. Though it is hard to convince the raiyats of the usefulness of early and comparatively painless improved method of castration, no less than 7,200 bulls have been castrated during the year 1920-21, showing that, in course of time, the raiyats will resort only to this method.

During 1914-15, the formation of a mobile corps consisting of 4 Veterinary Assistant Inspectors and 4 Salustries was sanctioned for undertaking, in co-operation with the Madras Civil Veterinary Department, an organized campaign against Rinderpest in the frontier taluks for a period of 3 years. In February 1918, orders were passed increasing the number of these Assistant Inspectors to 3 A mobile corps.

who would form a sort of Mobile Corps to be deputed for work according to necessity in any part of the State, under the orders of the Superintendent, for duty on occasion of epidemics.

Re-organization of the Department.

The Department was re-organized in 1918 under Government Order No. R. 8854-63—Agri. 27-16-11, dated 27th February 1918, and in 1920 under Government Order No. R. 13584-5—R. M. 22-19-14, dated 22nd June 1920 and again in 1921 under Order No. 7255-6—A. & E. 80-20-5, dated 5th February 1921. The Office of the Superintendent was also re-organized in Government Order No. 10652-3—A. & E. 80-20, dated 3rd May 1921. The ultimate strength and cost of the establishments according to the re-organization of the Department is shown below :—

Superintendent	Assistant Superintendents	Veterinary Officers	Veterinary Inspectors	Office Establishment	Hospital & Dispensary Subordinates	Total
1 on Rs. 300-15-600	2 on Rs. 150-10-200	2 on Rs. 120-10-140	4 on Rs. 97-2-107 38 on Rs. 72-5-97 and 19 on Rs. 67-5-72	13	95	66,147

During 1918-19, the Department was managed by one Assistant Superintendent, four Veterinary Inspectors and 14 Assistant Veterinary Inspectors.

In addition to the revised scale of pay, a charge allowance of Rs. 10 per month to the Assistant Veterinary Inspectors in charge of an hospital or dispensary was sanctioned in 1918-19 by Government to make the service more attractive.

Administration.

The Department was under the control of the Revenue Commissioner till September 1920, when it was transferred to the control of the Director of Agriculture in Mysore.

According to the new scheme, the executive gazetted staff consists of a Superintendent with head-quarters at Bangalore and two Assistant Superintendents with head-quarters, one at Bangalore and the other at Shimoga. The Superintendent inspects Hospitals and Dispensaries and has general supervision and control of the work of the Veterinary Officers and Inspectors. The Assistant Superintendents having jurisdiction over 4 Districts each supervise the work of Veterinary Inspectors and direct all operations in their jurisdiction to prevent the spread of epidemics and supervise cattle breeding operations. They will also be in charge of propagandist work giving lectures to rural population on Veterinary subjects.

The officers of the Department are recruited from persons holding diplomas from the Veterinary College of Bombay or Madras or other recognized Veterinary Institutes in India. Three scholarships of the value of Rs. 40 per mensem at Lahore and one of the value of Rs. 30 at Bombay are being granted for the study of Veterinary Science.

A consulting library has been formed in the office of the Superintendent. It is well equipped with many choice and useful standard works. Besides, the Department is supplied with periodical journals which are circulated among the Veterinary Inspectors of the Department.

A Veterinary Library.

The services of the Department are being appreciated by the cattle owners and there has been an increasing demand for more veterinary institutions in every district.

Results achieved.

To make provision for the prevention of cruelty to animals, the "Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Regulation" (No. I of 1895) was passed in June 1895.

Prevention of Cruelty to Animals Regulation.

This Regulation virtually repealed the Bengal Act, I of 1869, which was in force only in the City of Bangalore within municipal limits. Under Sections 3 and 4 of this Regulation, cruelty to animals in public places and sale, in such places, of animals killed with unnecessary cruelty, and the operation called *phuka*, are punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 100 or with imprisonment for a term which may extend to 3 months or with both. Killing animals with unnecessary cruelty is punishable under Section 5 of this Regulation with fine which may extend to Rs. 200 or with imprisonment for a term which may extend to 6 months or with both. Under Sections 6 and 7, employing anywhere animals unfit for labour and permitting diseased animals to go at large or to die in public places are punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 100. The Regulation is in force in all district head-quarters and Section 57 of the new Police Regulation gives the Police full powers to deal with all instances of flagrant cruelty to animals.

Regulation VI  
of 1899.

To provide for and regulate the destruction and segregation of stray dogs and of diseased horses and cattle, Regulation VI of 1899 was passed in December 1899. A breach of the rules under this Regulation is punishable with fine which may extend to Rs. 50 and when the breach is a continuing one, with a further fine which may extend to Rs. 5 for every day after the first during which the breach continues.

#### SECTION 6—THE GOVERNMENT PRESS.

##### *Prior to the Rendition.*

Early  
History.

In the year 1840, the Reverend J. Garret who was managing a Printing Press for the Wesleyan Mission in Bangalore appears to have influenced Sir Mark Cubbon

the then Chief Commissioner, to establish a Government Press for doing Government printing.

The suggestion was taken up and the Government Press was established in the year 1843 for the purpose of printing Departmental Proceedings, forms, records and other miscellaneous matter. Eventually, Mr. Garret himself was appointed as the first Superintendent of the Government Press. The *Mysore Gazette* was first published in 1806 by Mr. L. Ricketts as Editor, and the office of Compiler of the *Mysore Gazette* was held independently by Mr. J. Lacey from 1867 to 1869, when it was combined with that of the Superintendent, Government Press. At this time, the Press consisted of only 5 Hand Presses and a small staff of about 30 men. The Press was first located in the old Tippu Sultan's Palace, Fort, Bangalore, and subsequently, on the completion of the Public Office Buildings, was removed there. A separate building for the Press consisting of one quadrangle was built in 1873.

#### *After the Rendition.*

Mr. T. T. Leonard was appointed full-time Superintendent in 1886 and during the time he held office, which continued for about 13 years, a number of improvements were effected, of which the most important was the replacement, in part, of Hand-Press printing by machines three of which were imported in 1893. Two more machines were added in 1903. A second quadrangle was added to the main building in 1894.

Development  
of the Press.

During 1903-04, on the suggestion of the Superintendent, Government Press, Mr. Fisher of the Madras Government Press was asked to inspect the Central Press, Bangalore, and he made certain proposals for improvement. Upon a consideration of the opinions of the Committee appointed to report on the proposals

Re-organisa-  
tion of 1906.

of Mr. Fisher, the following measures were sanctioned in April 1905:—

- (1) The appointment of a competent expert as Superintendent of the Press;
  - (2) Increase of pay to the Manager and Foreman and the abolition of overtime allowances to them;
  - (3) Amalgamation of the Jail Press with the Central Press;
  - (4) Relieving the Press entirely of the work of translating Government Orders and Notifications;
  - (5) Construction of an additional block to increase the accommodation;
  - (6) Purchase of new machinery and types;
  - (7) Installation of an electric motor at the Press for working the printing and other machines, as well as for lighting the Press buildings;
  - (8). Reforms in the system of payments and accounts;
- and
- (9) Preparation of a Press Manual.

As the outcome of the re-organization, a competent expert was appointed Superintendent of the Press early in the year 1905-06 and all the other measures were carried out. A suitable Type Store Room furnished with ample drawer accommodation in supercession of the previous arrangements was also provided. The quality of book binding was improved by the appointment of a competent person from Madras. Electric light was installed throughout the Central Press premises in September 1905. To provide more space, a third quadrangle was added to the main building in 1914. The machines which were formerly driven by an oil engine are all now propelled by electric power, resulting in considerable economy and greater output.

Besides this, twelve more machines were added between the years 1905 and 1915, so that printing is now exclusively done by machines, the hand presses having been completely discarded for purposes of print-

ing. There are at present (on 30th June 1925) ruling, sawing, cutting, folding, stitching and other machines, type casting machines and stereo typing plant 1 Thompson type casting machine, 3 Lithographic presses and 2 monotype machines, 65 in all and about 70 tons of types valued at Rs. 2,11,873.

There was a Branch Press at the Central Jail, Bangalore, worked by convict labour under the Superintendent of the Jail. This was amalgamated during 1905-06 with the Central Press, Bangalore. Another attached to the Central College, Bangalore, which continues to this day, is now independent of the Government Press. Branch  
Presses.

A Branch Press was established in Mysore in November 1888 for the purpose of printing and binding papers connected with the Dewan's Camp Office, the Palace Department and Her Highness the Maharani's Girls' School. This was at first attached to the Jaganmohan Palace but with the increase of work, new buildings had to be found for it. Accordingly, it was transferred to the old Distillery building near the Kukkarahalli tank. It had an establishment, under a Foreman, of 24 men at an average monthly cost of Rs. 339 but was considerably enlarged and re-organized in April 1919 with a view to cope with the extra work of the new University and the Railway Departments. Additional buildings at a cost of Rs. 28,380 have been erected. The permanent establishment of the Press now consists of 61 men at a monthly cost of Rs. 1,225 under the supervision of an Assistant Superintendent. Additional machinery has been installed to cope with the increased work and there were, at the end of June 1925, 8 printing machines and presses, 9 binding machines and 1 Thompson type casting machine, the total value of same being Rs. 23,423. The total value of the types in the Press on 30th June 1925 was Rs. 16,526. During the Dasara and the Birthday week,

the staff is augmented by men from Bangalore to cope with the immediate and very heavy work.

On the 23rd August 1898, a Secretariat Branch Press was organised, in view specially to the printing of Government Proceedings, monthly Volumes, and other Secretariat work more expeditiously than before. This Branch Press was for a short time located in the Public Offices, but was afterwards removed to the Central Press buildings, which were extended on both sides, so as to afford sufficient accommodation to the increasing staff.

**Kannada  
Typography.**

Steps have been taken from time to time to improve Kannada typography. In 1917-18, arrangements were made to provide clear and readable types both for Government and the private Presses. Kannada letters of the alphabet were drawn by an expert Draughtsman and after proper scrutiny by the Inspector-General of Education and the Government were sent to a well-known House of type-founders, the Thompson Type Machine Company of Chicago, America, for making the necessary matrices for casting the required types on the Firm's Typesetting machines, which are installed in the Government Press. It has been decided that the types so cast may be made available for sale to private printers at a cheap rate so that a uniform kind of standard Kannada type may be generally made available for printers' use throughout the State.

**Braille Press.**

Experiments have been made in the production of Braille type (where books suitable for reading by blind boys may be printed) with encouraging results and the printing of books in Braille has been accomplished and the blind boys of the Deaf and Dumb School at Mysore are now reading from books printed from this type.

**Establishment.**

The fixed establishment of the Central Press consisted of 124 men at the average cost of Rs. 2,187 per



month; but, owing to the heavy increase of work consequent on the policy of development inaugurated by Government, the establishment was re-organised in July 1919. It now consists of 134 men at an average monthly cost of Rs. 3,492. With a view to centralise the printing work done for the departments of the State, the officer in charge of the department is styled the "Superintendent, Government Printing." He is assisted by a Sub-Assistant Superintendent, the Assistant Superintendent being placed in charge of the Branch Press at Mysore. Two Probationers, who had been deputed to England in 1912-13 for studying improved methods in printing and its auxiliary branches, returned towards the close of the year 1914-15 after undergoing a satisfactory course of training there for three years and were appointed Sub-Assistant Superintendents in the Government Press. They were later appointed Assistant Superintendents. One of them is now the Superintendent at the head of the Department and the other, an Assistant Superintendent in charge of the Branch Press at Mysore. Two more Probationers have been taken on, one of whom has since become Sub-Assistant Superintendent while the other is still under training.

Government, in 1917-18, ordered an investigation into the matter of the reduction and relief of congestion of work in the Press. As the result of the Superintendent's report in the matter, orders have been passed effecting appreciable savings.

The chief functions of the Department are:—

Functions of  
the  
Department.

(1) Printing of matter sent by Government and the several public departments;

(2) Publication of the *Mysore Gazette*;

(3) Control of all printing works in the State subject to the scrutiny of Government; and

(4) Registration of authorised publications.

General and  
Education  
Courses.

A Day School has been established for the boys in the Press, where they receive elementary education in the three R's during a portion of the day as a foundation for entering upon a technical course. In 1915-16, a technical school was opened in the Press premises to train boys in printing. Government have sanctioned scholarships ranging from Rs. 3 to 7 as an encouragement to the students taking up technical education and these are being awarded every year. Every facility is given to the employees of the Press to study and appear for the technical examinations of the Government of Madras. Many have profited by this arrangement and have secured passes. Private printers have also been invited to join the printing class and some who have been desirous of starting Printing Presses of their own have availed themselves of this facility.

Government  
Press  
Manual.

The entire rules of procedure together with the Standing Orders of Government issued from time to time to regulate the working of the Press are embodied in a *Manual* which is now in use.

#### SECTION 7—STATIONERY.

Prior to the  
Rendition.

The Stationery Depôt was in existence from 1865 as part of the Public Offices and was established for the purpose of arranging for the supply of articles of stationery required for the various departments of the State from a central source. The stationery required for the several departments was, till 1872-73, procured direct from the well-known firm of Messrs. De La Rue & Co., London, at an average cost of Rs. 30,000 per annum. Under the orders of the Government of India in the Financial Department No. 402, dated 23rd May 1871, the Stationery Indents were forwarded through the Foreign Department to Her Majesty's Secretary of State for India for sanction and compliance.

In 1881, the Stationery Depôt was constituted into a separate department and Mr. T. T. Leonard was appointed as Superintendent of Stationery, but the office continued to be located in the Public Offices, as part of the Dewan's Office till 1898, when it was removed to the present buildings. In 1886, the Department was amalgamated with the Press and the two departments were placed under a Superintendent. This arrangement has continued up-to-date. The cost of establishment was fixed at Rs. 2,976 per annum with an allowance of Rs. 700 for contingencies.

After the Rendition.

The Stationery Office is under the administrative control of the Chief Secretary to Government, the Superintendent, Government Stationery, being in immediate charge. The Superintendent is assisted by the Supervisor who is the ministerial head of the office.

The chief functions of the Department are :—

(1) Preparing a forecast of the stationery articles required for use in the various departments and arranging for their purchase out of allotment.

(2) Supplying on indent stationery articles to the Government departments which are entitled to the same under general or special orders of Government.

(3) Keeping a sufficient stock of printed forms required by the Government departments and arranging for their supply on indents.

The staff consists of a Supervisor, a Store-keeper, 6 Clerks and 9 Attenders.

The work in the office of the Stationery Department is regulated by a *Manual* prescribed by Government.

The stationery stores required for the use of the Government are obtained by purchase from private firms in England and in India.

Purchase of Stationery.

Supply of  
Stationery  
and Forms.

The stationery articles are kept in the Stationery Depôt at Bangalore and distributed therefrom to all the departments in the State in accordance with indents received from them. The various departments and offices in the State are, for this purpose, classified under two heads— (1) those entitled to a free supply of stationery and (2) those that get their supply only on paying for the same by means of book adjustment. The Heads of Departments send their annual indents for stationery direct to the Depôt while subordinate offices submit their indents through their Heads of Departments, who check and countersign them before forwarding. The indents are checked and carefully scrutinised by the Stationery Depôt, which issues a fresh supply after considering the supply and expenditure of stationery during the previous year. Paper for printing the *Mysore Gazette*, the Proceedings of Government, Educational works and forms required for the various departments in the State are also issued from the Depôt after a careful examination of the indents. In recent years, the supply of typewriting and carbon papers and ribbons has also been undertaken by the Stationery Depôt.

Advantages  
of a Central  
Depôt

The stocking and the supply of various articles of stationery from a central office is calculated to lead to greater economy and uniformity in the articles supplied. Efforts have been made of late years to put a stop to the use and waste of expensive kinds of paper and to substitute cheaper descriptions in every practicable case. During 1905-06, orders were passed for the supply of stationery from the Stationery Depôt to the Taluk offices in the State which used to buy all stationery locally. This reform, while ensuring the use of good paper for all Taluk correspondence, has resulted in a net saving of Rs. 4,000 nearly.

The subjoined table shows the development of the Stationery Depôt during the last 27 years.

Statistics of Receipts, Issues and Purchases.

Year	Receipts	Issues	Value of Indian purchases	Value of European purchases
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1896—97 ... ..	85,960	85,238	36,173	43,122
1901—02 ... ..	97,364	94,306	55,479	31,826
1906—07 ... ..	1,14,545	1,00,840	72,874	27,967
1911—12 ... ..	1,12,341	1,16,672	34,583	60,182
1916—17 ... ..	2,37,931	2,79,543	1,29,901	84,695
1917—18 ... ..	3,54,808	2,82,804	2,37,867	83,115
1918—19 ... ..	2,66,435	2,34,427	2,32,728	902
1919—20 ... ..	...	...	2,04,797	...
1920—21 ... ..	2,76,378	2,96,779	2,36,072	...
1921—22 ... ..	3,01,722	3,34,290	2,64,718	...
1922—23 ... ..	1,85,231	1,59,663	1,45,247	...
1923—24 ... ..	1,64,876	1,54,207	6,061	1,20,175

Comprehensive rules were issued in 1904 to regulate the supply of stationery and forms to the several offices of the State.

Rules re Supply of Stationery and Forms.

Actual stock of store on hand is taken in January every year and the result submitted to Government and, on receipt of orders, the excesses and deficiencies are adjusted.

Stock-taking.

### SECTION 8—WEIGHTS AND MEASURES.

Chikka-Dēva-Rāja Wodeyar who ruled Mysore in the 17th century (*vide* Volume II, *Historical*) is said to have called in the seals used in the eighty-four *gadis* or taluks, and finding that they varied greatly, he had a common seal made, bearing the monogram of *De* in the middle, with the sun and moon, surrounded by a circle, containing the name of the *gadi*. A gold ring with this seal engraved on it was given to each Amildar. Silver ones, with only *De* on them, were given to the *hobli* and village officials, and the customs and tax collectors. Wooden stamps (*mudrakoi*) with the same monogram between the sun and moon were provided, to be kept in each *chavadi* and used

Weights and Measures: their origin.

by the *totis*, *talavars* and *nirgantis*, as directed by the heads of villages, to be affixed to houses of criminals or defaulters and on the heaps of grain divided between the Government and the cultivators.

The same stamp was engraved on standard weights and measures ordered to be used in shops and markets. The weight of 3 *Kanthiraya hanas* being taken as equal to 1 *duddu*, the following was the scale of weights fixed :—

1 Duddu	=	1 tola
24 Duddus	=	1 kachcha seer
10 Kachcha seers	=	1 dhadiya
4 Dhadiyas	=	1 chikka mana
44-46 Seers	=	1 dodda mana

Weights and  
Measures in  
1800.

The weights or dry measures in this country were of two kinds, both defined very accurately. One of them was called the bazaar weight and used in the sale of what are called bazaar articles, such as tamarind, turmeric, and all kinds of drugs. The other was used for grain both in the bazaars and in all revenue transactions. The great difficulty lay in the multiplicity of weights used in different districts; for, almost every town had weights and measures differing widely from all those in its neighbourhood. The consequence of this was that the cunning *banyas* frequently took advantage of this multiplicity to deceive strangers. The inhabitants of the place could not be so easily taken in as they were all well acquainted with their own peculiar weights and measures.

The only general and uniform measure and weight was the *pucca seer* of sixty-four dubs weight. And the weight of a dub was four drams. This seer altered according to the weight of the dub. If these were lighter than four drams, more dubs were required to make up the seer; if they were heavier, fewer would do. This measure appears in some writings of very old date, as in the *Sūdra-Ganitam*, yet it is said to be of Moorish origin. It had made its

way into all accounts and had, as it were, dislodged all other weights.

Both fluids and dry articles were determined by weight, with the exception of oil, for the sale of which a kind of graduated measure was employed. All kinds of grain, by common consent, were sold by a measure which was not merely filled, but heaped up as high as possible above the lips. If a person bought only half the measure, he had to lose the heaped part, which generally amounted to 1/7th or 1/6th of the whole. The lowest standard weight was the dub. Smaller quantities were determined by common fractions. They ascended regularly by fours.

It was a very common practice to mention in the settlement of a bargain the weight to be employed. The common weight fixed upon was the copper coin of the country, and if large quantities of any article had to be weighed, stones, the weight of which was previously determined, were employed for the purpose. The common scales were nearly flat baskets suspended from a balanced pole, which was tied to a noose. It was the usual practice to weigh the article first in one scale and then in the other and nobody bought any article without seeing that this precaution was attended to.

The seer (ser) is the standard of weight and measure. The *Kachcha* seer is equal to the weight of 24 rupees or 6,607 lb. avoirdupois. Forty seers = 1 *mana* (maund) and 20 *manas* = 1 *khandi* (candy). By this weight, are sold areca-nut, sugar, drugs, cotton, silk, etc.

The standard of weight and measure.

Oil and ghee are frequently sold by measure, a seer weight of oil being put into a cylindrical brass vessel that exactly contains it, which serves afterwards as a standard.

The *palka seer* (pucka seer) is formed by mixing equal quantities of the *nara dhānya* or nine kinds of grain (rice, uddu, hesaru, hurali, togari, avare, kadale, ellu and wheat) and then by taking 84 Rupees weight of the mixture

which is put into a vessel that will exactly contain it when heaped. This serves for a standard and measures 74·8125 cubical inches or 3592 gallons.

This is the dry measure, of which 20 *kolagas* or *kudu* everywhere make 1 *khanduga* or *khandi*, but the number of seers to the *kolaga* is different in different parts. The Sultāni *kolaga*, established by Tipu Sultān, contained 16 seers. One of 8 seers is called the Krishnarāja *kolaga* being 1/20th of the Krishnarāja *khandi* established by Dewan Pūrnaiya. The *kolaga* of 10 seers is called *kharāru kolaga*.

The Mysore  
Weights and  
Measures  
Regulation.

To regulate the use of weights and measures of capacity in the State, the "Mysore Weights and Measures Regulation" (No. III of 1902) was passed in July 1902. Under Section 2 of this Regulation, power to prescribe the standards of weight and measure and to make rules to regulate the shapes, dimensions and designations, the method of testing weights and measures, etc., vests with Government.

Rules under  
the  
Regulation.

In exercise of the powers conferred by the above Regulation, Government prescribed rules in 1911 for regulating the use of weights and measures of capacity in all parts of the State from and after the 1st of October 1912.

The standard weight, as prescribed in the rules, is—

(a) the "seer" weight which is a mass of metal equal to the weight of Rs. 24 (of 180 grains Troy each) of British Indian currency.

Arapavu	=	3 tolas	=	$\frac{1}{3}$ seer
Pavu	=	6 tolas	=	$\frac{1}{2}$ seer
Achcheru	=	12 tolas	=	$\frac{1}{2}$ seer
Pancheru	...		=	5 seers
Dhadiah	...		=	10 seers
Mana (Maund)	...		=	40 seers



(b) The Bengal seer is equal to 80 tolas. Bengal Maund=40 Bengal seers.

NOTE.—The Bengal seer and the Bengal maund are 80/24 or 3 1/3rd times the local seer and maund of weight.

(c) Pound (Avoirdupois).

14 lbs.	=	1 Stone
28 lbs.	=	1 Quarter
112 lbs.	=	1 Hundred-weight

20 Hundredweights or	
2,240 lbs.	= 1 Ton

NOTE.—One hundred and eight pounds=175 seers local or 52½ seers Bengal.

The standard measure of capacity is the "Seer" measure which is a hollow bronze cylinder, capable, when filled to the brim, of holding just 108 tolas (of 180 grains Troy each) weight of distilled water at its maximum density and under the normal atmospheric pressure.

Chataku	=	1 seer	Balla	=	4 seers
Arapavu	=	1/2 seer	Kolaga	=	8 seers
Pavu	=	1/4 seer	Palla	=	100 seers
Achechra	=	1/2 seer	Khandi	=	20 kolagas or 160 seers.

Provision is made in the rules to stamp every weight (except where the small size of the weight renders it impracticable) and every measure capacity, after verification.

To facilitate conversion of units of measure into units of weight, the following equivalent may also be given:—

1 Palla of Paddy	=	115 lbs. of cleaned rice
„ of Ragi	=	220 lbs.
„ of Horse-gram	=	240 lbs.
„ of Cholum	=	232 lbs.
„ of Bengal-gram	=	230 lbs.
„ of Till	=	150 lbs.
„ of Wheat	=	225 lbs.

Uniform  
Weights and  
Measures  
Scheme.

The Industries and Commerce Committee of the Economic Conference submitted to Government in 1916 a report containing the Committee's recommendations in regard to the weights and measures in use in the State and for improving them. The following important recommendations were made by it:—

(1) That a stamping party consisting of a clerk or tester and a gollar or artizan be entertained in each district at a cost of Rs. 22 per mensem and two additional parties at a cost of Rs. 35 per mensem each in the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore to work under the Deputy Commissioners or the President of the Municipal Councils concerned;

(2) that each party be provided with a sufficient number of weights and measures for sale to the public and the price be fixed at a rate equivalent to the cost of production plus half an anna for each measure or weight to meet the establishment charges;

(3) that arrangements be made to obtain the weights and measures required from private manufacturers according to approved samples and the idea of erecting a plant in the Central Jail for manufacturing the same be abandoned;

(4) that the duty of getting approved patterns of weights and measures for distribution to the Deputy Commissioners and the Presidents of Municipalities of Bangalore and Mysore be entrusted to the Director of Industries and Commerce and a sum of Rs. 500 placed at the disposal of the Department for the manufacture of samples of weights and measures; and

(5) that a sum of Rs. 16,000 be allotted for the purchase of 8,000 weights and an equivalent number of measures.

Government, in 1917, sanctioned the scheme of the Committee with a few modifications and directed:—

(1) that the Revenue Department should be primarily responsible for the enforcement of the rules;

(2) that the control over the working of the whole system of introduction of uniform weights and measures should vest in the Revenue Commissioner;

(3) that the Revenue Commissioner should arrange for the supply of weights and measures for all centres;

(4) that standards of authorised weights and measures in general use should be supplied to all Revenue officers in Districts, all Police Stations and *patels* of important villages; and

(5) that a set of bronze weights and brass measures should be kept in every District Treasury for purposes of comparison with the working standards in the hands of the stamping parties.

Government also sanctioned a sum of Rs. 16,000 for stocking a sufficient supply of weights and measures. Finding that the above measures had not been fully brought into operation, Government, in 1918, transferred the entire control over measures to be adopted for ensuring an adequate supply of weights and measures and testing and stamping the same, to the Department of Industries and Commerce, the responsibility to enforce the rules continuing with the Revenue and Police Departments. In 1924, arrangements for the manufacture of seamless measures by machinery were completed and the first set of measures was got ready. A good supply of weights was also manufactured. Facilities are being provided in the State for an adequate supply of standard weights and measures. It will, however, be sometime before the time will be ripe for introducing legislation to render the use of uncertified weights and measures penal. The Mysore Premier Metal Factory has been entrusted with the manufacture and supply of the required number of sets of measures on certain conditions. The distribution of the new sets of measures is being arranged for through the help of the local bodies.

Steps have also been taken to arrange for a wide publication of the table of the authorised standards of weights and measures, their multiples and sub-multiples.

The standard of length is the Imperial standard yard :—

1/3rd of a yard = 1 foot.

1/36th of a yard = 1 inch.

To declare the Imperial standard yard to be the legal standard measure of length in the territories of Mysore, Government, in 1890, passed the "Measures of Length Regulation" (No. III of 1890) and by subsequent Notification, dated January 1894, approved and declared the measures of Imperial standard yard.

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## CHAPTER X.

### GLOSSARY OF JUDICIAL AND REVENUE TERMS.

(INCLUDING WORDS OCCURRING IN OFFICIAL  
DOCUMENTS).

Ābād	...	...	Populous; cultivated.
Ābkāri	...	...	Revenue derived from duties levied on the manufacture and sale of inebriating liquors, and on intoxicating drugs; excise.
Achkat	...	...	The total area of land attached to a village. When applied to irrigation, it means the total extent of land capable of being irrigated by any particular irrigational work.
Acreage contribution	...	...	The contribution per acre of land to be paid to Government by all the holders of lands under tanks or other irrigational works, repaired, restored or constructed at Government cost.
Aday Bāki	...	...	Arrears of previous year.
Āḍavu	...	...	Mortgage with or without possession; deposit.
Āḍhāra	...	...	Security; pledge; recognizance; bail; an exhibit.
Adharrekḥ	...	...	Base line.
Āḍhikāra	...	...	Cognizance; jurisdiction; authority.
Agrahāra	...	...	A village held by Brāhmins on a favourable tenure.
Alavāl	...	...	(i) Prayer or representation of a petitioner. (ii) A statistical annual return, giving exhaustive particulars regarding the agricultural resources of a taluk, such as number of villages, sources of irrigation, number of men, cattle and ploughs, etc.
Ain Jama	...	...	Actual receipts or credits.
Aivaj	...	...	Amount of money.
Ajan Eyishi	...	...	Test or verification; experiment; inspection.
Ajānāyisbi Tarikh	...	...	On probation; as an experimental or tentative measure.
Ākāra	...	...	Assessment of a land; area (of a field).
Ākārbānd	...	...	A register showing the area, rate of assessment, etc., in detail of the survey numbers of a village.
Ālābiā	...	...	Separate.

Alavi	...	...	Progressive rental for improvement of land, or rent commencing at a low rate and increasing gradually year by year till the maximum limit is attained. (Caval and Shrāya are other terms used in the same sense).
Amal	...	...	Proceedings; action; business; operation.
Amaljāri	...	...	Execution, particularly of a decree.
Amānat, Anamat	...	...	Deposit.
Āmad	...	...	Imports; receipts.
Amūldār, Amil	...	...	A collector of revenue in charge of a taluk.
Amāni	...	...	(i) Lands or other sources of revenue under the direct management of Government officials, as opposed to those rented out. (ii) Anything held in trust, or under official management.
Amānikere	...	...	Tank other than the village tank; independent tank.
Amīn	...	...	A bailiff in the Judicial Department.
Amma	...	...	A Goddess; especially the Goddess of Small-pox.
Amarāi	...	...	Minor tree produce of a village belonging to Government, such as tamarind, honge, soap-nut, etc., entered under the head "Amarāi."
Amrut Mahal	...	...	A department for improving the breed of cattle for Government purposes.
Anche	...	...	Post.
Anchechīla, Anche Bastu	...	...	The leather wallet containing letters and papers carried by the postal runners.
Anche Kaohēri	...	...	Post Office.
Anche Mane, Ancheyavara Gudisalu.	...	...	Postal runners' hut.
Ancheyava	...	...	Postal runner.
Andāz, Andāj	...	...	An estimate.
Angadi	...	...	A shop.
Angadi Terige	...	...	Tax on shops.
Anna Chatra, Anna Satra	...	...	A building for the accommodation of travellers where food is also supplied.
Ane, Anekat (Anicut)	...	...	A masonry or brick dam across a river or stream for the purpose of raising the water and distributing it by side channels to the land on each side that would otherwise not benefit by the overflow; also a steep foot path.
Anūrādha	...	...	An asterism; a rain commencing between 17th and 29th November; paddy is sown at this time.
Anubhavam or Anubhōgam (Sanskrit).	...	...	Enjoyment or usufruct. (Also a deed of gift of land as a reward for services performed, answering, perhaps, to Inām land). It was customary for princes, when conferring a title on any person, to grant him at the same time sufficient land to enable him to maintain



			the dignity of his position. The tenant could not be ejected except where there were conditions imposed and he failed to fulfil them.
<b>Anwādīdār</b>	...	...	A re-mortgagee; the mortgagee who holds the property from the proprietor being called <i>Bhōgradār</i> .
<b>Āramba</b>	...	...	Cultivation; farming.
<b>Archaka</b>	...	...	The officiating priest of a temple.
<b>Ardhamānya</b>	...	...	Land granted on a lease, quit-rent; generally half rent, as its name implies.
<b>Ardhamānyadār</b>	...	...	A man who holds as a tenant, lands assessed at half the usual rates.
<b>Āridra</b>	...	...	An asterism; a rain commencing between 14th June and 2nd July. Paddy, cotton, etc., are sown at this season.
<b>Arzi, Arji, Urzee</b>	...	...	A petition addressed by an inferior to a superior; <i>vice versa</i> , it would be a <i>pidāst</i> ; among equals, it would be a <i>pidāst</i> ; an address; a memorial; an application; a report submitted by an inferior officer to a superior officer.
<b>Asal</b>	...	...	Principal; original stock.
<b>Āsami</b>	...	...	An individual.
<b>Āsbūr Khāna</b>	...	...	An open building reserved by Muhammadians for the exhibition of the <i>PANJA</i> during the <i>Muharram</i> ; at other times it affords shelter to poor Muhammadian travellers.
<b>Ālāfaha</b>	...	...	An asterism; a rain commencing between 21st July and 13th August. Gram and mangoes are sown at this time.
<b>Āsti</b>	...	...	Property; riches; real or personal goods.
<b>Asvini</b>	...	...	An asterism; A rain commencing between the 11th and 29th April. Land is sown at this season.
<b>Aval (Adj. Hindustani)</b>	...	...	Superior quality.
<b>Āval number</b>	...	...	Used in connection with old Indian accounts; it means an account showing the boundaries of lands.
<b>Aykat</b>	...	...	The total area of land attached to a village; when applied to irrigation, it means the total extent of land capable of being watered by any particular work.
<b>Ayya, Ayyanavara</b>	...	...	A <i>Lingāyat</i> priest and teacher.
<b>Bāb</b>	...	...	An item; head of accounts.
<b>Baddi</b>	...	...	Interest.
<b>Badhī</b>	...	...	A substitute acting for an absentee on leave.
<b>Bādiga</b>	...	...	Rent.
<b>Baddi</b>	...	...	Increase, especially of pay.
<b>Bāgīyat</b>	...	...	Garden lands, the assessment on which is levied according to the number of trees; the rate varying according to the fertility of the soil.
	...	...	Reinstatement.

Bāki	...	...	Balance or arrears to be paid; <i>Aday Baki</i> : Arrears of previous year.
Bakshi	...	...	Head of an office.
Balagai	...	...	Holeyas of the right hand caste in Mysore and other Kannada countries.
Bandi, Bandy	...	...	A cart or conveyance.
Bandhi Khana	...	...	A jail or lock-up.
Bhandāra	...	...	A store room or treasury.
Bhandāra, Sarasvati	...	...	A library.
Bānd, Bāndu	...	...	An earthen embankment used as a survey mark.
Bāndinavaru	...	...	Officials of the Revenue Survey and Settlement Departments.
Banjar	...	...	Waste land. <b>KABULIYAT BANJAR</b> : The land which its occupant has, at his own option, allowed to lie waste.
Baodi, Baoli	...	...	A well.
Bar	...	...	Mysore Infantry.
Bārābalōti	...	...	Village officials, consisting of 12 persons, viz., Gauda, Shānbhōg, Panchāngi, Talvār, Tōti, Nirganti, Agasa, Nāyinda, Kumbāra, Lohar, Badagi and Agasale: "The village twelve who formed the ancient village service"
Barāvard	...	...	Pay abstract.
Bartaraf	...	...	Dismissal.
Bārigāt	...	...	Body-guard.
Bārīka	...	...	A menial among the village servants; a deputy talāri, who is employed to watch the crops, from the growing crop to the granary.
Basti	...	...	A populous town; a Jain temple.
Bastu	...	...	A bundle of records or papers.
Batsai, Batāyi	...	...	(i) Division of the crop between the cultivator and the landlord, or the Government in that capacity. Under this system which prevailed in Mysore prior to the Commission period, the assessment was paid to Government in the shape of grain. (ii) Equal division of the crops between the husbandmen and Government.
Batsvād	...	...	Disbursement; payment; distribution.
Bazār	...	...	A market.
Bēdaru	...	...	Hunters; poachers.
Bē-Chirākh	...	...	Without lamp; deserted. Applied to an uninhabited village.
Beddalu	...	...	Dry land.
Benāmi	...	...	Without name, fictitious, as a purchaser under a false name.
Bēpār	...	...	Trade.
Bēpāri	...	...	A merchant or trader.
Bōriz	...	...	The full revenue obtainable; the amount of revenue of a village.
Bēsāya	...	...	Cultivation.
Bēsige Kāla	...	...	Hot weather; dry season.

Besta	...	...	A fisherman; palanquin bearer.
Betta	...	...	A hill. A Jaiu place of worship at the summit of a hill, consisting of an unroofed enclosure surrounding a colossal image.
Bē-Vārasu	...	...	A term generally applied to property left by persons without heirs; unclaimed.
Bhāga	...	...	Partition; share.
Bhang, Bhangi	...	...	Hemp used in making an intoxicating and stupefying preparation which is smoked like tobacco.
Bhāra Mārga	...	...	Transit duty.
Bharani	...	...	A rain commencing between 27th April and 2nd May. Various kinds of grain are sown at this season.
Bharti	...	...	Export.
Bhatamānya or (Drahma dāya).	...	(Drahma dāya).	Rent-free land granted to Brāhmins; grants and endowments of land held by Brāhmins for their support. They are personal grants as distinguished from those held on condition of rendering service.
Bhatamānyadāra	...	...	A Brāhman holding rent-free lands.
Bhata Vritti	...	...	A small portion of rent-free land granted to Brāhmins.
Bhatta (Batta)	...	...	Extra pay or allowances to public servants; an allowance to temporary peons, serving summonses and other processes of courts; travelling allowance; paddy.
Bhatti	...	...	A still.
Bhatti Sunka	...	...	Still-head duty.
Bhāvi	...	...	A well.
Bhēti	...	...	An interview; visit.
Bhōgya	...	...	Mortgage with possession.
Bhūmi	...	...	Land, generally applied to culturable land.
Bidi	...	...	A street.
Bidige	...	...	Second day of the bright or dark half of a lunar month.
Bijavari	...	...	Extent of land; the amount of seed required for a portion of a field; area of land calculated according to the quantity of seed required for sowing in it.
Billeyava	...	...	A peon or man wearing a belt.
Bilu (Bidu)	...	...	Waste, uncultivated land.
Birādāri	...	...	A troop of Silhadars in the Mysore Horse, consisting generally of 12 men.
Būti, Bēgari	...	...	Gratuitous labour exacted from raiyats on account of Government.
Bōgyadār, Bhōgyadār	...	...	A mortgagee who holds the property from the proprietor.
Bombe	...	...	An image, idol, doll.
Bōnd	...	...	Coffee.
Bōpi	...	...	A palanquin-bearer.
Brahmadāya	...	...	Rent-free land granted to Brāhmins. See <i>Bhatamānya</i> .

Brinjari	...	...	A tribe resembling gipsies, who wander about and earn a livelihood as carriers of grain, etc.
Buddhivanta	...	...	Wise man, the elder or <i>PRUD'HOMME</i> of a village or community.
Bund	...	...	The embankment forming tank or reservoir.
Canteroy Pagoda (Kanthiraya Varāba).			An unminted coin named after Kanthiraya Narasa Rāja (1638-1659) worth 10 gold <i>fanams</i> .
Cārcoon (also Kārkhūn)	...	...	A clerk or manager, who sets down the transactions of the assessments of lands, etc.
Chadsāl	...	...	Year in which a maximum amount of revenue was derived.
Chākara	...	...	A menial among the village servants; a deputy <i>talūri</i> , who is employed to watch the crops, from the growing crop to the granary.
Chākari	...	...	Appointment.
Chakbandi	...	...	Boundaries.
Chalan	...	...	A memorandum distinctly specifying the nature of the payment into a Treasury and the person or officer on whose account it is made.
Chalavadi	...	...	A low caste. The servant of a Lingāyat merchant carrying a large ladle with chain and bell on his shoulders. Menial servant under the head merchant of a town.
Chambar	...	...	Currier and shoe-maker.
Chapāvane	...	...	Concealment, generally applied to unauthorized cultivation by a raiyat.
Chatra, Chhatra	...	...	An inn; a resting place for travellers.
Chaubāne	...	...	Beams.
Chaukāsi	...	...	To lessen the price; to haggie.
Chauk, Chowk	...	...	A place where four roads meet; a square.
Chauthāi	...	...	A fourth part.
Chāvadi	...	...	A small public office; a police station.
Chēla	...	...	A Hindu boy seized in early life and forcibly made a Muhammadan by order of Tipu; these boys as they grew up were incorporated in a military corps, retaining the name of Chēlas.
Chengūli	...	...	Day labourer.
Chhāpā Kāgada	...	...	Stamp paper.
Chilre	...	...	Small coin; change. Petty; trifling; Sundry.
Chiller Bāb	...	...	Miscellaneous items.
Chitta	...	...	A rain commencing between 8th and 20th September. Millet and ging-lli oil-seeds are sown at this time.
Chitte Siddhārti	...	...	Old measurement papers of the Hindu year <i>Siddhārti</i> , corresponding to (1799-1800).
Chitte, Chitta	...	...	Accounts; old measurement papers.
Choon Kud	...	...	Soil containing minute fragments or nodules of limestone.
Chōri	...	...	Theft.
Chōri māl	...	...	Stolen property.
Chōr Inām	...	...	Land enjoyed free of rent by stealth or unauthorizedly.

Chēr mānya Ināms	...	Ināms of a fraudulent origin.
Chōl Ināmi	...	Salt or saline efflorescence.
Choot, Chaut	...	A fourth part; the tribute or contribution formerly levied by the Mahrattas.
Chowthāyi	...	See <i>Chauthai</i> .
Chowthāyi Remission	...	Remission of one-fourth assessment of wet lands.
Chowthāyi Tanks	...	Tanks the holders of lands under which are entitled to remission of the wet assessment.
Chūki	...	A mistake or error.
Chungadi	...	Interest.
Cowl	...	Agreement; engagement.
Dacoit	...	A robber, especially one of a gang of house-breakers who plunder with the aid of torches.
Dacoity	...	A torch robbery.
Dafedār (also Duffedār)	...	Head peon having charge of ten or more persons.
Dafdar (also Duftar)	...	Records; the place where records are kept.
Dafdar Hākha	...	A department in which accounts connected with the revenue are kept.
Daga	...	Deceit; fraud.
Dākhale	...	Reference; authority.
Dākhal	...	Admission.
Dākhale Grāma	...	A subordinate village included in a large one, which is called "ASALI."
Dalāvāyi (Dulwōy)	...	The hereditary commander of the forces.
Dalāyita, Dalāyat	...	A peon.
Dallāli	...	A broker.
Dāmūshayi (also Dāmāsha)	...	A proportionate share.
Dāna	...	Cattle.
Dāna, Dāna sāsana	...	A gift, a deed of gift.
Danda	...	Fine.
Danda	...	An army; a cantonment.
Darbār (also Durbār)	...	A court; a royal court; an audience or LEVEE.
Darhāst	...	An application to rent land; a tender; a petition.
Darōde	...	Robbery.
Darōgha, Darōga	...	A native officer; superintendent; or manager.
Daryafī	...	An inquiry; trial.
Dasavanda	...	Land granted to a person for repairing or building a tank, on condition of paying in money or kind one-tenth or some small share of the produce.
Dast-Arvaz	...	A voucher; a written document.
Dastūri	...	According to custom; a customary allowance or requisite.
Daul	...	Estimate; valuation.
Dāyādi	...	Cousin; a distant relation from the same male stock.
Daba Hākha, Dabazada	...	Census; an account showing the number of houses, shops, cattle, population, looms,

		ploughs, etc., of which a town or village consists.
Dēshi	... ..	Indigenous.
Dēvadāya (or Dharmadāya)		Lands endowed rent free for temples; grant made for the support of religious and charitable institutions and of persons rendering service therein.
Dēvasthāna	... ..	A temple.
Dhani	... ..	A master.
Dhanishta	... ..	A rain commencing between 3rd to 15th February.
Dhāraṇe	... ..	Market rate, price, value.
Dharmakarta	... ..	Temple-warden.
Dhārsod	... ..	System of giving and taking equally in order to ensure a straight boundary.
Dhārwar	... ..	A variety of cotton ( <i>Gossypium sp.</i> ).
Dhore	... ..	Master; king.
Dhruva Pairu	... ..	Standing crops; trees grown in garden lands.
Dhruva Phala	... ..	Staple crop produce.
Divān (Dewan)	... ..	Minister of finance; chief administrative head of the State.
Doddi	... ..	A pound for cattle.
Dōli (Dhooly)	... ..	A litter like a palanquin.
Domba	... ..	A tumbler or juggler.
Dōni	... ..	A boat; especially one hollowed out of a log.
Doopun	... ..	Liabie to be washed away by running water.
Driṣhyādhāra	... ..	Mortgage without possession.
Durga (Droog)	... ..	A hill-fort.
Duddu	... ..	An obsolete copper coin, three of which went to an anna.
Du-Fasal	... ..	Raising two crops a year on the same land.
Durast	... ..	Repair.
Edagai or Edagai Kula	... ..	A left-hand caste.
Ēkabhōgya	... ..	Undivided possession held by only one.
Ēka Sāl	... ..	One year.
Ekkalu Gōdde	... ..	Alluvial soil.
Ere Bhūmi	... ..	Black soil.
Ēri	... ..	Bund of a tank.
Ēru	... ..	A plough, or plough-and-oxen.
Ēru Kānike	... ..	Plough-tax.
Faisal	... ..	Decision; judgment; disposal.
Fakir	... ..	Muhammadan mendicant.
Fanam (Haus)	... ..	A small coin of either gold or silver, worth 14 duddu—4 annas 6 pies. Till 1813, in Madras, 42 fanams went to one star pagoda; a fanam would thus be worth about 2d.
Fasal	... ..	Crop or produce.
Fasli	... ..	Revenue year.
Ferisht	... ..	A list or table of contents of a file of correspondence; a catalogue; an inventory.

Firka	...	...	Sub-division of a hobli; the charge of one shanbhog, consisting of one or more villages.
Gadde	...	...	A paddy-field; an irrigated field.
Gādi	...	...	A cart or conveyance.
Gāmagane Lekkhā	...	...	The revenue account of a district containing several villages.
Gām Thān	...	...	Village site.
Gāna	...	...	An oil-mill.
Gāna Terige	...	...	A tax on oil-mills.
Gandha	...	...	Sandal.
Gāniga	...	...	The owner of an oil-mill.
Ganna	...	...	Sugar-cane.
Gauda	...	...	The headman of a village; the head of village police.
Gaum (from Sanskrit Grāma).			Village.
Gāvada, Gau	...	...	A distance of about 12 miles.
Gēni Chit or Cheeti	...	...	Lease deed.
Ghalige	...	...	A Hindu hour—24 English minutes.
Ghaut	...	...	(i) A landing place. (ii) A path of descent to a river. (iii) A path of descent from a mountain; a mountain pass.
Gōla Gāvalu	...	...	A forest watchman.
Gōla Patrike (also called Jhār Patrik.)			Tree statement. This is one of the most important Survey Settlement Accounts. It contains a description of trees, standing on the lands of a village, with remarks as to whom they belong.
Girāki	...	...	Demand; saleable.
Girivi	...	...	A mortgage.
Go-Lhūmi	...	...	Land set apart for grazing; pasture land.
Gochu	...	...	Soil containing large nodules of limestone.
Golla	...	...	A milkman. A subordinate official employed in the treasury in carrying money-bags, etc.; assistant to the shroff. Originally he kept the key of the Treasury.
Gōmāla	...	...	Land set apart for grazing; pasture land.
Gōni	...	...	Gunney; a coarse cloth made of hemp.
Goravi Kūlu	...	...	A fire-stick used instead of a torch.
Gosāyi	...	...	A sect who never marry, and whose profession is traffic, the profits of which go to a chief guru called Mahant.
Gōshwāra	...	...	An abstract; a RESUME.
Gowda	...	...	The headman or Patel of a village.
Grāma Terige	...	...	Village cess; a fine levied on the raiyats who have left their own villages and settled in others.
Gudāra	...	...	A tent.
Gudasta	...	...	Immediately preceding.
Gudli	...	...	An implement with a short handle fixed at right angles, used for digging instead of a spade.

Gumāsta	...	...	An accountant; an agent; a steward; a representative; a confidential factor; a clerk. Also a substitute or Officiator as, in Shambhog Gumāsta.
Gunjayishi	...	...	Out-bidding another.
Gunta, Goonta	...	...	Land measure—121 square yards or (i) 1-10th of an acre. (ii) A well or pond.
Gūr	...	...	Molasses.
Gutigedār	...	...	Contractor.
Gutta	...	...	Lease amount.
Gutta, Goota	...	...	A rock, or rocky hill.
Habba	...	...	A feast; festival.
Hādi	...	...	A road.
Hadlu	...	...	Grass land covered with water; a waste rice-field.
Hadnāma	...	...	Boundary.
Hādya	...	...	Land covered with low brushwood and small trees from which fire-wood, leaves, etc., for manuring the fields are taken.
Hāga	...	...	One-fourth of a fanam.
Hagēvu	...	...	A subterraneous granary.
Hak, Hakku	...	...	A right.
Halāku	...	...	Disorder.
Halāt	...	...	The excise duty levied on areca-nut, cardamom, pepper and tobacco, on removal from the place of their production. Export duty levied on coffee.
Hāli	...	...	At present.
Hale Paika	...	...	Toddy drawers in the Nagar country.
Halige mara	...	...	A plank used in levelling the fields after seed is sown.
Hamsaya	...	...	The rate of assessment paid in neighbouring lands taken as the standard in assessing lands newly cultivated.
Hana	...	...	Money; a fanam.
Hangāmi	...	...	Temporary.
Hankalu	...	...	A reaped field.
Haradāri	...	...	A league—3 miles; a measure of extent containing 2,000 fathoms, or about 2 miles and a half; a-kos.
Harkār	...	...	Guide; personal attendant.
Harkat	...	...	Obstacle; obstruction.
Harās	...	...	Auction.
Hāsāl	...	...	Postage; tax.
Hasta	...	...	A rain commencing 24th September and 7th October; millet and gingelli oil-seeds are sown at this time.
Hastantra	...	...	Cash balance.
Hatlagavadu Tank	...	...	Tank constructed at one's own cost.
Havildār	...	...	A Sergeant.
Havēli, Sarkar Havēli	...	...	A large house for the accommodation of Government servants.



Hengade	...	...	Headman of a village; the headman of village police; in some parts of the province, rent-free lands are assigned for their support.
Henda	...	...	The juice of the date-palm; toddy; which ferments and becomes intoxicating.
Hēhāiu	...	...	An outlet for water to drain from one garden to another.
Hingāru, Hingāri	...	...	The latter rains, from July to November; the north-east monsoon.
Hisse	...	...	Share; partition.
Hissedār	...	...	Sharer.
Hittalu	...	...	Backyards attached to buildings.
Hōbbi, Hōbali	...	...	The sub-division of a taluk, comprising several villages.
Hōbbidār	...	...	A commandant of a Hōbbi of peons.
Hōla	...	...	A field.
Hōle	...	...	A stream; river.
Hōnnu	...	...	Half an Ikkeri pagoda (gold), value Rs. 2-4-0.
Hokum	...	...	A written order from a superior; ordinary order.
Hōksu	...	...	Looking well, generally, applied to crops; thrifty.
Hōbbānni	...	...	Pasturage of unoccupied Government lands. Statement showing the grazing purchased by each individual. The term is also applied to the Government income, realized from the sale of grass or fees recovered from the raiyats for allowing their cattle to graze on such lands.
Hulgāval, Hulbigāval, Hul- hūgāval.	...	...	Pasture land.
Hūlgāval Sunka	...	...	Grazing dues.
Hōndi, Hōndee	...	...	A bill of exchange.
Hōzur, Hōozoor	...	...	The presence. The chief officer of the district; higher or supreme authority, a term of respect.
Hōttavali	...	...	The produce of a garden or field, or of any trade; the amount of an assessment, rent, income or revenue.
Hūfe	...	...	Increase, especially of pay.
Hūra, Hūre	...	...	Contract or lease, generally applied to the forming of revenue in olden days.
Hūrdar, Hūrdar	...	...	A contractor; a farmer of liquor shops.
Hūkhe	...	...	A department.
Hūām	...	...	A gift from a superior to an inferior holder; a grant of land for religious or charitable purpose, made by Government, sometimes free, and sometimes with light quit-rent or jodi. Hūām is same as <i>Mānyam</i> . Technically, a major hūām is a whole village or more than one village; and a minor hūām is something less than a village. In most cases, minor hūāms are merely blocks of lands. (See <i>Mysore Revenue Manual</i> , Chapter XVI).

Ināmdār	...	...	The holder of a rent-free grant.
Inām Kasar	...	...	Excess in Ināms.
Irawāra	...	...	The total produce before division under the BATĀYI system.
Irsāl Patti	...	...	List of remittance of cash sent to the treasury; an invoice.
Isam	...	...	Individual; an item; a head of charge.
Isamwār	...	...	Individually.
Istihār	...	...	A notification; proclamation.
Isvi	...	...	The Christian era, year.
Jādamāli, Jhādmāli	...	...	A sweeper employed in cleaning office rooms.
Jadthi	...	...	Search or examination of an account.
Jafti	...	...	Attachment of property, confiscation.
Jāgir	...	...	An estate, held free of payment to Government in the shape of land revenue; rent-free lands or villages granted for services rendered to Government.
Jāgirdar	...	...	Holder of lands or villages free of assessment, generally as a reward for meritorious service.
Jābir Nāma	...	...	A notice or summons.
Jamābandi	...	...	The annual settlement made under the raiyat-war system. DITTAM JAMĀBANDI is the preliminary Jamābandi conducted by the taluk officer. Huzūr Jamābandi is the final settlement made by the Divisional Assistant Commissioner or Deputy Commissioner.
Jamadār	...	...	A Commandant of a Hōbli; a Commissioned Officer in the Mysore Horse.
Jama Kharch	...	...	Receipts and expenditure.
Jamin	...	...	Land.
Jāmin	...	...	Bail; security.
Jāmindār	...	...	A landholder.
Jāmindār	...	...	A surety.
Jangama	...	...	A Lingāyat priest.
Janti Kallu	...	...	A boundary or demarcation mark, composed of three stones in a line.
Jantri	...	...	Tables used for calculation.
Jāri	...	...	Current; in force.
Jāri Inām	...	...	A grant of land or other endowment still in force, and not resumed.
Jarib	...	...	Measurement.
Jāri Ināmti	...	...	Rent-free land.
Jarūr	...	...	Urgent.
Jatka	...	...	A small, close, two-wheeled conveyance drawn by a pony.
Jātre	...	...	Annual fair, usually occurring on the occasion of a festival.
Jauli	...	...	A term applied to cloths of all kinds; piece-goods.
Javāno, Javāna	...	...	A peon; an inferior officer who acts as a guard and a messenger.
Javāb	...	...	An answer.

Javābhāri	...	...	Responsibility.
Jāhāta	...	...	Third lunar month corresponding to June and July. A rain commencing between 30th November and 12th December. Paddy is sown during this time.
Jāde	...	...	An account showing the number of houses, shops, cattle, population, looms, ploughs, etc., of which a town or village consists. Final settlement. Hence SĀL JĀDE means accounts of annual income and expenditure.
Jādi	...	...	Examination of an account.
Jāhā Patrak	...	...	Statement showing the number and description of trees in each survey number. (See Gida Patrike).
Jādu	...	...	Jealousy; anger.
Jindagi	...	...	Property; estate.
Jirāyiti	...	...	Cultivation of an untilled land; farming; cultivation.
Jitāra	...	...	A hereditary labourer or slave.
Jōdi	...	...	Favourable rent or light assessment, the proportion of which to the full rates varies; Quit-rent; grant of land or village on lighter assessment than the proper revenue.
Jōndār	...	...	A person holding an Inām village on Jōdi or quit-rent.
Jōndār Takhta	...	...	A record of the settlement of the amount of Jōdi to be paid upon each wattan or varttane.
Jugi	...	...	A class of religious mendicants.
Jōti (Danna) Phana	...	...	An oil manufacturer of the Lingāyat caste.
Jōyisa	...	...	An astrologer.
Jōndār	...	...	An inferior official performing the duties of a vernacular clerk.
Jurmāne	...	...	A fine.
Javāb	...	...	An answer.
Kabūlati	...	...	(i) An account showing the decrease of revenue on account of lands given up by the holders, the increase by new application for lands, the estimated value of <i>batāyi</i> cultivation. The account is to be sent by the Amildar once in 10 or 12 days commencing from April till the end of July. (ii) An agreement or engagement in writing.
Kabūlati Banjar	...	...	Waste land left by the occupant.
Kachēri (Cutchery)	...	...	An office; a court.
Kachā Kharada	...	...	A rough account.
Kada	...	...	Debt.
Kalame	...	...	A deficiency.
Kalanga	...	...	A trench or ditch in garden.
Kadota (Kuduttun)	...	...	A cloth covered with a composition of charcoal and gum, and used instead of a slate for writing and keeping accounts on.
K. Pagi	...	...	A basket or pannier put on pack bullock.

Kaifiyat	...	...	A deposition.
Kai Kāgāda	...	...	A recognizance.
Kalasi	...	...	A lascar; a subordinate who pitches and takes care of tents.
Kalave	...	...	A channel or stream, generally for irrigation.
Kalla	...	...	A thief.
Kālu	...	...	A fourth part of anything.
Kāmāti	...	...	Day labourer.
Kambli (Cumbly)	...	...	A coarse woollen blanket or camblet, used by all classes for protection against wet and cold, and for sleeping in at night.
Kambli Kuruba	...	...	A class of Kurubas.
Kammi Jāsti Patti	...	...	Statement showing increase and decrease.
Kamshara	...	...	Reduction to a lower grade.
Kandāya, Kandāyam	...	...	Land-tax; money assessment.
Kandāchār (spelt also Candā char).	...	...	An ancient establishment of peons under the direction of a separate department which partook both of Civil and Military functions, in its relation to the Police Office and the Army. These men trained from their infancy, according to their measure of discipline, to Military exercises, were most of them also cultivators of the soil ( <i>Vide</i> Selections from the Records of the Chief Commissioner's Office). Capacity ceased, and with the exception of their employment as the legal advisers of the Courts in cases of Muhamadan law, the duties of those stationed in the cities or districts were confined to the preparation and attestation of deeds of conveyance and other legal instruments, and the general superintendence and legislation of the ceremonies of marriage, funerals, and other domestic occurrences among the Muhammdans. ( <i>H. H. Wilson's Glossary</i> ).
Kāyamgutta Tenure	...	...	"That term, in its literal sense, describes a permanent village settlement; and it probably owes its origin to a time when many villages were depopulated and when the Government found it advantageous to rent out such on a fixed but very moderate lease, the renter undertaking to restore them to their former prosperous condition. The Kāyamgutta lands comprise some of the most valuable inām lands in the Province." ( <i>Vide Mysore Gazetteer, 1897 edition, Volume 1, page 690</i> ).
Kere	...	...	A tank.
Kēri	...	...	A small street with houses on both sides; a hamlet.
Khaidi	...	...	A prisoner.
Khaidu	...	...	Imprisonment.
Khajāne, Khazāna	...	...	Treasury.

Khalasi	...	...	Assessment on the excess portion of an inām.
Khanēshumāri	...	...	Census. An account showing the number of houses, shops, cattle, population, looms, ploughs, etc., of which a town or village consists.
Kharchu	...	...	Expense.
Kharāb	...	...	Land unfit for cultivation.
Kharita	...	...	The envelope of a letter, especially the ornamental or silk covering of a letter addressed to, or by, a person of rank; hence the letter itself, particularly one passing between an Indian Prince and the Governor-General.
Khāta	...	...	Ledger of receipts and disbursements. It consists of firstly the Government account in which the amounts for recovery under the heads of (i) Land Revenue, (ii) Local Funds, (iii) Takavi, (iv) Amaraī, (v) Pasture, etc., are credited and remittances from the village to the Taluk Treasury of cash recovered are debited; and secondly of raiyats' accounts in which each raiyat is debited with his liabilities and collections of revenue are credited whenever they take place.
Kandi, Khandaga (Candy)	...	...	Land measure—20 kudus or 1 <sup>o</sup> ,000 square yards for wet and garden land; and 20 kudus or 64,000 square yards for dry land. Grain measure—120 kudus or 4 bushels—12·8 pts.
Kanikajilla (Conicopilay)	...	...	An overseer.
Kantu	...	...	Stipulation of payment; instalment.
Kapile	...	...	An apparatus for raising water from a well or tank for irrigating fields, worked by men or by oxen on an inclined plane.
Kans	...	...	(i) A species of grass destructive to cultivation. (ii) Extensive tracts of green forests which are preserved for the sake of the wild pepper vines, bag and palms, gum trees, etc. The holders of these Kans are allowed the privilege of (a) enjoying the said produce, (b) clearing and making use of the undergrowth; and (c) clipping trees for the growth of pepper, tree and for purposes of manure.
Karagipadi	...	...	Duty on goods where they are consumed or sold in contradistinction to <i>STHAL BHARTI</i> , which is levied at the place of production; sale.
Karauji	...	...	A reservoir or fountain.
Kararu	...	...	An agreement.
Kārkhāne	...	...	A manufactory; a workshop.
Karnam (Curnam)	...	...	Village accountant.
Kāctka Fasal	...	...	November paddy crop. That for April and May is <i>VAISAKHA FASAL</i> .
Kṛṣi	...	...	The wet season.
Kasba, Kasaba	...	...	The chief town of a district or division.

Kāsu	...	...	A pie-piece.
Kanuri	...	...	Neglect; fault.
Kattadaka	...	...	A written agreement.
Katte	...	...	Anicut or dam in a river or stream; a pond; a custom house or place where sayar duties on certain articles were being levied.
Kattu	...	...	Court papers or proceedings.
Kattu Kālve	...	...	Feeding channel to a tank.
Kauldār	...	...	A raiyat holding lands on special agreement.
Kāval	...	...	Ground reserved for pasturing cattle.
Kāzi	...	...	A Muhammadan Judge, an officer formerly appointed by the Government to administer both Civil and Criminal law, chiefly in towns; according to the principles of the <i>Korān</i> , under the British authorities, the judicial functions of the Kāzis in that capacity.
Khāte	...	...	A holding or occupancy.
Khātedār	...	...	Occupant of Government land.
Khāyam	...	...	Fixed; permanent.
Khāyamguttadār	...	...	Holder of land or a village on a fixed and unalterable assessment.
Khāyamguttige	...	...	Fixed assessment or rent.
Khētwar	...	...	Register of lands. This register is the foundation of all revenue accounts.
Khush Bash	...	...	A private person of independent means.
Khūn	...	...	Murder.
Khurd-Bard	...	...	Embezzlement of public money.
Killedār	...	...	A Police Inspector; a commandant of a fort.
Kistu, Kist, Khist	...	...	An instalment of the annual assessment paid by holders at stated times.
Kistu Bandi	...	...	A document given to a landholder showing the instalments payable by him.
Kodāgidār	...	...	A holder of land under tank, free of or on nominal assessment for having repaired or restored it, and on the further condition of his keeping in good order the said irrigation work on which the land below depends for its supply of water.
Kodigi Ināms	...	...	Lands granted free of tax, or on a light assessment, in consideration of services rendered in the construction or restoration of tanks, on condition of their being maintained in good repair. But as the repair of such tanks was almost universally neglected by the Ināmdārs, they have been relieved of the duty, and rules have been framed for enfranchisement of ināms, the quit-rent credited to the irrigation fund for up-keep of the tanks.
Kōdi	...	...	The weir of a tank or reservoir.
Kōla	...	...	A reservoir with stone steps down to the water's edge.
Kōla	...	...	The stocks; KAI KōLA, hand-stocks; KĀLU KōLA, leg-stocks.

Kolaga	...	...	One-twentieth of a khandaga.
Kōlkār, Kōlkāra	...	...	A mace-bearer; a peon.
Kole Rōga	...	...	A rot or disease which attacks areca palms.
Kōkita	...	...	A stick-dance, or dance accompanied with striking of sticks; practised at the Dasara in olden days by school boys who, accompanied by their masters, went about the streets reciting Mabānavami songs and receiving presents.
Kolli	...	...	A stream of rivulet.
Kōlu	...	...	A pale; a rod.
Kōnga	...	...	A class of servants of Tamil origin.
Koppalu	...	...	The suburbs or outlying villages of a town.
Korama	...	...	A wild race inhabiting the forests and mountains.
Kottige	...	...	An out-house or shed, generally for cattle.
Kotwāl (Cutwāl)	...	...	An official whose principal duty is to furnish supplies to travellers.
Krayadār	...	...	Purchaser.
Kudu	...	...	Land measure—16 PADIS OR PAILIS or 500 square yards for wet and garden land, and 16 PADIS OR PAILIS or 3,200 square yards for dry land.
			Grain measure—8 seers or 13'44 pints.
Kula	...	...	A single farmer; a tenant; holder of a land; a raiyat.
Kula Nasha	...	...	Loss of a tenant.
Kulavādi	...	...	A menial among the village servants; a deputy talāri, who is employed to watch the crops, from the growing crop to the granary.
Kulavār, Kulavāru	...	...	A term applied to accounts and returns made out with reference to the cultivators, as distinguished from accounts prepared according to the holdings.
Kulavār-Chitte, Kulavār-Patti.			A detailed account of the land cultivated by each holder.
Kulavār-Jamābandi	...	...	Individual settlement.
Kumri	...	...	A term, applied to cultivation carried on by felling a tract of forest, burning the wood, and raising a crop of grain on the clearing, which is abandoned in the following year, and a fresh clearing made somewhere else. This practice is now prohibited. A system of cultivation almost peculiar to certain <i>Matnād</i> hill tribes. A process consisting of burning away the jungle tracts and sowing castor oil seeds, ragi and other dry grains on the ground thus cleared up.
Kurige	...	...	A sowing machine and plough combined.
Kurkal (Kurula)	...	...	Clayey soil, which when dry turns very hard, which does not easily absorb water, and which if once wetted does not dry soon. It is sometimes so bad that even grass will not grow on it.

Kusaki Khuski	...	...	A term applied to unirrigated land.
Kushki (Khushki)	Sāguvali		Dry cultivation.
Kutchā	...	...	Mud built.
Lakkōte	...	...	An envelope; a sealed letter.
Lāl-Bāgh	...	...	A pleasure garden.
Lambāni	...	...	A tribe resembling gipsies, who wander about and earn a livelihood as carriers, sometimes called Brinjaries.
Luskar	...	...	A tent pitcher. In the Military Department the word is used to denote an inferior class of military men.
Laahkar	...	...	A Cantonment.
Lavājame	...	...	Establishment of a department drawing pay.
Lavāni Faisal Patrak	...	...	Record of the final settlement of each Survey number in the village.
Lekkha	...	...	Accounts; an account.
Lēvā Dēvi	...	...	Dealings, generally in money.
Lūti	...	...	Plunder.
Māf	...	...	Pardon, remission.
Māfi Rahadāri	...	...	Passport granted for the conveyance of goods from one place to another for which duty had already been paid.
Māgani	...	...	Sub-division of a taluk, corresponding to a hōbli or nād.
Magga	...	...	A weaver's loom.
Māgha	...	...	An asterism. A rain commencing between 14th and 27th August. Tobacco and wheat are sown at this time.
Mahānavami	...	...	A feast observed on the 9th day of the 7th lunar month, the last day but one of the Dasara, on which arms are worshipped.
Mahasūlu	...	...	Octroi; toll; crop.
Mahazar	...	...	Award of a panchayat, or jury; a statement made by a number of respectable persons regarding certain facts or events.
Maidān	...	...	A plain; the plain country, or BAIL SIME, as distinguished from the MALNĀD or hill region.
Majakūru	...	...	The said, aforesaid, contents.
Malē	...	...	Rain.
Malē Kāla, Malē Gāla	...	...	Rainy season.
Mālika	...	...	Owner.
Malki	...	...	Value of trees contained in an agricultural land.
Malnād, Malenād	...	...	Hill country; the western part of Mysore.
Māmaledār	...	...	A Collector of Revenue in charge of a taluk; an Amildār.
Māmūl, Māmūli (Māmool)			Established; customary; usual; ancient precedents; longstanding.
Mana	...	...	A maund.
Mande	...	...	Sub-divisions of a hōbli in Manjarābād, corresponding to a FIRKA or PHUT MĀGANI.



Manegār, Manegāra	...	(i) An agent, an accountant; (ii) an overseer; one who regulates the distribution of water from a tank or other reservoir.
Maue Terige	...	House-tax.
Mantapa	...	A place built for worship in front of a temple or on the bank of a river, or, by the side of a well; also a place in which an idol is deposited.
Mānyam	...	Privileged land exempt from taxes or imposts; a grant.
Markam	...	Dated.
Maru Kukke	...	A small basket or muzzle put on bullocks to prevent them from feeding.
Masalat	...	Counsel; plot.
Mastālehi	...	A torch-bearer or lamp-lighter.
Mashal Chōri	...	Torch robbery.
Matha (Mutt)	...	House of a priest; a school-house.
Matha Vritti	...	Land granted rent-free to a mutt.
Mauad	...	A weight equal to 40 seers or 24 lbs.
Melādūkārī	...	Superior officer.
Mestri (Maistry)	...	A subordinate employed in supervising a work; an overseer; a chief builder, carpenter, etc.
Minahu	...	Till; until.
Mirāsī (or Meeras)	...	(i) An allowance or perquisite, sometimes paid in money and sometimes in kind; generally applied to grain, etc., given to village officials or headmen of the raiyats. (ii) In Madras, this word is used to denote the hereditary right of cultivation or the right of tenant and his heirs, to occupy a certain ground, so long as they continue to pay a customary rent of the districts.
Moblagu	...	Amount of money.
Mōchi	...	A class of cobblers who make saddles, native slippers, etc.
Mohur, Mohar	...	A seal; stamp.
Mohatarfa	...	Originally taxes levied on looms, houses, oil-mills, shops, etc. Taxes not included in land-tax or assessments.
Mohattiyār Nāma	...	Power of attorney.
Mokhtesar	...	Head of a department.
Mozasira	...	An asterism; A rain commencing between 5th and 18th June. Paddy, cotton, etc., are sown at this season.
Muchhalike	...	A deed of agreement.
Muchchi	...	A man employed in public offices to make ink, mend pens, provide papers, seal letters, bind books, and the like.
Muft, Muft, Māf	...	Free from payment; gratis.
Mūkqige	...	A mode of cultivation by which a crop is divided into three parts, of which one is for the rent of the ground, another for labour, and the third for the seed and implements.

Mūla	...	...	An asterism; A rain commencing between the 12th and 25th December. Cummin, coriander, tobacco and other seeds are sown at this time.
Mulki	...	...	Pertaining to revenue.
Mungāri, Mungāru	...	...	The early rains, from April to June. The former or early season for cultivation. The south-west monsoon.
Munshi (Moonshee)	...	...	Reader and interpreter; vernacular clerk or teacher.
Munsiff	...	...	A subordinate civil judge.
Musafirkhāna	...	...	A rest-house for Indian travellers.
Mutalika	...	...	An agent.
Mutchalika	...	...	A deed of agreement binding a person or persons to abide by the conditions and stipulations therein specified.
Mutfarkhat	...	...	Stipend; pension.
Mutsaddi, Mutsaddy	...	...	An agent; an accountant.
Muzrai (Persian Mujara, allowance, deduction).			(i) Signifies grants made for religious or charitable purposes and the upkeep of religious and charitable institutions. (ii) The Muzrai Department is entrusted with the administration of revenues of religious and charitable institutions belonging to the Hindus and Muhammadans, such as, temples and <i>chattrams</i> , or feeding houses, Mutts, Darōgas, Maszids, etc., enjoying land and money ināms and interest from certain deposits of money lodged by the votaries for the fulfilment of certain vows.
Nādāri	...	...	Poor; helpless.
Nādiga	...	...	Village accountant. With hardly an exception they are of the Brāhmin caste. The office is hereditary in common with those of all the other village officials. In some places they hold land free of rent, and in others on light assessment. In some few places a fixed money allowance is given. In all instances there are certain fixed fees payable to them in money or in kind by the raiyats.
Nādu, Nād	...	...	A district; a sub-division of a taluk corresponding to a hōbli.
Nagad Gutta	...	...	Money assessments.
Nagadi	...	...	Relating to cash transactions or accounts connected with treasury finance.
Nagadiyat	...	...	Money assessment.
Nakāsh	...	...	Map or plan.
Nakshe	...	...	A plan.
Nāla	...	...	A stream or ravine, a channel.
Nazar	...	...	Offerings to a sovereign.
Nazarana (Nuzzerāna)	...	...	Compulsory offerings.
Namūne	...	...	A specimen or sample.

Nān Parvarish	...	...	Allowance to a child till able to provide for himself.
Nānya	...	...	The change of money, as rupees, annas, etc.; any coin.
Nāzar	...	...	Sheriff; an officer of a court who is charged with serving processes, etc.
Nēgalu	...	...	A plough.
Nikale	...	...	Final disposal.
Nimtān	...	...	Testing of survey.
Nirakh-Nāma	...	...	Price current of market rates, etc.
Nirakh	...	...	Rate; fixed price.
Nirgauti	...	...	Regulator and distributor of water of a tank or other irrigation work.
Nirsardi	...	...	Water rate fixed for the use of Government water for cultivation purposes.
Nirāvāri	...	...	Irrigation facility.
Niru Kaudāya	...	...	Water cess.
Nirūpa	...	...	A written order from a superior.
Nīra	...	...	Sight; examination of money.
Nuk-sān, Luksān	...	...	Loss; damage.
Nyāya	...	...	Justice.
Āle, wōle	...	...	A palmyra leaf, or manuscript written on palmyra leaf.
Omēdwār (Hindustāni)	...	...	Volunteer; a candidate for employment.
Oopulwut	...	...	Excess of moisture from surface springs.
Ootwaut	...	...	A sloping surface.
Paddhati	...	...	Usage; custom.
Padi, Palli	...	...	Land measure—314 square yards for wet and garden land, and 200 square yards for dry land.
Pādya	...	...	The first day of the bright or dark half of a lunar month.
Pahene sud	...	...	A survey statement showing old and new survey numbers, names of fields, description of tenure, names of occupants, etc.
Paigast	...	...	A detective.
Paikari	...	...	Temporary tenant, or one who resides in one village and cultivates land in another.
Paīmāyish	...	...	Measurement of land.
Pairu	...	...	Crop.
Paivaste	...	...	A year or a month before the last.
Paksha Pāta	...	...	Partiality.
Palla	...	...	One hundred seers.
Palkūta	...	...	A village school.
Pala	...	...	Waste land.
Pāta Kaudāya	...	...	A term applied to assessment paid on land left fallow or untilled.
Panchāyat, Panchāyat, Panchāyati, Panchāyattu.	...	...	A jury; a popular jury or committee of five persons; a Court of Arbitration usually consisting of five persons.
Panchama	...	...	Fifth day of the bright or dark half of a lunar month.

Panchānga	...	...	A calendar; an almanac.
Panch-Bāb	...	...	Five items of excise; toddy, liquor, tobacco, ganja and betel.
Panchēru	...	...	Five seers or 1/8 of a maund.
Pandit (Pundit)	...	...	A learned man; a physician.
Panju	...	...	A torch.
Pantōji	...	...	A village schoolmaster.
Parabhāri	...	...	Assignment; delivery.
Parambōku	...	...	Uncultivated land.
Pārkhavane	...	...	Paying into the treasury the revenue collected by village officers.
Pārpатыgāra Pārpātēgār	...	...	Manager or supervisor of a <i>chatram</i> or temple.
Parichāraka	...	...	A Brāhman temple-servant.
Pārikhettu	...	...	A deed of dissolution of partnership or of parcenership; a written receipt and acquittance.
Pasarsye	...	...	Market fees.
Pāshāndi	...	...	A heretic; a schismatic.
Patēla, Patel (Potail)	...	...	Headman of a village; the head of village police; in some parts of the State, rent-free lands are assigned for their support.
Patna Shetty	...	...	A title given to the principal men of towns next to the SHETTIES, a SHETTI being in some respects similar to a Mayor and a PATNA SHETTI to an alderman.
Patra	...	...	A bond.
Patana, Patna (Putten)	...	...	A town.
Patte (Putta)	...	...	A title-deed granted by Government.
Patte	...	...	Apprehension; detection.
Pattedār	...	...	A lease-holder.
Patti	...	...	A list.
Pāvu, Pau	...	...	One-fourth of a seer.
Pēshkār	...	...	A revenue officer, next in rank to the Amildar.
Pēshkash (Pēshcash)	...	...	The fixed payment made by zamindars to Government.
Pēte, Petta	...	...	Market; a trading town.
Pharār	...	...	A runaway.
Phasalu	...	...	Crop.
Phērist	...	...	An index; a list.
Phidvi	...	...	Servant.
Phiryād	...	...	A complaint.
Phod	...	...	Sub-dividing fields.
Phūtkūl Patrak	...	...	A detailed statement of occupancies, when two or more are included in one and the same Revenue Survey number, with area and assessment of each.
Phūt Māgani	...	...	Sub-division of a Māgani.
Pōtgi	...	...	Yearly remuneration of Patels and Shānbhōgs.
Pōt Pahnī	...	...	An inspection statement like PHANI SUD.
Pramāna	...	...	Oath.
Prānta, Prāntya	...	...	Locality.
Prativādi	...	...	Defendant.

Pubba	... ..	An asterism; A rain commencing between 28th August and 10th September.
Padavat	... ..	Investments, generally of money made by persons for the upkeep or maintenance of temples and other charitable institutions.
Pukka (Pucca)	... ..	Brick-built.
Pūjāri	... ..	The officiating Brāhman or priest of a temple.
Punarvasu	... ..	A rain commencing between 3rd and 16th July. Paddy, cotton, etc., are sown at this season.
Punya	... ..	Good lot or fortune.
Pūrvābhādra	... ..	A star; A rain commencing between 2nd and 14th March.
Pūrvāshāda	... ..	A star; A rain commencing between 26th December and 7th January. Cummin, coriander, tobacco, and other seeds are sown at this time.
Purvāna or Parvāna (Hindustāni)	... ..	An order; a grant or letter under royal seal; a letter of authority from an official to his subordinate.
Pushya	... ..	A star; a rain commencing between 17th and 30th July. Gram and mangoes are sown at this time.
Purōhita	... ..	A family priest.
Raddi, Reddi	... ..	A Telugu designation for the head man of a village, the head of a village police.
Raddu	... ..	In some parts of the State, rent-free lands are assigned for the support of Reddies.
Raft	... ..	Export.
Rahadāri	... ..	A passport; a permit.
Raiyat	... ..	A farmer or an agriculturist.
Raita, Raiyat, Ryot	... ..	A cultivator; a farmer.
Baitwāri	... ..	A term applied to tracts in which the revenue settlement is made by Government Officers with each actual cultivator without the intervention of a third party.
Rājināma, Rāzināma	... ..	A deed of consent; a compromise; an acquittance; settlement of a dispute; resignation of office.
Rakta Kodagi	... ..	Land given free of rent to the family of a person wounded or killed in battle.
Raktavan	... ..	An official whose business it is to supply ink.
Rāsi	... ..	A heap, generally of corn.
Rāsu	... ..	Agricultural cattle.
Rāsi, Rāji	... ..	Mutual consent.
Begada	... ..	Black cotton soil.
Rāsvut	... ..	Want of cohesion among the constituent particles of the soil arising from the presence of fine sand.
Rāvati	... ..	A star; a rain in some places commencing between 28th March and 11th April. The land is ploughed at this time.
	... ..	A detachment in the Mysore Horse.

Kisaldār	...	...	Officer commanding a detachment of cavalry troops.
Rivāz	...	...	An ancient rate of assessment on each particular field; rate usage.
Rōhini	...	...	A star; a rain commencing between 22nd May and 4th June. Paddy, cotton, etc., are sown during this rain.
Rōjināma, Rōju	...	...	Daily cash account of receipts and disbursements.
Rokka	...	...	Money; cash.
Rūbkāri	...	...	Extract from a resolution or a letter addressed by an equal to an equal.
Ruju	...	...	Proof; signature.
Rusum	...	...	An allowance; fee.
Rūba-Rūb (Roob Roob)	...	...	Personally; in person.
Sabab	...	...	An excuse; reason, cause.
Sādilwār	...	...	Contingent expenses; usually applied to money allowed for the purchase of stationery.
Sāgu or Sāguvali	...	...	Cultivation.
Sāguvali Chitu	...	...	Written permission to cultivate Government land given to a raiyat on his application to take up such land being accepted.
Sāguvalidār	...	...	Cultivator.
Sāguvali Kattes	...	...	Bunds (mostly made use of in the Chitaldrug District) intended to intercept and retain the surface drainage of fields, and thus to allow the soil to retain some pasture.
Sāguvali Patrik	...	...	Rent roll.
Sākshi	...	...	A witness.
Sāla	...	...	Debt.
Sālbasaal	...	...	Year after year.
Sāl Jhāda (Saljhāde)	...	...	Annual return or statement.
Sāmān	...	...	Baggage; articles.
Sambala	...	...	Pay; salary.
Sammat	...	...	A sub-division of a taluk, corresponding to a hōbli.
Sammati	...	...	Consent.
Sampādāne	...	...	A perquisite; allowance; gains not authorized.
Samasthāna	...	...	A district or territory belonging to a ruling chief; or a temple; a State.
Sandāya	...	...	Repayment.
Sāngada	...	...	A ferry-boat formed of two Rōnis joined together with a deck or platform upon them.
Sanad, Sunnud	...	...	A grant; a diploma; a charter; a patent; a document conveying to an individual employments, titles, privileges, offices, etc., under the seal of the ruling authority; a certificate or title deed.
Sandadār	...	...	One who holds a written authority or SANAD from the ruling power to hold land or office.
Sante	...	...	A fair; a market-place.
Sante Pasarāyi	...	...	Market fees.

Sarbarāyi	...	...	Furnishing supplies.
Sarāfa, Shrōff	...	...	An examiner and sorter of coins; money changer. An official employed in treasuries to test and count coins and render an account of the revenue, affix his seal to the bags of treasure despatched to the District or Huzur Treasury and be responsible for all deficiencies in the quality of the coin.
Sarhad	...	...	Boundary limit.
Sarkār, Circār	...	...	Government.
Sar Amin, Sur Ameen	...	...	A sub-magistrate.
Sarāsari	...	...	Average.
Sārāyi	...	...	Arrack.
Sardār	...	...	An officer; a European gentleman.
Sarvādhikāri	...	...	General agent.
Sarvamānya	...	...	Villages or lands, held free of all demands including sayar, mohatarfa, etc.
Sāvukāra, Sowcār...	...	...	A rich man, a merchant.
Sawār, Sowār	...	...	A trooper.
Sāyar	...	...	Transit duties; miscellaneous revenues.
Savāl	...	...	(i) Bidding at an auction sale (ii) Question.
Saza	...	...	Imprisonment.
Sékada	...	...	Percentage.
Sēr, Seer	...	...	Grain measure—Rs. 84 in weight, or 1·68 pints. A weight—24 tolas.
Sērvēgāra (Sērvēgār)	...	...	A chief herdsman in the Amrut Mahal.
Sātuve	...	...	A bridge.
Shaka	...	...	Era; especially of the era of Śālivāhana, commencing A.D. 78.
Shālabhōga, Shāubhōg	...	...	Village accountant; with hardly an exception, Shāubhōgs are of the Brāhman caste. The office is hereditary in common with all the other village officials. In some places they hold land free of rent, and in others on light assessment. In some few places, a fixed money allowance is given. In all instances, there are certain fixed fees payable to them in money or in kind by the raiyats.
Shanabu	...	...	Hemp used in making a coarse cloth called gōni.
Shāsaua	...	...	A stone slab or brass or copper plate on which memorial inscriptions, grants to temples, etc., are recorded.
Shēkdār	...	...	Revenue officer in charge of a hōbli or subdivision of a taluk.
Shēndi	...	...	Toddy.
Shetti	...	...	A title borne by Kōmati and Lingāyat merchants.
Shikmi	...	...	As a revenue term, it applies to a subordinate tenure in which the holder pays his revenue, or his share of it, through some other person to the Government.
Shukmidār	...	...	A subordinate cultivator.
Shinast (Hindustāni)	...	...	Impaired; requiring repairs.

Shilku	...	...	Balance; remainder.
Shirastadār, Sheristadār	...	...	Head of a revenue or judicial office.
Shist (Sistu)	...	...	The fixed standard rate of land, exclusive of other imposts, assessment of tax. (Sthala rivāz—the ancient rate of assessment on each particular field).
Shivāyi Jama	...	...	Miscellaneous receipts credited to Government.
Shrāya (spelt also Srāya)	...	...	Improvement of land by cultivation. A tenure on progressive rental; progressive rental for improvement of land, or rent commencing at a low rate and increasing gradually year by year till the maximum limit is attained. Waste lands granted to raiyats undertaking to reclaim it from jungle and bring it under cultivation, upon leases with progressive increasing rents.
Shrōff	...	...	See Sarāfa.
Shrōtriyadār	...	...	The holder of a village, or a certain extent of land granted on easy rent in perpetuity, or for a limited number of lives (generally as a reward for public service) to Brāhmins only.
Sibbandi	...	...	An establishment.
Silēdar, Silahdār, Silladār	...	...	A lancer; a trooper.
Silsila Banjar	...	...	Immemorial waste land.
Sisht-Bāki	...	...	A balance of revenue uncollected from the person from whom due, in contradistinction to Daat-bāki, a balance collected but not brought to the account of Government.
Soppina Bettas	...	...	Lands held free by raiyats to enable them to use the leaves and rotten wood therein for purposes of manuring their garden and rice lands.
Srimukha	...	...	A communication received from heads of Mutts.
Subedār, Soobahdār	...	...	A provincial governor; a native collector in charge of a taluk.
Sud	...	...	A tabular statement.
Suggi	...	...	Harvest time.
Sukāliga, Sukāligaru	...	...	A tribe resembling gipsies who wander about and earn a livelihood as carriers; sometimes called Brinjaris or Banjaras.
Sulāvani	...	...	The hearing of a case; personally explaining a case.
Sunka	...	...	Toll; octroi; custom.
Supāri	...	...	Arecanut.
Suphardu	...	...	Possession; care.
Tābedāri	...	...	Subordinate service.
Tagāde	...	...	Importunity in urging the settlement of a claim or payment of a debt; dunning.
Tagair	...	...	Dismissal from service.
Taggu	...	...	Dearness; high price.
Tahanāma	...	...	An agreement.



Takāvi (Tuccāve)	...	Advance of money made by Government to (i) land owners or cultivators for the improvement of their land, or (ii) poor cultivators by way of assistance to carry on their cultivation. Recoverable advances made to raiyats to enable them to cultivate.
Tākhit (also Tākid)	...	An order or direction issued to subordinates.
Tākhta	...	An abstract statement; a summary or total.
Tākid, Tākhit	...	See Tākhit.
Takarār, Takarār	...	Dispute; disputed, contested case.
Tāku	...	A certain portion of land, generally applied to fields.
Talārā, Talavāra	...	Village watchman and scout, whose duty is to give information to officers, etc., to guide travellers, etc., his only remuneration being the grant of a small extent of rent-free land. In some villages where there is no Talārī the duties are performed by the Tōti, his deputy.
Talāv	...	Tank.
Talāv Amāni	...	Tank not belonging to any particular village.
Tālūk, Tālūg, Tālook	...	A division of a district under the management of an Amildar.
Tāmbra Shāsana	...	Grant or inscription engraved on copper-plates.
Tammadi	...	The officiating priest of a pagoda.
Tamosūku	...	A bond; a written document.
Tankasāle	...	A mint.
Tapasini	...	Examination of classers' tests.
Tappāl	...	Post.
Tappe	...	Relay or set of bullocks or bearers posted for travellers.
Tapsil	...	Detail.
Taradūd	...	Adoption of prompt measures.
Tari	...	Wet, i.e., irrigated land.
Tārik	...	Date.
Tasdik	...	The annual allowances made by Government to temples, <i>chatrams</i> , etc.
Tāvu	...	A place.
Tazaviz	...	Endeavour; effort.
Toppa	...	A raft.
Tēru	...	An idol car.
Tevari, Tevaru	...	Division between the fields; a border or small bank of grass bounding a field, commonly called bund or bandou.
Thāna, Thāne	...	A police station.
Thpu	...	A decision.
Tirve	...	Land-tax.
Tola	...	A rupee weight—1140 part of a pound avoirdupois.
Tōpu	...	A grove of trees, generally called Tope.
Tōpā	...	A class of bearers.
Tōra	...	A garden.

Tōti	...	...	A menial among the village servants; a deputy talāri, who is employed to watch the crops from the growing crop to the granary.
Tūbu	...	...	The sluice of a tank or reservoir.
Tukadi	...	...	District.
Udave	...	...	Jungly tract fit for coffee plantation, a term used in Nagar and Hassan.
Ukkada (Ookad)	...	...	A station at the side of a road where tolls are collected.
Uleme	...	...	Land given to a sub-cultivator.
Ulamedār	...	...	A sub-cultivator.
Ūligadavaru	...	...	Peons.
Umbali	...	...	A village or plot of ground free of rent.
Umbalidār	...	...	The holder of a rent-free village or land.
Umbli Lands	...	...	Inām lands given to persons from whom generally some service, real or nominal, is expected (as indeed was originally the case with nearly every description of Inam).
Umēdvār	...	...	(See Omēdvār) A volunteer; a candidate for employment; one who works without pay in a hope of ultimately gaining a situation.
Ūru	...	...	A village; a country.
Uttāra, Uddhāra	...	...	Remission of land-rent on account of imperfectly ripened crops from inclemency of season and failure of rain. In Nagar, it is used for Ināmti.
Utār Patrika	...	...	A survey record or account, showing whether a particular land is entitled to irrigation from a tank or other source.
Vadda, Woddar	...	...	A tank digger; a worker in stone.
Vādi	...	...	Plaintiff.
Vahivet	...	...	Useful procedure.
Vaidya	...	...	A physician.
Vaja	...	...	Reduction; deduction.
Vaisākhi Phasal	...	...	The first crop which is generally reaped in May or June, the rice being sown in December or January.
Vakālat Nāma	...	...	Power of attorney.
Vakil	...	...	An agent; attorney.
Vākmūla, Vānmūla...	...	...	A deposition.
Vāлага Uttāra	...	...	Rent-free land granted to musicians.
Valase	...	...	Fugitives; people moving in masses from alarm or fear of an invasion.
Vāra	...	...	Tenure of land, the half of the produce of which is given to the landlord instead of rent.
Vāragāra	...	...	A sub-lessee who gives half the produce of the land he cultivates to the owner.
Varāha	...	...	The coin called a pagoda.
Vārasdār	...	...	Claimant.

Varga, Warg	... ..	... Literally account; a ledger; a farm or holding having a separate number in the revenue accounts. There are sometimes two or three or even more holdings in one VARGA.
Varga	... ..	... Holding of raiyats in the Malnād or hilly taluks of the Nagar Division, situated in the plateau of the Western Ghats.
Vargadār	... ..	... A lease-holder (in Nagar); in other parts of the province the term means a transferee; corresponds to Khātedār.
Vargūvargi	... ..	... Transfer.
Vargarāzināma	... ..	... Relinquishment of land in favour of another.
Vartamāna	... ..	... News; information.
Vartaka	... ..	... A merchant.
Varushāsana	... ..	... Annual allowance.
Vasha	... ..	... Possession; care; charge.
Vasūl	... ..	... Collection; receipts.
Vāyide	... ..	... An instalment; a term.
Vichārane	... ..	... An inquiry.
Vichalige	... ..	... The sixtieth part of a Ghalige or Indian hour.
Villed-ele, Vilyad-ele	... ..	... Betel-leaf.
Visa	... ..	... A sixteenth part of anything.
Visha-Hāku	... ..	... To poison.
Vivara	... ..	... Particulars.
Vrittidār	... ..	... Proprietor of small grants of land free of rent, or on a light rent, to Brāhmanis only.
Vyāpāra	... ..	... Trade.
Vyājya	... ..	... A quarrel; a law suit.
Walsur	... ..	... Soil with a mixture of sand.
Wasūl Bāki	... ..	... Statement showing full particulars of each occupant's entire holdings under the old and new systems.
Wolāgra	... ..	... Internal; home produce.
Wola-Sāguvalidār...	... ..	... Sub-cultivator.
Wottu	... ..	... Total.
Yādāst, Yādāstu, Yādi	... ..	... A memorandum.
Yajamāna	... ..	... Master; lord; owner; proprietor; husband.
Yāla, Yēla	... ..	... An auction.
Yedagai...	... ..	... A member of the left-hand caste; currier and shoe-maker.
Yele Hambu	... ..	... Betel-vine.
Yadaru Chitu	... ..	... A counterpart agreement; an engagement given by the tenant of an estate held under lease or mortgage to pay a consideration annually for its occupancy; also a writing given by the purchaser of land to the proprietor, engaging to give it back on receiving his money again within a stipulated period.

Yēta, Yāta	..	...	A lever for raising water from a well; a well from which water is raised by such an instrument. In some places, it is called a pikota.
Zamindāri	...	...	A term applied to tracts in which the land is held by Zamindārs.
Zamindār	...	...	A land owner.
Zirāti (also spelt Jirāyati)	...	...	Agriculture; cultivation; farming.
Zubān (also Jubāni)	...	...	Oral, as opposed to written.
Zulum (Hindustāni)	...	...	Tyranny; oppression; extortion.



## ADDENDA ET CORRIGENDA

<i>Page</i>	<i>Line</i>	<i>For</i>	<i>Read</i>
2	12	<i>Oegan</i> ...	began
9	21	<i>Kälachurya</i> ...	<i>Kalachurya</i>
379	Sub-heading	<i>Condition of finances</i> <i>a the time</i> ...	<i>Condition of finances</i> <i>at the time</i>
491	2	<i>Schawartz</i> ...	<i>Schwartz</i>
745	24-7	Delete these lines.	

## CORRIGENDA.

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xxxvi	14	620	628		
xxxviii	19	667	666		
xxxix	28	688	699		
xxxix	30	682	689		
xl	35	707	704		
xli	13	...	...	Sunkal Experimental.	Sunkal Tank Experimental.
xli	18	710	719		
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xlii	35	...	...	1915	1906

## ADDENDA.

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