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THE
EDUCATION, INDIA.



PROGRESS

OF

EDUCATION IN INDIA

1927-28 . 1931/32.

GEORGE ANDERSON, KT., C.S.I., C.I.E., M.A.,

Member of the National Commission for the Government of India

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PREFACE.

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G. ANDERSON,

*Educational Commissioner
with the Government of India*

NEW DELHI; }
The 20th March 1934. }

PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN INDIA

1927—32.

CHAPTER I.

MAIN FEATURES AND STATISTICS OF THE QUINQUENNium.

(i) *Poverty and disturbance.*

The Review of 1917—22 was prefaced by the remark that the period opened "with a flood of enthusiasm which would have swept all children of school-going age into school, but closed with an ebb of reaction and doubt which sought to empty the schools even of their voluntary attendance."¹

The Review of the subsequent quinquennium (1922—27) was written in a far more optimistic strain :

"The general conditions prevailing in the period have varied considerably from those prevailing in the preceding quinquennium. The post-war economic distress has gradually disappeared and gradual financial improvement has been reflected in the accelerated rate of progress in the expansion of education. The non-cooperation movement, which cast a shadow over the closing years of the last quinquennium, had become almost a spent force by the end of 1922, and much of the ground that had been lost between 1920 and 1922 was regained during the following year. A period, which has witnessed great political changes, considerable economic improvement and the gradual cessation of non-cooperation activities, has also witnessed an exceptionally large increase in the number of schools and scholars, the inception of many new educational ventures, and the development and fruition of schemes initiated in the previous quinquennium.² The progress of education has been very satisfactory and bids fair for the future. The foundations of further advance have been laid."³

2. Unfortunately, the high promise which was held out five years ago has been far from fulfilment, and much that is recorded in this Review will appear disappointing. Economic distress, far exceeding in magnitude and intensity even that experienced in the post-war years, has intervened; expenditure has been cut down in all directions; the pace of expansion has been retarded; political life has been disturbed; communal bitterness has been accentuated.

¹ 8th Q. R., page 1.

² 9th Q. R., page 1.

³ 9th Q. R., p. 14.

This sad state of affairs has been brought into prominence in provincial reports.

The *United Provinces* record that

"the world-wide economic depression of the last two years, accentuated by widespread failure of crops due to drought and visitation of locusts, and a subversive movement directed against all constituted authority—all these have reacted against the progress of education. This is reflected by a slowing down of the rate of increase in enrolment, which had been so noticeable a feature of the preceding quinquennium. It is likely that the full effects of these adverse features have not yet been experienced, and that the next quinquennium will also be affected. Drastic retrenchment during the last two years has particularly affected the development of primary education and has prevented any further advance in the extension of compulsion in rural areas." ¹

Bengal has reported a similar tale of reaction :

"The period was disturbed by communal dissensions and by political agitation, which have had their repercussions on education. Communal troubles have produced a feeling of insecurity and have caused a temporary drop in certain areas ; political disturbances have undermined discipline and have affected numerical strength. But the most potent influence has been that of acute economic distress which has been chiefly responsible for the reduced rate of increase. Towards the end of the period, the spectre of retrenchment appeared again ; educational expenditure has been seriously curtailed ; and many projects which had received administrative sanction have had to be postponed." ²

This attitude of gloom is relieved by the observation that the "forces of conservatism are gradually weakening, and that changes in the social outlook of the people, such as found expression in the Sarda Act, have done much to encourage the diffusion of education, especially of girls." ³

The *North-West Frontier Province*, which had just begun to make up for a late beginning, has been similarly circumstanced :

"The five years from 1927 to 1932 are years covered by a comprehensive five-year programme of educational expansion. During the first three years there was very considerable expansion, which would have been even greater for the whole period, had not the last two years been unfavourable both financially and politically, and had not the financial depression compelled Government to its great regret to abandon the programme planned for the fifth year so far as boys' schools were concerned." ⁴

Bihar and Orissa have also written in a pessimistic strain :

"The fall in the number of schools and pupils started in the year 1928-29 as a result of the financial stringency of local bodies, and was accentuated in 1931-32 by the economic depression which ultimately compelled Government to reduce the primary education grant by ten per cent. It is not possible to forecast the future with any degree of certainty. It is increasingly apparent, however, that if progress is to be maintained, it is essential to try and make existing schools more efficient without extra expense, as suggested by the Auxiliary Committee of the Statutory Commission." ⁴

The *Central Provinces* stress the unfortunate effects of the civil disobedience movement :

"The progress of education was seriously retarded by the civil disobedience movement of 1930. Attention has been invited to the fall in the number of pupils in 1930-31. This fall must be ascribed, in great part at any rate, to the civil disobedience

¹ U. P., page 1.

² Bengal, page 3.

³ N. W. F. P., page 1.

⁴ B. & O. (Resolution), page 5.

movement. The effects of this movement, however, were not limited to numerical retrogression ; even more serious was the breakdown of discipline which followed in its train." ¹

(ii) *The need of a continuous policy.*

3. In its review of the educational position in 1928, the Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission (commonly known as the Hartog Committee) emphasised the vital importance of defining a well-conceived and effective policy of advance :

" We have no doubt that more and more money will be gladly voted for education by the legislatures of India, but the improvement and expansion of education do not depend merely on money. Money is no doubt essential, but even more essential is a well-directed policy carried out by effective and competent agencies, determined to eliminate waste of all kinds. We were asked to report on the organisation of education. At almost every point the organisation needs reconsideration and strengthening; and the relations of the bodies responsible for the organisation of education need adjustment." ²

In making these observations, the Committee had in mind, in particular, the lack of a proper co-ordinating authority in the Government of India ; the weakness and isolation of headquarters staffs in the provinces ; deteriorating standards of inspection ; imperfect and inadequate arrangements for the training of teachers ; and, above all, an absence of suitable control and supervision of the educational activities of local bodies.

4. The Hartog Committee were engaged mainly in reviewing the measure and manner of educational progress covered by the political reforms which were inaugurated in 1921 ; and, as has been suggested, conditions during that time were generally favourable to a rapid advance. Indeed, in some respects, the years between 1922 and 1930 form a period which may well be regarded as perhaps the most inspiring in the annals of Indian education.

A burst of enthusiasm swept children into school with unparalleled rapidity ; an almost childlike faith in the value of education was implanted in the minds of the people ; parents were prepared to make almost any sacrifice for the education of their children ; the seed of tolerance towards the less fortunate in life was begotten ; ambitious and comprehensive programmes of development were formulated, which were calculated to fulfil the dreams of a literate India ; the Muslim community, long backward in education, pressed forward with eagerness to obliterate past deficiencies ; enlightened women began to storm the citadel of old-time prejudice against the education of Indian girls ; Government, with the full concurrence of Legislative Councils, poured out large sums of money on education, which would have been regarded as beyond the realm of practical politics ten years previously.

5. Unfortunately, many of these golden opportunities were lost through inability to guide this spirit of enthusiasm into fruitful channels. Though appreciative of the rapidity of the advance, the Hartog Committee were constrained to comment adversely on much that was misguided and wasteful :

" Throughout the whole educational system there is waste and ineffectiveness. In the primary system, which from our point of view should be designed to produce literacy

¹ C. P., page 7.

² Hartog Report, page 346.

and the capacity to exercise an intelligent vote, the waste is appalling. So far as we can judge, the vast increase in numbers in primary schools produces no commensurate increase in literacy, for only a small proportion of those who are at the primary stage reach Class IV, in which the attainment of literacy may be expected. In one province, despite a very large increase in the number of primary schools and pupils and in expenditure the number of pupils who reached Class IV was actually less by nearly 30,000 in 1927 than it was ten years previously. It is to be remembered that, in present conditions of rural life and with the lack of suitable vernacular literature, a child has very little chances of attaining literacy after leaving school; and, indeed, even for the literate, there are many chances of relapse into illiteracy.

"The wastage in the case of girls is even more serious than in the case of boys. The disparity in education and literacy between women and men, far from decreasing by the effort made, is actually increasing. The disparity between the wealthier parts of the country and the poorer parts also tends to increase.

"In the sphere of secondary education there has been an advance in some respects; notably in the average capacity of the body of teachers, in their improved conditions of service and training, and in the attempt to widen the general activities of school life. But here again there are grave defects of organisation. The whole system of secondary education is still dominated by the ideal that every boy who enters a secondary school should prepare himself for the university; and the immense numbers of failures at matriculation and in university examinations indicate a great waste of effort. Such attempts as have been made to provide vocational and industrial training have little contact with the educational system and are therefore largely infructuous. Many of the universities and colleges show marked improvement in their methods of teaching and in the amount of original work which they have produced; and in some of them there is undoubtedly a better training for corporate life than formerly. But the theory that a university exists mainly, if not solely, to pass students through examinations still finds too large acceptance in India; and we wish that there were more signs that the universities regarded the training of broad-minded, tolerant and self-reliant citizens as one of their primary functions. They have been hampered in their work by being overcrowded with students who are not fitted by capacity for university education and of whom many would be far more likely to succeed in other careers."

6. The sudden and disastrous change in financial and other conditions, the adverse effects of which began to be felt in 1930, was unexpected; and those responsible for the charge of education, mainly in consequence of the weaknesses in organisation which were described by the Hartog Committee and which still remain largely uncorrected, have found it difficult to adapt themselves to new and uncongenial conditions. Though there are signs of improvement in certain directions, it is none the less difficult to find in provincial reports a reasoned account of the principles which should have guided a policy of retrenchment. In a spirit almost of panic, wholesale reductions have been made by rule-of-thumb methods and by percentage reductions with the result that good and bad together have been thrown indiscriminately into the abyss. A well-directed policy of retrenchment would have resulted in the cutting away of the dead wood and ineffective expenditure, which have hitherto obstructed the salutary and economical growth of education.

7. Many have declaimed, for example, *against a reckless and impetuous multiplication of primary schools*. The Bengal report is emphatic on this point:

"The number of schools has increased, largely as a result of individual initiative, but there has been no effective control over them by local authorities, and there are about twice the number of primary schools as are actually necessary.... Schools of a very low grade, schools with only one teacher, teachers without a living wage, teachers without

proper training, schools under no adequate control, schools with no effective inspection—these are the problems we have to face.”¹

Yet the report does not reveal any resolute or organised attempt to deal with this alarming waste of public money, even at a time when effective means of spreading education were being ruthlessly cut down. Indeed, “the number of boys’ primary schools increased during the period from 38,187 to 43,718, an increase of 5,531 schools or 14·4 per cent. In the previous quinquennium, the increase was only 2,572 schools or 7·2 per cent.”²

Even more wasteful is *the continuance of the three-class primary school*. The Bengal report, after quoting the opinion of an inspector of schools that “about two-fifths of the children in the infant class are not ready for school at all—they are at school merely to be out of the way at home”,³ recorded the view that the upper primary schools have greater retaining power than the lower primary schools (with only three classes) and that “in spreading literacy the lower primary schools are almost wholly useless.”³ Yet these “almost wholly useless schools” still persist, even during a time of relentless retrenchment.

The alarming inefficiency of many primary schools is reflected in Table LXXI on page 160, which shows the large percentage of pupils who still attend such schools, although they are too advanced in years to benefit by the instruction.

In his quinquennial report for 1922-27, the Director of Public Instruction, Bihar and Orissa, drew attention to another illustration of unnecessary expenditure which results from the *growing tendency towards communal separatism*:

“There is a movement for substituting for the village school a variety of schools intended for the benefit of particular communities. We are now reaching a stage when each village wants a primary school, a maktaba and a pathshala. In addition, it is claimed that even at the lower primary stage separate schools are necessary for girls, and also in many places separate schools for children of the depressed classes. Thus, in the poorest province of India, we are asked to provide five primary schools for each village.”⁴

Unfortunately, these words of warning have passed unheeded even during a time of acute financial stringency. In his recent report the Director has stated that

“the remarks which I made five years ago are still applicable. Bihar and Orissa is a poor province and cannot afford extravagances; and communal schools are of the nature of extravagances. Apart from the question of cost these extravagances are not always beneficial, for many of the teachers of maktabas and pathshalas are notoriously unable to teach subjects other than literature.”⁵

Again, it has been noted in previous reports and reviews that *an excessive number of communal secondary schools* in the Punjab has resulted in extravagant competition, often in loss of discipline and in reduced efficiency; yet no reference is made in the Punjab report to any bold and concerted attempt to remedy this inadvisable form of expenditure.

Another illustration of unregulated waste is the *rapidly increasing number of students* who throng the colleges and the upper classes of high schools, many of whom are incompetent to benefit by such instruction; hence the alarming increase of unemployment among the middle classes. Particular attention is directed to Table XXXIX on page 101, which shows the alarming

¹ Bengal, page 31.

² Bengal, page 20.

³ Bengal, page 24.

⁴ B. & O. (1927), page 62.

⁵ B. & O., page 53.

number of pupils who are unduly prolonging their literary studies in high schools. As remedies for this wasteful practice, the Hartog Committee recommended¹ (a) the retention in middle vernacular schools of more of the boys intended for rural pursuits, accompanied by the introduction of a more diversified curriculum in those schools; and (b) the diversion of more boys to industrial and commercial careers at the end of the middle stage, for which provision should be made by alternative courses in that stage, preparatory to special instruction in technical and industrial schools. This important matter will be discussed in greater detail later; it will be sufficient here to lament the fact that, apparently, no province has considered the present time of acute financial depression as suitable for diverting students from the universities.

These illustrations of unregulated waste (which will be developed in greater detail in subsequent chapters) show that the path of an educational reformer is beset by many obstacles. A reform which may appear obvious is not necessarily easy of attainment. Education is an integral part of family and national life; it is linked to, and bound by, forces over which it has little or no control. Political and communal considerations, vested interests, intense and often misguided loyalties, poverty, disease, social customs, religious controversy, all stand in the way.

8. Periods of prosperity and of adversity have each their peculiar problems, but these rapid alternations between comparative wealth and abject poverty, between comparative peace and violent disturbance, add very considerably to the already difficult task of administering education. There is always a danger that, in times of prosperity, the rush of expansion will be so overwhelming that there is little time in which to think out correct principles of advance; that, in times of adversity, the outlook will appear so unpromising that it seems almost futile to ponder over proposals for the next advance. But times of adversity as well as those of prosperity demand a well-thought out policy, whether by retrenchment or by expansion.

The times are critical; great and far-reaching schemes of political advancement are in the making. The educational systems of India need to be recast and adjusted to the requirements of new conditions. India will need all that her schools and universities can give. Deeper thought and more strenuous effort are required to eliminate 'wastage' from the primary system. Literacy may not be essential to the recording of a vote, but none the less a representative form of government depends for its success very largely on widespread literacy. It is also for schools and colleges to provide suitable and inspiring training for those who will be expected to take a leading part in moulding the destinies of the India of to-morrow. India needs an educational policy, which can be adapted to changing conditions and will be strong enough to withstand the strain alike of rapid expansion and of financial curtailment.

(iii) *Schools and pupils.*

9. The Hartog Committee observed that "when an educational system is young and undeveloped, it tends to expand more rapidly than by arith-

metical progression. The larger the number of educated people, the stronger becomes the demand for education. Since nearly three millions of pupils were added between 1922 and 1927, it is probable that if no financial or other checks come into operation, four or five millions more will be added between 1927 and 1932."¹

The Quinquennial Review of 1922-27 was similarly optimistic:

"The progress made during the quinquennium can be appreciated by the fact that, while prior to 1922, it took 42 years to increase the enrolment by less than 6.5 millions, it has taken only five years since 1922 to increase the total enrolment by over 2.75 millions. Over one quarter of the present enrolment has been contributed during the last five years."²

10. The following extracts from the general tables included in the second volume of this Review indicate that the large numerical advance, which was anticipated five years ago, has not been realised.

TABLE I.

Total number of institutions (recognised and unrecognised) and pupils.

	1917.	1922.	1927.	1932.
Institutions	192,755	208,106	246,264	257,792
<i>Increase</i>	15,351	38,158	11,528
Pupils	7,851,946	8,381,350	11,157,496	12,768,537
<i>Increase</i>	529,404	2,776,146	1,609,041

Though therefore the number of additional institutions amounted to 38,158 in the 1922-27 quinquennium and to 15,351 in the previous quinquennium, it was only 11,528 during the quinquennium under review. But an increase in the number of institutions is not necessarily a sign of healthy and economical progress; it may be the reverse. There should at least be a commensurate increase in the number of pupils.

In 1917-22, an increase of 15,351 institutions was accompanied by 529,404 additional pupils, or an average of 35. In 1922-27, an increase of 38,158 institutions was accompanied by 2,776,146 additional pupils, or an average of 73. In the quinquennium under review, an increase of 11,528 institutions was accompanied by 1,609,041 additional pupils, or an average of 140.

11. The times have been so abnormal, and conditions at the end have differed so vitally from those at the beginning of the quinquennium that the figures for each of the five years are of importance.

¹ Hartog Report, page 29.
M180EHL

² 9th Q. R., page 11.

TABLE II.

Number of institutions and pupils in each year of the quinquennium.

Year.							Institutions.	Pupils.
1926-27	246,264	11,157,496
1927-28	254,724	11,775,222
1928-29	258,618	12,166,104
1929-30	260,946	12,515,126
1930-31	262,068	12,639,086
1931-32	257,792	12,766,537

The rate of increase in the number of institutions was thus comparatively uniform during the first four years of the quinquennium. Then, all of a sudden, an annual increase of between two and three thousand schools was replaced by an actual decrease of twice that amount.

These figures indicate both the magnitude and the abruptness of the decline. What is even more significant (and welcome) is that, in spite of a reduction of over 4,000 schools in place of an increase of 3,000 schools, there was actually an increase of over 77,000 pupils during the last year of the quinquennium. In other words, the development of the better schools outpaced the elimination of the weaker schools.

The abruptness of the decline suggests, however, that this measure of consolidation was dictated by financial necessity rather than by any premeditated change of policy. This concrete illustration of the value of consolidation should result in a further strengthening of the system in the years to come. There is evidence that in many provinces this hopeful and helpful indication is being appreciated.

12. The following Tables give the figures for recognised and unrecognised institutions separately.

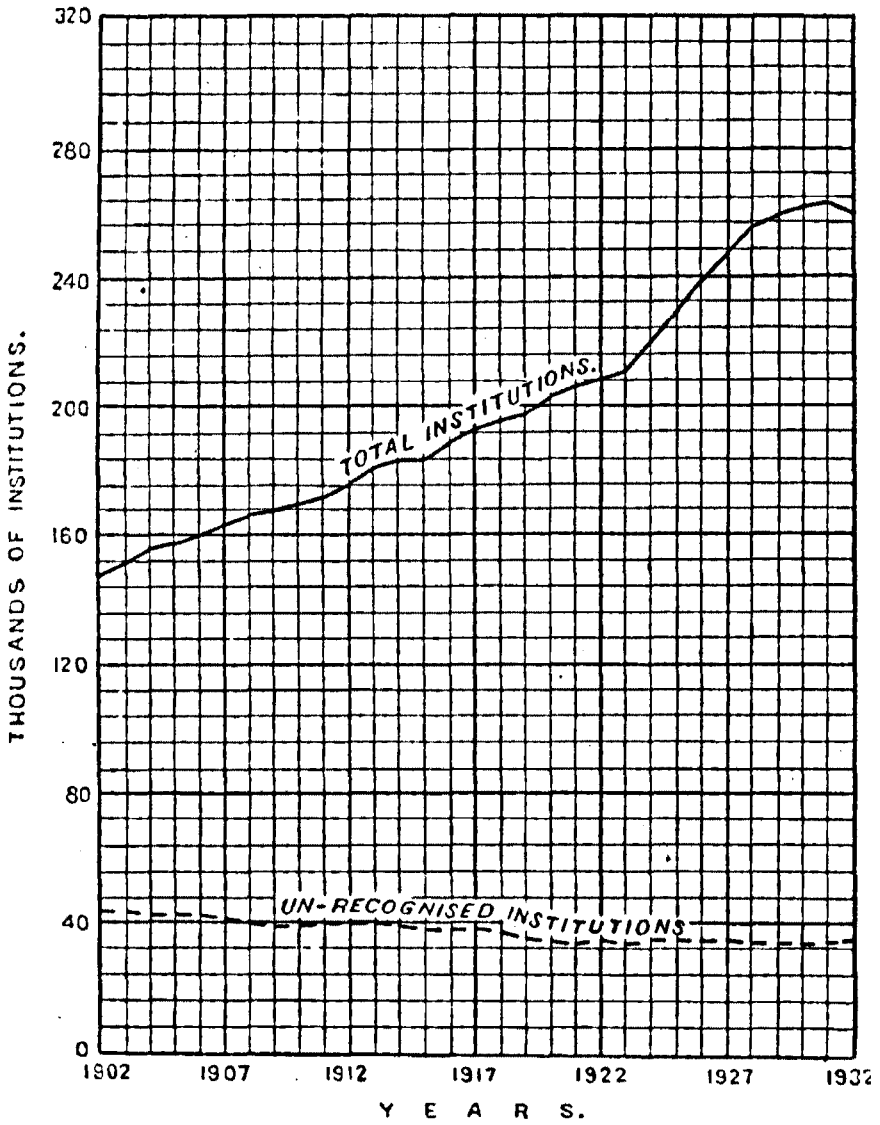
TABLE III.

Total number of recognised educational institutions and their enrolment.

	1917.	1922.	1927.	1932.
Total number of recognised institutions.	154,952	173,311	211,043	222,304
Increase	18,359	37,737	11,756
Total number of pupils in recognised institutions.	7,207,308	7,742,225	11,529,350	12,122,466
Increase	534,917	2,787,025	593,116

FIG. I.-

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN BRITISH INDIA.



(To face page 8.)

TABLE IV.

Total number of unrecognised institutions and their enrolment.

	1917.	1922.	1927.	1932.
Total number of unrecognised institutions.	37,803	34,807	35,216	34,988
Increase or decrease	-2,996	409	-228
Total number of pupils in unrecognised institutions.	644,638	639,125	628,146	644,071
Increase or decrease	-5,513	-10,979	15,925

These figures throw light on the position of unrecognised schools in the educational system of India. In the quinquennium of 1917-22, a reduction of 2,996 in the number of these schools was accompanied by a decrease of 5,513 in the number of pupils; in the quinquennium of 1922-27 (a period of abnormal expansion), a slight increase of 409 in the number of schools was accompanied by a large decrease of nearly eleven thousand in the number of pupils. On the other hand, during the quinquennium under review a decrease of 228 in the number of schools was accompanied by a comparatively large increase of nearly sixteen thousand in the number of pupils.

The deduction to be drawn from these disconcerting variations would appear to be that though unrecognised schools possess little educational value and their elimination need not cause any anxiety, a certain number of them are appreciated and should receive encouragement.

13. The provincial figures disclose considerable variations, not only in the actual rate of progress but also in the general trend of policy between the provinces.

TABLE V.

Total number of recognised institutions by provinces.

Province.	1922.	1927.	1932.	Increase between 1927-1932.	Increase between 1922-1932.
Madras	37,290	50,943	53,547	3,604	16,257
Bombay	13,310	14,819	15,962	1,143	2,652
Bengal	51,929	58,833	67,407	8,574	15,478
United Provinces	18,559	22,068	23,521	1,453	4,962
Punjab	7,920	13,860	12,000	-1,860	4,080
Burma	7,180	6,885	7,304	419	124
Bihar and Orissa	25,965	31,495	29,037	-2,458	3,072
Central Provinces	4,921	5,187	5,336	149	415
Assam	4,745	5,331	6,594	1,263	1,849
North-West Frontier Province	792	747	987	240	195
Minor Administrations ..	700	880	1,115	235	415
Total for British India ..	173,311	211,043	222,810	11,762	49,499

There has thus been a slackening in the rate of expansion in all provinces, except in *Bengal* and *Assam*. In two provinces there has been an actual decrease in the number of schools.

The considerable decline of 1,860 institutions in the *Punjab* is explained by a drop of 3,179 in the number of special schools, which were almost entirely schools for adults. "Schools of this type were not making satisfactory progress; and the time, money and energy spent on adult education were not wholly justified."¹

Bihar also reports a decline of 2,458 schools, which is thus accounted for:

"In the year 1924, Government had called upon all district boards to revise their primary education programmes, and in the three years ending 1925-26 had given them large new recurring grants. The effect of the new grants was to render possible a large increase in the number of schools; and many boards and individuals, encouraged by this and by the request to frame programmes, opened schools more rapidly than was prudent in the hope that further grants would follow. After 1925-26 Government found it impossible to make further recurring grants, and many schools thus imprudently opened had necessarily to be closed. Taken as a whole, the figures for 1931-32 appear to show that boards have found out how many schools they can afford to finance, that the superfluous unaided schools are dropping out, and that pupils from the latter are joining other schools."²

In these two provinces the pinch of poverty has had salutary effect, and opportunity has been taken to reduce the number of ineffective and uneconomical schools.

On the other hand, an increase of 8,574 schools in *Bengal* is surprising in view of the observation already quoted that "there are about twice the number of primary schools as are actually necessary."³

14. The following Table classifies schools according to management. There has been an increase of about 8,000 in the number of institutions managed by local bodies as against an increase of about 5,000 in aided institutions and a decline of about 2,000 in unaided institutions.

¹ Punjab, page 6.

² B. & O., page 51.

³ Bengal, page 31.

TABLE VI.
Institutions classified according to management.

Type of Institutions.	1926-27.					1931-32.				
	Publicly managed institutions.		Privately managed institutions.		Total institutions.	Publicly managed institutions.		Privately managed institutions.		Total institutions.
	Government.	Board.	Aided.	Unaided.		Government.	Board.	Aided.	Unaided.	
1. Recognised Institutions.										
Universities	14	..	14	16	..	16
Arts colleges	60	2	142	28	232	66	2	145	30	243
Professional colleges	45	1	22	9	77	48	1	16	9	74
Secondary schools	599	4,225	5,246	1,268	11,338	660	5,960	5,619	1,502	13,741
Primary schools	2,692	62,436	109,253	14,967	189,348	2,747	71,799	113,700	13,224	201,470
Training schools	401	96	193	5	695	419	74	127	14	634
Special schools	260	3,168	4,258	1,658	9,344	321	722	4,412	1,171	6,626
Total	4,057	69,928	119,128	17,935	211,048	4,261	78,558	124,035	15,950	222,804
2. Unrecognised Institutions	43	114	35,059	35,216	..	83	124	34,781	34,988
GRAND TOTAL	4,057	69,971	119,242	52,994	246,264	4,261	78,641	124,159	50,731	257,792

MAIN FEATURES AND STATISTICS OF THE QUINQUENNIAL.

15. The enrolment figures for all recognised institutions compare unfavourably in most provinces with those of the previous quinquennium, but all provinces, except *Bihar and Orissa*, record an increase. This may be regarded as generally satisfactory in view of the abnormal nature of the times.

TABLE VII.

Total number of pupils in recognised institutions by provinces.

Province.	1922.	1927.	1932.	Increase between 1927-32.	Increase between 1922-32.
Madras	1,745,518	2,440,874	2,877,504	436,630	1,131,986
Bombay	896,877	1,116,170	1,300,648	184,478	403,771
Bengal	1,835,017	2,289,876	2,720,061	430,185	885,044
United Provinces	965,059	1,280,450	1,457,997	177,547	492,938
Punjab	552,622	1,036,087	1,200,800	114,513	647,978
Burma	345,665	443,302	525,013	81,711	179,348
Bihar and Orissa	763,277	1,065,496	1,033,634	-26,862	275,357
Central Provinces	330,631	391,623	450,494	58,871	119,813
Assam	208,014	270,433	348,306	77,873	140,292
North-West Frontier Province	49,395	63,076	83,918	20,842	34,523
Minor Administrations	50,100	81,863	119,291	37,428	69,191
Total for British India	7,742,225	10,529,350	12,122,466	1,593,116	4,330,241

The record of *Bihar and Orissa* is of particular significance :

"The figures for the number of pupils in 1931-32 are somewhat surprising. In 1927-28 the number rose by 38,567, but in the next three years it fell by 65,094, leaving a net loss of 26,527. In the present economic situation I had anticipated a further fall, and the rise by 12,856, which reduces the fall for the five years to 13,671, is distinctly satisfactory."¹

The indication is that, in view of the welcome increase during the last year of the quinquennium, even though the pinch of retrenchment was then felt to the utmost, the reduction in the number of ineffective schools has not only helped to stabilise the position and to render it more economical, but has also had no serious effect on enrolment. The pupils are going to other schools.

The comparatively small increase in the *Punjab* figures is accounted for by a drop of 85,667 in the enrolment of schools for adults.

The record of *Burma* was affected by the financial depression :

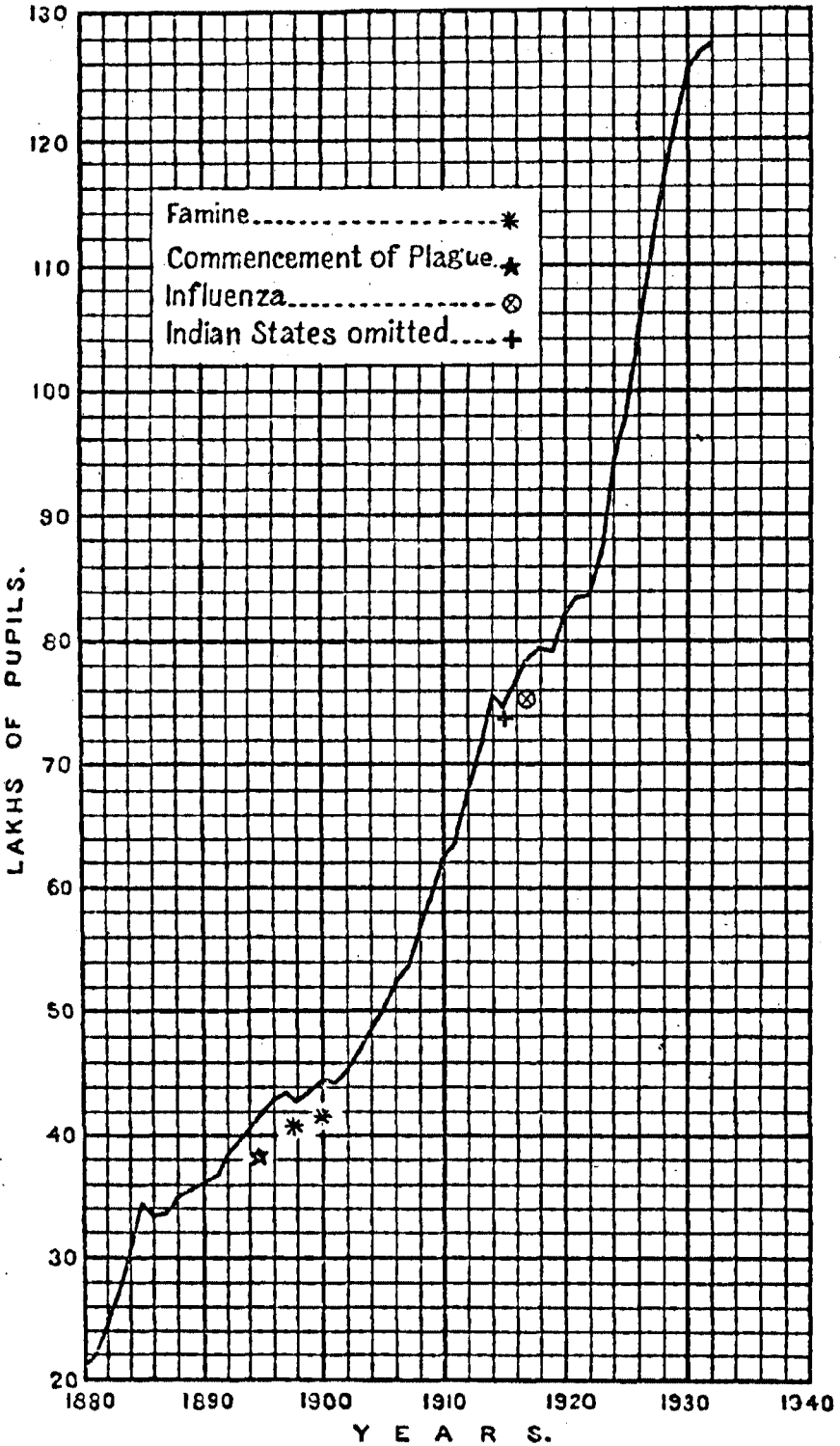
"The increase of 418 schools and 81,711 pupils during a quinquennium characterised by rebellion, earthquakes and severe financial depression may well occasion surprise, but there were no extraordinary economies during the first three years, and the effect of the extraordinary economies during the last two years is seen in the loss of 264 schools and 20,353 pupils in the last year of the period."²

¹ R. & O., page 6.

² Burma, page 1.

FIG. 2.

TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS UNDER INSTRUCTION IN INDIA.



(To face page 12.)

16. The value of the above Table is vitiated to some extent by the fact that enrolment in unrecognised institutions has not been taken into calculation. This is particularly the case in *Burma*, where as many as 202,393 pupils were enrolled in unrecognised institutions, which are usually of the monastic type. The following Table gives the total enrolment by provinces in all institutions, recognised and unrecognised.

TABLE VIII.

Total number of pupils in all institutions by provinces.

Province.	1922.	1927.	1932.	Increase between 1927-32.	Increase between 1922-32.
Madras	1,837,022	2,523,188	2,924,882	401,694	1,087,860
Bombay	958,392	1,151,428	1,335,547	184,119	377,155
Bengal	1,890,454	2,343,380	2,783,225	439,845	892,771
United Provinces	1,029,565	1,349,401	1,517,938	168,587	488,423
Punjab	628,690	1,182,736	1,333,567	150,831	706,877
Burma	562,625	645,972	727,406	81,434	164,781
Bihar and Orissa	810,382	1,108,494	1,094,823	-13,671	184,441
Central Provinces	333,303	399,289	459,942	60,653	126,639
Assam	216,218	288,620	372,318	83,698	156,100
North-West Frontier Province	53,914	69,718	88,469	18,751	34,555
Minor Administrations	62,785	95,270	128,370	33,100	65,585
Total for British India	8,381,350	11,157,496	12,766,537	1,609,041	4,385,187

17. Statistics regarding the distribution of pupils between the several stages of education are also important :

TABLE IX.

Pupils according to stages of instruction.

Stage.	1921-22.	1926-27.	1931-32.	Increase (+ or decrease (-)).
Collegiate stage--				
{ Arts and Science	45,175	70,428	79,139	+8,711
{ Professional	13,632	17,951	18,392	+441
High stage	218,696	277,970	313,714	+35,744
Middle stage	434,810	713,939	907,180	+193,241
Primary stage	6,897,233	9,120,458	10,532,358	+1,411,900
Special institutions	132,739	328,694	271,094	-57,510
Unrecognised institutions	639,125	628,146	644,071	+15,925
Total	8,381,350	11,157,496	12,766,537*	+1,609,041*

* Includes 589 pupils who were unclassified.

The only category, which shows a decrease is that of 'special institutions', though it is accounted for to some extent by the large reduction in the schools for adults in the *Punjab*.

18. It will also be convenient here to give a summary of the advance made by each community.

TABLE X.
Enrolment according to race or creed.

Community.	1921-22.	1926-27.	1931-32.	Increase between 1927-32.
Europeans and Anglo-Indians ..	44,638	47,292	48,801	1,509
Indian Christians	285,258	363,996	432,452	68,456
Hindus	5,342,968	7,046,745	7,832,512	785,767
Muhammadans	1,966,442	2,821,162	3,408,758	587,596
Buddhists	510,597	575,276	642,306	67,030
Parsis	17,070	19,529	20,399	870
Sikhs	154,379	190,336	35,957
Others	244,377	128,304	189,339	61,035
Total	8,381,350	11,157,496*	12,766,537*	1,609,041

* Includes pupils (813 in 1926-27 and 1,634 in 1931-32) who were not classified according to race or creed.

The *European and Anglo-Indian* community remains practically stationary in the matter of population. As the vast majority of the children are already at school, little variation in the figures can be expected.

The *Parsi* community which has always been prominent in education, both in school attendance and in works of philanthropy, is in a similar position.

The *Sikh* community is also progressive in its interest and support of education. In the *Punjab*, the *Ludhiana* district, in which Sikhs are predominant, held pride of place over all other districts in the last census figures for literacy.

19. A valuable criterion of progress is provided by the figures showing the percentage of the total population which is receiving instruction in schools and colleges, but the value of these figures is somewhat vitiated by the abrupt change in the basis of calculation caused by a new census. In the years immediately preceding a new census, the figures are flattering as the calculation is based on a census nearly ten years old.

According to the Census of 1921, the total population of British India was 247,333,423, composed of 127,044,953 males and 120,288,470 females. There were 164,288,307 Hindus and 59,490,754 Muhammadans.

According to the Census of 1931, the total population of British India had advanced to 271,780,151, composed of 140,075,258 males and 131,704,893 females. There were 176,565,883 Hindus and 67,068,184 Muhammadans. Thus, the new basis of calculation, which showed an increase of 24,446,728 in the population, affected adversely the percentage figures in comparison with the percentages recorded five years previously.

The following Tables show the rate of advance over a comparatively long period of time.

TABLE XI.

Percentage of total population receiving instruction in recognised institutions, by sexes.

	1917.	1922.	1927.	1932.
Percentage of males	4.85	5.04	6.91	6.96
Percentage of females	0.97	1.12	1.46	1.80
Percentage of total	2.96	3.13	4.26	4.46

TABLE XII.

Percentage of total population receiving instruction in all institutions (recognised and unrecognised), by sexes.

	1917.	1922.	1927.	1932.
Percentage of males	5.31	5.49	7.33	7.33
Percentage of females	1.03	1.18	1.53	1.89
Percentage of total	3.22	3.39	4.51	4.70

20. The Tables given below give for each province the percentage of population receiving instruction in (a) recognised institutions, and (b) in all institutions, unrecognised as well as recognised.

TABLE XIII.

Percentage of total population receiving instruction in recognised institutions, by provinces.

Province.	1917.	1922.	1927.	1932.
Madras	3.71	4.1	5.77	6.16
Bombay	3.76	4.6	5.77	5.95
Bengal	4.08	3.9	4.90	5.43
United Provinces	1.72	2.1	2.82	3.01
Punjab	2.15	2.7	5.25	5.09
Burma	3.25	2.6	3.36	3.58
Bihar and Orissa	2.31	2.2	3.13	3.58
Central Provinces	2.51	2.4	2.81	2.90
Assam	3.35	2.7	3.56	4.04
North-West Frontier Province	1.83	2.2	2.80	3.46

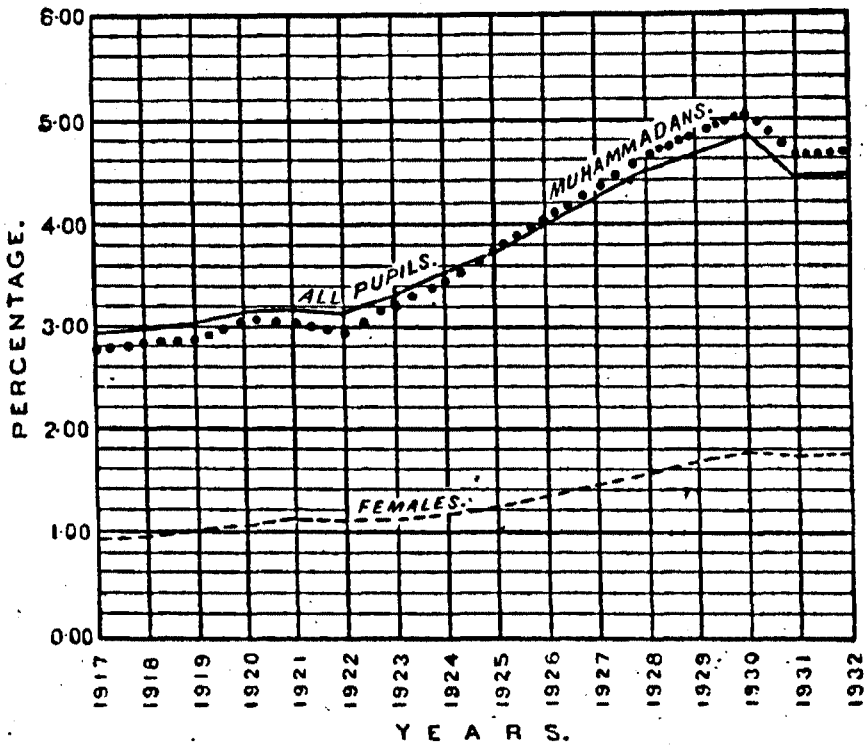
TABLE XIV.

Percentage of total population receiving instruction in all institutions (recognised and unrecognised), by provinces.

Province.	1917.	1922.	1927.	1932.
Madras	4.01	4.3	5.96	6.25
Bombay	3.96	5.0	5.95	6.11
Bengal	4.22	4.0	5.02	5.55
United Provinces	1.91	2.3	2.97	3.13
Punjab	2.43	3.0	5.71	5.61
Burma	4.89	4.3	4.89	4.28
Bihar and Orissa	2.45	2.4	3.26	2.90
Central Provinces	2.52	2.4	2.86	2.96
Assam	3.48	2.8	3.70	4.32
North-West Frontier Province	2.11	2.3	3.00	3.60

FIG. 3.

PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS TO POPULATION.
(RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS).



(To face page 16.)

(iv) Educational expenditure.

21. The figures below show the serious extent to which the financial shortage has reacted adversely on educational progress. Whereas educational expenditure of all kinds was increased approximately by Rs. 7 crores in the quinquennium of 1917-22, and by Rs. 6 crores in the quinquennium of 1922-27, the increase during the quinquennium under review dropped to Rs. 2.6 crores.

Bearing in mind the phenomenal increase in the number of pupils during the quinquennium of 1922-27, the additional income from fees amounting to about a crore in 1927-32 does not compare unfavourably with that of about Rs. 1½ crores in the previous quinquennium. Local bodies, which must have felt the adverse consequences of financial depression at least as much as other authorities, have none the less increased their educational expenditure by as much as Rs. 72 lakhs, as against Rs. 118 lakhs in the previous quinquennium. On the other hand, the additional contributions made by Government declined from Rs. 291 to Rs. 52 lakhs. There was also a serious drop in the amounts collected from 'other sources'.

TABLE XV.

Total expenditure on education by sources.

Year.	Expenditure from				Total.
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1916-17	3,91,62,853	2,23,17,618	3,18,71,138	1,95,31,459	11,28,83,068
1921-22	9,02,30,028	2,47,31,150	3,80,08,648	3,07,83,143	18,37,52,969
1926-27	11,93,32,864	3,65,91,114	5,21,27,191	3,77,96,413	24,58,47,572
1931-32	12,46,03,905	4,38,18,535	6,22,69,534	4,11,64,646	27,18,56,823
Increase between 1917-22	5,10,67,175	24,13,532	61,37,510	1,12,51,684	7,08,69,901
Increase between 1922-27	2,91,02,826	1,18,59,964	1,41,18,543	70,13,270	6,20,94,603
Increase between 1927-32	52,71,061	72,27,421	1,01,42,343	33,68,235	2,60,09,060

It was observed in the Review of 1917-22 that the War had an unfortunate reaction "on the economic condition in India. The rise in prices affected education in two ways. It resulted directly in the withdrawal of a considerable number of pupils whose parents could no longer afford to keep them at school ; to this cause, rather than to non-cooperation, may be assigned the fall in some provinces in the attendance at primary schools. But the effect of the rise in prices on educational finance was even more serious. It necessitated a general revision of the pay of the teaching staff, which absorbed the funds needed for educational expansion."¹

The quinquennium under review, like that of 1917-22, has been a period of great financial strain, but for reasons diametrically opposite to those which

¹ 8th Q. R., page 14.

obtained ten years ago. Low prices have had even more unfortunate effects than did the high prices of ten years ago. Parents, especially those belonging to the agricultural classes, have found it more and more difficult to support the education of their children; and provincial Governments, with their depleted revenues, have had to contract seriously their financial support of education.

22. The annual expenditure figures show the suddenness of the reaction. In the early years of the quinquennium, the amount of additional support averaged about Rs. 1 crore, but in the final year there was an actual decrease in expenditure by more than a crore of rupees.

TABLE XVI.
Total expenditure on education, annually.

Year.	Expenditure from				Total.
	Government Funds.	Board Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1927-28	12,66,92,478	3,78,88,437	5,44,71,633	3,92,26,271	25,82,78,819
1928-29	13,18,10,145	3,94,14,369	5,78,17,829	4,16,89,910	27,07,32,253
1929-30	13,25,38,044	4,24,65,600	6,04,61,368	3,88,17,006	27,42,82,018
1930-31	4,38,29,132	6,14,58,989	4,17,76,209	28,31,61,446	
1931-32	12,46,03,905	4,38,18,535	6,22,69,534	4,11,64,648	27,18,56,622

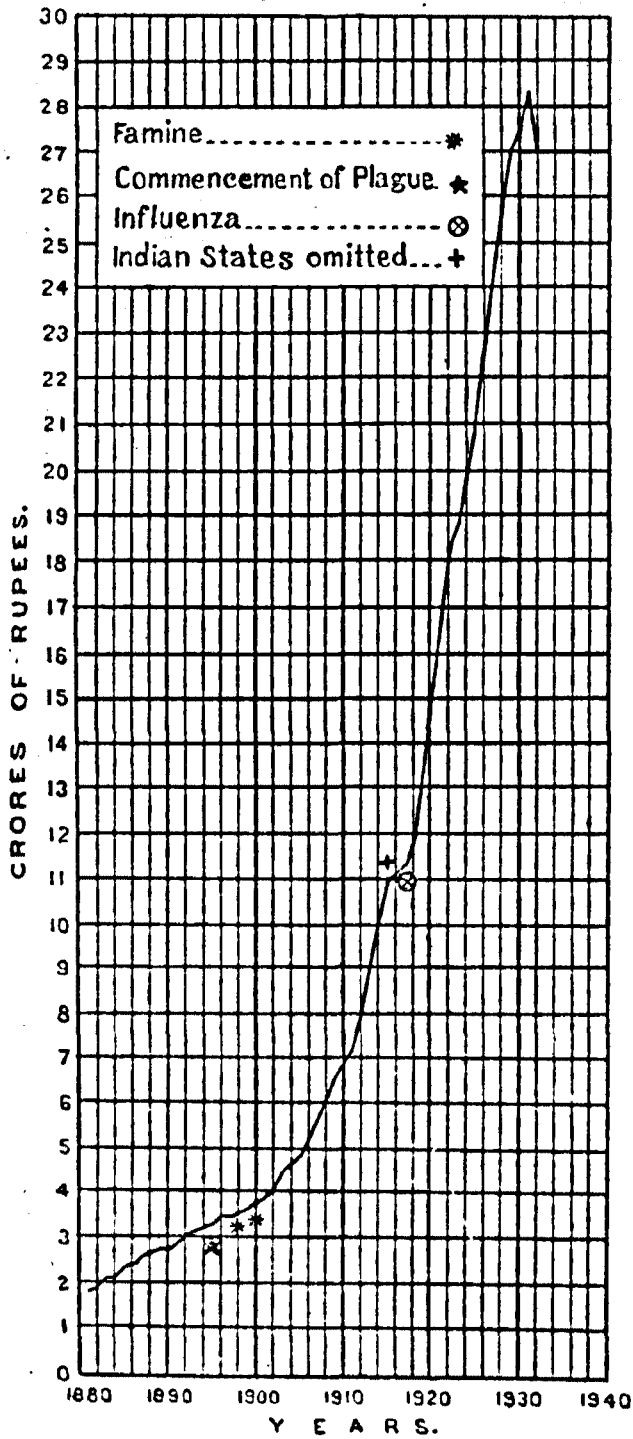
23. The provincial figures are also illuminating :

TABLE XVII.
Total educational expenditure by provinces.

Province.	1922.	1927.	1932.	Increase between 1927-32.	Increase between 1922-32.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	3,39,98,292	4,52,72,432	5,67,61,851	1,14,89,419	2,27,63,559
Bombay	2,96,02,944	3,82,63,286	4,90,40,549	17,77,263	1,94,37,605
Bengal	3,33,87,106	3,97,76,068	4,22,87,036	25,10,968	88,99,930
United Provinces	2,98,13,563	3,37,79,166	3,89,21,112	51,41,946	91,07,549
Punjab	1,89,62,287	2,87,65,763	3,08,31,143	20,65,380	1,18,68,856
Burma	1,01,64,870	1,93,83,804	2,11,11,085	17,27,281	1,09,46,215
Bihar and Orissa	1,15,16,347	1,77,42,059	1,73,91,805	-3,50,254	58,75,458
Central Provinces	81,26,933	1,13,63,933	1,03,79,760	-9,84,175	22,37,827
Assam	34,83,928	43,84,150	50,10,294	6,26,134	15,26,366
North-West Frontier Province.	17,39,504	20,76,785	27,21,862	6,45,077	9,82,358
Minor Administrations	29,57,195	50,40,126	64,09,135	13,69,009	34,42,940
Total for British India	18,37,52,989	24,58,47,572	27,18,56,622	2,60,09,050	8,81,03,633

FIG. 4.

TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION IN INDIA.



(To face page 18.)

The most notable feature of these figures is the continuous and almost unchecked progress shown by *Madras*, which recorded an increased expenditure of Rs. 1,12 lakhs in 1927 and one of Rs. 1,15 lakhs in 1932.

On the other hand, the position of *Bihar and Orissa*, unfortunate already, has been rendered still more unfortunate by the present financial depression, as educational expenditure suffered even a reduction during the quinquennium.

The *Central Provinces* which, again, has considerable lee-way to make up suffered a reduction of about Rs. 10 lakhs.

All other provinces were compelled to slacken their efforts very considerably, except the *United Provinces* whose expenditure was increased by about the same amount as in the previous quinquennium.

24. The next Table, which gives the measure of Government support to education, also discloses remarkable variations between provinces. Whereas the *Madras* Government increased its contribution from Rs. 202 to Rs. 255 lakhs during the quinquennium, the Government of *Bihar and Orissa* reduced its contribution from Rs. 72 to Rs. 55 lakhs; and the Government of the *Central Provinces* reduced its allotment by an even greater amount, from Rs. 71 to Rs. 47 lakhs. It is surprising that these two unfortunate provinces have done as well as they have in spite of this sudden and staggering blow.

The *Bombay* Government also reduced its educational budget by Rs. 8 lakhs but even this reduced amount was not far short of Rs. 2 crores, which still compares favourably with budgets of other provinces.

TABLE XVIII.

Government expenditure by provinces.

Province.	1927.	1932.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.
Madras	2,02,44,183	2,55,71,715	+ 53,27,532
Bombay	1,93,57,795	1,90,01,654	- 3,56,141
Bengal	1,47,94,686	1,44,46,851	- 3,47,835
United Provinces	1,95,88,185	2,17,97,033	+ 22,08,848
Punjab	1,51,17,231	1,64,92,681	+ 13,75,450
Burma	95,16,008	94,26,839	- 89,169
Bihar and Orissa	72,30,582	55,67,823	- 16,62,759
Central Provinces	71,73,592	47,62,227	- 24,11,365
Assam	25,20,623	23,82,606	+ 3,61,978
North-West Frontier Province	13,56,124	18,64,011	+ 5,07,887

25. The following Table, which gives the percentage of Government expenditure on education to the total budget expenditure does not disclose any remarkable variation, except that the financial support given to the

backward provinces of *Baluchistan* and the *North-West Frontier* is extremely meagre. Thus these provinces, already backward, will become more and more backward through financial neglect.

TABLE XIX.

Total provincial expenditure and expenditure on education from Government funds, 1931-32.

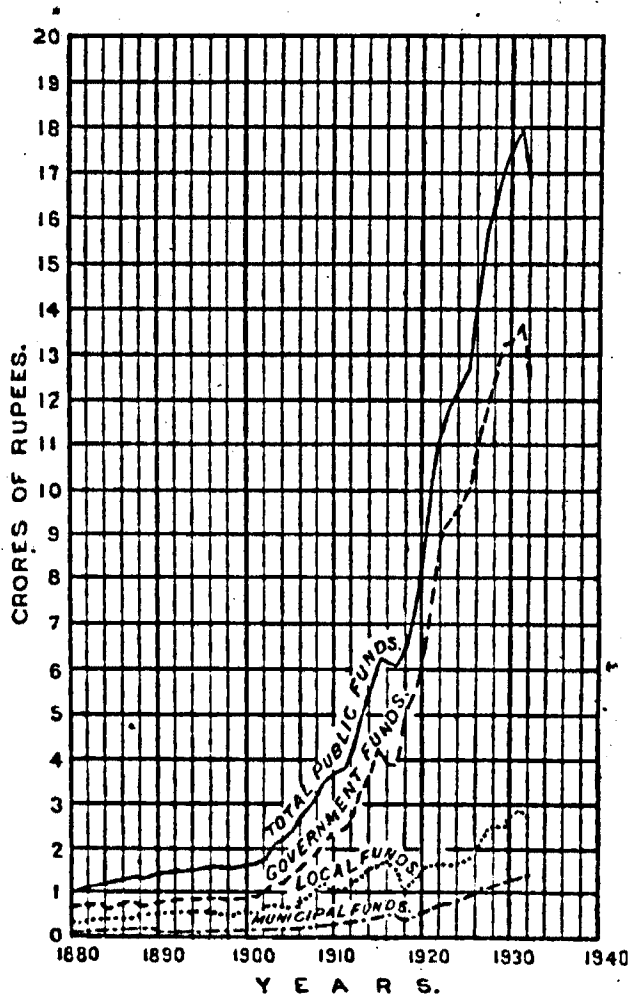
Province.	Total provincial expenditure.	Expenditure on education from Government funds.	Percentage of (3) to (2).
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
	Rs.	Rs.	
Madras	16,24,47,176	2,55,71,715	15.74
Bombay	15,29,38,534	1,90,01,654	12.42
Bengal	11,00,51,849	1,44,50,039	13.13
United Provinces	11,83,69,205	1,99,97,033*	16.89
Punjab	10,38,03,882	1,64,92,681	15.89
Burma	9,32,58,618	94,26,839	10.11
Bihar and Orissa	5,42,53,411	55,67,823	10.26
Central Provinces	4,57,64,790	47,62,227	10.41
Assam	2,47,72,884	23,82,606	11.64
North-West Frontier Province	3,58,47,000†	18,64,011	5.20
Delhi	96,54,037	11,57,081	11.99
Ajmer-Merwara	32,24,539	4,09,805	12.71
Baluchistan	96,83,300	3,06,944	3.17

* Excludes Government of India's recurring grants of Rs. 3 lakhs to Benares University and Rs. 3 lakhs to Aligarh University; also non-recurring grants of Rs. 6 lakhs to each of these Universities.

† Budget estimates. Actuals not available.

FIG. 5.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION.



(To face page 20.)

The following figures also suggest striking variations between provinces :

TABLE XX.

Total average annual cost per pupil in institutions for boys and girls, 1931-32.

Province.	Total cost per pupil in					
	Arts colleges.	High schools.	English middle schools.	Vernacular middle schools.	Primary schools.	All institutions.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	210.47	52.13	45.65	..	8.94	20.04
Bombay	221.25	74.78	51.34	..	17.94	29.98
Bengal	179.27	41.73	18.78	18.35	3.88	15.50
United Provinces ..	(a) 393.17	(b) 71.12	57.78	20.18	7.92	26.70
Punjab	187.40	46.02	30.85	13.77	9.97	25.70
Burma	511.06	77.64	98.37	19.46	8.44	40.20
Bihar and Orissa ..	338.69	49.52	21.91	17.19	6.45	16.70
Central Provinces ..	299.47	119.52	45.09	13.99	10.70	23.04
Assam	301.21	45.74	23.88	9.98	4.95	14.30
North-West Frontier Province.	445.72	47.41	32.02	17.74	12.89	35.05
Coorg	63.51	12.69	25.12
Delhi	197.07	74.36	32.91	26.10	18.46	56.46
Ajmer-Merwara ..	248.98	78.99	71.24	48.21	14.35	39.80
Baluchistan	64.16	55.21	23.53	27.88	67.59
Bangalore	171.33	84.22	42.23	18.94	16.51	60.75
Other Administered Areas.	..	95.23	61.23	27.68	16.96	60.02

(a) Includes the cost in Intermediate Colleges.

(b) Excludes the cost in Intermediate Colleges.

TABLE XXI.

Average annual cost per pupil to Government in institutions for boys and girls, 1931-32.

Province.	Cost per pupil to Government in					
	Arts colleges.	High schools.	English middle schools.	Vernacular middle schools.	Primary schools.	All institutions.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	65.37	12.45	14.67	..	4.83	9.02
Bombay	53.12	20.53	10.98	..	10.32	14.23
Bengal	70.94	8.59	1.86	3.12	1.27	5.30
United Provinces ..	(a) 198.00	(b) 38.68	22.94	11.29	5.16	15.00
Punjab	60.26	17.81	9.92	9.54	6.16	13.70
Burma	409.12	28.48	42.37	1.05	0.35	18.00
Bihar and Orissa ..	244.60	15.84	2.21	1.43	0.14	5.40
Central Provinces ..	192.31	49.01	18.73	5.14	3.89	10.57
Assam	230.92	26.33	7.22	3.82	3.14	8.20
North-West Frontier Province.	305.79	25.64	15.23	15.24	8.73	24.00
Coorg	45.24	6.44	14.28
Delhi	56.45	34.54	9.68	16.55	7.60	26.84
Ajmer-Merwara ..	158.55	33.22	27.73	33.81	5.30	19.43
Baluchistan	29.82	17.44	13.82	21.26	40.04
Bangalore	52.26	25.46	16.77	8.98	9.00	23.72
Other Administered Areas.	..	25.62	22.10	16.24	4.84	16.77

(a) Includes the cost in Intermediate Colleges. (b) Excludes the cost in Intermediate Colleges.

TABLE XXII.

Total average annual cost per pupil in institutions for boys, 1931-32.

Province.	Total cost per pupil in					
	Arts colleges.	High schools.	English middle schools.	Vernacular middle schools.	Primary schools.	All institutions.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	192.20	48.53	42.07	..	8.58	14.43
Bombay	221.25	70.46	48.13	..	17.2	29.34
Bengal	175.3	38.6	17.76	13.95	3.9	12.8
		(a)	(b)			
United Provinces ..	381.04	66.45	55.35	21.03	7.83	16.68
Punjab	183.93	44.22	29.51	13.61	9.81	21.03
Burma	511.06	73.21	97.10	19.46	8.26	24.32
Bihar and Orissa ..	337.34	47.67	21.33	16.67	6.32	12.80
Central Provinces ..	299.47	114.93	43.31	13.80	10.28	17.86
Assam	301.21	46.1	20.43	9.79	4.9	10.6
North-West Frontier Province.	445.72	49.29	31.99	17.77	13.97	26.99
Coorg	66.14	11.79	17.63
Delhi	196.40	72.18	31.64	19.37	16.06	39.81
Ajmer-Merwara ..	248.98	70.83	47.38	41.97	11.72	31.22
Baluchistan	64.16	43.95	62.37	28.13	47.05
Bangalore	171.33	87.11	38.01	16.39	15.96	40.01
Other Administered Areas	..	90.92	46.61	55.58	16.1	64.67

(a) Includes the cost in Intermediate colleges. (b) Excludes the cost in Intermediate colleges.

TABLE XXIII.

Average annual cost per pupil to Government in institutions for boys, 1931-32.

Province.	Cost per pupil to Government in					
	Arts colleges.	High schools.	English middle schools.	Vernacular middle schools.	Primary schools.	All institutions.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	55.55	9.70	12.38	..	4.77	6.74
Bombay	53.12	18.68	9.01	..	10.43	14.39
Bengal	66.8	7.1	1.33	1.17	1.3	3.8
United Provinces ..	(a) 191.32	(b) 36.98	20.14	11.48	5.27	10.11
Punjab	57.33	15.69	8.99	9.75	6.42	11.53
Burma	409.12	28.00	41.31	0.98	0.32	7.66
Bihar and Orissa ..	243.16	14.28	1.65	0.02	0.10	3.34
Central Provinces ..	192.31	48.17	18.23	4.76	3.16	7.79
Assam	230.92	25.5	4.59	3.78	3.1	6.1
North-West Frontier Province.	306.79	26.68	19.93	16.71	10.89	19.60
Coorg	50.27	5.21	10.02
Delhi	55.12	34.00	9.18	14.83	7.04	16.65
Ajmer-Merwara ..	158.55	32.70	14.29	32.57	5.50	15.77
Baluchistan	29.82	20.15	53.95	22.31	26.38
Bangalore	52.26	25.48	15.73	5.58	7.16	14.03
Other Administered Areas.	..	26.90	17.19	19.92	4.58	18.48

(a) Includes the cost in Intermediate Colleges.

(b) Excludes the cost in Intermediate Colleges.

The comparatively high cost of education in the North-West Frontier Province can be ascribed to sparsely populated areas, to the comparatively small number of pupils in the schools, and to other obvious causes. As will be pointed out later, Bombay, the United Provinces, the Punjab, and the Central Provinces depend very largely on publicly managed schools as against the stipendiary or privately managed schools which are generally in vogue in Madras, Bihar and Orissa, and Bengal; and this undoubtedly accounts for the higher cost per pupil in the former provinces. But the

most astonishing feature of these figures is the very low cost per pupil, which obtains in Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and Assam ; and particularly, the very inadequate support which is received from Government in these provinces.

26. The next Table shows the amounts spent on education according to objects. As was to be expected, money has been saved mainly by a largely reduced expenditure on buildings, the amount having declined from Rs. 277 to Rs. 181 lakhs. The only other item which shows an actual decrease in expenditure is that of training schools. This is scarcely the direction in which economy should have been effected. The small additional amount spent on inspection, is an ominous sign of reduced efficiency.

TABLE XXIV.

Expenditure on education according to objects.

	1926-27.			1931-32.			Increase (+) or decrease (—). Rs.
	For males.	For females.	Total.	For males.	For females.	Total.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
Arts colleges	1,40,00,253	5,84,665	1,45,84,918	1,59,99,733	6,61,779	1,66,61,512	+20,76,504
Professional colleges	73,96,426	2,39,366	76,35,792	78,31,648	3,06,514	81,38,162	+5,02,370
Secondary schools	5,74,54,320	87,40,070	6,61,94,390	6,97,73,540	1,15,26,519	8,13,00,059	+1,51,05,669
Primary schools	5,92,20,326	1,03,01,370	6,95,21,696	6,80,98,189	1,31,62,121	8,12,60,290	+1,17,38,694
Training schools	42,33,941	13,97,354	56,31,295	39,78,449	16,16,359	55,94,808	—36,487
Other special schools	1,09,31,947	7,29,290	1,16,61,237	1,19,49,646	10,50,719	1,30,00,365	+13,39,128
Universities	1,00,53,859		1,00,53,859	1,32,07,788		1,32,07,788	+31,53,929
" Direction	15,55,351		15,55,351	17,19,599		17,19,599	+1,64,248
Inspection	80,03,425	7,43,281	87,46,706	87,53,592	9,33,910	96,87,502	+9,40,796
Buildings, etc.	2,51,65,091	25,60,086	2,77,25,177	1,62,51,940	19,44,739	1,81,96,679	—95,28,498
Miscellaneous	1,80,89,710	44,67,411	2,25,37,151	1,74,65,800	53,00,201	2,27,66,001	+2,28,850
Total	20,44,75,439	2,97,62,923	24,58,47,572	22,01,02,517	3,65,02,861	27,18,56,622*	+2,60,09,050
	1,16,09,210			1,49,27,387			

* Includes Rs. 3,23,857 spent on Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education.

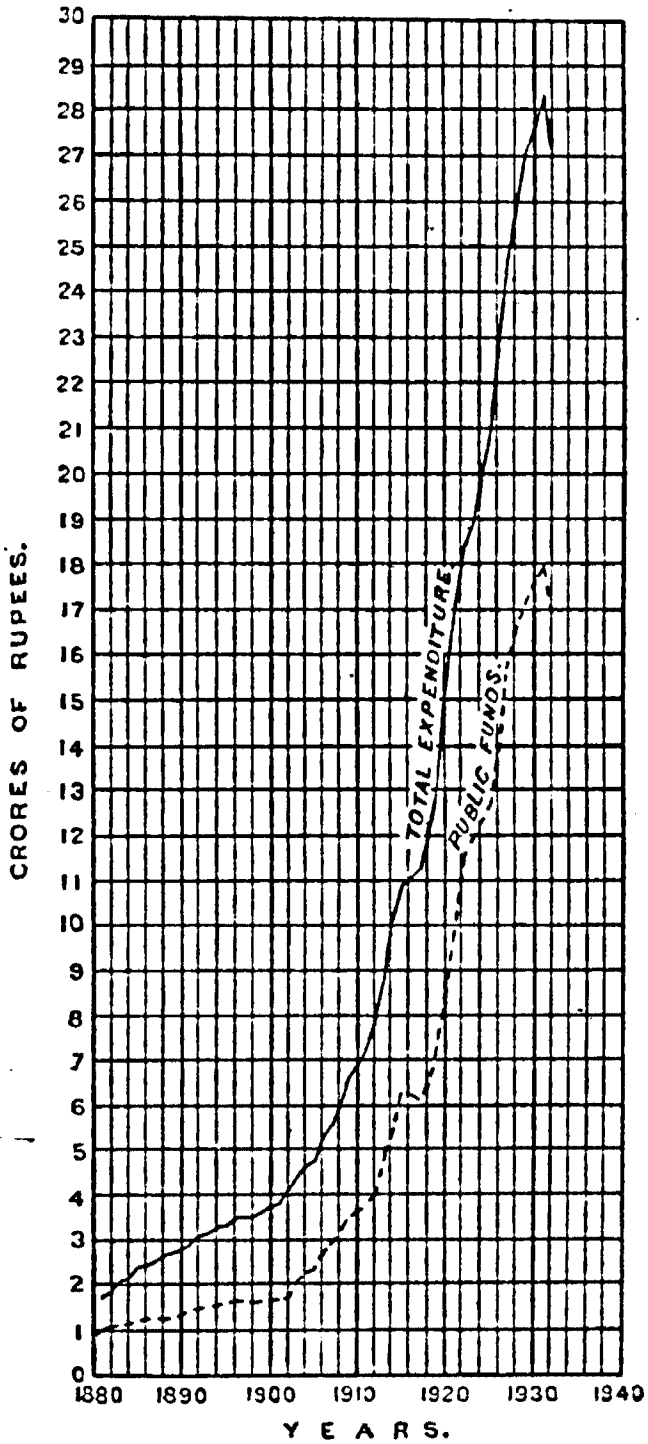
MAIN FEATURES AND STATISTICS OF THE QUINQUENNIAL.

(v) Variations between provinces.

27. It has been suggested that there is much variation in the rate of progress and in the measure of financial support in the several provinces. The following Table is valuable, as it gives in a compact form the main statistics which confirm this contention to a striking degree.

FIG. 6.

PUBLIC AND TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION.



(To face page 27.)

TABLE XXV.

Main statistics of enrolment and expenditure in 1931-32, by provinces

Province.	Population (in millions).	Enrolment in all institu- tions.	Percentage of boys at school to male popula- tion.	Percentage of girls at school to female popula- tion.	Total expenditure.	Government expenditure.	Average cost per pupil.	Cost per pupil to Govern- ment.
					Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	46.7	2,924,882	9.5	3.1	5,67,61,851	2,55,71,715	20.04	9.02
Bombay	21.9	1,335,547	9.07	2.83	4,00,40,549	1,90,01,654	29.98	14.23
Bengal	50.1	2,783,225	8.53	2.32	4,22,87,036	1,44,46,851	15.5	5.3
United Provinces	48.4	1,517,988	5.30	0.72	3,89,21,112	2,17,97,033	26.7	15.00
Punjab	23.6	1,333,567	8.82	1.85	3,08,31,143	1,64,92,681	25.7	13.7
Burma	14.7	727,406	6.81	3.01	2,11,11,085	94,26,839	40.2	18.00
Bihar and Orissa	37.7	1,094,823	5.15	0.67	1,73,91,805	55,67,823	16.7	5.4
Central Provinces	15.5	459,942	5.07	0.85	1,03,79,760	47,62,227	23.04	10.57
Assam	8.6	372,318	6.88	1.5	50,10,284	28,82,606	14.3	8.2
North-West Frontier Province	2.4	88,469	5.7	1.2	27,21,862	18,64,011	35.05	24.00

MAIN FEATURES AND STATISTICS OF THE QUINQUENNIAL.

With the highest percentage of both boys and girls at school to the total male and female population respectively and with rapidly increasing financial support, Madras seems to be the most happily placed of all provinces in India. It seems probable that the supremacy in education, which this province has gained in the past over other provinces on account of other reasons, will be increased still further by its more stable financial position.

At the other end of the scale is the recently constituted province of Bihar and Orissa, which for many years formed part of the Presidency of Bengal. The percentage of girls at school to the total female population is lower than in any other province; and the percentage of boys at school to the total male population is lower than in any other province except the Central Provinces. With this tremendous lee-way to make up, it is all the more unfortunate that Bihar receives so little financial support. Indeed, the Bihar Government contributes less per head of the school population than does the Government of any other province except Bengal. More and more is the gap, wide enough already, being widened between progressive and backward provinces.

28. In the pre-Reform days before 1921, when the Government of India played a prominent part in financing education and in defining educational policy, these financial inequalities were lessened to some extent by subventions from the Government of India; but with the steady growth of provincial autonomy, the poorer provinces have had to depend more and more on their own attenuated resources. Thus, in present circumstances, there must necessarily be a grave lack of uniformity in the speed of educational advance throughout British India, especially in primary education and the removal of illiteracy.

29. There are also wide variations between the provinces other than those of financial inequality and of the speed of advance. The old-time criticism of Indian education as being of a lifeless uniformity is now by no means justified. Since the time when in 1921 the Government of India divested itself of its control over education, each province has tended to go its own way and to develop its own peculiar characteristic features; and this tendency will doubtless be developed still further.

30. There is, first, considerable variation in the general scheme of school classes, and in the nomenclature by which each of these classes is known. For the sake of convenience and future reference, the useful diagram which has been included in previous Reviews has been brought up to date and reprinted on the opposite page.

The length of the course culminating in the Matriculation examination is by no means uniform in the provinces. Whereas there are twelve classes in some provinces, there are only ten classes in others. This disparity goes far to explain why Punjab students, in particular, often enter a university at an age earlier than elsewhere in India.

31. There is a more fundamental variation in classification, which is thus explained in the Bombay report :

"In this Presidency 'primary education' is defined as education given wholly through the vernacular in any of the prescribed vernacular standards....The primary course covers a period of eight years and consists of two stages—the Elementary or Lower Primary Stage (the infant class and Standards I-IV), and the Upper Primary Stage (Standards V-VII). In all other provinces, except Madras which follows the same classification as this Presidency, the three upper Standards (V-VII) are classed as 'Vernacular Middle', and the schools which teach these standards are classed as 'secondary' for the purpose of their General Educational Tables....There are fundamental reasons why the classification followed in this Presidency should be maintained. Primary schools in this Presidency (including Standards V-VII) represent a form of education which is self-contained and homogeneous, and is entirely separate in purpose, outlook and technique from the English education given in secondary schools."¹

As a result of this variation in classification many of the General Tables should be read with caution. As pupils in the upper vernacular classes are classified as 'primary' in Madras and Bombay, whereas in other provinces they are classified as 'secondary', an unduly optimistic impression is given of the development of primary education in these two provinces in comparison with other provinces.

32. There are also variations in the policy regarding the use of the vernacular medium of instruction and the stage at which the study of English as a subject should be introduced in anglo-vernacular or English schools.

It is being realised more and more that, in consequence of the early development of English as the medium of instruction in English or anglo-vernacular schools and of the unfortunate neglect of vernaculars as subjects of study, Indian pupils only too often are unable to think or to express themselves in any language. In order to counteract this unfortunate tendency, the introduction of English as the medium of instruction has been postponed until a later stage with the dual hope that pupils will make more rapid progress in the ordinary school subjects by learning them through the medium of a language familiar to them ; and that, as a result, more time will become available for the study of English as a subject. The matter will be dealt with in greater detail in Chapter IV.

33. The main point of difference in the provincial systems, however, lies in the neglect or encouragement of vernacular schools. The vernacular system of education differs from the English or anglo-vernacular system, not merely in the medium which is employed, but even more in its objective. Its aim should be to provide a sound general education complete in itself, which, if properly regulated, would do much to build up a spirit of leadership and initiative in the countryside.

¹ Bombay, page 89.

The comparative advantages of the vernacular and anglo-vernacular systems of education will be discussed later. It is sufficient here to point out that the stronghold of the vernacular system is in the west and north-west; that of the English or anglo-vernacular system is in the east and north-east of India.

34. Another point of difference between the provinces lies in the extent in which segregate schools are encouraged for the accommodation of children of particular communities. Prominent in this category of institution are the madrassahs, maktabas and mulla schools for Muslims, and pathshalas for Hindus; there are also large numbers of monastic schools in Burma. In one sense, these institutions are interesting relics of the old indigenous system of oriental learning; in another sense, they often provide a very inadequate grounding for pupils who have to make their way in the unfamiliar conditions of modern life. They are also largely responsible for serious over-lapping and consequent extravagance in the educational system.

The stronghold of the indigenous systems is in Burma, Bengal and Sind, and to a lesser extent in Assam, Bihar and the United Provinces. As many as 261,317 out of a total of 727,406 pupils in Burma are enrolled in monastic schools; as many as 927,397 out of a total of 2,783,225 pupils in Bengal are enrolled in madrassahs and maktabas.

In the Punjab, on the other hand, schools of this type scarcely exist, and in Madras they are infrequent. But in Madras and Bombay Presidencies large numbers of segregate primary schools, which provide education largely of the normal type, are maintained for the benefit of the Muslim community.

35. There are also wide differences in the general organisation of schools. In Madras, Bengal, Assam and Bihar, the vast bulk of primary schools are under private management, in very many cases the management consisting solely of the school teacher, who regards the school as his personal property and may (or may not) receive a small subvention in grant-in-aid. The persistence of this system is largely responsible for the grave difficulties encountered by these provinces in making an equitable and economical distribution of schools throughout the province; and also for the ephemeral nature of many schools. On the other hand, there is the possible advantage that the teacher (especially the right type of teacher) becomes rooted in the village so that his relations with parents and pupils are more friendly and intimate than are those of a teacher employed by a public authority, who is liable to transfer at almost a moment's notice.

In the Punjab, Bombay, the North-West Frontier Province, the United and Central Provinces, on the other hand, the vast bulk of the primary schools are maintained by local bodies. In consequence, the administration and organisation of the primary system is not attended by many of the obvious difficulties which are inseparable from the rival system.

SCHEME OF SCHOOL CLASSES.

MADRAS.		BOMBAY.		BENGAL.		UNITED PROVINCES.		PUNJAB.		BURMA.		BIHAR & ORISSA.		CENTRAL PROVINCES.		ASSAM.		N. W. F. PROVINCE.	
Vernacular.	Eng-lish.	Vernacular.	Eng-lish.	Vernacular.	Eng-lish.	Vernacular.	Eng-lish.	Vernacular.	Eng-lish.	Vernacular.	Eng-lish.	Vernacular.	Eng-lish.	Vernacular.	Eng-lish.	Vernacular.	Eng-lish.	Vernacular.	Eng-lish.
Primary Stage																□			
Middle Stage—																			
Vernacular as medium of instruction																□			
English as medium of instruction in some subjects																□			
High Stage—																			
Vernacular as medium of instruction																⊗			
English as medium of instruction in some subjects																⊗			
English as medium of instruction																⊗			
English teaching begins																-E			
Passage to English schools																→			

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

Madras.—A pupil can join any class or form of a secondary school for which he is found fit. There is no restriction whatever in passing from an elementary (vernacular) school to a secondary (English) school. There is no departmental rule determining the class in which a pupil may begin the study of English. In secondary schools, it is usual to begin English in Class IV; an earlier commencement of the study of English is discouraged. In some elementary schools, English is taught in Standard IV and higher standards if a teacher qualified to teach English is available.

Bombay.—In some selected vernacular schools, arrangements are made to teach English in Standards V, VI and VII by attaching separate classes, which are known as "English Classes". In addition, there are special classes in English for boys, who have passed the Vernacular Final examination in which a special and intensive course is followed to enable them to complete Anglo-Vernacular Standards I—III in one year.

Bengal.—In Bengal, pupils who have read English as an optional subject in a vernacular school may pass from class VI of such a school to Class VII of a high English school, while others pass to Class V.

United Provinces.—The bottom three classes have been detached from Government high schools. They now form a distinct class of schools known as "preparatory schools".

Punjab.—In the Punjab also the tendency is to detach from each Government

Burma.—In Burma, a pupil desiring to join an English school from a vernacular school may be admitted to any class in the latter in which he is found fit. There is no hard and fast rule as to the medium of instruction in Anglo-Vernacular schools, but instructions have been issued that the use of English should be introduced gradually. There are also national Anglo-Vernacular schools which are classified as

preparatory (Forms I—VII) and high (Forms VIII—XI). Pupils from Form VI of these schools prepare for the Government Anglo-Vernacular Middle School Examination and those from Form XI for the Anglo-Vernacular High School Examination. Promotions in national schools are made half-yearly.

Bihar and Orissa.—In Bihar and Orissa, those who have not read English as an optional subject in the vernacular school pass into Class IV of an English school but in some schools they pass into a class (below Class VIII) in which special instruction in English is given to such boys. Those who have read English may pass into Classes VIII, VII, VI or V according to the progress they have made in that language.

Central Provinces.—In the Central Provinces, English may also be taken as an optional subject in a vernacular school from Class V.

Assam.—In Assam, primary classes are not attached to any high or middle English schools. English has been introduced as an optional subject in middle vernacular schools.

***Special Classes.**—In the United Provinces, Punjab, and the North-West Frontier Province, there are two Special Classes attached to certain Anglo-Vernacular schools. Boys who have passed the Vernacular Final Examination and desire to enter an Anglo-Vernacular school are required to spend two years in these classes, mainly in the study of English, before proceeding to Class VIII in the United Provinces, and Class IX in the Punjab and the North-West Frontier Province. In the Punjab if a boy desires to go over to an Anglo-Vernacular school after passing Class VI of a vernacular middle school, he can do so by studying for one year in the first special class after which period he can join Class VII of an Anglo-Vernacular school; pupils in vernacular middle schools who have passed in optional English in the Vernacular Final Examination can proceed direct to Class IX. In the North-West Frontier Province, a pupil having completed the lower middle school course, after receiving instruction in the special class attached to a high school for one year and having successfully completed the course may join Class VII of that school.

TABLE XXVI.

Primary schools, by management, 1931-32.

Province.	Publicly managed schools.		Privately managed schools.		Total.
	Government.	Board.	Aided.	Unaided.	
Madras	1,727	20,579	29,302	766	52,374
Bombay	37	11,988	2,646	180	14,851
Bengal	107	4,492	48,248	8,315	61,162
United Provinces	29	16,458	4,872	143	21,502
Punjab	17	5,563	1,513	145	7,238
Burma	29	30	4,703	..	4,762
Bihar and Orissa	18	3,486	21,210	2,857	27,571
Central Provinces	253	3,951	200	162	4,566
Assam	274	4,303	704	610	5,891
North-West Frontier Province	643	50	17	710
Coorg	14	89	6	..	109
Delhi	134	88	..	222
Ajmer-Merwara	160	13	62	27	262
Baluchistan	78	6	5	..	89
Bangalore	1	26	53	..	80
Other Administered Areas ..	3	38	38	2	81
British India	2,747	71,799	113,700	13,224	201,470

36. Wide distinctions have arisen between provinces in the university system. Until the period of the War, universities in India were confined to the five old-established universities of the affiliating type. The system was therefore rigid and uniform, all universities and colleges being very similar in type. Within recent years, however, a large number of new universities of varying types have been created. Some of them are of the unitary type, in which colleges, if they exist at all, perform only subsidiary teaching functions; others, again, are of the affiliating type, though certain improvements have been grafted on to them.

Thus, there is a pleasing variety of experiment, but there are some disconcerting features in these innovations. Each university now tends to be self-contained, ambitious to provide teaching up to the highest grades in a very large number of subjects, regardless of the contributions made by other and neighbouring universities. As a result, there is much overlapping and extravagance.

37. This rapid growth of provincial particularism is calculated to develop a spirit of inquiry and initiative, but should not be carried to excess. It is scarcely conducive to the right development of education in India that some parts of the country should be making rapid strides, while others, as a result of their poverty, have not even the opportunity of making any appreciable advance. Provinces are also becoming more and more exclusive in their activities, and the experiences of one province are not readily available to other provinces. A rigid and narrow provincialism is a danger to proper development.

CHAPTER II.

GOVERNANCE AND ADMINISTRATION.

(i) *The Central Government.*

The full effect of the political reforms of 1921 was insufficiently realised at the outset.

The Review of 1917-22 expressed the opinion that—

"By declaring education to be 'provincial' the Government of India Act did little more than state and define the existing position. Although the Central Government had in the past convened educational conferences and issued circulars and resolutions on educational policy, provincial Governments had been responsible not only for the administration of local institutions but also for the development of their own educational systems. For example, in questions such as the control and finance of secondary education, the provision of free primary education and even the introduction of compulsory education, provincial Governments had been free to adopt, and had in fact adopted, different policies. It was only when legislation was involved (and education in India is singularly unfettered by legislation) or when appointments were to be made to the Indian Educational Service, or when schemes were proposed involving large expenditure, that a provincial Government required the authority of the Government of India. The effect of the 'provincialisation' introduced by the Reforms has been chiefly financial."¹

2. Many advantages have resulted from the transfer of responsibility from the Government of India to provincial Governments; in the development of initiative and the desire to experiment, in the closer contact with public opinion, in the removal of delays caused by the necessity of referring all important questions to a distant authority. But there are certain disadvantages, which were scarcely noticed at the time.

The two following extracts from provincial reports which were reproduced in the Review of 1917-22 are of particular interest. Had the warnings contained in them not passed unheeded, the dangerous form of provincial exclusiveness which has been discussed in the previous chapter would have been counteracted.

"One of the main objects of the Reforms was the substitution of the direct and personal control of the Minister (who is responsible to the Legislative Council) for the distant and official control hitherto exercised by the Government of India. The change has been beneficial, except in one respect. There is a growing danger of an exaggerated form of provincialism in education which, if not checked at the outset, may have disastrous results. No Indian province can live unto itself. Universities of the modern type transcend provincial limits. Indian scholars, proceeding overseas, carry with them the reputation of India in the world of learning. There is also the danger of a serious and extravagant overlapping between the several provinces, especially in the region of higher education.... There is thus a grave need for some central body which can discuss matters without interfering unduly with the autonomy of the provinces."²

The second quotation was written on similar lines:

"With the transfer of educational control from the central to the local Government, education in this province tended to lose the advantage which it drew from the submission of its schemes to an authority commanding a wider outlook. Such benefits, however, as accrued from this relationship have been preserved for the provinces by the constitution of a central advisory board under the charge of the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India. The proceedings of the board have been stimulating and helpful. They keep the Department in touch with effort and success in other provinces, and may serve to correct the natural tendency of a small province in isolation from its neighbours to pass from the provincial to the parochial and to respond too readily to local impulses."³

¹ 8th Q. R., page 26.

² 8th Q. R., page 28.

³ 8th Q. R., pages 28-29.

3. There were signs at that time that the Government of India, realising the possibilities of these dangers, still desired to take part in educational discussions and to assist provincial Governments by the dissemination of valuable information and by arranging for meetings held with the object of promoting an interchange of thought and experience. On the other hand, many provincial Governments were inclined to treasure their newly-won freedom from distant control and to regard any action on the part of the Government of India as an act of trespass on their preserves.

In 1921, a Central Advisory Board was constituted. The Educational Commissioner was the chairman and the Board included a number of eminent educationists, official and non-official, from the provinces. It was a body which might have been of real assistance to Ministers in framing a policy for the expansion and betterment of education, and to which complex problems could have been submitted informally for advice. At the same time the Bureau of Education, which had been started in 1915, expanded its useful activities.

4. By the time, however, that the next Review was written in 1927, reaction had gained ground. The Central Advisory Board had been abolished in 1923 as a means of retrenchment, though the money saved was insignificant in comparison with the large amounts which have since been squandered through the lack of guidance and of suitably devised programmes of development; and the additional burden of being directly responsible for education in Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara had been imposed on the Educational Commissioner. Thus, in the words of the Review for 1922-27, "the control which is exercised by the Central Government over provincial Governments in the matter of education is practically negligible."¹ The Central Government has ceased to exercise any influence over education in India except in those areas in which it possesses direct authority.

5. The Hartog Committee were much disturbed by this tendency :

"We cannot accept the view that it (the Central Government) should be relieved from all responsibility for the attainment of universal primary education². . . . It (the Imperial Government) is concerned directly with the educational qualifications of the electorates for the legislatures, and is therefore interested in taking steps to ensure that there should be compulsory primary education throughout India at the earliest possible moment."³

On the question of finance also, the Committee were emphatic that the Central Government should devise means whereby those provincial Governments, which were not in a position to meet the cost of developing compulsory primary education, might be given aid from central revenues. "The Imperial Government should come to their aid, and the Government of India should not be divested of all power to make central grants to provincial Governments for mass education"⁴.

6. The Committee were not unaware of the constitutional difficulties which might arise from the acceptance of such a proposal; they realised also that the practice of giving 'doles' might be attended by unfortunate consequences :

"We do not suggest that either the main responsibility for, or the control of, education should be retransferred from the provinces to the Central Government. On the contrary, we hold that the conditions vary so much from province to province that money on education will probably be spent more usefully, if each province is mainly responsible for its

¹ 9th Q. R., page 15.

² Hartog Report, page 346

³ Hartog Report, page 278

⁴ Hartog Report, pages 278-279.

educational policy. On the other hand, it is clear that if the Government of India assists a province in the matter of education, they should have the right to assure themselves that the money so granted is spent properly for the purpose for which it is earmarked. . . . We have shown that the money spent in some provinces on primary education has been to a large extent wasted. There is no reason why the Government of India, in making grants for mass education, should not take measures to assure itself that such waste is not perpetuated."¹

7. The Committee also advocated an enlarged sphere of influence by the Central Government through the agency of a Bureau of Education :

"The advice of a Central Bureau of Education on a number of matters would be of great value to the provinces. Education is a subject in which fresh advances are being constantly made, and India cannot afford to remain behind other countries in educational progress. New and more efficient methods of teaching are constantly being introduced all over the world ; there is an important literature of books and periodicals and official educational circulars, etc., which every province cannot afford to provide, but to which educational authorities of the provinces should have access. Moreover, each province should be kept constantly in touch with the experience and progress of other provinces. The Annual Review and the Quinquennial Review are quite insufficient for the purpose.

"We think that the growth of education in India would be materially assisted if an efficient central organisation, which might be termed the Bureau of Education, were re-established with the Government of India, of which the functions would be to give information and advice to the provincial administrations and to keep them in close touch with each other."²

8. The Government of India have been impressed by the force of these suggestions, which have been forwarded to provincial Governments for their opinions and advice. The response received from the provinces has been distinctly favourable, and there is a clear indication that a spirit of aloofness and exclusiveness is giving way to a keen desire for increased co-operation and interchange of thought and experience. Unfortunately, the financial stringency has been such that the revival of the proposed Board and Bureau of Education has not yet been finally settled and may still be described as being 'under consideration'.

Had the Bureau and Board of Education been continued and developed, they would probably by now have established a firm influence in the provinces, but there is danger that a great opportunity has been lost and that it may now be difficult to regain contact with the provinces.

A preparatory step has already been taken. The Hartog Committee considered that the expedient, whereby the Educational Commissioner combined the duties of his own office with that of Superintendent of Education, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, "has been of advantage neither to the Department of Education nor to the directly administered areas".³ This makeshift arrangement was terminated in April, 1931, and the Rev. J. C. Chatterjee was appointed Superintendent of Education, Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara and Central India.

9. The questions relating to the Educational Services will be discussed in a later section of this chapter, but it will be pertinent here to observe

¹ Hartog Report, page 279.

² Hartog Report, page 277.

³ Hartog Report, page 276.

that the abandonment of further recruitment to the Indian Educational Service will bring into greater prominence the spirit of provincial particularism. Though members of this service have been confined in their activities almost exclusively to the provinces of their original appointment, there has always been a wide field of selection in making appointments and, in consequence, many of the officers now holding higher educational posts are by no means limited in their experience to the conditions of the particular province in which each is serving. With the substitution of provincial services, there is danger of a narrowing inbreeding which will be fatal to the application of a wide standpoint to broad educational questions of policy.

10. When the political reforms of 1921 were introduced, the Government of India retained under their special control what are generally known as the Centrally Administered Areas. These areas included the North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan, Ajmer-Merwara, Coorg and Bangalore.

The conditions in most of these areas are such as to be generally unfavourable to a rapid expansion of education ; and therefore the responsibility of the Government of India has been particularly great. In order to ensure a steady and equal progress of all communities and areas throughout India towards the goal of literacy, special attention should be paid to those areas which in the past have had fewer opportunities of advancement.

The Hartog Committee were constrained to observe that the areas then immediately under the control of the Government of India were not only the most backward, but had also been made subject to the most rigorous retrenchment :

“ After making allowances for these hindrances, a survey of the growth of education in the directly administered areas does not reveal any marked advance, either in the initiation of any new large scheme of expansion or in the full utilisation of the existing system ; nor in many respects has the growth been even so satisfactory as in the neighbouring provinces, in spite of the fact that the directly administered areas have been under the control of the Government of India.”¹

Some effort at least has been made to remedy this serious situation. On the suggestion of the Legislative Assembly, a Committee was appointed to enquire into the matter. The report of the Committee was published in 1929 and, largely as a result of that report, the post of Superintendent of Education, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, has been revived. Owing to financial stringency, many of the other recommendations of the Committee have not been put into operation.

Welcome action, however, has been taken in the formulation of five-year programmes of advancement in many of these areas, but even the fulfilment of these programmes will not do much more than restore in a better form what had been taken away by means of retrenchment in the previous quinquennium. Reference will be made in other parts of the Review, in particular, to improvements in the Delhi and North-West Frontier Provinces. The control of education in the latter province was withdrawn from the Government of India in 1932, when the North-West Frontier Province was reconstructed as a Governor's

¹ Hartog Report, page 280.

province, with an Education Minister who is responsible to the Legislative Council of the province. Favourable reference is made elsewhere to the valuable report of this province which indicates many hopeful lines of development, but it is feared that this province, though still backward in education, may become still more backward in comparison with many other provinces as a result of its weak financial position.

(ii) *Provincial headquarters staffs.* ✓

11. In recent years much concern has been expressed at the weakness of most provincial headquarters staffs.

The Hartog Committee stated their feelings of anxiety in no uncertain terms :

"We are of opinion that the headquarters staffs are lamentably inadequate, and that the preparation of schemes of policy for consideration by the Minister has been seriously hampered by this inadequacy. Neglect to provide a proper staff leads, not to economy, but to extravagance."¹

The Committee then suggested that "the Director should be brought into touch with the working of the whole provincial system. This is necessary, among other things, in order to adjust policy to local conditions and requirements. It is for the Director, by means of circulars, by personal discussions and conferences to explain the spirit in which each new advance in policy is conceived and the way in which it should be carried out".² But how is this possible unless "the Director's headquarters staff is such that he himself can tour in order to see things for himself and meet those officers to whom is entrusted the task of carrying out those schemes" ?

The Hartog Committee had also some justification in arriving at the following conclusion :

"It is true that Ministers in some provinces have not had the security of tenure necessary to obtain support for large measures of reform ; that Directors have been overloaded with petty details from which they should have been relieved, and that their headquarters staffs have been inadequate. Making all allowances for these circumstances, we cannot resist the conclusion that the present waste of money and effort in mass education is attributable in most provinces to the fact that no well-defined policy for its extension has been inherited from the old regime, or constructed under the new one. Without a real effort to eliminate waste and ineffectiveness by means of a courageous and well-directed policy, there can be little hope of improvement in the future."³

12. In certain directions, as will be indicated, there are signs of improvement ; in many provincial reports there is evidence at least of a realisation of many of the examples of waste and ineffectiveness throughout the system, to which pointed reference was made by the Hartog Committee five years ago ; and the desire for improvement has been spurred by the urgent necessity for exercising the strictest economy. But the 'rush' for retrenchment has been attended by unfortunate results similar to those which attended the 'rush' for expansion a few years ago. In weeding and pruning, as in planting, care is essential to insure that the tender shoots of progress shall be properly developed. It is premature to suggest what will be the final effects of this policy (or rather

¹ Hartog Report, page 288. ² Hartog Report, page 239. ³ Hartog Report, page 290.

lack of policy) of retrenchment, but it will undoubtedly be a long time before provinces, such as the Central Provinces and Bihar and Orissa, can recover from the drastic manner in which the axe of retrenchment has been wielded. It is also undoubted that, in the long run, more money will have to be expended. Retrenchment does not always entail economy.

13. It is also a matter for regret that many of the weaknesses in the organisation, which were brought to notice by the Hartog Committee, are even more pronounced than they were five years ago.

In some provinces the position of an Education Minister has been extremely insecure. He has been liable almost at any moment to an adverse vote in the Legislative Councils; and this feeling of insecurity has sometimes led to a policy of *laissez faire*. There have been frequent changes so that Ministers have often held office only for a brief period. Thus, continuity of policy has been rendered very difficult. In the *Central Provinces*, four Ministers held office during the quinquennium; in the *United Provinces* there have been three Ministers; and in no province has a single Minister been in office during the whole period. In *Bengal*, three Ministers held office during the quinquennium; and, in addition, during a large portion of 1929, Education was administered by His Excellency the Governor and the Executive Council.

Similarly, the provincial reports contain no account of an attempt to strengthen the headquarters' staffs; in some provinces, indeed, there is evidence of even a reduction in their efficiency. The omission to effect improvement in this respect has probably been the main cause why the work of retrenchment has been carried out with so little regard for guiding principles and without a concerted plan of action.

(iii) Inspection.

14. The general sufficiency and efficiency of the inspectorate is of vital importance to the well-being of education. Indeed, the Indian Statutory Commission were convinced that "in India inspection is the Government's administrative key to advance, and that, without an efficient system of inspection of this nation-building service, there is grave risk that its relative sterility will be perpetuated".

The Hartog Committee held similar opinions and were very critical of the inspecting staff in quality as well as in quantity, though they singled out *Madras* and the *Punjab* as being provinces in which definite attempts had been made to effect improvement. The Committee summed up their opinions in the following words:

"We have referred many times in the course of this Review to the absence of an adequate number of well-qualified and experienced inspectors and inspectresses and to the waste and ineffectiveness in the system, which we believe to be due in large part to that inadequacy."¹

15. Practically all provincial reports refer in serious terms to a still further reduction both in the quality and in the quantity of inspecting staffs.

¹ Hartog Report, page 292.

In *Bombay* there has been no increase in the inspectorate during the quinquennium. Indeed, "there has been a considerable falling-off in the strength of the superior inspecting staff as well as of the administrative staff. The position has been rendered worse by the absence of a reserve for posts falling vacant on account of leave and retirement, and by the lack of any provision for the training of subordinate officers to succeed to these posts."¹

This statement reveals a serious state of affairs as, even if the necessary funds were forthcoming, it would now be difficult to find men and women with suitable qualifications and experience to fill the posts. The extent to which the position has been worsened is illustrated by a passage in the report that "the cost of the Government inspecting agency in 1931-32 was Rs. 5,82,704 or 3.1 per cent. of the total provincial expenditure on education, as against Rs. 12,79,189 or 6.5 per cent. in 1926-27."²

The position is even less satisfactory in *Bengal*. Although divisional inspectors have been awarded special pay amounting to Rs. 150 per mensem, they have not been relieved from the burden of excessive work and strain. "The axe of retrenchment always falls first on the inspectorate; and the strength of the subordinate staff has decreased, though the number of schools has increased. In consequence, the average number of schools which a sub-inspector is expected to visit during the year has increased considerably, especially in Eastern Bengal.... In Chittagong district a sub-inspector is responsible for 380 schools, and in Rajshahi division for 323 schools. It is physically impossible for one man to inspect so many schools in one year."³ When it is remembered that the majority of these schools are three-class lower primary schools, with a single-teacher of poor qualifications and often untrained in charge of them, it is not surprising that the extension of literacy is so slow as to be almost imperceptible.

Unfortunately, a sub-inspector does not suffer merely from excess of work, but also from other difficulties. He is described as "the Cinderella of the Department, having no office, not even a peon; and his duty allowance of Rs. 2 barely covers the cost of conveyance."⁴

These sub-inspectors are "often unsuited for the work, graduates who have little conception of the problems of primary education, men of the town with no idea of the needs of a rural school, men bound by the routine of official procedure and the letter of education codes, without imagination or freshness of mind."⁴

Financial stringency has also led to reductions in the inspecting staff of the *United Provinces*. Towards the end of the quinquennium the number of inspectors was reduced on account of a reduction in the number of circles from ten to seven. The hope is expressed that this reduction will only be temporary, "as ten circles are the least compatible with efficiency".

The number of sub-deputy inspectors has been increased from 195 to 209, but this increase is described as "woefully insufficient, and a further

¹ *Bombay*, page 11. ² *Bombay*, page 12. ³ *Bengal*, page 19. ⁴ *Bengal*, page 26.

increase in the number of the district inspecting staff is essential if rural education is to benefit from the money spent on it." ¹

In *Burma*, no improvement has been possible owing to financial stringency. The number of inspectorships, which had been reduced from ten to nine during the previous quinquennium, "remained unaltered, although the inspectors of the three Lower Burma circles were overworked and needed relief". Provision had been made for the creation of an additional inspector's circle at the beginning of 1931-32, but the need for economy prevented its formation. At the same time, the number of sub-inspectors has been reduced by fourteen from 54 to 40; and ten more of these posts are shortly to be abolished.

The qualifications and general competence of deputy inspectors and inspectresses, however, have been improved by the recruitment of promising young graduates, but the touring of these inspectors has frequently been impeded by the fact that "the provision for travelling has been exhausted." ²

In *Bihar and Orissa*, "the number of sub-inspectors is still inadequate. . . . Sanction has been given to the creation of posts for thirteen more sub-inspectors, but these posts are being held in abeyance for financial reasons." ³

In *Assam*, "with the growing eagerness for education . . . the work of inspection and correspondence has assumed a magnitude beyond all proportions to the staff of the inspectorate." ⁴ And again, "almost all deputy inspectors report that they need more sub-inspectors if the growing number of primary schools are to be effectively supervised. Government sanctioned a scheme for strengthening the inspecting staff by 25 additional sub-inspectors to be appointed over a period of five years, but for financial reasons this scheme could not be completed." ⁵

The position in the *Central Provinces* seems to be much the same as it was five years ago; but the five inspectoral circles have been reduced to four, with a consequent redistribution of districts.

16. In the *Punjab* and *Madras* (particularly the latter province), however, further efforts have been made to improve the efficiency of the inspectorate.

In the *Punjab*, a post of deputy inspector had previously been created in each administrative division, the main functions of this officer being to assist the divisional inspector generally in the discharge of his duties. This experiment had proved successful with the result that, in the Punjab more perhaps than in any other province, an inspector of schools has time in which generally to supervise the development of primary and vernacular education in his division. An additional post of deputy inspector has been created in the Lahore Division, which is the heaviest charge of the five inspectorships. The intention is to create a second post of deputy inspector in each of the other four divisions.

¹ U. P., page 10.

² Burma, page 9.

³ B. & O., page 13.

⁴ Assam, page 42.

⁵ Assam, page 43.

Improvement has also been made in the cadre of inspectresses. At the beginning of the quinquennium, the Deputy Directress of Public Instruction, in addition to her duties in that post, was also in charge of a circle as an inspectress. This dual burden of work and responsibility militated seriously against the effective discharge of her duties in the head office, and therefore a separate post of Circle Inspectress has been created so that the number of circle inspectresses has been increased from two to three. The number of assistant inspectresses has also been increased from ten to twelve; a welcome and timely addition to the strength of the women's branch, especially in view of the rapid development of girls' education in this province.

The large increase in the number of schools in *Madras* during the previous quinquennium necessitated a further increase in the inspectorate. The number of junior deputy inspectors has therefore been increased by 47 during the quinquennium. In view of the large increase in the number of girls' schools and pupils, the number of inspectresses and sub-assistant inspectresses has also been increased by two and twenty-five respectively.

17. The efficiency and effectiveness of inspectors will be discussed later in further detail. In the chapter dealing with primary education it will be shown that many of the grave defects in the primary system can be attributed very largely to the weakness of the inspectorate. It is a matter for keen regret that in most provinces the position is less satisfactory even than it was five years ago. In consequence, in spite of the stern necessity for economy, it is doubtful whether even the reduced allotments for primary education have been spent either wisely or effectively. Had an inspectorate been available, efficient, both in numbers and in qualifications, real benefit would have been derived during the time of financial depression and much that is ineffective would have been eliminated.

The work of inspection has not suffered merely from the inadequacy of the inspecting staffs; it has also suffered from the unsatisfactory position of the inspecting staffs in relation to the administration of primary education by local authorities.

(iv) *Local Bodies.*

18. It will be pertinent to give at the outset a brief summary of the development of local self-government in relation to educational administration. The matter was discussed in the report of the Hartog Committee, and the following account is very largely a summary of the appropriate passages in that report.

As long ago as 1882, the Government of India adopted as a general principle that the object of local government is "to train the people in the management of their own local affairs; that political education of this sort must in the main take precedence of considerations of departmental efficiency; that local bodies should not be subjected to unnecessary control but should learn by making mistakes and profiting by them"¹. This initial definition of policy was followed and developed at intervals by further Resolutions of the Government of India which may be summed up in the words of the Chelmsford-Montagu Report: "There should as far as possible be complete popular control in local bodies and the largest possible independence for

¹ Hartog Report, page 307.

them of outside control."¹ In pursuance of this policy, Acts have been passed by provincial legislatures, conferring on local bodies very wide powers in all local matters including education.

In examining this development a few years later, the Indian Statutory Commission represented that this wide devolution of powers on local bodies conflicted in a serious degree with the responsibility of Ministers to Legislative Councils, which had been introduced by the Reforms of 1921. In support of this observation it was suggested that, although the educational activities of local bodies are made possible only by large grants from provincial Governments and sanctioned by provincial Legislatures, a Minister of Education possesses very inadequate powers of control over the expenditure and administration of these bodies. As a result of this wide measure of devolution, an Education Minister must find it difficult to carry out his responsibility to the Legislature and at the same time assure himself that the sums voted by the Legislature are spent in the most profitable manner. The relevant passage in the report of the Indian Statutory Commission is of such importance that it is reproduced *in extenso* below :

"In one respect, viz., the devolution of authority and responsibility on local bodies, it is now evident that the action of some provincial Governments was both precipitate and excessive. It has tied the hands of ministerial departments and, however much they may now realise the necessity of wise reforms and true economy, they find themselves deprived of that effective power of supervision, direction, and ultimate control which, even in countries where self-government by local bodies is most highly developed, is regarded as essential. In England, where the principle of decentralisation is honoured and local self-government is strong and highly developed, much more power is reserved to, and exercised by, the Department, acting through its permanent educational advisers, than in India. We fully recognise the value of responsible local administration as a training ground for political and public life ; this must be set off ' by making their own mistakes ', but they need to be helped not to repeat them, and their shortcomings must be genuine mistakes due to inexperience or ignorance. We do not exaggerate the significance of the instances of misuse or abuse of local power which the proceedings of local bodies supply, but it is clear that in many cases the ' mistakes ' are more properly described as ' breaches of trust '. After all, provincial Governments and Education Departments are trustees of a service which is of vital importance for the youth of India and the future of India, and which is now in a most critical position. The trusteeship does involve the reservation and exercise of the powers necessary for securing its due discharge."²

The Hartog Committee dealt, in particular, with a further aspect of this question. They pointed out that the spread of primary education cannot be regarded as being a matter of merely ' local ' importance ; it has wide-spreading effects on the development of the country as a whole. A Ministry of Education, therefore, cannot rest content with finding a large portion of the funds and then leaving it to other bodies to administer those funds. There should be some means whereby it can guide and supervise the development of primary education.

"It was assumed apparently that though education, and particularly primary education, was of fundamental importance as a ' nation-building service ', and was, through the creation of literacy, the chief agency for creating that intelligent electorate on which political progress must depend, nevertheless the service of education was just as suitable as other services for extensive devolution on which local authorities could practice their 'prentice hands and learn by making their own mistakes.'"³

¹ Montagu-Chelmsford Report, page 93.

² Indian Statutory Commission's Report, Volume I, pages 397-398.

³ Hartog Report, page 308.

19. The actual form and manner by which the policy of devolution has been carried into effect vary considerably between the several provinces. A detailed account of the provincial systems was given in the Hartog Report; it is unnecessary to recapitulate.

Little attempt has been made to remedy the defects which were referred to five years ago. In the *United Provinces*, however, a notable change has been made by the passing of the District Board Amendment Act in 1928, as a result of which the control of vernacular education was transferred from the district boards to specially constituted Education Committees. The intention was to render the control of vernacular education more effective by reducing the size of the controlling authority and by giving representation to special interests such as girls' education and the depressed classes. Each committee consists usually of eight to twelve members of the Board elected by means of the single transferable vote and of three or four others representing special interests. The chairman is elected by the Committee itself and can be removed by the adverse vote of the members. The Committee is required to exercise, discharge and perform, with certain exceptions, all the powers, duties and functions formerly exercised by the Board in regard to educational matters. As the Committee controls the largest body of the employees of the Board, there has been a certain amount of jealousy and friction between boards and committees. An additional weakness has been the fact that, over and above the prescribed minima, additional funds have to be provided by the boards, which are reluctant to provide them now that they have little control over the spending of these funds. A useful innovation was made later in 1931, whereby the education fund of a board was separated from the general fund, the object being to prevent educational funds being used for other purposes—in the opinion of the report, a most salutary change in view of past experiences.

Another important and valuable change introduced by the Act of 1928 was that the deputy inspector became *ex-officio* secretary to the Committee and as such it is his duty to advise the Committee on educational matters.

The *United Provinces* report, though apprehensive in certain directions, is on the whole optimistic in regard to the effects of this legislation:—

“As compared with the old system of administration of rural education by the whole District Board, the present system of administration by Education Committees presents these advantages; the body is small and is thus capable of reaching a decision speedily; it includes representatives of interests not normally represented on the board; it has expert advice from the deputy inspector who is its permanent secretary; and it has a separate purse which cannot be raided. All these are advances on the old method of administration through the board, but it is not ideal. There is waste and there is often friction. In some districts teachers are used as pawns in the game of local party politics. There are continued complaints from inspectors that teachers now pay little attention to the instructions of the inspecting staff, so confident are they of the protection offered by the members whom their vote and propaganda put into power. Still, it must not be unguessed that these conditions are universal. Some education committees are devoting their best endeavours to the improvement of education in their districts and make full use of these opportunities for service to the community.”¹

In regard to the position of the deputy inspector as secretary to the Committee, the report states that “he can make a position for himself which he did not hold before”.² A deputy inspector undoubtedly suffers by being

¹ U. P., pages 10-11.

² U. P., page 9.

subject to the control of two masters but, bearing in mind the need for economy and the advisability of avoiding duplication of inspecting staffs, it seems likely that the best solution of a difficult problem has been arrived at in this Province.

20. *The Bombay Primary Education Act of 1923* was framed in the previous quinquennium, but its effect has been so far-reaching that further reference to the manner in which it has worked is necessary.

Under the Act each local authority is required to appoint a school board which is responsible for the administration of primary education within the area, subject to the general control of the local authority. The chief education officer of the School Board is an administrative officer, who is appointed with the approval of Government by the local authority concerned after considering the suggestions, if any, of the School Board. He is responsible to the Board and not to Government. Each Board maintains its own staff of supervisors; and Government has reduced its own inspecting staff almost to insignificance so that it now has no agency of its own by which it can obtain information as to the state of efficiency in the schools.

Rules under the Primary Education Act provide for the formation of representative School Committees, whose functions are described as being

- (a) to visit the schools at least once a month and to report to the administrative officer of the School Board any irregularities noticed in the general conduct of the schools;
- (b) to assist the School Board in securing suitable accommodation for the schools and to carry out current repairs, etc.;
- (c) to see that the school premises are kept clean and tidy and in a sanitary condition;
- (d) to inspect the registers with a view to seeing that they are well kept and written up to date.

The appointment of these committees might have been a valuable and important innovation, but "very few local authorities seem to have framed rules for such committees under the Act."¹

Even more disappointing is the "considerable decline in the efficiency of primary education since the transfer of control. The factor which has militated more than any other against efficiency has been communalism.... The majority of school boards have developed communal tendencies, and this attitude has influenced the selection of the supervising and teaching staffs and their transfer and promotion."²

21. The actual work of educational administration by local authorities is discussed in the chapter dealing with primary education. It will be sufficient here to deal only generally with the matter and to express regret that most of the defects discussed in previous reports have been perpetuated during the quinquennium. There is constant reference in the reports to a faulty distribution of schools; to the fact that in one year large numbers of schools are started and that in another year equally large numbers of schools are closed, apparently in both cases without discrimination; to long delays in the payment

¹ Bombay, page 92.

² Hartog Report, page 114.

of teachers' salaries ; to the unnecessary number of transfers among teachers ; to their lack of discipline and to the unfortunate influence which many of them bring to bear in local elections ; to wasteful extravagance ; to the appointment of untrained and unqualified teachers when trained teachers are available ; to communal and local dissensions ; to grave irregularities and neglect of the rules.

The *Bihar* report suggests that " it is the local boards rather than district boards which tend to ignore both the rules and the advice of departmental officers and are responsible for such blatant instances of mismanagement as the transfer of a teacher five, six, or seven times in a month or even a fortnight. Often, too, it is the chairman or vice-chairman only who is to blame, both the board and its Education Committee being neglected." ¹

In the *Central Provinces* " the reports of inspectors indicate in no uncertain terms that the administration of schools is not satisfactory. . . . There is abundant evidence that, generally speaking, local authorities do not make serious efforts to enforce responsibility on their teaching staffs. On the contrary, it is clear that, in too many instances, the teachers are permitted to do very much as they please in the schools, and further that their services are utilised to an alarming extent for purposes of political propoganda and electioneering to the serious neglect of their legitimate duties. Further, there can be no possible justification for the excessive number of transfers from school to school." ²

The *United Provinces* report is written in somewhat optimistic terms :

" There is no doubt that many Education Committees do not yet realise their responsibilities any more than many district boards did. Private interests, private jealousies and local feuds exercise a greater influence than is desirable, and the money of the tax-payer is wasted on purposes which are not education. But there is ground for hope that responsibility will beget responsibility and that Education Committees will in time confine themselves to their proper duty—the spread of education among the rural population." ³

The *Burma* report is pessimistic :

" The reviewer has before him the Secretary for Local Self-Government's annual appreciations of the work of each local authority, the annual reports of the Local Audit Department, and a mass of correspondence. . . . Severe compression of what should be the most important chapter is therefore unavoidable.

" Embezzlements, double payments and other serious irregularities in the accounts of district school boards' occupy five pages of the printed report of the Local Audit Department for 1930-31. Unexplained payments of advance increments and payments in excess of sanctioned scales, failure to ensure that building grants are spent on the objects for which they were provided, and payments of travelling allowances for journeys not performed appear among general defects and irregularities common to the accounts of most of the school boards. More serious irregularities by individual authorities are also recorded, such as placing orders for furniture with contractors without calling for tenders and at excessive rates.

" Too many teachers find it pays to frequent the houses of influential members of school boards and by doing so succeed in obtaining transfers to more desirable schools where they can earn a higher charge allowance. It is often difficult to obtain the recognition of a deserving new school without much canvassing." ⁴

¹ B. & O., page 14. ² C. P., pages 13-14. ³ U. P., page 1. ⁴ Burma, page 41.

22. The complaint which has been made more frequently in the reports, however, is that inspectors, and through them the Ministries of Education, possess very inadequate opportunities of ensuring that the money spent on primary education is spent wisely and effectively. In many instances the advice of inspectors is cold-shouldered; and in some instances irregularities have been committed in spite of the fact that the inspector has drawn attention to them.

The *Central Provinces* report states that "the advice of deputy inspectors, particularly as regards the teaching staff, is generally ignored by local bodies. This has had the effect of stultifying, to a great extent, the work of deputy inspectors, since the teachers, led to believe that they have nothing to gain by carrying out the advice of these officers, maintain an attitude of masterly inactivity."¹

The report of the *United Provinces* is more optimistic, but observes that "some committees resent advice and disregard rules, especially in financial matters, while an autocratic chairman sometimes harries his deputy inspector if he does not carry out his orders, illegal though they may be. The position of a deputy inspector is no bed of roses."²

The *Bengal* report states that "the district inspector represents Government on the board's education committee and plays the role of educational adviser to local bodies. But he has no control over the deliberations of the Committee and his recommendations are not always acted upon. The Local Body may, and does, give grants to schools against his advice."³

The *Punjab* report is in a similar strain: "Personal and party motives often characterise the deliberations of district boards with the result that administrative efficiency is seriously impaired. Members of district boards pester district inspectors for favours in the matter of promotion and transfer of their relatives; and district inspectors find it increasingly difficult to resist this influence. If he does so, he becomes at once very unpopular. He is threatened and bullied in the district board meetings, and complaints are often lodged against him."⁴

23. An inspector is by no means omniscient and should not therefore claim to be omnipotent, but it is his duty, as the agent of Government, to take all possible steps for ensuring that the development of primary education is carried out on the best possible lines and that irregularities are not committed.

A pertinent suggestion is made in the *Bihar* report that much depends on the strength of character displayed by the educational officer concerned: "My experience is that district or deputy inspectors, who are honest and straightforward in telling the boards what they believe to be right, command the greatest respect and influence, but that many officers of this class endeavour to secure the appearance of harmony by making only those recommendations which are likely to be accepted, and by ignoring cases in which their opinion is not obtained, though it should have been."⁵

The *United Provinces* report records a similar opinion: "Much depends upon the man himself, and a man of character is found to hold his own and make himself respected. The weak man suffers."⁶

C. P., page 14. ² U. P., page 9. ³ Bengal, page 13. ⁴ Punjab, page 29.

⁵ B. & O., page 14.

These opinions support the contention that the strengthening of the inspectorate, both in quality and in quantity, provides the best means of counteracting these dangers.

24. The position is infinitely more difficult, however, in those provinces where the duties of inspection have been transferred to local authorities and where, in consequence, the staffs of Government inspectors have been reduced to a minimum.

In the *Central Provinces* "the question whether deputy inspectors should be maintained and controlled by Government or by local bodies was partially decided by the reversion, on the recommendation of the Standing Committee of the Legislative Council, to Government service of those deputy inspectors who had already been transferred to local bodies."¹

In *Bombay*, however, the position is still unsatisfactory :

"In consequence of the transfer of control of primary education, there is now generally only one assistant deputy inspector in each district, with the result that the personnel of the subordinate inspecting staff has been reduced to such an extent as to make it impossible to exercise and enforce effective check on the expenditure on primary education, which Government are financing by substantial grants-in-aid. The question of improving and enlarging the inspectorate has therefore assumed great importance and been the subject of careful consideration by Government. A weak spot of the Primary Education Act is, in my opinion, the effect it has had on inspection and control. The Government inspecting staff has been so reduced as to be quite inadequate, while a dual inspecting staff has been created, performing similar functions but under the control of local authorities."²

In another portion of the report the inadequacy of the inspecting staff is further developed :

"In each district in which the control of primary education has been transferred to a local authority, there is only one assistant deputy inspector in the Subordinate Educational Service : when it is remembered that there are districts with over 800 schools each, and in a few cases with even 1,000 schools, and that the inspecting officer is requested to do other multifarious duties, it is clear that the existing staff is quite inadequate and is unable to see that Government money is usefully spent and the teaching is efficient."³

(v) *The Educational Services.*

25. Many of these defects have been due very largely to the cessation of recruitment to the Indian Educational Service and, still more, to the long delay in substituting anything in its place.

Five years ago, the Hartog Committee observed that "the progressive extinction of the Indian Educational Service, accompanied by the failure to reconstitute the provincial services (after a period of nearly five years) has been disastrous to the organisation of Indian education."⁴ This serious omission on the part of Government continued during the quinquennium and several of the reports discuss its baneful effects.

The *United Provinces* report observes that

"Like King Charles, the Indian Educational Service takes an unconscionable time in dying and its slow decease has not been made any easier by the fact that no service has as

¹ C. P., page 1. ² Bombay, page 11. ³ Bombay, page 116.

⁴ Hartog Report, page 337.

yet been recruited to take its place. There are now only six European and eight Indian members left; of the latter four are university teachers. No less than 27 posts for men and two for women are vacant, and have had to be filled up by temporary appointments¹. . . . Thus, many stop-gap appointments have had to be made from the Provincial Service—appointments in some cases of men, who had hardly the educational or other qualifications necessary for the posts. The delay in the creation of the new service has undoubtedly had serious effects; and has tended towards an undesirable degree of centralisation. The wonder is that the machine has not broken down under the stress, but it has functioned remarkably well, all things considered.”²

In the *Punjab* the risk was taken, and a certain number of well-qualified and efficient men and women received direct appointments, pending the constitution of the new service. The situation was thus partially saved, but the prolonged delays in creating the new service have proved exasperating both to those who made as well as to those who received these appointments. Difficulties regarding leave, increments, contributions to provident funds and so forth assumed great dimensions.

In *Bombay*, “owing to the cessation of recruitment to the Indian Educational Service since 1924 and to a combination of reasons which delayed the constitution of the Bombay Educational Service, Class I, until 1931, there has been considerable falling-off in the strength of the superior inspecting and administrative staffs. The position has been rendered worse by the absence of a reserve for posts falling vacant on account of leave or retirement, and by the lack of any provision for the training of subordinate officers to succeed to these posts.”³

In *Bengal*, “vacancies in the Indian Educational Service are either kept in abeyance, or filled on a contract system on special rate of pay, or filled by officers of the Bengal Educational Service on their own pay. . . . Only 22 posts out of 67 are now held by permanent members of the Service, and three are on an officiating basis. Three posts are in abeyance; ten are lying vacant; and 29 have been filled on the Bengal Educational Service basis on a special rate of pay.”⁴

The *Burma* report observes that “it is sixteen years since any officer from the British Isles was recruited as an inspector and seven years since the last recruitment of such an officer for a headmastership. The stoppage of such recruitment would have had serious consequences, but for the State Scholarship system which has provided a certain number of officers fitted for higher educational posts by training and experience outside the Province.”⁵

26. The actual extent to which the effective strength of Education Departments has been reduced owing to the cessation of recruitment to the Indian Educational Service is shown by the statement in the next page.

The small number of educational officers serving in the cadre of Chiefs' Colleges have been excluded from calculation :

¹ U. P., page 3.

² U. P., page 8.

³ Bombay, page 11.

⁴ Bengal, page 17.

⁵ Burma, page 8.

TABLE XXVII.
Indian Educational Service.

Province.	1926-27.								1931-32.							
	Number of posts held by				No. of vacant posts.		Total number of posts.		Number of posts held by				No. of vacant posts.		Total number of posts.	
	Europeans.		Indians.		Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.	Europeans.		Indians.		Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.
	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.					Men.	Women.	Men.	Women.				
Madras	16	7	18	1	19	5	53	13	13	6	14	1	11	4	38	11
Bombay	16	4	26	1	14	1	56	6	11	1	21	..	1*	..	33	1
Bengal	21	3	22	1	24	..	67	4	11	2	14	2	10	..	35†	4
United Provinces	17	1	12	..	13	1	42	2	6	..	8	..	27	2	41	2
Punjab	14	2	12	..	8	1	34	3	6	2	6	12	2
Burma	26	2	4	..	11	..	41	2	18	2	3	21	2
Bihar and Orissa	18	2	10	..	4	2	32	4	12	..	9	..	3	..	24	..
Central Provinces	13	2	8	..	12	..	33	2	11	2	5	16	2
Assam	5	..	2	..	2	1	9	1	3	..	2	5	..
North-West Frontier Province	1	1	1	..	1	..	3	1	1	1	1	2	1
Total	147	24	115	3	108	11	370	38	92	16	83	3	52	6	227	25

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* Held in abeyance.
† The number of posts in the Men's Branch remains 67 on paper. Three posts are in abeyance and 29 have been filled on the B. E. S. basis on a special rate of pay.

27. It was the intention of the Lee Commission that a new Provincial Service (Class I) should be created in each province without delay, and that as posts in the Indian Educational Service fell vacant similar posts in the new Service would be created and filled. Had these essential steps been taken at once, the higher cadres would have been kept up to strength and Education Departments would have been reinforced by the recruitment of men and women with adequate experience and qualifications. With the failure to do so, it will be a long time before the work of education in India can recover from so serious a set-back in the efficiency and competence of the higher personnel. A serious factor in the situation is that the vacant posts have been filled for so many years by means of makeshift arrangements with the result that it will be difficult to pass over the claims of men and women who, though deficient in the necessary qualifications, have at any rate done their best in trying circumstances. Thus, the standard of competence in the new service has been jeopardised from the outset.

It is some consolation that, towards the end of the quinquennium, arrangements were completed in most provinces for the constitution of the new service.

In *Madras*, final orders on the institution of the Superior Educational Services were passed in 1930, but no effect had been given to these orders by the end of the quinquennium.

The new Provincial Educational Service (Class I) was created in *Bombay* during the quinquennium, and 21 posts in that service have been created. Eighteen of these posts have been filled.

In *Bengal*, the new service has not yet been finally instituted, and the situation has been met by the creation of temporary posts, of which there are now sixteen, in order to provide for the appointment of officers against vacancies in the Indian Educational Service.

In the *United Provinces*, a new Provincial Service was provisionally created towards the close of the quinquennium, which consists of nineteen posts, but no appointment had been made by the end of the quinquennium.

In the *Punjab*, the new Provincial Educational Service (Class I) was created with effect from January, 1930, and six posts have already been filled.

In *Burma*, a new service was constituted in July, 1930, and nine appointments have been made.

The new Superior Service was constituted in *Bihar and Orissa* in April, 1930, consisting of 45 posts, of which twelve (including three for women) have been filled.

The cadre in the *Central Provinces* consists of seven posts, of which five have been filled.

In *Assam* out of 25 posts which have been created, 21 have been filled, two are held by Indian Educational Service officers, and the remaining two have been filled temporarily.

28. In the last Review the question of the Indianisation of the Indian Educational Service was discussed. It was pointed out that, as a result of the recommendations of the Islington Commission, the number of posts at that time

in the Indian Educational Service was increased by one-third, and that an equivalent number of posts in the Provincial Educational Service and outside it, usually with their Indian incumbents, were transferred to the Indian Educational Service. In addition, it was decided that in future 50 per cent. of the total strength of the Indian Educational Service, except in Burma, should be filled by the recruitment of Indians. This reconstruction of the Service resulted in a considerable Indianisation of the Superior Educational Services in India. It will be noted from the table given above that, at the end of the quinquennium, there were 92 European and 83 Indian men, and 16 European and 3 Indian women, remaining in the service.

As has already been observed, very few appointments as yet have been made to the superior services in the provinces, but the following figures giving the number of appointments made by the end of the quinquennium and their distribution are of importance.

TABLE XXVIII.
Provincial Educational Service (Class I).

Province.	Number of posts held by		Number of vacant posts.*	Total number of posts.
	Europeans.	Indians.		
Madras
Bombay	1	17	3	21
Bengal
United Provinces	10	19
Punjab	4	2	24	30
Burma	3	6	2	11
Bihar and Orissa	1	11	33	45
Central Provinces	5	2	7
Assam	21	4	25
North-West Frontier Province

* Most of the posts shown as vacant are held by I.E.S. officers or have been filled temporarily.

29. The reconstruction of the Superior Educational Services will not have been concluded, however, by the actual creation of those services. A further, and important aspect of the question still requires consideration.

The Lee Commission emphasised the importance of "protecting it (a Government service) so far as possible from political or personal influence and of giving it that position of stability and security which is vital to its successful working as the impartial and efficient instrument, by which Governments, of whatever political complexion, may give effect to their policies."¹

The Hartog Committee made similar observations :

"There is reason to believe that Ministers have already been exposed to considerable pressure in the matter of appointments, transfers and promotions. The duties of an Education Minister, who is anxious to achieve something for the advancement of education must always be arduous. That he should be distracted from their performance by political pressure to use his power of patronage in favour of particular persons—pressure which is sometimes carried to the length of undermining his position must be as trying to him as it is detrimental to the public interest. It is probable that many Ministers would be glad to have the protection and relief of measures which placed the particular power of selection or recommendation for appointment, promotion and transfer in other hands, and which left him only the function of laying down such general principles for the guidance of his advisers as he would be prepared to defend publicly, and then of reviewing, confirming or referring back the recommendations made to him."²

30. In spite of these warnings, little seems to have been done towards ensuring that expert and impartial advice shall be available to Ministers in their difficult and invidious task of filling up vacancies in the new superior services. It would be disastrous to the well-being of Indian education if these services became tainted by political or personal influence.

(vi) *The Legislatures and Education.*

31. The Central Legislature has continued to evince keen interest in educational matters.

As education is a provincial transferred subject, discussions have been confined very largely to matters concerning the areas directly administered by the Government of India, particularly Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara. Questions have also been asked with reference to universities such as those at Benares, Aligarh and Delhi, which are in receipt of grants from Central funds. Questions of a more general nature have also been asked concerning the education of girls, the establishment of a Central Advisory Board and Bureau, Indian students in England, and European and Anglo-Indian education.

A number of resolutions bearing on educational topics have also been moved and have led to valuable and interesting debates.

In 1928, the advisability of providing special facilities for the education of untouchables and other depressed classes, mainly by reserving for them places in training institutions, was debated. The discussion was indirectly beneficial, as much has been done subsequently in the provinces along the lines suggested in the Assembly.

The publication of the Skeen Committee's report gave rise to important debates in the Assembly, as the result of which two resolutions were passed.

¹ Lee Commission's Report, page 13.

² Hartog Report, pages 343-344.

The first resolution, which was adopted by the Assembly in February, 1929, was to the effect that "with a view to removing the defects in the character-training of Indian youths, as emphasised by the Skeen Committee, steps should be taken to provide compulsory physical training, games and drill for Indian boys attending schools and colleges between the ages of twelve and twenty, and to provide and encourage the use of miniature rifle ranges."

The second resolution, which was adopted in February, 1930, recommended that "early steps be taken to examine the present system of education in India with the object of remedying the defective character training of the system, as emphasised and brought to public notice by the Indian Sandhurst Committee with a view to the removal of these defects in the system for the purpose of providing a steady flow of really first class material for recruitment to the public services, including the services of defence."

In February, 1929, another resolution was accepted by the Assembly recommending the expansion of facilities for the education of girls and women in the territories directly administered by the Government of India. In the course of the debate it was announced that Government had already decided to appoint a committee to consider these matters.

In February, 1932, a resolution was moved (but not accepted) that a committee be appointed "to suggest suitable modifications in the existing system of education in regard to policy, administration, the general plan of studies and examinations, and the most economic method of spending public funds on education."

During the course of the debate, the Government spokesman stated that the Government of India had accepted the recommendation of the Hartog Committee to revive the Central Advisory Board of Education and the Bureau of Education as soon as financial conditions had been sufficiently improved. It was suggested that this Board, when revived, would provide the most useful and economical means of enabling the Government of India and provincial Governments to formulate a comprehensive policy of development.

32. A few bills relating to educational matters were moved in the Central Legislature during the quinquennium.

The Benares Hindu University (Amendment) Bill was passed into law in July, 1930. It provided for the constitution of a Standing Finance Committee in order to strengthen the financial administration of the University.

The Aligarh Muslim University (Amendment) Bill was passed in September, 1931, and received the assent of the Governor-General in October, 1931. The object of the Bill was to enable the University to undertake teaching of the Intermediate standard, instead of confining its teaching to post-Intermediate studies. Thus, the University has reverted to the old system, by which Intermediate education formed an integral part of university education—a system which was deprecated by the Calcutta University Commission.

33. Provincial reports speak hopefully of the continued interest taken by the several legislatures of India in matters educational. A pleasing development is that the legislatures, in general, are tending to confine themselves

to discussions of broad questions of policy, whether by means of resolutions or by token 'cuts' in the budget, rather than to dislocate arrangements by making serious and sudden deductions in budget allotments. On the other hand, reference is made in reports to the very large number of questions asked in some Councils. The preparation of answers to many of these questions involves an immense amount of time and labour, and therefore indirectly of expenditure.

In *Madras*, "the following subjects came up for discussion in the Legislative Council: the pay of women officers and teachers in elementary schools; the introduction of the Boy Scout movement in schools; the introduction of physical training; the report of the special officer on elementary education; special concessions for depressed class pupils; communal representation in the educational services; compulsory elementary education; the need for a more rapid advance in the education of Muhammadans, especially of Mappillas; the teaching of agriculture in schools; the reorganisation of the superior educational services."¹

"Among the bills and enactments relating to education were the Bill to amend the Madras University Act of 1923, the Annamalai University Bill, the Andhra University Amendment Bills, and the Bill to amend the Madras Elementary Act of 1921."¹

In *Bengal* "an outstanding feature of the quinquennium was the wide range of topics covered by questions asked in Council. The discussions showed an increasing mastery of facts regarding educational matters, which augurs well for the future."² Several legislative proposals were placed before the Council. The Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Bill was introduced in 1928, and was finally passed in 1930. In 1931, an amendment to the Act of 1919 was passed, by virtue of which the local Government can now authorise a particular municipality to enforce the compulsory attendance of girls at school provided that Government are satisfied with the arrangements made by the municipality. The Dacca University Amendment Act of 1928 was also passed, by which the Academic Council was made purely advisory in functions and all executive powers were centred in the Executive Council of the University. Dr. Pramathanath Bannerjee's Bill for the reconstitution of the Senate of Calcutta University on a more popular basis was referred to a select committee, but was not discussed further as Dr. Bannerjee had retired from the Council.

The main event in the *United Provinces* during the quinquennium was the passing of the United Provinces District Board Amendment Act of 1928, the main provisions of which have already been discussed.

In the *Punjab*, "the interest of the Legislative Council in educational matters continued unabated throughout the quinquennium. Numerous questions were asked, and illuminating debates arose on a number of resolutions, the more important of which related to compulsory physical training, military training for college students, compulsory primary education, school fee concessions, the anglo-vernacular middle school examination and the institution of the Punjab University Enquiry Committee."³

¹ Madras, page 2.

² Bengal, page 11.

³ Punjab, page 25.

The *Bihar* report reveals the very creditable record of the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council in its support of education. "The education budget always interests the Council and every year the opportunity afforded by its introduction is taken to discuss various questions of policy. The Council has never failed to vote the complete amount of the demand put forward except last year, when a token cut of one rupee was carried as a protest against the decision of Government to reduce the education grants to local bodies by a ten per cent. cut owing to the financial stringency."¹

The report also provides some interesting statistics regarding the remarkable variations in the number of questions asked in the Council on educational matters. "In 1928-29 the number of questions reached the surprising total of 532, if the different sub-heads of a question are reckoned as separate questions. Since then the number of questions asked has been much smaller. In 1930-31 it was 49, and in 1931-32 it was 104."¹

The most important legislative achievement of the Bihar Legislative Council was the passing of a Government bill which "leaves Patna University a federal body but alters the constitution of the Senate and Syndicate, and creates a central board to co-ordinate the work of the colleges at Patna."¹

(vi) Committees and Conferences.

34. A large number of committees have been appointed during the quinquennium to consider educational questions. Many of those appointed in the provinces will be referred to in the appropriate chapters of this Review; reference in this section is therefore confined to committees and conferences which were not concerned primarily with the affairs of a particular province.

35. The most notable event of the quinquennium was the appointment of the *Auxiliary Committee of the Indian Statutory Commission* to make enquiries into the growth of education in British India and its relations to political and constitutional problems and potentialities of progress. The Committee consisted of Sir Philip Hartog (Chairman), Sir Amherst Selby-Bigge, Sir Siayid Sultan Ahmed, Sir George Anderson, Dewan Bahadur Raja Narendra Nath and Dr. Muthulakshmi Reddi. Mr. R. M. Statham acted as secretary. The report, which was published in 1929, was of great value; many references are made to it in this Review.

In June 1927, the Government of India appointed the *Delhi University Enquiry Committee* to enquire into the future development of the University; and, in particular, to consider (i) the allocation of a permanent site for university and collegiate buildings, and (ii) the extent and nature of the assistance which the Government of India should give to the University. The Committee consisted of the Chief Commissioner, Delhi (Chairman), the Vice-Chancellor of Delhi University, the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, the Chief Engineer, Central Public Works Department, and a representative of Finance Department. The report of the Committee has been under consideration throughout the quinquennium, but little progress has been possible owing to financial stringency. Since the close of the

¹ B. & O., page 7.

quinquennium, however, it has been decided to allot the Old Viceregal Lodge Estate and buildings to the University and its constituent colleges.

In 1927, Her Highness the Begum of Bhopal, acting in her capacity as Chancellor, appointed the *Aligarh Muslim University Enquiry Committee*, which consisted of Sir Ibrahim Rahimtoola (Chairman), Sir Philip Hartog and Sir George Anderson. The report of the Committee was completed in November, 1927; and its recommendations have been generally accepted and carried into effect.

In 1928, the Government of India appointed the *Primary Education Committee*, consisting of the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India (Chairman), three members of the Legislative Assembly and one inspectress of schools, to enquire into the problems of primary education for boys and girls in the centrally administered areas. The Committee presented its report in April, 1930, but action on its recommendations has been largely prevented by financial stringency.

In 1931, the Government of India appointed the *Indian Military College Committee*, consisting of His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief (Chairman), six officials, eight non-officials and three members from Indian States, "to work out the details of the establishment of a military college in India to train candidates for Commissions in all arms of Indian Defence Service". The recommendations of the Committee have been generally carried out and the Indian Military Academy has been instituted in Dehra Dun.

36. The second *Conference of Indian Universities* was held at Delhi in the autumn of 1929, under the auspices of the Inter-University Board. The conference was opened by His Excellency the Viceroy (Lord Irwin) and was attended by representatives of all universities except that of Rangoon. An important adjunct to the Conference was the exhibition by the Translation Bureau of Osmania University (Hyderabad) of its numerous Urdu publications. This was of special interest in view of the experiment, now being conducted by the University, of imparting education through the medium of the vernacular. A number of important resolutions were passed by the Conference.

37. The meetings of the *Inter-University Board, India*, have been held annually during the quinquennium at Madras, Patna, Dacca, Mysore and Lahore in rotation. It is a matter for regret that Rangoon University has been compelled to resign membership owing to its long distance from the places of meeting. The Board has conducted enquiries with a view to securing as far as possible uniformity of practice, co-ordination of effort and joint action by the universities in important matters. The question of forming a Central Advisory Board for Scientific Research is under consideration. The Board has done useful work in collecting information and in stimulating thought regarding current university problems.

38. In 1928, the Government of India convened a Conference of Ministers of Education and Local Self-Government and Directors of Public Instruction to discuss important matters of common interest. This was the second conference of its kind, the first having been held in 1927, an account of which was given in the previous Review. In the absence of any other co-ordinating agency the importance of these conferences is very great.

CHAPTER III.

UNIVERSITIES.

(i) *Retrospect.*

It is difficult to recall to mind that, only eighteen years ago, there were but five universities in the whole of India, those being the old-established affiliating Universities of Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, the Punjab and Allahabad.

Much criticism has been passed against affiliating universities; their divorce from teaching, their reliance on formal and external examinations, the vast areas of their jurisdiction, their lack of control over teaching in affiliated colleges, the almost inevitable lowering of standards of teaching and examination, the absence of a wider loyalty towards the university.

The Calcutta University Commission were critical in this connexion:

"According to the view of almost all progressive societies, a university ought to be a place of learning, where a corporation of scholars labour in comradeship for the training of men and for the advancement and diffusion of knowledge. On this definition Indian universities, in their first form, were no true universities. They were not corporations of scholars, but corporations of administrators; they had nothing to do with the training of men, but only with the examining of candidates; they were not concerned with learning, except in so far as learning can be tested by examinations. The colleges were the only 'places of learning', but the system tended to weaken the responsibilities of the stronger colleges and to reduce them to coaching institutions. The university, being merely a group of administrative boards, had no direct contact with the real work of teaching; it could contribute nothing to strengthen the intellectual resources of the colleges, and little to stimulate free criticism and independent thought among teachers and students. With its uniform curricula and its exaggerated emphasis upon examinations, the system reduced the colleges too much to the same pattern. It encouraged them, for the sake of economy, to limit their teaching to the ordinary conventional subjects and to disregard those more practical issues to which the despatch of 1854 had attached so much importance; it often prevented the teacher from teaching the things he cared most about and understood best; it led the student to value the discipline of his training not for its own sake, but mainly as a means for obtaining marketable qualifications. In the long run, such a system must have a sterilising influence."¹

2. Much, however, can be said on behalf of affiliating universities, especially at the time of their inception in India. The expense of their creation was negligible; they provided an effective means of testing the qualifications of candidates for Government service; they standardised and regulated the activities of the promising little colleges which were already in existence. It would have been a tragedy to the India of those days, if (as some seem to think should have been done) university education had been confined to unitary universities in the three Presidency towns.

The initial results were far from unsatisfactory. The early records are replete with the joy of hope and enthusiasm. Sir Henry Maine has testified to this spirit: "The thing must be seen to be believed; and I do not know which is the more astounding, the more striking; the multitude of students who, if not now, will soon be counted not by the hundred but by the thousand, or the keenness which they display. For my part, I do not think that anything of the kind has been seen by any European university since the Middle Ages."

¹ Calcutta University Commission's Report, Volume I, pages 47-48.

3. This happy state of affairs, however, was not destined to last long. The affiliating universities soon became overburdened, indeed broken, by the weight of rapidly increasing numbers of students, many of them unsuited for university work ; and also by a rapid increase in the number of colleges, many of which did not command the necessary financial support for maintaining high standards of teaching.

Dissatisfaction grew apace. It was in the early years of the century that the Government of India made its first effort to cope with the problem. In 1904, the Universities Act was passed during the viceroyalty of the late Lord Curzon, the main object of which was to improve the machinery of universities. The Senates were reduced in size and a small elective element was introduced. It was laid down that a large proportion of members of both Senate and Syndicate should be from among those following the profession of education, but no provision was made for the direct representation of teachers as such, nor was it considered necessary to constitute any purely academic authorities.

Steps were also taken to increase the powers of control vested in Government. The vast majority of Fellows were to be nominated by the Chancellor who, except in Calcutta, was the Governor of the province concerned ; all new regulations and changes in existing regulations were made subject to sanction by Government.

Similar efforts were made to tighten up the control of universities over affiliated colleges by strengthening the conditions of affiliation and by prescribing the right of inspection.

It was also the intention of the Act that universities should assume teaching functions, but for financial and other reasons little was done in this direction for several years.

Some benefit undoubtedly accrued from the legislation of 1904, but it is at least open to question whether the 'bureaucratising' of universities did not in practice overtax with additional burdens their already overlaid machinery. The main problem arising from increasing numbers and deteriorating standards remained untouched. There is justification for the criticism passed by the Calcutta University Commission :

"The report of the Commission and the Act of 1904, which was based on it, aimed not at any fundamental reconstruction of the Indian university system, but at a rehabilitation and strengthening of the existing system. As the Commission of 1832 was excluded from considering university problems, so also was the Commission of 1902 excluded from directly considering school problems with the result that, equally with its predecessor, it was unable to deal with the problem as a whole."¹

4. In consequence of this omission to strengthen the school foundations, the position of the five affiliating universities became more and more difficult. The numbers of students increased even more rapidly than before, and it was not long before the enrolment of Calcutta University approximated 30,000 students.

The Government of India then made a further attempt to grapple with the situation. Their main objects were, as described in their Resolution of 1913,

¹ Calcutta University Commission's Report, Volume I, page 66.

first, to restrict the area over which affiliating universities had control by securing a separate university for each of the leading provinces; second, to create, in addition, new teaching and residential universities.

With the first object in view, plans were prepared for constituting universities at Nagpur in the Central Provinces, at Rangoon in Burma, and at Patna in the recently constituted province of Bihar and Orissa. By this means relief would be given to the overburdened universities of Calcutta and Allahabad. The opportunity was also taken of suggesting certain improvements in the governing authorities of universities, and also in enabling universities to assume teaching functions of their own.

For the achievement of these objectives a unique opportunity of breaking new ground presented itself at Dacca. As a result of the re-partition of Bengal in 1912, the Government buildings of the old capital of Eastern Bengal and Assam became available for university purposes. These assets were further enhanced in value by the close proximity of Dacca College, a Government institution, situated in Ramna on the outskirts of the city.

A committee was then appointed under the chairmanship of Mr. R. Nathan to consider the creation of a better type of university at Dacca. The committee made certain useful suggestions, but were generally content to reproduce in more expensive conditions the radical defects of the older universities. No suggestion was made for improving the quality of the students entering the new university or for selecting those who would be capable of benefiting by a university course. Indeed, the entrance standard of the Calcutta Matriculation was to be accepted as the test of admission. Again, though university professors were to be appointed and though science teaching was to be maintained by the University, all intermediate teaching was to be conducted by the colleges, and degree teaching by means of a somewhat ill-defined scheme of collegiate co-operation. Though the new university might have been an improvement on the old, it could not have been classed as a teaching university in the true sense of the word.

5. The Calcutta University Commission was therefore appointed in 1917 with wide terms of reference, including a consideration of "the qualifications to be demanded of students on their admission to the university". It was not therefore debarred from investigating the conditions of school education in so far as they reacted on the efficiency of the University.

From the very outset of their enquiry, the Commission were much impressed by the necessity of reducing the unwieldy size of Calcutta University, which

"is in respect of the number of its students the largest university of the world. . . . The University of Calcutta has to deal with 26,000 students scattered over an immense province wherein communications are very difficult; it is responsible also for the educational control of more than eight hundred schools—a function such as no university outside of India is called upon to perform; and in these conditions it is unreasonable to expect that its governing bodies should be able to deal with this immense and complex task in a wholly satisfactory manner."¹

¹ Calcutta University Commission's Report, Volume I, page 21.

The Commission made two fundamental proposals for the relief of the University of Calcutta.

In the first place, in order that the school foundations should be strengthened, a clear line of demarcation should be drawn between university and school work. The intermediate classes were therefore to be removed from the jurisdiction of the University and a new type of institution was to be created, which would include the two pre-matriculation as well as the two intermediate classes. A corollary of this proposal would be the extension of the degree course from two to three years.

In the second place, the Commission advocated the institution of unitary universities, not merely because they might be a means of relieving still further the burden of the already over-weighted affiliating universities, but chiefly because they were convinced that universities of this kind were educationally sound in themselves. They therefore recommended that a unitary university of the strictly unitary type, in which all teaching of a formal nature would be controlled by the university, should be created at Dacca. Encouragement should also be given to promising degree colleges in the mufassal with a view to their also becoming unitary universities as soon as they had acquired sufficient strength and support to stand on their own.

6. The publication of the report of the Commission was the fore-runner of a large number of new universities being instituted. A certain number of these have assumed affiliating functions over comparatively large areas which are defined by legislation. Others of the unitary or semi-unitary type have been brought into existence. On the creation of Agra University in 1927, the University of Allahabad ceased to exercise affiliating functions and became a university of the unitary type in the strict sense of the word.

There are now in India eight universities (Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, the Punjab, Patna, Nagpur, Andhra and Agra) which are of the affiliating type; and there are ten (Benares, Aligarh, Dacca, Allahabad, Lucknow, Rangoon, Delhi, Hyderabad, Mysore and Annamalai) which are to a greater or lesser extent of the unitary type.

The following Tables give information regarding the nature, activities and cost of these universities.

TABLE XXIX.
Universities in India, 1932.

University.	Type (a).	Original date of foundation.	Faculties (b).	No. of Members of Teaching Staff.			No. of Institutions.			No. of Students.			No. of students who graduated in Arts and Science.
				In university departments.	In constituent colleges.	In affiliated colleges.	University departments.	Constituent colleges.	Affiliated colleges.	In University departments.	In constituent colleges.	In affiliated colleges.	
1. Calcutta ..	Affiliating and teaching.	1857	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., M., L., Com., O.	239	..	1,320	24	..	56	1,257	..	25,303	2,044
2. Bombay ..	Affiliating and teaching.	1857	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., M., L., Com., Ag.	4	..	773	1	..	31	87	..	14,412	1,016
3. Madras ..	Affiliating and teaching.	1857	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., M., L., O., Ag.	28	449	897	14	17	55	70	5,942	10,598	1,527
4. Punjab ..	Affiliating and teaching.	1882	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., M., L., Com., O., Ag.	85	41	886	13	3	48	736	869	15,366	1,023
5. Allahabad (c) ..	Unitary ..	1887	A., Sc., L., Com. ..	105	17	1,746	465
6. Benares Hindu ..	Teaching ..	1916	A., So., Ed., Eng., L., O.	190	8	2,993	..	195
7. Mysore ..	Teaching ..	1916	A., Sc., Eng., M., Ed. ..	134	168	..	6	5	..	1,842	991	..	353
8. Patna ..	Affiliating ..	1917	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., M., L.	336	17	4,739	252
9. Osmania ..	Teaching ..	1918	A., Sc., Ed., Eng., M., L.	165	9	856	..	64
10. Aligarh Muslim ..	Unitary ..	1920	A., So., Ed., L., O. ..	105	18	1,150	132
11. Rangoon (d) ..	Teaching ..	1920	A., So., Ed., M., Eng., L.	168	10	..	4	1	..	1,551	123	97
12. Lucknow ..	Unitary ..	1920	A., Sc., Ed., M., L., Com., O.	120	7	1,813	206
13. Dacca ..	Unitary ..	1921	A., Sc., Ed., L., Com. ..	107	13	1,063	172
14. Delhi ..	Teaching ..	1922	A., So., L., Com. ..	11	99	..	3	7	..	98	1,928	..	161
15. Nagpur ..	Affiliating and teaching.	1923	A., Sc., Ed., L., Ag.	7	125	..	1	7	..	345	2,009	252
16. Andhra ..	Affiliating and teaching.	1926	A., Sc., Ed., M., O. ..	6	..	327	1	..	19	30	..	3,775	517
17. Agra ..	Affiliating ..	1927	A., So., Ag., L., Com.	410	15	2,985	399
18. Annamalai ..	Unitary ..	1929	A., So., O. ..	68	3	561	82

(a) An "Affiliating" University is a university which recognises external colleges offering instruction in its courses of studies; a "Teaching" University is one in which some or all of the teaching is controlled and conducted by teachers appointed by the University; a "Unitary" University is one, usually localised in a single centre, in which the whole of the teaching is conducted by teachers appointed by and under the control of the University.

(b) Faculties. A.—Arts; Ag.—Agriculture; Com.—Commerce; Ed.—Education (Teaching); Eng.—Engineering; L.—Law; M.—Medicine; O.—Oriental Learning; Sc.—Science.

(c) Reconstituted in 1921.

(d) Has an affiliated college which is managed by the University.

TABLE XXX.

Expenditure from Government funds on universities and degree colleges during the year 1931-32.

Province.	Expenditure on education from Government funds.	Expenditure on universities from Government funds.	Expenditure on degree colleges from Government funds.	Total of (3) and (4)	Percentage of (5) to (2)
1	2	3	4	5	6
	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	
Madras -- --	2,55,71,715	5,93,500	7,76,552	13,70,052	5.35
Bombay	1,90,01,654	1,22,000	4,90,066	6,12,066	3.22
Bengal -- ..	1,44,50,039	9,96,999	11,63,343	21,60,342	14.95
United Provinces ..	(a) 1,99,97,033	(a) 19,18,946	4,64,143	23,83,089	11.92
Punjab	1,64,92,681	1,82,201	4,18,254	6,00,455	3.64
Burma -- ..	94,26,839	10,28,370	..	10,28,370	10.90
Bihar and Orissa ..	55,67,823	25,000	8,54,520	8,79,520	15.79
Central Provinces ..	47,62,227	42,500	3,49,047	3,91,547	8.22
Assam -- ..	28,82,606	..	2,66,782	2,66,782	9.25
North-West Frontier Province.	18,64,011	..	1,33,644	1,33,644	7.16
Delhi -- ..	11,57,081	1,00,000	90,109	1,90,109	16.43
British India ..	12,46,00,481	61,09,147	50,77,549	1,11,86,696	8.98

(a) Excludes Government of India's recurring grants of Rs. 3 lakhs to Benares University and Rs. 3 lakhs to Aligarh University; also non-recurring grant of Rs. 6 lakhs to each of these universities.

Expenditure in the *United Provinces, Bihar and Bengal* on university education is thus far higher than in other provinces.

7. The following Table gives some idea of the rapidly increasing numbers of students in the several provinces.

TABLE XXXI.

Enrolment in universities.

University.	Enrolment.				
	1917.	1922.	1927.	1931.	1932.
I.—CALCUTTA	28,618	23,044	30,202	24,806	26,560
Patna	2,417	4,817	4,547	4,739
Dacca	1,030	1,339	1,142	1,063
Rangoon	507	1,479	1,550	1,674
Total	28,618	26,998	37,837	32,045	34,036
II.—MADRAS	10,216	12,653	16,922	16,218	16,610
Mysore	1,460	1,749	2,781	2,833
Osmania	345	798	808	856
Andhra	3,136	2,536	3,805
Annamalai	569	561
Total	10,216	14,458	22,605	23,912	24,665
III.—BOMBAY	8,001	8,493	11,411	13,908	14,499
IV.—ALLAHABAD	7,807	6,445	3,244	1,659	1,746
Benares Hindu	1,050	1,936	2,419	2,993
Aligarh Muslim	702	959	923	1,150
Lucknow	632	1,448	1,709	1,813
Agra	2,637	2,985
Nagpur	1,575	2,047	2,354
Total	7,807	8,829	9,162	11,394	13,041
V.—PUNJAB	6,583	7,372	11,416	17,390	16,971
Dalhi	706	1,310	1,700	2,026
Total	6,583	8,078	12,726	19,090	18,997
GRAND TOTALS	61,225	66,856	93,741	100,349	105,238

The Indian university system is still overburdened by an excessive number of students, often with inadequate qualifications. This weakness has been accentuated by the removal of the age-limit for Matriculation with the result that the more competent students, who might be expected to raise the standard and tone of universities, often enter a university prematurely and render even more complex and difficult the teaching and other arrangements.

(ii) *Affiliating universities.*

8. Many efforts have been made to improve the condition of affiliating universities. Relief has been given in certain cases, especially in Calcutta and Madras, by the creation of new universities within their original sphere

of jurisdiction. In many instances the constitution of the governing authorities has been revised so as to render the university more responsive to public opinion and also to give more scope and responsibility by means of academic authorities to those engaged in teaching in dealing with academic matters. Universities have also been encouraged to undertake teaching functions so that they shall cease to be merely examining bodies.

9. In *Madras*, "the most important event of the quinquennium was the enactment of the Madras University Amendment Act of 1929, which sought to remedy the defects of the Act of 1923. . . . The Council of Affiliated Colleges was abolished and the strength of the Academic Council was increased. Some of the ambiguities of the previous Act were corrected, and the powers of the University and of its several authorities were more accurately defined in the Amending Act."¹

The Senate is the supreme governing authority of the University and consists of 210 members who are either nominated or elected. The Academic Council, which has "control and regulation of teaching and examinations within the University", is a very large body and consists of nearly two hundred members.

10. The activities of the University in the matter of research have been widely extended. "In 1927, the departments of Mathematics, Indian Philosophy and the Oriental Research Institute (consisting of Sanskrit, Tamil, Telugu, Kanarese, Malayalam, Arabic, Persian and Urdu sections) were opened."²

11. In 1931, Government addressed the University regarding the need of retrenchment and inquired whether the University would be prepared to forego eight per cent. of the recurring grant of Rs. 3,44,840. The University agreed to the proposed reduction from the grants payable in 1931-32 and 1932-33.

12. The number of students in arts colleges has not fluctuated to any great extent, the number having risen from 12,258 to 12,646 during the quinquennium. There was, however, a large increase in the number reading for Honours, the figures being 552 in 1926-27 and 777 in 1931-32.

13. The most important event during the quinquennium in *Bombay* was the passing of university legislation, whose object was "to reconstitute the University so as to enable it to provide greater facilities for higher education and research, while continuing to exercise due control over the teaching given by affiliated colleges."³

The Senate continues to be the supreme governing body of the University and its size has been increased to 150 members, only forty of whom (as against eighty in the past) are nominated by the Chancellor. The remainder are elected by a number of constituencies such as principals of colleges, university teachers, public associations, registered graduates, faculties and the Legislative Council of the province.

¹ Madras, page 20.

² Madras, page 25.

³ Bombay, page 17.

The Academic Council is the chief authority in academic matters and consists of the Vice-Chancellor, deans of faculties, representatives of university professors and whole-time university teachers, representatives of boards of studies, and five persons elected by the Senate from among the fellows. All elections are made according to a system of proportional representation by means of a single transferable vote. "The results (of this system) do not appear to be free from several of the evils incidental to an elective system."¹

Provision was also made in the Act for a statutory grant by Government, which was fixed at the amount of Rs. 1,17,000, which represented the total of grants previously awarded to the University. The Vice-Chancellor is of opinion that this sum is sufficient to cover normal expenditure, but insufficient for the University to undertake the new teaching activities foreshadowed in the Act. The amount compares unfavourably with the grants given to most other universities.

14. The original intention was that the University should conduct post-graduate teaching in all branches of learning, including technology, but the financial position has prevented such a policy being carried into effect. In its place, a new scheme is being prepared, whereby "post-graduate teaching and research in affiliated colleges can be conducted and co-ordinated under the supervision of the University. . . . The Board of Post-Graduate Studies have now resolved that the co-operation of colleges should be sought, and that, with the help of college teachers appointed as university teachers and working under the control of the University, provision should be made for post-graduate instruction and research".²

The University continues to maintain its School of Economics and Sociology. The number of research students has decreased "on account of a desirable change in the regulations imposing a higher standard of research work."³ The Professor in charge of the School comments on the excellence of the library, and hopes that the School "is now in a position to play that part in the life of the city and Presidency, which a research institute is expected to do by means of systematic studies towards the solution of economic and research problems. In carrying out this desirable object, however, a more active co-operation with leading men in different spheres of life and with different institutions is essential."³

15. The number of students in Arts and Science colleges has risen from 6,984 in 1926-27 to 9,226 in 1931-32, an increase of 2,242 or 32.1 per cent. The report is of opinion that "there are one or two colleges, in which the number of students is excessively large. The first year arts classes are generally overcrowded".⁴

An almost inevitable corollary of this rapid increase is a general lowering of standards. The examiners' reports are disquieting :

"The root of the evil, the intellectual parasitism, which we have been denouncing year after year, lies in the big bloated classes which professors have to handle in this Presidency. . . . Literary Histories, Introductions, Guides, Companions, crambooks of every

¹ Bombay, page 19.

² Bombay, page 27.

³ Bombay, page 28.

⁴ Bombay, page 34.

variety have been diligently ransacked, and their contents, in all stages of accurate or inaccurate reproduction, have been discharged into answer-books. Precision in the answers was conspicuous by its absence. The general run of candidates seem to have had set answers ready and were determined to get them into the answers, whether relevant or not."¹

The University has striven to exercise a greater measure of control over the teaching in colleges than previously. A limit is now prescribed to the number of students to be admitted in individual classes, but no limit is laid down by the University regarding the proportion of students to teachers in colleges as a whole.

16. The *Bengal* report has stated that "Calcutta University, on the whole, maintains the same position and retains the same powers as in the last period. Its bulk has become so unwieldy that no ordinary force can shake its pyramidal immobility."² Amending legislation has been prepared, but up till now without practical effect. It is in the nature of irony that, except for the constitution of the University of Dacca, the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission have had almost less effect on Calcutta University than on any other university of India.

17. The original scheme for post-graduate teaching was initiated before the Calcutta University Commission began its labours. The volume of research has been extended and many eminent scholars are now engaged by the University, but the scheme suffers in that post-graduate work is almost completely divorced from undergraduate work. The expense of the undertaking has been considerable and has involved the University in a large annual deficit, a matter which has given rise to prolonged discussions between the University and Government. As a result of a conference between these two authorities, "Government have now agreed to give an annual recurring grant of Rs. 3,60,000. Post-graduate teachers have been made permanent. The post of an audit officer was created in 1927 to ensure a better checking of university accounts."³

The varying enrolment of post-graduate students has been likened in the report "to the temperature chart of a malaria patient. In six years the number of post-graduate students decreased by nearly 600; in four years it rose by about 650. These violent fluctuations suggest that the enrolment is not based on an altogether real demand. Many students come to the post-graduate classes because they have nothing better to do."⁴ Post-graduate instruction cannot be carried out successfully in such disconcerting conditions.

18. The number of students of all kinds has also suffered from wide fluctuations: "The total number of students (in arts colleges) decreased from 22,420 in 1926-27 to 19,744 in 1931-32, or by 11.9 per cent. In Government colleges the decrease was 4.9 per cent, in aided colleges 11.1 per cent, and in unaided colleges 15.8 per cent. The maximum enrolment during the period was 20,871 in 1929-30, and the minimum in the next year."⁵

The report does not attribute these fluctuations entirely to political reasons: "Though political unrest in general and the civil disobedience

¹ Bombay, pages 37-38.

² Bengal, page 45.

³ Bengal, page 47.

movement in particular interfered with the smooth working of colleges for a time, there was not much talk about the futility of education. It is chiefly the depreciation in agricultural prices, in a province whose prosperity is almost wholly dependent on agricultural products, that has been mainly responsible for the decrease in numbers. This also explains the large reduction of Muslim students who come mainly from the agricultural classes."¹

Economic distress has also been responsible for a very large decrease in the number of students resident in hostels, the numbers of such having declined from 5,807 in 1926-27 to 3,780 in 1931-32.

These decreases provided the authorities with an opportunity of limiting the size of some of the colleges and also of insisting upon the residence of students in approved hostels, especially as more hostel accommodation is now available, but such action does not seem to have been taken. "The colleges vary in size. The largest are in Calcutta; the Vidyasagar College had 2,455 students in 1932, and the Scottish Church, the City, Bangabasi and Ripon Colleges have generally well over a thousand each. This is partly the reason why several of these colleges are unaided—they have a considerable income from fees and are, as a rule, independent."¹

Another evil which might have been checked is the serious congestion of students in the city of Calcutta. "Of the candidates (excluding non-collegiates) who appeared for the intermediate and degree examinations in 1931, no fewer than 58 per cent belonged to Calcutta colleges, while over 52 per cent came from the eight large colleges in the city. . . . Of the B. A. candidates, two colleges supplied one fourth. The tendency for students to flock to the city, particularly to a few large institutions, is gaining strength. Their attractive power is not always due to their superior efficiency, for the percentage of success in some of the largest is well below the average. When it is remembered how difficult it is in larger colleges to create a spirit of solidarity, to establish individual contacts, to develop extra-academic activities, the tendency will not appear healthy."¹

19. It would be premature to discuss at any length the development of *Agra University*, which was only started at the beginning of the quinquennium. The new university was sped on its way by an expression of good wishes from the Vice-Chancellor of Allahabad, feelings which were reciprocated by *Agra University*.

The jurisdiction of *Agra University* extends over the United Provinces (excluding the territorial limits of each of the four unitary universities in the province), Rajputana, Central India and Gwalior. The University affiliates colleges for the degree and post-graduate standards, but does not forbid colleges from retaining intermediate classes.

The Government of the United Provinces awards to the University an annual grant of Rs. 4 500. This amount, together with the fees, enables the University to meet its normal expenditure. An endowment fund is being

¹ Bengal, page 48.

built up, which amounted to Rs. 61,000 at the close of the quinquennium. The Rev. Canon A. W. Davies, the first Vice-Chancellor of the University, made a generous donation of Rs. 50,000 towards the prospective buildings of the University.

Agra College, which owes so much to its late Principal, the Rev. Canon A. W. Davies, is fortunate in that the entire scheme of college buildings has been completed by the erection of a new hostel and physics block. The college mourns the death of two former principals, the Rev. P. I. Haythornwaite and the Right Rev. Dr. H. A. Durrant, fourth Bishop of Lahore.

20. No amending legislation has been attempted in the *Punjab*, but the functions of the Academic Council (which had been constituted in the previous quinquennium within the four corners of the Universities Act of 1904) were widened in 1928, and it was given larger control over matters concerning higher teaching and research.

During recent years the practice has grown up for the University to provide teaching for Honours students in a number of subjects. Success has been achieved in certain science subjects, but many of the Honours schools in arts subjects have had to be abandoned as a result of poor attendance. The University also maintains the Law College, Oriental College and the recently constituted Hailey College of Commerce.

21. The number of students has continued to increase at a rapid pace. In the previous quinquennium, enrolment in arts colleges nearly doubled itself by an average increase of a thousand a year; in the quinquennium under review, the pace has somewhat slackened, but the total increase amounted to about three thousand. The enrolment of the University now approximates 17,000 students. Considerable anxiety is expressed in the report:

"The main problem is whether any method can be devised for checking this flow of students into the University. That no university can possibly cater for the needs of such thousands of students, or can establish reliable standards of examination as a test of their fitness does not need elaboration. The unsuitability of the bulk of the material which enters the University is fully demonstrated by the high percentage of failures in each examination, in spite of the lowness of the standard and the lack of rigour with which that standard is applied."¹

22. There has been much discussion regarding the development of *Patna University* with, apparently, satisfactory results.

From the outset, Government and University were united in the belief that, "though a complete unitary system of administration and teaching is the best, where practicable, the college must remain the unit at *Patna* for administrative purposes"²; and also that, while the University should not assume wide teaching functions, higher teaching should be developed in 'internal' colleges under the control of the University. Discussion has therefore been centred mainly around the measure and manner of that control.

The University first held that "all new appointments to sanctioned post-internal colleges should be made by the Syndicate on the advice of a selection

¹ Punjab, pages 36-37.

² B. & O., page 23.

committee"¹, but Government were unable to accept this proposal in its entirety. After discussion, a compromise was arrived at whereby, "with a view to giving the University an important part in the selection of candidates for college appointments, a permanent board of selection (consisting of the Vice-Chancellor, the Director of Public Instruction, one member who is not a teacher, and two experts in the subject concerned) has been constituted."²

A further advance has been made by the creation of a Central University Board (consisting of the Vice-Chancellor, the heads of internal colleges and two representatives of the governing body of each internal college), which controls inter-collegiate teaching, non-collegiate hostels, and the discipline and corporate life of the students in general.

23. Patna University has also improved the quality of its buildings. The most notable addition has been the completion of buildings for the new Science College, which were opened by His Excellency the Viceroy in 1928. The close contiguity of the internal colleges should be of great assistance to the carrying out of the new co-operative arrangements.

24. The number of Matriculation candidates increased from 3,760 (of whom 1,557 passed) in 1927-28 to 5,342 (of whom 1,782 passed) in 1931-32, whereas the number of B. A. (pass) candidates declined from 782 (of whom 278 passed) in 1927-28 to 735 (of whom 195 passed) in 1931-32.

25. Government award an annual grant of Rs. 20,000, but this amount has been reduced by ten per cent during the period of financial stringency. This sum appears to be inadequate, but it should be borne in mind that Government make a valuable contribution to the promotion of higher studies by the maintenance of Patna and Science Colleges.

26. *Nagpur University* has been fortunate in receiving a munificent bequest of Rs. 33,88,508 from the late Rao Bahadur D. Laxminarayan for the teaching of applied science and chemistry to Hindu students. A committee has been appointed to prepare a scheme for the utilisation of this bequest.

The outstanding event of the quinquennium was the opening of the new Science College in 1929. The total cost of the buildings and fittings amounted to Rs. 19 lakhs. The College provides regular courses of instruction in English up to the B.Sc. standard, and in mathematics, physics, chemistry, botany and zoology up to the B.Sc. standard. It also provides facilities for research students.

Government award to the University an annual grant of Rs. 50,000, but this amount has been reduced to Rs. 42,000 during the time of financial stringency.

The University is still engaged in considering the institution of Honours courses, and syllabuses are now under preparation.

¹ B. & O., page 28.

² B. & O., page 29.

27. The number of students increased from 1,410 to 1,792 during the quinquennium. There has been a growing demand for admission to colleges; every year a large number of students have been refused admission through lack of accommodation. The Principal, Robertson College, Jubbulpore, reports that he has had "to struggle hard to maintain the traditional standard of the College in face of the steady decline in the quality of students"¹. He observes that "the superior attractions of Nagpur have caused the abler students to gravitate to the headquarters of the University"¹.

28. There is, finally, the newly constituted *Andhra University*, in regard to the development of which there has also been much deliberation. A number of amending Acts have been passed by the Madras Legislative Council.

After much discussion, the headquarters of the University have been transferred from Bezwada to Waltair; and the districts of Anantapur, Cuddapah, Kurnool, Bellary and Chittoor have been restored to the jurisdiction of the University of Madras.

29. The finances of the University have been much assisted by statutory grants from Government; a non-recurring endowment grant of Rs. 27 lakhs, an annual block grant of not less than Rs. 1,50,000 for general expenditure, and a non-recurring grant of not less than Rs. 7½ lakhs for buildings and equipment.

With this strong financial support, the University has made headway with its building programme. In 1931, the Senate sanctioned the acquisition of the building formerly occupied by the Hotel Cecil and of a site of 21 acres at a cost of Rs. 2 lakhs, and another site of 31 acres adjoining it at a cost of Rs. 1,10,000. Plans and estimates for the construction of buildings at the cost of about Rs. 4 lakhs have been approved; the new buildings are expected to be ready for occupation in the academic year of 1933-34.

The University College of Arts was opened in 1931 and was located temporarily in the Bobbili Hall which was placed at the disposal of the University by the Hon'ble the Raja of Bobbili, Vice-Chancellor of the University.

(iii) *Unitary universities.*

30. Unitary universities in India can be divided into two categories. The first category consists of those universities which are strictly unitary in type, in which all teaching of a formal nature is conducted by the university and not by colleges; the second category consists of universities which, though they do not possess the power of affiliating colleges at a distance, have associated with them constituent colleges in close proximity. In such instances the university has considerable powers of control over its constituent colleges.

31. Most universities of the first category are in the *United Provinces*—the Universities of Allahabad, Lucknow, the Hindu University at Benares and the Muslim University at Aligarh.

¹ C. P., page 21.

These four universities receive generous grants from Government. The following figures have been taken from the United Provinces report :

TABLE XXXII.
Expenditure on unitary universities in the United Provinces.

University.	1926-27.		1931-32.	
	Provincial funds.	Central funds.	Provincial funds.	Central funds.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Allahabad	7,03,000	Nil.	6,43,966	Nil.
Lucknow	9,91,198	Nil.	11,42,080	Nil.
Benares	Nil.	3,25,000	45,000	{ Recurring 3,00,000 { Non-recurring 6,00,000
Aligarh	44,400	3,25,000	44,400	{ Recurring 3,00,000 { Non-recurring 6,00,000

NOTE: The Lucknow figures include the grant for King George's Medical College, which forms part of the University.

It would not be fair to contrast these large grants with the much smaller amounts which are given to affiliating universities, as the latter receive considerable indirect assistance by the maintenance of Government colleges by Government. Notwithstanding, the cost of these unitary universities is undoubtedly heavy; possibly heavier than India can afford, bearing in mind the large demands for the extension of primary and girls' education.

Such is the view expressed in the report of the United Provinces :

"Notwithstanding the very generous grants already made to university education by Government, most reports breathe a spirit of dissatisfaction with what has been received and an expectation of increase which cannot be satisfied. The limitation of provincial revenues and the increasing demands for a wider spread of elementary and girls' education have checked the growth of expenditure from provincial funds on University education, and it seems possible that a reduction of such expenditure will become necessary. Sources of further taxation have run dry, and it is not to be expected that more money will continue to be forthcoming".¹

The report also records a rapid increase in the number of students in all universities, including the affiliating University of Agra, the number having risen from 3,103 in 1922 to 5,892 in 1927, and to 7,772 in 1932. "There has been a marked increase in post-graduate students, and the universities are generous in subsidising research among such students".¹

¹ U. P., page 13.

32. In the *University of Allahabad*, efforts have been made to improve the efficiency of teaching: "Tutorial instruction has been imparted in colleges, and seminar classes have been held for students not residing in colleges. Under the statutes, no group should consist of more than six students. It has not been possible, for want of a sufficient number of teachers, to adhere to this limit in the case of departments in which the number of students is large".¹ An attempt has been made, however, to restrict the number of students within reasonable limits: "The increase in the number of students could have been much larger. Applications for admission have been refused in order to keep enrolment within the capacity of the staff, accommodation and equipment."¹

On the other hand, the University has extended the scope, and therefore the expenditure, of its teaching by the inclusion of additional subjects: "Important changes have been the institution of a D. Litt. degree in economics; a three years' Honours course for the B. A.; the prescribing of spectroscopy, X-rays and wireless telegraphy and telephony as alternative subjects for the M. Sc.; the institution of a B. Sc. in agriculture coupled with the recognition of the Agricultural Institute, Naini, as a college for the teaching of the subject; and the provision of a certificate of proficiency in French and German"¹, an ambitious and certainly an expensive programme of achievement during the short space of five years.

33. Progress in *Lucknow University* has been on similar lines. The total number of students has increased from 1,448 in 1927 to 1,813 in 1932; there has been "a phenomenal development of post-graduate work in the University."²

There has been much activity in building construction: "The residential aspect of the University has been considerably developed by the addition of ten residential bungalows for members of the staff (cost Rs. 1½ lakhs); by another hostel accommodating a hundred students in Canning College (cost Rs. 1½ lakhs); by the addition of 27 rooms to the hostels of King George's Medical College (cost Rs. 18,000). The Chemistry laboratory has been completed and equipped (cost Rs. 3½ lakhs). A clinical theatre has been built for King George's Medical College (cost Rs. 60,000). A Zoology museum and rooms have been erected and furnished (cost Rs. 61,000). A fern-house has been added to the Botany department (cost Rs. 6,500)."³

The main subject of deliberation has been the relation of the B. A. courses (Honours and Pass) to the M. A. courses. The upshot has been that the M. A. and M. Sc. courses are now thrown open to B. A. and B. Sc. pass graduates as a permanent measure in the same manner as they had been open to Honours graduates in a single year. Thus, what was anticipated would be a temporary measure has become permanent. The reason for this decision is that the old Master's courses, which are reached by a pass degree, have proved extremely popular. Whereas the number of Honours students in the Faculties of Arts and Science increased from 75 in 1925-26 only to 99 at the close of the quinquennium, the corresponding figures for M. A. (Parts I and II) indicated an increase from 137 to 323. It is stated that the future of the three-year Honours courses is by no means bright, unless some definite policy, acceptable to all universities in the United Provinces, is laid down for future guidance. It may be suggested, however, that many students, and those by no means the least competent, prefer the wider range of subjects which is offered by the pass courses.

¹ U. P., page 15.

² U. P., pages 22-23.

³ U. P., page 22.

34. There is a similar tale of rapid expansion from *Benares Hindu University*, where the total number of students has risen from 1,936 to 2,993 during the quinquennium. The wide scope of the University is indicated in the United Provinces report :

"The progress of the University, during the brief period of its existence, has been striking. A large site covering nearly 1,300 acres has been acquired, a new university town has been planned and is being gradually built in this vast campus. Nearly twenty miles of roads have been laid out, and, as the University is situated outside the municipal limits of Benares, it has made its own arrangements for the supply of water, electric light and power. The University has so far instituted 32 departments of teaching, including those of mechanical and electrical engineering, industrial chemistry, mining and metallurgy, and Indian medicine (Ayurvedic); it employs over 200 professors, assistant professors and demonstrators who reside on the university premises; it has on its rolls nearly 3,000 students, 2,000 of whom live in hostels; it has in all erected 175 buildings; it has provided extensive playgrounds, a stadium, a gymnasium, an armoury, a hospital for a hundred indoor patients, a botanical garden and a pharmacy of Indian (Ayurvedic) medicine. It awards 400 scholarships and over 600 free and half-free studentships to poor students. It imparts free education to the students of the College of Theology and Oriental Learning and to women students."¹

It is not surprising that the University has over-taxed its strength in the attempt to carry out this ambitious programme. The Government of India generously came to its rescue by a non-recurring grant of Rs. 15 lakhs for the liquidation of its debt, in addition to enhancing its recurring grant from Rs. 1.25 to Rs. 3 lakhs.

35. In regard to the *Muslim University, Aligarh*, the United Provinces report observes that

"these five years have been a period of great importance. At the beginning of the period the internal affairs of the University were not in a satisfactory condition, and the report of the Rahimtoola Inquiry Committee revealed defects in administration, organisation and teaching. But the work of reform was undertaken with determination and courage, and the last few years have been a time of steadily increasing efficiency and widespread improvement and activity. The University, having set its house in order, can look backward with satisfaction and forward with confidence."²

The steps, which were taken to improve matters, were certainly drastic. On receipt of the report of the Rahimtoola Committee, the Executive Council was reconstituted so as to consist of only three members; the Vice-Chancellor, the Pro-Vice-Chancellor and the Treasurer.

Dr. (now Sir) Ross Masood was appointed Vice-Chancellor and was re-elected as such in 1932 for a further period of three years.

The University suffered a serious blow by the death of Mr. E. A. Horne, who had just been appointed Pro-Vice-Chancellor in 1929. Mr. H. Martin officiated in the post for a few months, and was succeeded by Mr. R. B. Ramsbotham who entered on his duties in February, 1931.

36. The University has also extended the scope and efficiency of its teaching. The Training College is now housed in a building of its own. A complete set of lecture rooms for the Mathematics Department and an additional large lecture-room for the Physics Department have been completed; entirely new buildings are being constructed to house the Departments of Chemistry, Botany and Zoology, while the buildings originally used for the Muslim University School are being converted into a large Physics laboratory. The total

¹ U. P., page 26.

² U. P., pages 29-30.

cost is estimated at about Rs. 8 lakhs, which have been provided by a non-recurring grant from the Government of India and by special donations.

37. The latest addition to the category of unitary universities is *Annamalai University* at Chidambaram in the south of Madras Presidency.

The University owes much to the initiative and generosity of the Honourable Raja Sir Annamalai Chettiar who, in 1923, offered to hand over to the proposed university the three collegiate institutions for higher education in English, Tamil and Sanskrit studies founded and maintained by him at Chidambaram, together with a donation of Rs. 20 lakhs. The Government of Madras were not behindhand and agreed to contribute the sum of Rs. 20 lakhs (afterwards increased to Rs. 27 lakhs) towards the endowment fund, and an annual grant of Rs. 1½ lakhs. A non-recurring grant of Rs. 7.5 lakhs has also been awarded towards the cost of buildings and equipment.

The University has made praiseworthy efforts to render its teaching more efficient than usually obtains in India. A tutorial system has been introduced, the distinguishing feature of which is that small batches of not more than three students are committed to the charge of members of the staff. This arrangement was at first limited to Honours students, but will be extended to Pass students with effect from July, 1932.

38. In the second category of unitary universities (those with constituent colleges), the first for consideration is that at *Rangoon*.

The intention was first to constitute a strictly unitary university, but it was soon realised that it would be inadvisable to sacrifice the fine traditions of Judson College, which is maintained by the American Baptist Mission. It was therefore decided that this college should be transferred to the University campus and that provision should be made in the constitution of the University for the maintenance of its corporate integrity. There is also an Intermediate College at Mandalay, which has been declared "to be an aided institution managed by the University of Rangoon."

The cost of the present University estate, buildings and plant approximated Rs. 1½ crores. The bulk of this large amount was contributed by Government, but liberal assistance was also given by the Burma Oil Company (chiefly for the Burma Oil Company College of Engineering), by the American Baptist Mission (for the new buildings of Judson College), and by private benefactors. Arrangements for constructing the new buildings have been made by the University Building Trust, which carried out its functions so satisfactorily that there was a saving of Rs. 15 lakhs, which were utilised for the erection of a Teachers' Training College.

The result of all this activity is much appreciated in the Burma report :

"During this period the Government of Burma, the American Baptist Mission, the Burma Oil Company and private donors have supplied the province with buildings and equipment, which will meet its needs for many years and are second to none in Asia. The bulk of the cost was met by Government from revenue, not from loans, and this means that tax-payers in Burma have at a time of financial depression made a costly gift to posterity, and that other services and institutions have had to go short during this period. If our university were still unbuilt, less money would be available in future years for compulsory education and other nation-building projects."¹

¹ Burma, page 15.

39. The University of Delhi had had a chequered career, mainly owing to the shortage of funds. The original intention seems to have been to create a strictly unitary university, but many obstacles intervened. The Hartog Committee suggested that "it would be a loss if the healthy traditions of the three colleges were sacrificed by a too rigid adherence to the formula of a unitary university, and that it would be preferable to retain the vigorous life and traditions of the colleges and to place upon the university the duty of organising the higher work."¹

As a temporary arrangement, the University has made its headquarters in the old Secretariat building, while the colleges have continued in their old premises. Future development tends in the direction of a federal university, in which constituent colleges will provide teaching facilities, subject to the control of the University.

Though the Act did not contemplate intermediate teaching forming part of university teaching, intermediate classes are still maintained by colleges.

(iv) *Future prospects.*

40. There is thus a wealth of experience drawn from experiments in many places and in many directions. It is therefore possible to take stock of the present position and to examine the prospects of future development.

41. It has recently been observed that

"the unitary type of university has been most generally adopted in the world because of its obvious advantages. It appeals to the civic pride of great centres of population and, in consequence, has often been the recipient of large benefactions; it offers the best means of correlating examination with teaching; its organisation can provide resources of teaching which are not easily available in separate self-contained colleges. Because of its unity of purpose its constitution need not be cumbrous. Its teaching function is much less subject to the incubus of burdensome administration, which oppresses universities of the affiliating type. It has also the advantage of simpler organisation in faculties and departments, escaping the friction which is inevitable in the affiliating system."²

It is not possible, however, to accept this conclusion without qualification.

42. Though undoubtedly beneficial in certain directions, unitary universities in India have not been successful in affording relief to the already overstrained affiliating universities.

The figures given on page 63 indicate that, in spite of the fact that there are now eighteen universities in India, Calcutta University has an enrolment of 26,000, Madras one of 16,000, Bombay one of 14,000 and the Punjab one of 17,000. The increase in enrolment in Punjab University has been phenomenal. Whereas in 1917 students numbered 6,583, the enrolment in 1932 approximated 17,000 in spite of the creation of Delhi University.

The Hartog Committee were justified in observing that "the requirements of India cannot be met solely by unitary universities, and that the affiliating university is likely to remain for many years to come."³

¹ Hartog Report, page 125.

² Punjab University Enquiry Committee's Report, pages 181-182.

³ Hartog Report, page 122.

43. While expressing opinions generally favourable to unitary universities, the Hartog Committee were constrained to qualify their opinions, at least by implication, that unitary universities in India may not have secured certain conditions which are essential to their success :

" Provided that a corporate life can be evolved in the halls, which is comparable to the traditions of the better colleges in the older universities, that the teaching is properly organised in the several departments of study, and that members of the several university authorities are both competent and capable of understanding the significance of such a university, a unitary university should result in more efficient teaching, in more effective expenditure of available resources, in closer contact between staff and students and in a more stimulating corporate life." ¹

44. Reference has already been made to the strong hold which collegiate ideals have exercised in India, and also to the fine traditions which many colleges possess. Moreover, bearing in mind that students are being introduced to western learning through the medium of a foreign language and that the restraint and influence of religion are largely absent in the Indian university system, there is all the greater need that students shall be handled in smaller units than is often possible in a unitary university. A unitary university, with swollen numbers, would be faced by greater complications than are even the larger colleges of India. Unitary universities have rarely risen through the annihilation of colleges, but have either originated as such or have developed from a single college, which formed part of another university and remained so until it had gathered sufficient strength and support to stand alone. In such cases, collegiate traditions, far from having been stifled, have ripened. Such should be the outcome at Benares, Aligarh and Chidambaram. It is open to question, however, whether in other places the benefits, gained by improved organisation, have not been outweighed by the loss of college traditions which these unitary universities have eclipsed.

45. The recent Commission on Christian Higher Education in India have represented a further difficulty that the natural development of colleges is often embarrassed by the ever-present fear that, with the constitution of a unitary university, their whole character and traditions will be altered :

" With changes in university policy, in some provinces colleges have been faced with acute problems arising from threatened or actual modification of the character and functions of the individual college in relation to the university.... In Burma, the new University of Rangoon was projected on lines which would in effect have excluded the powerful Judson College from any real share in university work. The college was able to put up a strong resistance to the original proposals, which were so modified as to secure for it a permanent place within the university under a constitution which gives it effective control of its own life, together with an honourable share in the fruitful co-operative teaching system of the university."

" The American colleges in the United Provinces were less fortunate. When the unitary Universities of Lucknow and Allahabad were established, it was provided in the Acts that all colleges within ten miles' radius of the Senate Halls of these Universities must either become internal colleges of the University or else cease to exercise any university functions..... The policy was forced upon these two colleges, merely because they happened to be situated in cities which were selected as suitable centres for the development of the new unitary type of university." ²

¹ Hartog Report, pages 121-122.

² Lindsay Commission's Report, pages 73-74.

46. Little is said in the reports about the of the constitutional machinery in unitary universities, but there are indications that the procedure is unnecessarily complicated with the result that time and energy are too often diverted from the primary functions of teaching to the less important function of attending meetings. Authority is often unduly centralised, and insufficient scope is given to heads of university departments and to other important officers.

In every university there is a danger of power passing into the hands of a small clique of interested persons, but the danger is greater if a university is located in a small centre, where there is a paucity of interests and which is aloof from the wider currents of public life. In such cases the best remedy is to make ample provision for the representation of outside interests and persons; this can best be effected by preserving a sufficient measure of nomination.

47. It might have been hoped that, having been freed from wasteful overlapping and duplication which is an almost inevitable concomitant of the affiliating system, unitary universities would have proved to be economical; but such is far from having been the case. Indeed, the main criticism levelled against unitary universities is on the score of expense. The following figures (which are in no way complete) provide justification for this criticism :

TABLE XXXIII.
Cost of Unitary Universities in India.

University.	Initial expenditure or special grants.	Recurring grants.
	Rs.	Rs.
Dacca	47,39,823	5,78,970
Allahabad	2,06,582	6,43,968
Lucknow	3,63,565	11,42,080(a)
Benares	21,27,000	3,53,070
Aligarh	20,00,000	4,00,400
Annamalai	34,50,000	1,50,000
Rangoon	1,48,89,556 (b)	10,28,370
Delhi	1,00,000

(a) Includes the grant for the King George's Medical College.

(b) Initial expenditure.

48. One of the main causes of this high expenditure is the unregulated competition which now runs riot between universities, affiliating as well as

unitary. Each university seeks to be a self-contained unit, bent on providing ample facilities for higher education and research in almost every conceivable subject, heedless and often ignorant of what is being done in other universities. This danger of overlapping is particularly great in the domain of science, in consequence of the high initial and annual expenditure involved.

It is difficult to suggest remedies to prevent this insidious form of extravagance, but India should have a university system which will promote higher learning and research, which will provide suitable training for her young men and women, which, above all, will be within her means.

Considerable improvement has been made in this direction in the United Kingdom by the agency of the University Grants Committee, which keeps in close touch with universities and is thus in a position to give authoritative and experienced advice not only to grant-giving authorities but also to universities themselves. The success of this Committee should be a valuable guide to India in determining this difficult problem. As the Committee includes men of understanding and experience in university work, it commands the confidence of universities, and its visits are welcomed as a means of discussing inherent difficulties and of ascertaining what is being done elsewhere.

The attitude of the Committee is explained by the following extract from the report of the Hilton-Young Committee on the University of London :

"We think it appropriate in this connexion to quote from the Report of the University Grants Committee. "Our conviction, which is in accordance with the national traditions, is that the Universities must be free to control their own destinies and to develop along their own lines. It has therefore been our constant endeavour, in the administration of the Treasury grants, not to impair the autonomy of Universities or to diminish in any way their sense of responsibility. With this aim we have always recommended, and shall continue to recommend, that so far as possible the annual Treasury grants should be given as block grants in aid of a University's general income, and that, provided the obvious limits of financial prudence are not transgressed, it should ultimately remain with each University itself to decide in what precise way its income, including the Government grants, should be distributed over the field of its activities; for without control of finance there can be no effective control of policy." ¹

49. Another contributory cause of extravagant duplication is the provision of wider scope and responsibility for university teachers to exercise a greater control over academic matters by the reconstruction or institution of academic authorities, Academic Councils, Faculties and the like. There is reason to fear that these bodies have sometimes trespassed into the domain of finance.

University administration is very complex. A proposal, for example, to add an optional subject to a course may appear at first sight to be purely an academic matter, but it has also financial implications. It is at least open to question whether the financial implications of the numerous additions to the activities of universities have been sufficiently examined during the last five years and whether the financial and teaching resources of universities have been adequately safeguarded. It is, further, not merely a question whether such innovations can be afforded, but also whether unregulated competition between universities is calculated to promote the greatest efficiency of teaching.

¹ Hilton-Young Committee's Report, page 20.

In order to meet this danger, Standing Finance Committees have been instituted in some universities, one of whose functions is to rule out expenditure which is in excess of the income and resources of the university. This is a move in the right direction, but Standing Finance Committees need assistance by the preparation of complete memoranda showing the implications of all such proposals from every aspect.

50. It is also doubtful whether much further relief can be given to affiliating universities by their being split up into a number of similar universities. There is danger of a deterioration of standards which will react also on all universities. There is a further danger that, if the headquarters of a university are in a small locality, with a paucity of interests, control will gravitate into the hands of a clique residing in the vicinity and that there will be perpetual cleavage and controversy between the university and its component parts.

51. Another matter which has given rise to keen controversy is the assumption of teaching functions by affiliating universities. In the same way that it is of doubtful value to create unitary universities as a result of the annihilation of colleges, it is also of doubtful value to build up teaching universities by periodical withdrawal of teaching functions from the colleges and by vesting them directly in the university. University teaching should supplement, not supplant, the activities of colleges. A college cannot be in a position to make plans for the future and to widen its scope, if that scope may be contracted at any time by the transfer of further responsibilities to the university.

There should be no sharp distinction between 'university' and 'college' teaching; still less between 'Honours' and 'Pass' teaching by vesting the former in the university and the latter in the colleges, and by thus creating an atmosphere of competition between the university and its colleges. There is also a danger of unnecessary duplication of staff and accommodation between these rival authorities.

Though, again, special facilities should be provided for the more gifted students, it is not advisable, bearing in mind the inadequate schooling which many have received and the difficulties encountered by the use of a foreign medium, for students to engage themselves prematurely in highly specialised studies. Such, indeed, appears to be the view held by many of the students themselves (and those by no means the least competent) in that they prefer the wider range of subjects provided by the Pass courses. It is not in the best interests of India that so many students of capacity should become specialists in the strict sense of the word. What India needs to-day, and will need still more in the immediate future, is a number of men and women who have been well grounded in general subjects and possess that width of knowledge which is essential either as a preparation for public life or for specialised study at a later stage.

The Calcutta University Commission held strong views as to the advisability of this tendency :

"Another group of correspondents propose that the beginning already made by the University in the provision of post-graduate courses should be extended; and that the courses for the degree of B. A. and B. Sc. with Honours should be separated from the Pass courses and undertaken directly by the University. It is added by the advocates

of this scheme that in order to cope with its new functions, the University should absorb Presidency College, the whole property and income of which should be transferred by Government. The other colleges should be left to do Pass-teaching only. The supporters of this plan are content to assign to them a humble function, for which they might be sufficiently manned with teachers mainly second-rate.

"This scheme is inspired by two sound and praiseworthy motives: in the first place a desire to draw a distinction between students of exceptional ability and students of only average powers, and to provide for them a better training than is now open to them; in the second place, a belief that the University ought to exercise a more effective control over the teaching given in its name than it now does. Both of these ends ought to be secured by a well-devised scheme of reorganisation; but it is doubtful whether they would be satisfactorily attained by bringing the whole body of the students.....under the control of a single, huge, centralised lecture-mechanism."

"A further, and perhaps more important, effect of this scheme would be to reduce the colleges to a position of insignificance and humiliation and to make an unhappy cleavage among the student body. The students would be divided into two classes: superior beings called 'university students', and inferior beings called 'college students'; and both sides would suffer....The University, in fact, would become an over-powering competitor with its own colleges; a competitor in the unfair position of being able to impose whatever conditions it pleased on its rivals and to establish for itself a monopoly of all the most interesting work. It would draw away from the colleges all their ablest teachers. The ultimate result might well be to reduce the colleges to such a state of insignificance that their continued existence would scarcely be worth while."¹

52. A better solution of these vexed problems would appear to lie in the direction of a federal type of university, in which the university and its colleges (especially those which are in close vicinity) would be bound together in a close co-operative union.

A Committee, which sat in 1925 to consider the future development of the University of London, has made a great contribution by defining the main features of a federal university and by making suggestions how these ideals can best be attained:

"The ideal conception of the University of London on its teaching side is an organic association of institutions, all actively engaged in university work and each foregoing some measure of full autonomy in order to share in and contribute to the life and government of the University as a whole."²

In order to achieve this ideal, the Committee advocated a true spirit of co-operation between the university and its constituent colleges. On the one hand, the university should be prepared to admit the colleges as such into partnership in its governance; on the other hand, the colleges should be prepared to surrender to the university an effective measure of control so that the resources of all shall be used in the most effective and economical manner.

The first condition of a federal university is comparatively easy of attainment; much has already been done towards this end in recent university legislation. In many universities, colleges as such are represented on the authorities of the university; they do not have to depend, as formerly, on the fortuitous selection of members of their staffs on the several university bodies. There is no reason why this practice of institutional representation should not become general in Indian universities.

It is more difficult, however, to fulfil the second condition, whereby colleges shall surrender to the university part of their almost unfettered autonomy

¹ Calcutta University Commission's Report, Volume IV, pages 251-252.

² Hilton-Young Committee's Report, page 30.

and shall assent to the university exercising effective control over their teaching and internal arrangements. It may be suggested, however, that a reasonable measure of university control would be preferable to the present tendency whereby the actual scope of collegiate activities is always liable to reduction.

53. Lord Curzon's Government realised the weakness of university control and felt that a university whose main functions are those of prescribing courses and conducting examinations is almost powerless to organise teaching resources with a view to improvement. An attempt was therefore made in 1904 to remedy this defect by tightening up the conditions of affiliation and by insisting upon inspection of colleges by the university, but it is difficult to effect improvement merely by these means.

The prescription of courses may be beneficial in maintaining a minimum standard in the weaker institutions, but it may also be a means of cramping the activities of more efficient institutions. Taken by itself, it is an imperfect means of exercising control.

Care should also be taken, before granting affiliation to a college, to provide that reasonable conditions of efficiency are observed, but it does not follow that these conditions shall necessarily be maintained. It is often difficult for a university to obtain complete and timely information about the conditions of a college. Without such information a college may deteriorate without the university being aware of the fact until it is too late. In that case, the only possible corrective is withdrawal of affiliation, which is too drastic a measure to be often taken.

University inspections, again, are often carried out somewhat perfunctorily and salutary recommendations often pass unheeded. Inspection should be regarded as a means of securing efficiency and economy, and not as a minor source of expenditure which can be jettisoned in times of retrenchment.

54. The London University Committee, however, went much further in advocating university control. The Committee recommended in the first place, that constituent colleges should hand over to the university an effective measure of control in respect to finance and appointments.

In the matter of finance, it was suggested that a federal university would conduct negotiations on behalf of its colleges with grant-giving bodies regarding proposals for further financial assistance. For this purpose, a university in India would forward to Government all applications for additional grants, whether for itself or for constituent colleges, together with a reasoned statement of the present position and of future requirements. Such procedure would be calculated to combine economy with efficiency. An isolated application might appear justifiable when viewed from the limited aspect of an individual college, but it might not remain so when viewed from the wider aspect of the needs of the university as a whole. It is vital that money should be spent in accordance with a well-thought out scheme, and not on the basis of incomplete information.

55. A similar principle obtains in making appointments, especially senior appointments, in constituent colleges. It is not merely a matter of ensuring that recruits to college staffs shall possess adequate qualifications; such objective might be obtained by the recognition of individual teachers, though

the means of carrying out such a policy might be difficult. It is more important that new recruits shall possess those special qualifications which are most required by the university as a whole. A new appointment should be the means of filling a gap and not, as so often happens, of duplicating what is already available. A university should therefore have an effective say in the making of appointments, though precaution should be taken to avoid appointments which would be antagonistic to the ideals and traditions of a college.

This is a matter of vital importance. It is the teachers who make a university; if, therefore, a university is to obtain the best teachers and to ensure conditions which will enable them to do their best work, it must have some say in their appointments and in maintaining for them sound conditions of work and service.

56. It was the Calcutta University Commission, which first gave a lead in this matter :

"In short, under a new and happier system, the University ought not to stand in the relation of a task-master to its constituent colleges. It ought to assist and strengthen them. It can do this in part by giving guidance and advice and by encouraging its best men to take a deeper interest in college work; in part by providing instruction such as the colleges themselves could not provide; in part by giving recognition and emoluments to the best college teachers and thus helping colleges to retain good men on their staffs."¹

Rangoon University has developed in the direction of intimate association with its constituent colleges. The optimistic remarks in the Burma report, already quoted, are a source of encouragement.

Bombay University is also adopting a similar trend of policy: "Attempts have been directed towards evolving a scheme, whereby post-graduate teaching and research in the affiliated colleges can be controlled and co-ordinated under the supervision of the university".² This is at any rate a beginning, though perhaps only a small beginning. It is a pity that the sphere of co-ordination is limited to post-graduate work and research; the natural corollary is that all work should be of a university standard and should therefore benefit by a policy of co-ordination. But such co-ordination would be impossible in present conditions, when Intermediate classes (which are acknowledged to be below university standard) are maintained by colleges.

The most notable advance has been made in Patna University. The recent institution of a Board (on which both the University and constituent colleges are duly represented) for the purpose of making certain collegiate appointments has already been noted. Reference has also been made already to the constitution of the Central University Board with the object of controlling collegiate teaching and other important matters.

The University of Delhi would appear to provide admirable opportunities for developing a university of the federal type. The one thing needed for the fulfilment of this aim is a central site, on which the university and its constituent colleges could be congregated.

¹ Calcutta University Commission's Report. Volume IV, page 239.

² Bombay, page 27.

(v) *School foundations.*

57. These suggestions for bringing about a better co-ordination of teaching resources under the control and supervision of universities, however, will be but palliatives of the present discontents, so long as universities continue to be overburdened and, indeed, overwhelmed by functions which should not come within their scope. The root of the trouble is, as has been suggested, the ever-increasing numbers of students, many of whom are unfitted to benefit by university instruction.

It has been suggested by the Calcutta University Commission as well as by other authorities and persons that a remedy for this defect would be to remove the intermediate classes from the jurisdiction of universities and also to strengthen the school foundations by the formation of intermediate colleges.

58. Attempts have been made to carry out, though incompletely, this proposal; notably in Bihar, the Punjab, the United Provinces and at Dacca.

The *Bihar* report is scarcely optimistic as to the value of high schools with intermediate classes attached to them: "These institutions are not likely to be very successful, because the better students will always, if they can, join first-grade colleges at the first year stage; on the other hand, there may be cases where local endowments or pressure on the accommodation in first-grade colleges render second-grade colleges necessary".¹

The *Punjab* report also alludes to obstacles in the way of intermediate colleges achieving complete success:

"The Punjab possesses the largest number of intermediate colleges of the new type. The main object in founding these colleges was to prevent the congestion of young and immature boys in the crowded atmosphere of Lahore, and also to provide a more suitable method of instruction than the lecture method at the intermediate stage. The new colleges are of the four-year type, combining the two matriculation with the two intermediate classes, and students should stay in these institutions for a continuous period of four years, during which time the institution would be able to mould their characters and form in them proper habits of study and discipline. None of these objects have been achieved to any great extent. The congestion in Lahore colleges is still on the increase. The intermediate colleges have met with very great difficulty in recruiting suitable material for Class IX. These school classes are often very small, while the intermediate classes are overflowing. These colleges have therefore to rely mainly upon admissions in the first intermediate class from outside and are not therefore able to train their students for more than two years."²

59. The report of the *United Provinces* is written in more optimistic tones. The reason for optimism is that the scheme has been carried out with greater completeness than elsewhere in consequence of the removal of the intermediate classes from the jurisdiction of universities and of the constitution of a Board of High School and Intermediate Education; but the success of the scheme has been qualified by the failure to lengthen the degree course from two to three years and by other reasons.

The Board consists of the Director of Public Instruction as chairman and various members, nominated and elected, representing universities, different classes of educational institutions, the legislature and other public bodies. The secretary is a member of the Education Department.

¹ B. & O., page 30.

² Punjab, page 39.

The functions of the Board are wide. It conducts the High School and Intermediate examinations; it prescribes courses for the middle, high and intermediate stages; it accords recognition to high schools and intermediate colleges, but the recognition of middle schools is in the hands of inspectors of schools. The Board arranges for the inspection of intermediate colleges by the agency of inspectors drawn from a panel of inspectors prepared by the Board, with whom is associated the circle inspector.

A committee, which was appointed "to examine the criticisms passed on the working of the Board did not endorse those criticisms, but recommended the appointment of a headmaster for the junior section of an intermediate college with Classes III to XI, when under five hundred enrolment, and the housing of the upper classes in a separate block, when over five hundred."¹

60. The report of the United Provinces is of particular interest, because there is available a wealth of experience in respect to the type of institution in which intermediate education can best be given.

"There are three types of institutions: the degree college with intermediate classes; large institutions with Classes III to XII; and smaller institutions with Classes IX to XII. The last is generally found to be unsuitable as, with no school from which to recruit Classes IX and X, it tends to be top-heavy with single sections in Classes IX and X and as many as six or seven in Classes XI and XII. As there is no recruitment worth mentioning from Classes IX and X, the college becomes an amorphous body with no traditions, as the majority of boys enter in Class XI and are not there long enough to be influenced. The intermediate classes should not become top-heavy with the majority of boys coming from other schools. They should be fed as much as possible from the same institution, so that the influence and traditions of the college shall have good opportunity of working on the students for a sufficient period.

"Intermediate colleges are still criticised on the ground that they are neither college nor school. They were never meant to be colleges in the true sense of the word, but places where the school-boy element—unwisely included in university classes—should be restored to their proper environment of the class room. The argument so often put forward that intermediate colleges lack the academic atmosphere is due to a misunderstanding of their purpose. They are essentially schools, and their object is to give better teaching in preparation for the university and not in place of the university. The university course was to have been three years, but this necessary step has never been taken and universities still continue their truncated course of two years. That intermediate colleges give better teaching is no longer open to doubt, while they are cheaper than degree colleges; they are a success and have come to stay. The most suitable type is the institution which has a junior school in a separate building containing Classes III to VI, while Classes VII to XII are housed and supervised separately. The reason for this preference is the necessity of preserving a proper continuity of methods and traditions and of ensuring a steady flow of boys who have been under the influence of the institution from the beginning."²

61. Progress has thus been made towards solving a crucial problem of Indian education, if only by process of trial and error.

The *Punjab* has endeavoured to put the scheme of the Calcutta University Commission into operation by means of a four-class institution, separate and self-contained, with a definite objective; but the intermediate stage has remained within the jurisdiction of the University, with the result that the University is still overwhelmed by school functions, while intermediate colleges present an unsatisfactory compromise between a school and a college.

¹ U. P., page 33.

² U. P., pages 34-35.

Moreover, the course of an intermediate college is split in twain by the Matriculation examination; there is therefore a rivalry of activities as well as of authority. But the greatest defect of the Punjab institution is that it is not articulated with the scheme of school education. In consequence, there is serious overlapping with high schools in respect to Classes IX and X, and an intermediate college becomes in practice little more than a second-grade college.

The *United Provinces* have removed the intermediate classes from the jurisdiction of universities, and thus relief, sorely needed, has been given to the latter. The Board of Intermediate and High School Education has also successfully withstood the test of scrutiny by a committee appointed to consider its working. But even the type of institution most favoured is unsatisfactory to the extent that it is merely a prolongation of the secondary course, the inevitable tendency being for all pupils, whatever their bent and competence, to prepare themselves for admission to a university.

62. The root of the trouble lies deeper. It is not sufficient merely to remove the intermediate classes from the jurisdiction of the University and to substitute similar classes either at the top of an already over-burdened school or in combination with a couple of classes wrenched away from existing high schools; it is even more necessary to reconstruct the whole system of school education.

The Hartog Committee repeated a criticism, often made but never corrected:

"In the present system, all sections of the community, with their different occupations, aptitudes and outlook, have little, if any, choice of the type of school to which they shall send their children. In fact, the present type of high and middle school has established itself so strongly that other forms of education are opposed and mistrusted; there is a marked tendency to regard the passage from the lowest primary class to the highest class of a high school as the normal practice for every pupil. There is nothing corresponding to the exodus from many English secondary schools either into practical life or into vocational institutions."¹

The result of this tendency is that the work of the high classes of secondary schools (and consequently university classes also) is clogged by pupils, sometimes of nineteen or twenty years of age, who are unnecessarily prolonging their literary education and are thus wasting their own time as well as other people's money and opportunities. If once the high schools were relieved of this burden, the problem would become easier of solution.

The problem will not be solved merely by the arbitrary removal of these pupils. It is not equitable that boys should be denied all facilities for education, merely because they have no bent for literary education. Effective substitutes more suited to their needs and capacities are required.

Such substitute would be a type of higher vernacular education in rural areas, which will be capable of expansion, which will be in harmony with village conditions and requirements, which will train up boys and girls desirous of remaining a part of the village and of spending lives of service to the countryside; in urban areas it would ordinarily take the form of vocational training of various types, imparted in separate institutions and properly adjusted to the general scheme of education.

¹ Hartog Report, page 104.

63. A further defect in the system is the practice of holding biennial examinations, which are often held in the middle of a course. This unfortunate practice not only dislocates the working of the schools ; it also results in a waste of time and money.

The practice varies in the several provinces, but in general there is an examination at the end of the primary stage at Classes IV or V ; there is, again, another examination at the end of the middle stage at Classes VIII or IX, which is followed by Matriculation two years later, again by an Intermediate examination two years later, and yet again by a Degree examination two years later. A further complication arises in the fact that a pupil is apt to change unwisely his subjects, and often his place of education. In each case he spends about half of the first year after each interruption in adapting himself to new conditions and often to new surroundings, and half of each second year to 'cramming' (he has little alternative) for each impending examination.

A further complication is caused in many provinces by a change in the medium of instruction towards the end of the course, with the result that general subjects (which have hitherto been studied through the medium of the vernacular) have to be re-learned through the medium of English.

64. The remedy is to be found in a regrouping of the several stages of education so that each shall have a unity of aim and objective. It should not be necessary (as so often happens) for pupils to be obliged to attend schools of a higher grade in order to attain the objective of a lower stage of education. For example, pupils often have to attend middle schools in order to complete their primary education, while boys proceed to college after having passed Matriculation in order to complete their school education.

The primary course should be of sufficient length to enable pupils to obtain that modicum of knowledge which their parents desire and which would give them a firm grasp of literacy. There should be no necessity for them to pass on to a higher stage in order to realise their modest objective.

The present middle schools do not form a separate stage of education but are merely half-way houses along the road to Matriculation. In consequence, those who leave school at the end of the middle stage have by no means accomplished the task which they set out to perform. It seems advisable, therefore, to constitute a middle or secondary course, whose object should be to provide a general education complete in itself and untrammelled by university requirements. Only those who have a bent for literary studies should prolong them beyond that stage. Those who do not possess that bent should be diverted either to practical occupations or to separate vocational institutions. It would probably be advisable to make this modified secondary course of somewhat shorter duration than the present Matriculation course and the medium of instruction throughout should be the vernacular. In consequence, many boys, who now remain at school and make many fruitless attempts to pass Matriculation, would be released from their literary studies at an earlier age. The arrangement of the course would be simplified by the absence of any interruption caused by an intervening examination or by a change in the medium of instruction.

With this shortened secondary course, it would then be possible to devise for those, who desired it and were suitably qualified, a higher secondary or intermediate course, free from the present complications and also from an unnecessary examination which interrupts continuity of study and obtrudes a divided purpose.

(vi) *General activities, conduct and discipline.*

65. Considerable progress has been made in broadening the basis of college and university activities, but in affiliating universities these activities ordinarily circle round the college, not the university ; with the increasing size of colleges, they tend to become the monopoly of the few, not the right of the many.

The following extract from the *Central Provinces* report may be regarded as typical:

"Corporate activities have been developed in various ways, among which common messes, co-operative stores, debating societies and social gatherings find an honourable place. These activities have provided opportunities not only for the development of *esprit de corps*, but also for the preparation of students for the larger after-college life, in which co-operation with their fellow citizens is so essential. In short, they afford a training ground for citizenship and, although instances of communal jealousy, mismanagement and irresponsibility have come to light, there can be no question that they exercise a valuable influence on the lives of all students who take part in them".¹

66. The following Table has been kindly provided by Army Department.

TABLE XXXIV.
University Training Corps.

University.	Unit.	When constituted.	Sanctioned establishment (All ranks).	Actual strength on 1st April 1932.				
Bombay	1st (Bombay) Battalion	1921	663	668				
Calcutta	2nd (Calcutta) Battalion	1921	663	321				
Allahabad	} 3rd (United Provinces) Battalion	1921	663	660				
Bonares								
Aligarh								
Lucknow	} 4th (Lahore) Battalion	1921	663	624				
Punjab								
Madras								
5th (Madras) Battalion					1921	663	586	
Kangoon					6th (Burma) Battalion	1921	663	591
Patna					7th (Patna) Company	1922	165	102
Delhi					8th (Delhi) Battalion	1924	330	290
Nagpur					10th (Nagpur) Battalion	1928	330	270
Bombay					11th (Karachi) Company	1928	165	147
Dacca					12th (Dacca) Company	1928	76	72
Total	5,044	4,340	

67. Complaints are often made that the cost of living among students is rapidly rising, that extravagance is rife, that moral aberrations are not infrequent. These dangers are particularly insidious where, especially in Lahore

¹ C. P., page 22.

and Calcutta, large numbers of students (many of them still at the intermediate stage) are congregated from mufassal homes amid the temptations of a large city. These dangers have been described by Dr. E. D. Lucas, Forman Christian College, Lahore :

"The increasing freedom of the student population in Lahore owing to inadequate staff to cope with the numbers and to the attraction of the cinema, the cafe, and the club, makes the problem of students' morals a matter of supreme importance. At the same time the impact of modern science has loosened the hold of customs and religion. No adequate study of student life in Lahore has been undertaken and we are therefore ignorant of the facts. But there is a wide-spread complaint on the part of parents regarding extravagance, foppish dress, card-playing, the influence of the cinema and the growing lack of reverence and discipline which, if true, bodes ill for the future. There is much greater freedom between the sexes, and some contend that there is increasing immorality. In such matters it is very hard to prove where one generation stands in respect of another. But we, who are older, know at least that strong, upright, pure and purposeful lives are not built on the foundations of an epicurean philosophy of life."¹

In these arresting words Dr. Lucas was referring to problems which are world-wide ; but the dangers are particularly great in India, where the transition from orthodox restraints to almost boundless freedom is often very abrupt. The dangers must be alarmingly great to those from mufassal homes who are thrust at an early age amid temptations inseparable from a large city. As many as 1,909 out of a total of 3,252 intermediate students in Lahore come from mufassal homes.

68. Unfortunate political influences have also been rife, and actual disturbance has not been uncommon.

The *United Provinces* report states that

"towards the end of the quinquennium the internal discipline of the universities was severely tested by the attempt made by Congress to enlist the university staffs and students in agitation against Government authority ; in the cases of Allahabad, Lucknow and Benares Universities and of some colleges of Agra University the Congress attempts had considerable success. The authorities of the different universities and colleges were reluctant to take the steps necessary to enforce discipline, and there was an undignified acquiescence in the behests of the various 'dictators'.²

In the *Central Provinces*, "the civil disobedience movement infected the students of all colleges, which had to be closed for varying periods."³

Life in *Presidency College, Calcutta*, has not been free from difficulty :

"From the point of view of discipline the period has been a trying one. Occasional attempts were made by outside agencies to interfere with the normal working of the College. In 1928-29 the governing body took disciplinary action against the student secretary of the College Union, which created a temporary disturbance. Soon after, on the arrival of the Simon Commission, a general strike was attempted. This compelled the closing of the College and the Eden Hindu Hostel for about a month. The All-Bengal Students' Association then took up the matter and endeavoured to organise another strike. The attempt collapsed and a further batch of students, who had taken part in picketing, were required to leave. In July, 1930, after the arrest of the Nehrus, an effort was made to stop all educational work in the city, but the college continued to work guarded by police."⁴

The *Bombay* report recites a similar tale of disturbance and dislocation of work :

"The highly charged political atmosphere during 1930-31 had its inevitable effect upon the work and discipline of colleges. Mention has already been made of the unfor-

¹ Punjab, pages 42-43.

³ C. P., page 22.

² U. P., page 14.

⁴ Bengal, page 54.

fortunate occurrences at Fergusson College, Poona. On days which were proclaimed as public *holidays* attendance was as a rule poor. Attempts at picketing met with little or no response. The Civil Disobedience movement, however, had a particularly marked effect on the attendance at Gujarat College, Ahmedabad, in which the number of students fell from 700 to 135 in the first term of 1930-31. In the Sind National College, Hyderabad, there was considerable excitement, which reacted on the discipline and normal work of the college and resulted in the withdrawal of Government grant-in-aid."¹

The Burma report indicates that the influence of what should have been a beneficent institution has been perverted by unfortunate political influence:

"A Students' Union was founded in 1931 with great enthusiasm and has become the nucleus of social activities for undergraduates. It has also published a magazine, organised a National Day Celebration, attempted to influence the academic policy of the University, and has sometimes supported movements against authority with the support of the vernacular press. For these reasons the Union has attracted the eye of the newspaper reader more frequently than any other university institution."²

69. There is, at least, a silver lining to this dark cloud of depression. In some universities and colleges, there has been not merely abstention from political disturbance, but active steps towards the maintenance of order:

The *Bihar* report is at any rate largely negative:

"The colleges have suffered very little from the political unrest of the last few years. There has been occasional political excitement and attempts at picketing have occurred . . . , but in no case has there been substantial interference with work. Neither the people of the province generally nor the students themselves wish the work of colleges and schools to be interrupted; so long as this is the case prolonged trouble is unlikely."³

In the *United Provinces*, "the Muslim University, Aligarh, remained unaffected during the political ferment, and there have been no disciplinary difficulties."⁴

Active support of discipline is recorded in the *Bengal* report in Chittagong College:

"During the quinquennium, Chittagong was in a state of great disturbance. The armoury raid and the terrorist activities, which culminated in the murder of Khan Bahadur Ahsan Ullah, Inspector of Police, greatly disturbed the town, and naturally repercussions were felt in the college. But the students as a whole behaved very well, and during the riots which followed the murder of Khan Bahadur Ahsan Ullah the Muslim students acted splendidly in trying to restore calm; Muslim students voluntarily and spontaneously guarded the houses of teachers of the college."⁵

70. These warnings render it all the more necessary to strengthen the school foundations of the university system and to provide for the youth of India that bracing influence which should result from good school discipline and training. The opinions of the Indian Military College Committee are valuable in this connexion:

"There does not seem to us sufficient guarantee that boys have always received an adequate grounding in what are usually considered to be the basic subjects of school education. Such general education should be given, in our opinion, in a good and well-regulated school, but we observe that many boys pass Matriculation at the early age of fifteen (or even younger) and then proceed to a college. They thus lose the bracing stimulus of school life, and are denied suitable training in those qualities which are so valuable to success in life. However beneficial it may be in other directions, a college education is no substitute for good school education (with its school discipline, its school games, and its school methods of work) for boys who are on the threshold of professional study."⁶

¹ Bombay, page 38.

² B. & O., pages 31-32.

³ Bengal, page 61.

⁴ Burma, page 11.

⁵ U. P., page 29.

⁶ Indian Military College Committee's Report, page 3.

CHAPTER IV.

SECONDARY EDUCATION (BOYS).

(i) *The drift to college and unemployment; causes and remedies.*

The Table below gives the main figures regarding secondary schools of all types in British India :

TABLE XXXV.

Secondary schools and their enrolment.

Year.	High schools.		Middle English schools.		Middle vernacular schools.		All secondary schools.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
1921-22	2,040	559,258	2,864	264,158	3,249	315,072	8,153	1,138,488
1926-27	2,444	744,444	3,201	349,233	4,728	621,984	10,373	1,715,661
1931-32	2,801	873,902	3,575	413,770	5,894	805,918	12,570	2,093,490
Increase between 1922-27.	404	185,186	337	85,075	1,479	306,912	2,220	577,173
Increase between 1927-32.	357	129,358	674	64,537	1,166	183,934	2,197	377,829

It is surprising that the number of additional schools during a period of retrenchment should have been approximately the same as in the previous quinquennium, a period of comparative plenty. On the other hand, the number of additional pupils is only about two-thirds of that recorded five years ago. The provision of new schools has therefore outpaced the enrolment of new pupils. Even more remarkable and regrettable is that, whereas the pace of instituting anglo-vernacular schools has quickened, that of instituting vernacular schools has slackened. The drift to college and to unemployment has therefore deepened.

2. Statistics regarding high, middle English and vernacular middle schools in the provinces are given in the following Tables :

TABLE XXXVI.

High schools and their enrolment, by provinces.

Province (with male population in millions).	1926-27.		1931-32.		Increase.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
Madras (23·0)	342	139,477	378	157,083	36	17,606
Bombay (11·5)	187	68,040	221	81,358	34	13,318
Bengal (26·0)	1,003	238,461	1,096	261,938	93	23,477
United Provinces .. (25·4)	161	59,788	190	77,607	29	17,819
Punjab (12·8)	301	114,863	323	131,655	22	16,792
Burma (7·4)	149	40,251	206	54,884	57	14,633
Bihar and Orissa .. (18·7)	135	38,197	169	48,034	34	9,837
Central Provinces .. (7·7)	49	4,902	67	7,750	18	2,848
Assam (4·5)	45	15,299	61	20,121	16	4,822
North-West Frontier Province. (1·3)	25	9,764	29	12,477	4	2,713
Delhi (0·37)	12	4,225	21	6,173	9	1,948
BRITISH INDIA (including minor administrations).	2,444	744,444	2,801	873,802	357	129,358

TABLE XXXVII.

Middle English schools and their enrolment, by provinces.

Province.	1926-27.		1931-32.		Increase (+) or decrease (-).	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
Madras	212	27,583	174	26,471	-38	-1,112
Bombay	262	19,912	374	24,829	+112	+4,917
Bengal	1,616	142,684	1,845	161,498	+229	+18,814
United Provinces ..	88	10,724	100	12,999	+12	+2,275
Punjab	218	48,539	229	50,013	+11	+1,474
Burma	112	17,292	119	16,898	+7	-394
Bihar and Orissa ..	321	34,009	581	63,012	+260	+29,003
Central Provinces ..	156	23,511	189	27,222	+33	+3,711
Assam	155	13,412	202	17,627	+47	+4,215
North-West Frontier Province	13	3,543	13	3,523	..	-20
Delhi	17	3,837	22	4,986	+5	+1,149
BRITISH INDIA (including minor administrations).	3,201	349,233	3,875	413,770	+674	+64,537

TABLE XXXVIII.

Vernacular middle schools and their enrolment, by provinces

Province.	1926-27.		1931-32.		Increase (+) or decrease (-).	
	Schools	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
Madras*
Bombay*
Bengal ..	74	4,802	54	3,938	-20	-816
United Provinces	628	60,453	710	86,560	+84	+26,107
Punjab	2,114	328,291	3,241	457,514	+1,127	+129,223
Burma	1,102	111,191	955	119,093	-147	+7,892
Bihar and Orissa ..	242	25,105	129	13,515	-113	-11,590
Central Provinces	335	61,402	359	69,837	+24	+8,435
Assam ..	145	17,601	194	26,207	+49	+8,606
North-West Frontier Province	70	11,629	199	24,149	+129	+12,520
Delhi ..	8	997	32	3,143	+24	+2,146
BRITISH INDIA (including minor administrations).	4,728	621,984	5,894	805,918	+1,166	+183,934

* In Madras and Bombay, figures are not available as middle classes are included in elementary schools.

The enrolment in these types of school is misleading, as it often includes pupils in primary departments.

3. The above Tables show remarkable variations between provinces.

While the number of vernacular middle schools in *Bengal* is negligible, nearly forty per cent. of high schools and fifty per cent. of middle English schools in the whole of British India are in that province. The opinion expressed in the last chapter that the several stages of education in India are too intermingled and that a definite objective is lacking in all stages is fortified by the report. Because "the literacy of those who stop at the close of the primary stage is precarious, two out of every three boys who reach Class IV pass on to the middle stage; practically all of these to middle English schools".¹ The middle English stage, however, "is not complete in itself, but is a preparation for the high stage". In consequence, "nearly three out of every four boys in the highest middle class continue their studies in the high stage". Though, again, "the university entrance examination has long dominated the entire secondary course, it cannot be said that Matriculation is a satisfactory examination with a sufficiently wide scope and providing an adequate test of fitness to profit by a university course". In spite of this limitation, "no fewer than 62 per cent. of those who passed Matriculation in 1930-31 joined arts colleges".

4. The main cause of this drift lies in the three-class primary school. Pupils of these schools, who desire to attain the objective of primary education

¹ Bengal, page 33.

and to become literate, must proceed almost inevitably to a middle English school in order to satisfy their modest requirements. By so doing, "they are not likely to return to the countryside, and the literacy of rural districts remains unimproved".¹ Once having joined a middle English school, many prolong unnecessarily their literary studies, because "the actual stopping places in the educational ladder of Bengal are not where one would expect them—not at the natural stages of a well-devised system, but at the examinations"¹ which do not mark the completion of any definite stage of education. Thus, though Bengal is essentially an agricultural province, its whole system of education from Class IV upwards is dominated by urban requirements and, whatever be their bent and competence, very large numbers of pupils are cast into a none too efficient mould of literary education.

The results of this drift are serious. Rural areas are impoverished; the towns are faced by an ever-increasing tide of middle-class unemployment; high schools and colleges are overcrowded by masses of pupils who have no aptitude for literary education; even the primary schools in rural areas are 'urbanised' by the necessity of employing as teachers the products of English instead of vernacular middle schools.

5. The first means of affording relief to town schools and of encouraging a well-devised system of rural education is the institution of five-class primary schools, by which pupils would be relieved from the present necessity of leaving their homes in order to complete their primary education in uncongenial and unsuitable middle English schools. On this firm foundation it would be possible to build up a system of higher vernacular education in rural areas, freed from urban requirements and in harmony with rural conditions, from which recruits for vernacular training institutions could be obtained. Facilities for vocational training should be made available for those, who have acquired a suitable basis of general education, in separate vocational institutions, not in vocational classes of literary schools. By these two means the present drift to high schools and colleges would be stemmed and many boys would be diverted at an earlier age to more profitable channels.

6. There is a similar tendency in *Bihar*. High schools have increased in number from 135 to 169, and English middle schools from 321 to 581—very rapid development for a 'poor province' during a time of acute depression. On the other hand, the number of vernacular middle schools has declined from 242 to 129.

This rapid increase in the number of high and middle English schools is regretted in the report:

"What interests the public is the opening of more secondary schools, however inefficient, and the village primary school is too often left to 'a teacher who is an habitual absentee and to pupils who are a happy lot of holiday-makers'."²

A firm foundation of primary schools is also an essential preliminary to real improvement in this province. Secondary education should also be rescued from the common belief that every boy who passes beyond even a lengthened primary course should be educated on the assump-

¹ Bengal, page 34.

² B. & O., page 106.

tion that he desires admission to a university. A protest against such a view is cogently expressed in the Government Resolution :

" The public has to be educated to a right sense of values so as to divert the flow of pupils from channels which are unprofitable to others which will enable them better to face the struggle for existence. Literary education, however advanced, cannot solve the problem of existence, and greater stress must be laid on agricultural and industrial education, if the growing problem of unemployment among educated young men is not to be accentuated."¹

These laudable aspirations have unfortunately been retarded by the remarkable increase in the number of high and middle English schools. Rural areas can be developed only by a system of vernacular middle schools, freed from the incubus of Matriculation and attuned to the requirements of the countryside ; yet the vernacular and rural system of education is being rapidly reduced to insignificance. Industrial and vocational training, again, cannot thrive as an unwelcome adjunct to literary training, but should form an independent and integral part of a well-rounded system.

7. The secondary stage should also become complete in itself and should cease to be a mere appendage to the university stage. Boys in the secondary stage should be trained for life, not for a university.

A committee, which was appointed in 1929 to examine the alleged deterioration of matriculation standards, desired " the Middle School examination to be extended to high schools, as there is a tendency for boys to leave middle English schools and to join high schools just before they reach the middle standard with the object of evading the formal test in middle English schools, which was imposed in 1928."² Had this proposal been accepted, the examination would have marked the completion of the secondary stage, after which boys could have been diverted to occupation or to separate vocational institutions. Only those boys who showed high promise of literary attainments would have continued their literary studies in preparation for admission to a university.

Unfortunately, the Bihar Government were not satisfied that the difficulties in the way of a common examination in high and middle schools could be easily surmounted without extra cost, and in any case considered that the time was not opportune to extend the scope of this examination. So long as matriculation continues to dominate the minds of the public, any attempt to check the flow of pupils into high schools must end in failure."³

It is difficult to conceive when a more opportune occasion could arise for taking this essential step than the present, when the financial resources of Government are at a very low ebb and when the chances of employment for matriculates and graduates are almost negligible. Moreover, the conduct of large examinations elsewhere results in increased revenue rather than in increased expenditure. Even if a slightly increased expenditure had been incurred in conducting this examination, it would have been insignificant in comparison with the large sums of money now fruitlessly expended by the Bihar Government in providing literary education in high schools for vast numbers of boys who have no bent for that form of training.

¹ B. & O. (Resolution), page 13.

² B. & O., page 47.

³ B & O. (Resolution), page 7.

8. The present position in *Assam* is of particular interest. There has been a very rapid increase in the number of secondary schools, the number of additional schools being 112 as against 45 in the previous quinquennium.

The report observes that "a mere increase in the number of secondary schools is not altogether a healthy sign. It may mean the lowering of the standard required for recognition, or it may also mean a diffusion of effort with a consequent loss of efficiency, two small or inferior schools being maintained at a cost and with attendance sufficient to support only a single good school."¹

The report also suggests that "the domination of the Matriculation and School Leaving examination over the system of education is a defect which is common throughout the whole of India. It not only crushes under its baneful weight the initiative and energy of headmasters, but also puts a discount on any innovation or reform that the Department may wish to introduce."²

9. Radical reconstruction is therefore suggested :

"The secondary schools of India have been criticised because the standard of general education is low, because they provide only general and not vocational education, because the quality of English teaching is poor, because they devote themselves to the teaching of English and do not encourage the vernaculars, because they are not national in character. These schools have only one aim, *viz.*, to prepare candidates for the Matriculation examination. A radical change is needed in the system of secondary education. It needs overhauling so as to bring it more into line with present-day requirements and aspirations. As only a small portion of India's vast population can even at best hope to pass beyond the stage of secondary education, this education should be sound and complete in itself.

"Secondary education should be regarded as the end of a definite stage of education and courses should be modified accordingly. A large number of students should be diverted to practical training and technical education. Degree colleges would thus be relieved from the influx of students who are not meant for higher education."³

An inspector has made definite proposals in this regard :

"While in suitable places we may reasonably encourage the establishment of high schools, we should also proceed gradually to detach the middle classes (Classes III to VI) from our high schools. As soon as there is a demand for a third section in Class VII of a high school, we should provide for such a section, but at the same time abolish a section from Class III. Thus we shall eventually have a 16-sectioned high school with four sections in each of Classes VII—X, by which time the lower classes will have been separated from high schools. They can then be organised into separate middle English schools according to the needs of each locality. The advantages of such a policy will be :

- (1) High school boys would be kept separate from the smaller boys in the lower classes; this would be advantageous for organisation, teaching and discipline;
- (2) All boys would have to appear in the Middle School examination to get into a high school. Therefore, the best boys would receive the first chance of having a high school education."³

Presumably, also, weaker boys would not go beyond the middle stage.

10. In *Madras*, the number of high schools in 1932 was 378, and that of middle English schools was 174. The total remained nearly stationary during the quinquennium as, while the number of high schools increased, that of middle schools correspondingly decreased.

¹ Assam, page 97.

² Assam, page 105.

The complaint is expressed that

"Teaching in secondary schools has continued to be influenced by the demands of the S. S. L. C. examination¹; the provision in the rules which permits headmasters to admit pupils according to their attainments in any form up to, and including, the fourth, is responsible for varying degrees of attainments being considered sufficient to qualify for admission. The managements of schools, not unnaturally, desire to increase the strength of their schools and often yield to external pressure in the matter of admissions. If some better means of regulating admissions could be found, the number of unfit pupils presented for the S. S. L. C. examination would be fewer and the scheme of secondary education would work better. As it is, the reports of S. S. L. C. examiners speak of the poor attainments of a large number of pupils presented for the public examination every year."²

This difficulty in regulating school admissions has been accentuated "by the increase in recent years of higher elementary schools teaching the same curricula but charging much lower fees, which has made possible not only the passage of pupils from secondary into elementary schools, but generally to a mixing up of aims."³ Thus, secondary education in rural areas has become chained to urban requirements.

11. The lure of the S. S. L. C. examination appears to be almost greater than in other provinces, and the drift of pupils towards the high classes and colleges correspondingly greater. There is no public examination at the close of the middle stage; and pupils are admitted to Form IV according to the idiosyncracies of individual headmasters with admittedly unfortunate results. The figures show that boys who complete the middle stage, whatever be their bent and attainments, tend to continue their literary studies for the purpose of appearing for the S. S. L. C. examination.

12. Perhaps the most interesting province in this connexion is the *Punjab*, where the strength and popularity of the vernacular system are perhaps stronger than in any other province. During the quinquennium, the number of vernacular middle schools advanced from 2,114 to 3,241 (of which 766 were complete schools with eight classes in each), while the enrolment increased from 328,291 to 457,514 pupils or an increase of 129,223 as against one of only 16,792 in high schools and of 1,474 in anglo-vernacular middle schools. According to the report, "anglo-vernacular middle school education is regarded as being productive of little good and is becoming increasingly unpopular. Agriculturists have begun to patronise vernacular middle schools."⁴

13. In spite of this flourishing vernacular system, the *Punjab* suffers more than other provinces except Bengal from the drift of boys into the high classes and colleges, and the problem of middle-class unemployment is growing apace. It has already been observed that the number of university students advanced from 7,372 in 1922 to 16,971 in 1932, a development more rapid than in any other province. There are many causes for this disquieting tendency.

The number of school classes in the *Punjab* is smaller than in most other provinces, and boys often enter college at an earlier age than elsewhere. In 1932, there were 751 boys below the age of sixteen in college classes, over a

¹ Madras, page 75.

² Madras, page 63.

³ Madras, page 64.

⁴ Punjab, pages 44-45.

hundred being in the second Intermediate class ; there is also a general feeling that the standards of Matriculation are deteriorating, especially in English.

The number of high and anglo-vernacular middle schools is also excessive. One of the causes of this excess is that " with the increased provincialisation of schools and with the assistance rendered to local bodies, facilities for secondary education are now more evenly distributed than in previous years ";¹ but the main cause is the large number of communal high schools, which are maintained for the benefit of a particular community.

14. In 1931, Government decided to re-impose the Anglo-Vernacular Middle School examination with the object of regulating class promotions more effectively and of checking the drift of unsuitable boys into the high classes. Unfortunately, the proposal was dropped " in deference to public opinion which was opposed to the institution of another public examination during the school course ".² This objection, in itself, was a valid one, as the evils of biennial examinations are considerable. An effective solution of the difficulty would be to carry out the original proposal of instituting this examination, which would mark the close of the secondary course and be followed by a higher secondary course of three years in which boys of special aptitude would be prepared for admission to a university. In other words, the present Matriculation could be abolished.

In 1932, there were some 20,000 boys reading in high schools in the Punjab, who could not possibly hope to pass Matriculation until they were at least over seventeen years of age. The prolongation of literary studies by these boys is a waste of time and money ; it would be beneficial to the boys themselves as well as the schools, if they were diverted to other channels at an earlier age. The number of high schools could then be effectively reduced ; with the money saved, separate vocational institutions could be started.

15. The *United Provinces* have also striven to develop middle vernacular education. The number of pupils is much smaller than in the Punjab, but this is mainly due to the fact that, whereas in the Punjab all middle schools include primary departments, in the United Provinces vernacular middle schools are separate from the primary system. But the number of pupils was less than it should have been : " At the end of the quinquennium sections in several vernacular middle schools were closed as a measure of retrenchment ".³

Vernacular middle schools have been subjected to criticism, often from quarters least expected. For example, a chairman of a district board has urged that they should all be abolished and that " boys who want to continue should join English schools " ;⁴ he was supported in this view by the District Magistrate ! " These proposals ignore the fact that teachers must be provided in large numbers for primary schools and that by far the best source of supply is the vernacular middle school. . . . The aim of vernacular middle education is to improve the rural youth, to provide the necessary teachers for elementary education and, while making rural boys literate, to retain them in the countryside ".⁴ The courses and methods are therefore being adapted " more and more to rural surroundings with the aim of keeping the boys in sympathy with their environment and not making them discontented, as high school education so often

¹ Punjab, page 45. ² Punjab, page 23. ³ U. P., page 32. ⁴ U. P., page 52.

does".¹ Valuable statistics are given regarding the careers of boys who have passed the Vernacular Final examination from a particular district: "Teachers 477, service 269, agriculture 394, industry 57, business 120, unemployed 233, died 3. Thus, only 15 per cent. are unemployed and over 30 per cent. have found occupation other than in the public service."² It would be interesting to ascertain the records of high schools for the same period.

16. In spite of the existence of five universities, the United Provinces suffer less from the drift to high schools and colleges than other provinces. This comparatively fortunate position is probably due to the fact that Intermediate education has been removed from the jurisdiction of universities and been placed under a Board of High School and Intermediate Education; and also to the fact that primary schools (with five classes in each) are in a more stable position than elsewhere. On the other hand, the system still suffers from the fundamental defects of Indian education: the curse of biennial examinations; and the absence of a clear dividing line between the secondary and higher secondary stages.

17. The *Central Provinces* are in a somewhat similar position. The drift to the high classes and colleges is not as pronounced as in most other provinces. The number of high schools in 1932 was only 67 with an enrolment of 7,750. On the other hand, there were 359 vernacular middle schools with an enrolment of 69,837 pupils, but these schools are also subjected to criticism and lack of support. The opinion is often held that they are of value merely as providing preliminary training for those seeking admission to vernacular training institutions. The Commissioner, Jubbulpore, however, holds that such an opinion "indicates a narrow and deplorable view of education".³ It would be a tragedy if these schools (which should become the prop and stay of the countryside) degenerated into a cheap and inefficient imitation of anglo-vernacular middle schools and became instrumental in crowding high schools and colleges with ill-prepared and unsuitable pupils.

18. It is difficult to appraise the position in *Bombay*, as the system in that province differs in many respects from that elsewhere.

In company with Madras, elementary schools often include middle classes which are classified in other provinces as 'secondary' and form vernacular middle schools. It is difficult to ascertain from the statistical tables the actual number of elementary schools which teach the complete course and prepare boys for the Vernacular Final examination, but the Hartog Committee estimated the number at 4,257. Thus, the vernacular system is as strong as in any other province:

19. In spite of the comparative strength of the vernacular system, the *Bombay report* expresses perturbation on account of the general lowering of standards and of the drift of unsuitable boys from the countryside into the towns for English education:

"It is generally agreed that a boy who has once studied English is not prepared to work on the land. A smattering of English is useful for industrial purposes; but in rural areas, where the chief occupation is agriculture, it is not calculated to assist a youth to earn his living, and nothing remains for him but to migrate to the towns and to swell the number of those half-educated, unskilled crowds who are finding it more and more difficult to obtain

¹ U. P., page 52.

³ C. P., page 39.

the means of subsistence. The problem is a counterpart, further up the line, of that presented by the glut of matriculates and graduates unable to find employment up to the expectation justified by the face value of their qualifications, a problem which is recognised as being one of the most serious that confronts the statesman of to-day."¹

20. In the *North-West Frontier Province*, there is also a tug-of-war between the vernacular and anglo-vernacular systems :

"The demand for more anglo-vernacular schools has been great, but the five years' expansion programme aimed mainly at the expansion of vernacular education. One district board, viz., of Peshawar, has passed a resolution that all middle and lower middle schools should be converted into anglo-vernacular schools; but the policy, as laid down in the expansion programme, is that the number of vernacular middle schools to be opened should not be reduced. The vernacular course, which commences in the primary schools, and is completed in the middle schools, is of real value to a rural population, but a course which includes English almost inevitably turns the minds of those who take it to the high schools in the towns and subsequently to urban pursuits."²

The completion of the anglo-vernacular middle course is marked by an Anglo-Vernacular Middle examination. No private candidates are admitted; "success in this examination is essential for admission to Class IX of a high school."³

21. In *Burma*, "secondary education in vernacular schools has become increasingly important".⁴ A feature of the system is that the vernacular stage extends beyond the middle stage, Standard X having been instituted at the end of the quinquennium.

The anglo-vernacular course has been regulated in the past mainly by the award of grants and by the holding of an Anglo-Vernacular Middle School examination. Until recently, an anglo-vernacular school was never recognised without giving it a maintenance grant, but with the restriction of funds this healthy practice has been abandoned. "The recognition of schools and departments without grants is dangerous, for it tends to lower the standards of recognition and endangers the status of teachers and their security of tenure. Standards of maintenance and efficiency would fall rapidly without State control, and State control depends mainly on the powerful lever of the grant-in-aid."⁵

In 1931, the Anglo-Vernacular and English Middle School examination, was abandoned as an experimental measure for three years.

In view of these two developments, the auspices for a proper development of secondary education in *Burma* are far from favourable.

22. There has been a rapid increase in the number of anglo-vernacular schools in *Delhi*, the number of high schools having risen from 12 to 21 and that of middle schools from 17 to 22. This hasty increase has been very wasteful, as the average enrolment of a secondary school has declined from 245 to 190. "Educational effort is being wasted by a multiplication of schools beyond the economic limit.... Apart from the question of wastage, such multiplication of schools leads to a scramble for pupils, which in its turn considerably lowers educational efficiency and standards all round. It

¹ Bombay, page 71.

² N.W. F. P., page 71.

³ N. W. F. P., page 63.

⁴ Burma, page 16.

⁵ Burma, page 17.

also increases the financial responsibility of Government without bringing a full and proper return for the expenditure incurred".¹

The 'scramble for pupils' leads to another unfortunate result: "A detailed study of the figures shows a most unsatisfactory distribution of pupils in the various classes. In one school 50 per cent. of the pupils were in Class X, 25 per cent. in Class IX, and only 20 per cent. in all the middle classes put together, while enrolment in Class V was only 5 per cent. of the total. . . . Enquiries show that the tendency in some schools is to admit pupils from outside provinces, mostly from the Central Provinces, in the two top classes, thereby swelling the enrolment unnecessarily. This large influx of outside pupils into Delhi is bound to lead to administrative complications as, in spite of the rules for the migration of pupils from one area to another, the chances of fraudulent admissions going undetected are not few; nothing can be more detrimental to the discipline of schools than the admission into various classes of ineligible pupils, about whose antecedents the managements can know little or nothing".¹ It is not surprising, therefore, that "the average high school continues to be a factory for the wholesale manufacture of matriculates rather than an institution for educating boys and making them into men".²

23. The drift of boys to the high classes and colleges bids fair to be as pronounced in Delhi as it is in Bengal:

"The anglo-vernacular middle school has no place in the educational scheme of the province, as it does not mark the close of any definite stage or scheme of studies. Its existence, so far as Delhi goes, appears to be purely a matter of finance, and the tendency has been for such a school to be raised to the high standard as soon as money is available. In fact, during the quinquennium, five anglo-vernacular middle schools were converted into high schools. . . . These institutions turned out without let or hindrance a large number of pupils, who were legally but not educationally fit for high school education, and were consequently a danger to the efficiency of standards in high schools."³

One of the remedies suggested is the imposition of a public examination at the end of the middle stage in order to "prevent the wholesale transfer of incompetent boys into high school classes".³ With this object in view an examination has been started under the auspices of the Headmasters' Association.

It is also unfortunate that "the course of studies in vernacular middle schools is still mainly academic, and the tendency is to consider the schools as mere stepping-stones to lower grades of service. A complete overhauling and ruralisation of the curriculum is a matter which demands urgent attention."³

24. Reference has already been made to the presence of 'over-age' pupils in the pre-Matriculation classes of high schools in the Punjab. The following Table shows the extent to which such pupils are found at the secondary stage in the different provinces. In making these calculations, pupils over 17 years of age in the class immediately before Matriculation, and those over 16, 15 and 14 years of age in the next three classes respectively, have been regarded as 'over-age'.

¹ Delhi, page 43.

² Delhi, page 48.

³ Delhi, page 49.

TABLE XXXIX.

'Over-age' pupils at the secondary stage.

Province.	Number of pupils (boys and girls) in the four senior classes of secondary schools.	Number of pupils (boys and girls) 'over-age' in these classes.	Percentage of 'over-age' pupils to total number of pupils.
Madras	97,829	58,430	59.73
Bombay	48,795	39,176	80.29
Bengal	128,323	47,410	36.95
United Provinces	72,363	50,530	69.83
Punjab	108,968	55,876	52.73
Burma	27,271	21,648	79.38
Bihar and Orissa	29,347	14,283	48.60
Central Provinces	13,994	11,510	82.25
Assam	9,886	3,888	39.33
North-West Frontier Province	6,568	3,432	52.25
Coorg	607	468	77.10
Delhi	5,249	2,794	53.23
Ajmer-Merwara	1,804	1,419	78.66
Baluchistan	875	483	55.20
Bangalore	1,467	1,019	69.46
Other Administered Areas	2,955	1,829	61.89
British India	553,301	314,195	56.78

The above statistics stress the need for diverting pupils to vocational and practical training. Although Bengal has recorded the lowest proportion of such pupils, the actual position is far from satisfactory: "From the upper primary classes to the middle classes and from those to the high classes there is a fairly steady flow with few diverting channels or backwaters. But only about two in five of the boys in the Matriculation class actually pass the examination. There is an enormous wastage at this point, just as there is wastage in the lowest primary classes. It is all the more regrettable that high schools are so wholly concerned with the narrow goal of the Matriculation".¹

25. The position is therefore critical in all provinces. The countryside is being impoverished; unemployment among the student community is growing apace; and universities are gravely hampered by large numbers of students ill-fitted for university education. Drastic reconstruction of the educational system is therefore required.

The suggestions made in the previous chapter that the several stages of education should be recast and redefined so that each shall have a clear and attainable objective, have been supported by quotations from provincial reports given in this chapter. The primary stage should provide the means of

¹ Bengal, page 35.

attaining literacy and the rudiments of learning for the masses ; the secondary stage should be freed from university domination and from merely urban requirements ; its completion should be marked by an examination which would be a clearing-house for those requiring further preparation for admission to a university in higher secondary schools as well as for those who would be diverted to vocational training ; the collegiate stage should not be clogged by large numbers of students ill-fitted for such education ; vocational training should cease to comprise a few additional classes in secondary schools, but should be imparted in separate institutions to those who have gained the necessary modicum of general education ; the scheme of examinations should be recast so that the evil of biennial examinations shall be mitigated ; facilities for the teaching of vernacular in the collegiate stage and for the training of graduates who have taken a vernacular should be improved as the most effective means of introducing throughout the secondary stage better teaching in and through the vernacular.

26. The vernacular system of education should be both extended and developed. Its aim should be to provide a sound general education complete in itself which, if properly regulated, would do much to build up a spirit of leadership and initiative in the countryside.

The report of the Village Education Committee in India (1919-20) went so far as to refer to the vernacular middle school as "the keystone of the arch of educational reform". The importance and further possibilities of this type of school have also been discussed by a Committee of American experts, who were particularly interested in the work of Christian Missions in India :

"If we think in terms of the broad educational need, which India shares with the Orient generally, that of bringing its life and thought into more direct relation to the conditions of daily activity, we feel justified in dwelling on the importance of a type of school (the vernacular middle school) which—avoiding a common error of American vocational schools, in which practical training tends to sacrifice the educational ideal—unites vocational with intellectual training to the advantage of both."¹

The Committee also pointed out the great value of vernacular middle schools in providing suitable recruits for vernacular training institutions :

"What we need for village teachers are not foreigners, nor even the urban, English-trained Indians of the city schools. The one has never had, and the other has lost, the ability to think along the furrows cut by Indian tradition. The need is for young men and women who, having grown up in a village, are used to its ways of living ; and who have been given the education of teachers, an education that opens their eyes to village and agricultural problems and gives the means of dealing with them. These schools, not wholly neglected by Government or missions, have not as yet realised their possibilities. They seem to us to hold the major opportunity of service to India. They are the narrow neck of the bottle, the avenue through which alone a necessary aid can come to one-sixth of the population of the world. They are free from the necessity of following educational conventions, which hamper other parts of the school system of India. They have unlimited lee-way for experiment."²

(ii) *Secondary schools and their management.*

27. Vernacular middle schools are almost invariably maintained by district boards, except in *Burma* where there are a large number of aided schools of this type.

¹ "Re-thinking Missions" (Harper Bros.), page 128.

² "Re-thinking Missions", page 133.

High and middle English schools are classified in the following Tables according to management :

TABLE XL.

High schools for boys, by management, 1931-32.

Province.	Gov-ernment.	District Board.	Municipal Board.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.
Madras	12	128	39	195	4	378
Bombay	25	2	19	151	24	221
Bengal	42	..	4	525	525	1,096
United Provinces	48	..	4	134	4	190
Punjab	81	28	15	173	26	323
Burma	31	8	6	161	..	206
Bihar and Orissa	24	104	41	169
Central Provinces	26	..	9	27	5	67
Assam	20	26	15	61
North-West Frontier Province	11	18	..	29
Coorg	2	2
Delhi	1	1	1	18	..	21
Ajmer-Merwara	2	8	..	10
Baluchistan	3	4	..	7
Bangalore	5	..	5
Other Administered Areas	4	11	1	16
BRITISH INDIA	328	167	101	1,560	645	2,801

TABLE XLI.

Middle English Schools for boys, by management.

Province.	Gov-ernment.	District Board.	Municipal Board.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.
Madras	3	77	11	78	5	174
Bombay	6	131	53	124	60	374
Bengal	4	43	4	1,275	519	1,845
United Provinces	1	..	4	62	33	100
Punjab	8	91	18	87	45	229
Burma	15	104	..	119
Bihar and Orissa	7	207	9	301	57	581
Central Provinces	51	1	50	79	8	189
Assam	5	7	1	124	65	203
North-West Frontier Province	4	2	7	..	13
Coorg
Delhi	1	3	5	13	..	22
Ajmer-Merwara	1	6	1	8
Baluchistan	1	1	..	2	..	4
Bangalore	5	..	5
Other Administered Areas	4	6	..	10
BRITISH INDIA	102	565	162	2,253	793	3,875

28. In all provinces, the practice of maintaining a Government high school in each district has been generally continued, except in *Madras* where the number of such schools is smaller, and in the *Punjab* where the number is larger, than in other provinces. In the latter province it has been the policy of Government in recent years to maintain high schools in a number of backward areas in order to equalise as far as possible educational facilities between the progressive and the backward. In these two provinces also the number of high schools maintained by local bodies is larger than elsewhere.

There are in British India 596 high schools under public management and 2,205 under private management. By far the largest number of schools in the latter category are in *Bengal*, there being 525 aided schools and a similar number of unaided schools.

Exactly half of the 102 Government Middle English schools in British India are in the *Central Provinces*. A large number of schools of this type are maintained by local bodies in *Bihar* and *Bombay*, and to a lesser extent in *Madras* and the *Punjab*; 829 of these schools are under public and 3,046 under private management. Considerably more than half of those under private management are in *Bengal*, 519 of which are not in receipt of *grant-in-aid*.

29. While realising that "a few of the aided schools are excellent institutions," the *Bengal* report expresses the opinion that "the existence of large numbers of private, and especially unaided, schools over which little effective control is exercised, is undoubtedly one of the main reasons for the low standard of the quality of secondary education in the province."¹

Efforts have been made recently to strengthen that control :

"Proprietary schools are not recognised, and therefore none are supposed to exist. All high schools are now obliged to have a managing committee constituted in accordance with the 'School Code' of the University; and aided and Government schools have also to follow the departmental rules.

"The University has also created an Arbitration Board, to which teachers may appeal against the decisions of managing committees. The School Code and the Arbitration Board have increased the work of inspectors, for the elections of committees often rival a political election in heat and dust; the defeated party sometimes asks the inspector to arbitrate and occasionally appeals to the courts. Some of the committees, however, have shown a genuine and commendable zeal for the efficiency of their schools."²

30. "The standard of recognition in *Burma* has been lowered by the recognition of a number of schools under indigenous management, which are more precariously financed than those under Christian missions. . . . This is specially true of the 47 national schools, which were founded in opposition to Government during the school boycott of 1920 and follow a special curriculum."³

A peculiar difficulty is that of ensuring that the teachers shall serve under reasonable conditions :

"The status of teachers has suffered by the abuse of 'voluntary contributions'. No one can object to a teacher contributing a reasonable amount to school funds at a time of need if he desires to do so and can afford it. But when a school relies normally on such contributions and claims a maintenance grant from Government inflated by higher salaries than teachers ever receive, the situation encourages sweated labour, and relations between teachers and their employers and between their employers and Government become shrouded in a mist of dissimulation and unreality. In 1929, Government imposed

¹ Bengal, page 35.

² Bengal, pages 35-36.

³ Burma, page 16.

on the Director the responsibility of deciding whether or not to approve voluntary contributions in reported cases.... Unreported contributions still continue, but to what extent can be only surmised."¹

31. In the *United Provinces*, private schools are "managed by registered governing bodies of varying types. Some have managing committees nominated under a trust deed; others are elected under a written constitution; others, again, are maintained by different missions. The amount of interest taken by the managing committees varies. Too many are content to delegate powers to a manager or secretary, who is the sole authority. While the new provision in the Educational Code giving full authority over the internal management of the school to the headmaster has made some improvement there is still too much interference, but there are signs that this is growing less."²

The financial stability of privately managed schools is often precarious:

"Little attempt is made to raise more money from outside sources and the members of committees seldom subscribe anything themselves. There is a tendency to incur increased expenditure and then to appeal to the Department to make good the resulting deficit. The majority of schools live on fees and Government grant and have nothing to devote to increments to their staff or to the improvement of their buildings or equipment. The economic depression of the last three years has, of course, made things worse, and institutions of all kinds are very hard hit. There is no likelihood in the near future of much further assistance from provincial funds, and the only sources that remain are endowments, private benefactions and increased fees."³

32. Efforts have been made to improve the conditions of service in privately-managed schools:

"A provident fund has been in existence since 1922. Each permanent teacher is required to contribute 6½ per cent. of his salary. To this the management adds half. Interest is allowed at 3 per cent. per annum or such higher rate as is from time to time allowed in post office savings bank deposits. When the depositor retires or withdraws for legitimate reasons, Government contribute one-third of the total of teachers' and management contributions and interest. Contributions by the management to the fund count as expenditure towards grant-in-aid. All schools recognised after 1922 are obliged to adopt the scheme, and of others there are hardly any which have not done so."⁴

Another improvement has been to introduce a form of agreement which is entered into between the management and every permanent teacher engaged after 1929. "There are fewer cases than formerly of teachers, who have reached a high rate of pay being dismissed in order to make way for others on lower pay."⁴

33. Similar efforts have been made in *Bihar* to improve conditions of service in privately-managed schools. An appeal is now permitted to the inspector in the case of high school teachers discharged with or without notice. If the inspector concurs in the action taken, the appeal is rejected; if not, it is submitted to the Board of Secondary Education for orders. "This new rule has already proved useful."⁵

34. The number of aided high schools in the *Punjab* is higher than that in any other province except Bengal and Madras; there are also 26 unaided schools. A few of the schools are "efficient institutions; the staff is excellent and the organisation good; examination results are satisfactory and

¹ Burma, page 17.

² U. P., page 33.

³ U. P., page 40.

⁴ U. P., page 41.

⁵ B. & O., page 46.

even buildings are far above the average".¹ But in the majority of schools there are serious shortcomings, especially in the conditions of service. This is due to "the almost complete absence of contracts between employers and employees."² "Efficient and capable teachers are sometimes victimised, not through any fault of their own, but because they have incurred the displeasure of the management by failing to cater to the whims of those who have gained for the time being the upper hand in the administration of the institution".³

Provident funds have been instituted, but "a majority of schools are living from hand to mouth, dependent on their income from fees, Government grants and casual subscriptions, which are often negligible. In consequence, payment of salaries is occasionally stopped; contributions to teachers' provident funds are not forthcoming; and sometimes these and other funds, even sports and boys' funds, are used to meet urgent liabilities".⁴

These difficulties are accentuated by the fact that privately-managed schools are almost invariably of a communal type. The rapid multiplication of these schools has not only resulted in unnecessary duplication and extravagance, sometimes in a weakening of discipline, but also in stimulating the unfortunate communal controversies which mar the progress of India, especially of the Punjab. It cannot be beneficial that boys should spend the impressionable years of youth in the narrowing atmosphere of a communal institution and that they should be denied intimate association with boys of other communities.

35. Delhi province is faced by similar difficulties: "There is little justification for adding to the number of existing institutions maintained by a single sect or creed. In 1932, Sanatan Dharam Hindus of Delhi were maintaining seven schools for secondary education, Arya Samajists eight, Jains four and Muslims eight. This is certainly a waste".⁴

36. Though Government schools are usually freed from handicaps of this kind, they are by no means immune from shortcomings. The Hartog Committee pertinently referred to dangers inseparable from too firm a security of service:

"Inspectors report that the work of teachers in Government schools is not of the standard that may reasonably be expected. During the first two or three years after appointment a teacher generally works well: his initial zest has not worn itself out and, further, he has not yet been confirmed in his appointment. But after confirmation he sees that many years must elapse before he may be considered for promotion to a headship or to a selection grade. Secure in the tenure of his post and in the enjoyment of annual increments accruing to his salary without effort on his part, he too often becomes slothful and maintains his work just a little above the standard of positive inefficiency. The difference in quality between the work of a teacher of ten or more years' service in a Government school and that of his brother of similar standing and service in a private institution is not as a rule sufficient to justify the wide difference existing between the pay drawn by the two teachers."⁵

There is much to be said in favour of a system whereby the Subordinate Service is divided into grades as against a time-scale. In the former system a teacher has to earn his promotion from grade to grade, not merely by seniority but also by approved work. This view is suggested in the report

¹ Punjab, page 31.

² Punjab, page 47.

³ Punjab, page 32.

⁴ Delhi, page 43.

⁵ Hartog Report, page 340.

of the *United Provinces*: "Several inspectors refer to the introduction of the time-scale as the cause of slackness, and more than one suggests that increments should not be given except on a certificate of good work."¹

(iii) *The machinery of control.*

37. In view of these difficulties, the machinery of control should be effective. Unfortunately, the secondary system has suffered for many years from a duality of control by Government and the university, especially in the award of recognition which implies permission to present pupils for matriculation.

The Calcutta University Commission recommended the creation of an independent Board of Secondary Education, which would be entrusted not only with the power of recognition but also with the distribution of grants-in-aid. Attempts of varying kinds have been made to construct such machinery.

38. The first Board of this kind in India was probably in *Madras*, which was started in 1911. This Board, which now consists of representatives of Government, the Universities of Madras and Andhra and non-officials, conducts the School-Leaving Certificate examination, which covers a wider range than the Matriculation examination and stresses the importance of the school records of candidates.

The main features of the revised scheme, which has been put into effect during the quinquennium, are that "the number of subjects for compulsory study has increased and the number of optional subjects has decreased".²

In *Bombay*, the School-Leaving Examination Board, which was constituted in 1925, ceased to function in 1929, and the control of the Matriculation examination was resumed by the University. The question of constituting a Matriculation Board as a separate University authority is under consideration.

The University registers schools, after considering reports from a special Inspection Committee and from Government inspecting officers. The Department also recognises schools for the purpose of presenting pupils for the various Government examinations and for admitting Government scholars: "No serious inconvenience has so far arisen from the fact that recognition is granted both by the University and by the Department, though in a few cases the University has recognised schools which the Department has declined to recognise".³

Though the Board of High School and Intermediate Education, *United Provinces*, includes university representatives, it is a body entirely separate from university administration. In addition to the conduct of examinations, "it accords recognition to high schools and intermediate colleges, but arranges for the inspection only of intermediate colleges by means of a panel of inspectors, with whom is associated the circle inspector".⁴

Similarly, a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education was formed for the *Dacca* University area in 1921. The main functions of this Board are the distribution of grants, the inspection of all institutions under its control, the conduct of examinations and the granting of recognition.

¹ U. P., page 41.
² Bombay, page 59.

³ Madras, page 77.
⁴ U. P., page 32.

In the *Punjab*, the School Board deals with all questions relating to the Matriculation examination and reports thereon to the Syndicate. The Director of Public Instruction is *ex-officio* chairman, and three members of the Board are nominated by Government.

In *Burma*, there is a Secondary Schools Board, the main functions of which are to control the English and Anglo-Vernacular High School and Middle School examinations, and to advise the Director of Public Instruction on all matters relating to secondary education. The Board consists of the Director (chairman), twenty members appointed by Government and four members nominated by the University of Rangoon. At least eight members of the Board must be non-officials.

A Board of Secondary Education, with the Director of Public Instruction as *ex-officio* chairman, was constituted in *Bihar* in 1922-23. It grants recognition, subject to the approval of Patna University, to secondary schools and distributes grants to these schools on behalf of Government. It initiates policy in regard to the schools under its control and inspects these institutions either through inspectors appointed for the purpose or through the agency of the Government inspecting staff.

A High School Education Board was constituted in the *Central Provinces* in 1923, with the Director of Public Instruction as *ex-officio* chairman. The powers of this Board include the recognition of high schools, the prescription of courses of study and the conduct of the High School Certificate examination.

Grave difficulties have arisen in respect to the Board of Secondary Education, *Delhi*. This body was constituted on the assumption that, as provided in the Act, the Intermediate stage would be removed from the jurisdiction of the University, but this change has not yet been carried out.

In addition to prescribing the courses and conducting the High School examination, the Board is entrusted with the function of recognising schools in the *Delhi* province. Although recognition "cannot be accorded to high schools without the recommendation of a sub-committee consisting of the chairman (the Superintendent of Education), his nominee and a nominee of the Board, concrete instances are not wanting in which the Board has recognised high schools, although the middle sections of such schools had not been recognised by the Department and the recommendations of the sub-committee were none too favourable".¹ The comparatively large number of high schools also suggests leniency in granting recognition.

A very disturbing development is the steady rise in the number of private candidates appearing for the examination: "The impression has gained ground that the standards demanded for the *Delhi* High School examination are easier than those in neighbouring provinces".² The fact that, as already stated, large numbers of pupils from other provinces seek admission to *Delhi* schools a year before the examination goes far to confirm this impression. The rules have recently been amended so that the right of appearing as private candidates is limited to 'residents' of *Delhi*, but "private candidates have

¹ *Delhi*, page 39.

² *Delhi*, page 41.

easily secured certificates to the effect that their parents and guardians were in Delhi on the date of actual application, and cases of fraudulent applications and even of false personification among private candidates have been detected".¹

39. The preceding paragraphs indicate that, though improvements have been made, these Boards have not achieved that success which is essential to a properly regulated system of secondary education, except possibly in the *United Provinces*.

Most Boards are limited in scope to the conduct of the Matriculation examination which, though it is the test of admission to a university, does not in reality mark the completion of the higher secondary course. This examination is also but one of a series of often meaningless biennial examinations, which destroy continuity of work by the pupils. Unless incentive to 'cramming' is reduced by forming definite stages of education, each with a clear objective and comprising at least three years of continuous study without interruption by an examination, there is little hope of improvement.

It is also of doubtful wisdom to entrust Boards with the important function of according recognition to schools without giving them at least a say in the distribution of grants-in-aid. The present system is apt to breed financial irresponsibility in Boards, which often yield to the temptation of granting recognition without taking into account the financial implications of such action. Boards should either be confined to the conduct of examinations or else be given wider functions than at present.

Boards are sometimes inclined to increase unnecessarily the number of optional subjects and to add others which are unsuitable for candidates. A striking illustration of the latter tendency is the prescription of Economics as an optional subject for Matriculation by the Delhi Board. Apart from the fact that this subject should not be attempted until pupils have gained the requisite grounding of general education, especially in history, it would be interesting to ascertain how much money is fruitlessly expended by schools in teaching this subject.

40. The only provinces in which (apart from the institution of the Dacca Board) no attempt has been made to carry out the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission in this regard are *Bengal* and *Assam*, which come within the jurisdiction of Calcutta University.

As there is no examining body in *Assam* to test pupils after the completion of the high school course, high schools prepare boys for the Matriculation examination of Calcutta University and thereby come under the control of that University.

It is suggested that "the standard of Matriculation has been lowered to such a damaging extent that it is impossible to improve the efficiency of Assam high schools, as headmasters are content with the high percentages of success of their boys in the examination, and the inspectors' efforts to improve the schools lose the force of incentive Private candidates are sometimes allowed to appear in the examination without the knowledge and permission of inspectors or the Department."²

¹ Delhi, page 41.

² Assam, page 68.

The proposal is made that the Middle School Board should be expanded into a Secondary Education Board.

(iv) *Expenditure.*

41. The following Table gives the main expenditure figures on secondary education in British India.

TABLE XLII.

Expenditure on secondary education for boys.

Year.	Expenditure from				Total expenditure.
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1921-22 ..	1,39,54,026	38,87,479	1,77,34,627	66,41,316	4,22,17,448
1926-27 ..	1,93,38,209	57,25,549	2,43,04,498	80,86,064	5,74,54,320
1931-32 ..	2,34,99,407	81,45,108	2,97,13,108	84,15,917	6,97,73,540
Increase between 1922-27 ..	53,84,183	18,38,070	65,69,871	14,44,748	1,52,36,872
Increase between 1927-32 ..	41,61,198	24,19,559	54,08,610	3,29,853	1,23,19,220

These figures throw light on the distribution of educational expenditure. A total additional expenditure of Rs. 1,23,19,220 on secondary education during a time of retrenchment does not compare unfavourably with that of Rs. 1,52,36,872 during the preceding quinquennium, a time of comparative plenty; and an additional expenditure of Rs. 41,61,198 by Government as against one of Rs. 53,84,183 in the preceding quinquennium is also generous.

42. The provincial figures should be read with caution. In *Madras* and *Bombay* they do not comprise the cost of vernacular middle classes which are included in elementary schools and are debited to primary education. The *Bengal* figures are comparatively high because, as already shown, primary schools ordinarily include only three classes, and most boys receive a large portion of their primary education in secondary English schools. Similarly, in the *Punjab* the expenditure is comparatively high, because more than half of the boys in the primary stage receive their primary education in the primary departments of vernacular secondary schools.

TABLE XLIII.

Expenditure on secondary schools for boys, by sources, 1931-32.

Province.	Public funds.		Fees.	Other sources.	Total 1931-32.	Total 1926-27.	Increase.
	Government funds.	District and municipal board funds.					
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras ..	18,80,230	11,74,671	44,49,014	13,68,699	69,72,614	77,09,786	11,63,828
Bombay ..	17,53,466	2,74,408	38,26,701	10,73,242	69,28,817	60,32,445	8,96,372
Bengal ..	20,70,043	3,85,260	85,94,461	20,58,163	1,31,07,917	1,15,05,385	16,02,532
United Provinces.	41,25,910	5,15,210	24,36,334	6,19,509	76,96,963	63,62,534	13,34,429
Punjab ..	69,79,292	16,98,845	40,04,794	8,41,924	1,35,24,855	1,04,24,761	31,00,094
Burma ..	23,51,200	24,54,665	20,11,137	11,58,968	79,76,060	65,05,038	14,71,022
Bihar and Orissa.	7,90,673	6,30,833	20,26,121	4,11,729	38,59,355	29,78,336	8,91,020
Central Provinces.	12,02,034	6,45,465	9,69,669	2,16,464	30,33,632	25,05,172	5,28,460
Assam ..	6,94,095	1,66,349	5,52,580	1,31,727	15,44,751	11,30,819	4,04,932
North-West Frontier Province.	7,92,630	57,762	1,91,325	89,204	11,30,971	7,92,761	3,38,220
British India (including minor administrations).	2,34,92,407	81,45,108	2,97,13,108	84,15,917	6,97,73,540	5,74,54,320	1,23,19,220

43. The following Tables are more reliable in estimating the comparative expenditure of provinces on different types of secondary schools. The rate of expenditure varies considerably between provinces.

TABLE XLIV.

Average cost of a secondary school for boys, by provinces, 1931-32.

Province.	High school.	Middle English school.	Middle vernacular school.
Madras	20,507	6,442	..
Bombay	25,940	3,195	..
Bengal	9,292	1,555	1,030
United Provinces	27,144	7,195	2,564

Average cost of a secondary school for boys, by provinces, 1931-32—contd.

Province.	High school.	Middle English school.	Middle vernacular school.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Punjab	18,027	6,446	1,921
Burma	19,505	13,788	2,426
Bihar and Orissa	13,550	2,314	1,746
Central Provinces	13,294	6,238	2,635
Assam	15,214	1,783	1,322
North-West Frontier Province	23,765	8,670	2,156
Coorg	25,892
Delhi	21,216	7,171	1,903
Ajmer-Merwara	24,920	4,656	2,138
Baluchistan	25,052	9,965	7,110
Bangalore	40,994	9,017	3,762
Other Administered Areas	30,317	8,451	7,114

TABLE XLV.

Average annual cost per pupil in an Anglo-vernacular secondary school for boys, by provinces and sources, 1931-32.

Province.	From fees.	From Government funds.	From Board funds.	From other sources.	Total annual cost per pupil.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	24.2	10.2	6.4	7.5	48.3
Bombay	36.0	16.5	2.6	10.1	65.2
Bengal	20.2	4.9	0.9	4.8	30.8
United Provinces	22.5	34.6	1.3	6.5	64.9
Punjab	19.1	13.9	3.0	4.2	40.2
Burma	27.7	31.1	4.3	15.7	78.8
Bihar and Orissa	17.8	7.1	4.2	3.6	32.7
Central Provinces	25.7	24.9	2.7	5.8	59.1
Assam	14.3	15.8	0.8	3.2	34.1
North-West Frontier Province	11.6	24.3	2.4	5.6	43.9
Coorg	15.8	50.3	..	0.1	66.2
Delhi	15.6	22.9	3.5	12.1	54.1
Ajmer-Merwara	25.5	29.3	1.9	9.8	66.5
Baluchistan	17.9	27.4	8.1	5.7	59.1
Bangalore	23.4	22.2	..	20.0	70.6
Other Administered Areas	25.4	24.4	5.5	24.3	79.6
BRITISH INDIA	22.2	13.2	2.7	6.4	44.5

TABLE XLVI.

Average annual cost per pupil in a vernacular middle school for boys, by provinces and by sources, 1931-32.

Province.	From fees.	From Government funds.	From Board funds.	From other sources.	Total annual cost per pupil.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras
Bombay
Bengal ..	6.4	1.2	4.2	2.2	14.0
United Provinces	4.6	11.5	4.6	0.4	21.1
Punjab ..	1.2	9.8	2.5	0.1	13.6
Burma ..	0.2	1.0	18.1	0.2	19.5
Bihar and Orissa	3.7	..	12.4	0.6	16.7
Central Provinces	1.0	4.8	7.8	0.2	13.8
Assam	0.5	3.8	5.1	0.4	9.8
North-West Frontier Province.	0.2	16.7	0.8	..	17.7
Coorg
Delhi	1.2	14.8	3.2	0.1	19.3
Ajmer-Merwara ..	4.0	32.6	3.5	1.9	42.0
Baluchistan	54.0	8.4	..	62.4
Bangalore	5.6	10.3	0.5	16.4
Other Administered Areas.	12.0	19.9	15.6	8.1	55.6
BRITISH INDIA ..	1.4	8.1	5.7	0.2	15.4

44. It would not be unreasonable for a higher proportion of the cost of secondary education to be met from fee receipts. A higher rate of fees could be accompanied by a more liberal provision of scholarships. It is not in the interests of higher education or of the pupils themselves that boys of poor calibre and of needy parentage should be encouraged by means of low fees to join the upper classes of high schools.

TABLE XLVII.

Average annual fee per pupil in secondary schools for boys, by provinces.

Province.	Anglo-vernacular.		Vernacular.	
	1924-27.	1931-32.	1926-27.	1931-32.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	24.1	24.2
Bombay	34.2	36.0
Bengal	19.2	20.2	5.1	6.4
United Provinces	23.1	22.5	3.4	4.6
Punjab	17.8	19.1	1.2	1.2
Burma	28.9	27.7	0.4	0.2
Bihar and Orissa	18.0	17.8	3.0	3.7
Central Provinces	21.2	25.7	0.9	1.0
Assam	14.9	14.3	0.1	0.5
North-West Frontier Province	11.0	11.6	0.1	0.2
Coorg	15.4	15.8
Delhi	13.6	15.6	1.6	1.2
Ajmer-Merwara	27.7	25.5	2.5	4.0
Baluchistan	17.5	17.9
Bangalore	24.7	23.4
Other Administered Areas	20.9	25.0	..	12.0
BRITISH INDIA	21.5	22.2	1.3	1.4

(v) The medium of instruction and the teaching of English.

45. It has already been pointed out that the introduction of the English medium of instruction in schools is being postponed in many provinces in the hope that pupils will make more rapid progress in the ordinary subjects by learning them through the medium of a language which is familiar to them, and that in consequence more time will be available for a thorough study of English as a subject. Reports on the working of this important experiment are not altogether satisfactory.

46. Calcutta University has decided in favour of the vernacular medium of instruction and examination for the purpose of Matriculation. This new policy was adopted in all classes below Class VII in *Bengal* in 1930, and its extension to Classes VII—X is therefore only a matter of time. There is a fear in some quarters that the standard of English, already low, will deteriorate further.

In *Bombay*, the medium of all instruction except English in Standards I—III is the vernacular; in Standards IV and V subjects such as history, geography, Sanskrit, etc., are generally taught through the vernacular; in Standards VI and VII the medium is usually English, but candidates for Matriculation have the right of answering examination questions in history and second language in the vernacular. This concession was utilised by 10,056 out of 15,252 candidates in 1932.

The report is critical of the standards of English teaching as "the results achieved are not proportionate to the time and energy spent on the teaching. An average matriculate of to-day is usually incapable of expressing his thoughts in correct English".¹

In the *United Provinces*, the medium of instruction in Classes IX and X may now be in the vernacular with the special permission of the Director, and 47 schools have applied for permission. The medium of examination in the High School examination has been the vernacular or English at the option of examinees for some time.

"Every inspector is agreed that, as a result, the standard of English has greatly deteriorated".² This is due partly to the type of papers set in the examination, which "require nothing but paraphrases and explanations of passages. As a result there is cramming and no test of independent ideas, but merely a parrot-like reproduction of answers previously learnt. It is even doubtful whether there should be set-books. They take up too much of the time, which should be spent in practising expression. More rapid reading, more reproduction, and more oral work is required".³

"There is general agreement that boys prepare and understand their work better by using the vernacular medium, but at the expense of their knowledge and power of expressing themselves either in English or in their own vernacular, which is suffering quite as much. It is not possible, except in double-section schools, to give instruction separately through Hindi or through Urdu, and even in these it would mean the employment of two sets of specialist teachers, especially for history and geography, though something might be attempted on these lines".⁴

An unexpected result of an extended use of a vernacular medium is the development of a new mixed language, which is favoured by some. One inspector has observed that "the mixed language in use will make a better language than Sanskritised Hindi or Persianised Urdu. The practical and unifying value is unquestionable".⁵ Another inspector has remarked that "a shapely and vigorous language is being evolved from the nondescript jargon which headmasters complained of at first. Improvement in the standard of the vernacular may be slow, but it cannot fail to come".⁶

The use of the vernacular medium is much handicapped by lack of suitable literature and text-books and by the paucity of competent and well-trained teachers,

¹ *Bombay*, page 73.

² *U. P.*, page 42.

³ *U. P.*, page 43.

In the *Punjab*, the vernacular medium has been used for some time in the middle stage; and candidates for the Matriculation examination have the option of writing their answers in history and geography papers in English or vernacular. Otherwise, all answer papers are written in English.

It has been observed by the Director that "mental development is seriously handicapped by the failure to train boys to think, owing to the fact that the greater part of their attention and time is concentrated upon the learning of English which is largely a process of learning by rote..... This emphasis upon English teaching has worked to the detriment of the vernaculars and has prevented their proper development. They are viewed as of minor importance in the school course, and as subjects of university study are despised. Their development has therefore been retarded; even the production of translations of vernacular literature has been discouraged."¹

The problem is peculiarly difficult in this province owing to insistent demands that teaching should be conducted through the medium of Urdu, Hindi and Punjabi, but the cost of dividing school classes into different language sections would be prohibitive.

Similar difficulties are experienced in the *Central Provinces*, where the medium of instruction in the middle stage is vernacular and that in the high stage is either vernacular or English.

"In Government schools not more than one section of each class is permitted to adopt the English medium, and no English section at all can be maintained unless there is a considerable demand, preference in admission being granted to linguistic minorities. No restriction in this matter is laid upon aided institutions.

"The introduction of the vernacular medium in high schools has been accompanied by administrative and educational difficulties. The variety of vernaculars in use has created complications; the presence of linguistic minorities has raised problems of considerable magnitude. Difficulties have also arisen from the lack of suitable text-books and from the paucity of teachers competent to teach through the vernacular..... The capacity of pupils to understand and to express themselves in English has been adversely affected by the change of medium."²

In *Bihar*, again, the results of using the vernacular medium in the four senior classes of high schools is as yet inconclusive:

"A difficulty at the outset was that of finding the necessary vernacular text-books, but this has now been surmounted. Opinions are generally divided as to whether the better progress to be expected in subjects taught through the vernacular outweighs in value the loss of opportunities of reading and speaking English. But whether English or the vernacular becomes the usual medium, a teacher should be able to use the latter in order to explain points of special difficulty and to make certain that his pupils have understood them. Accordingly, the Board of Secondary Education has made a rule that no person should be appointed to teach in the high school classes in Bihar, in Orissa or in a purely Bengali school unless he has passed a public examination in Hindi or Urdu, in Oriya or in Bengali respectively."³

47. Theory thus conflicts with practice. There can be little doubt that most of the disappointing results in secondary and collegiate education can be traced to the use of a foreign medium of instruction. It is a sad effect of the present system of education in these stages that, though a certain number of gifted students speak and write English with remarkable fluency, the majority

¹ Punjab University Enquiry Committee's Report, pages 80-81.

² C. P., pages 30-31. ³ B. & O., page 47.

are losing the power to think and to express themselves in any language. It is essential, therefore, that the present period of experiment should be extended and that every effort should be made to solve this perplexing problem.

There is evidence that the lack of suitable text-books is being remedied, but more effort is required in making available competent and well-trained teachers in the vernaculars. "It is vain to expect any hope of improvement so long as the old-fashioned pandits and maulvis are not replaced by English-knowing trained vernacular teachers. This criticism is borne out by the results obtained when trained teachers take the subject".¹

An essential preliminary to success, therefore, is to regard the vernaculars as equivalent to classical languages and other subjects in the university course, and to encourage graduates, who have taken vernaculars for their degrees, to receive training with a view to their employment in secondary schools.

It is also essential that, with the possible exception of specialist teachers in English, all teachers should receive training in vernacular. Otherwise, in recruiting staffs for schools using the vernacular medium, the choice will lie between vernacular teachers who are lacking in general knowledge and attainments, and English-trained teachers who are insufficiently versed in vernacular as a means of imparting knowledge.

48. The multiplicity of vernaculars in some provinces presents almost insuperable difficulties. Apart from the expense involved, the division of school classes into a number of language sections would be detrimental to a spirit of unity in schools as well as in the province concerned. A solution will possibly be found in the development of a new mixed language, as is already taking place in the United Provinces.

The Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, has offered an interesting suggestion :

"Romanised Urdu has been adopted as the written language of the Indian Army Our constant squabbles about what should be the vernacular of the province would be solved by this practice. We should develop a form of Hindustani, which would include Urdu and Punjabi words and phrases and become the *lingua franca* of the province The persistence of the vernacular script could be ensured by the provision of all three vernaculars with their appropriate scripts in the fifth and sixth classes".²

49. But the main obstacle to success is that the secondary course is merely an appendage to the university course and that the curricula and methods of teaching are dominated by university requirements. If (as has been suggested) the secondary course were shortened and followed by a higher secondary course for those competent and desirous of admission to a university, the medium of instruction in the former course could be vernacular throughout. In that case, boys in provinces such as the Punjab would be relieved from the present necessity of re-learning through the English medium in Classes IX and X the subjects which had previously been studied through the vernacular medium. Another advantage would be that the duality of purpose in the teaching of English as a subject would be removed, and boys could confine themselves to acquiring a working knowledge of the language as a vehicle of writing and speech. The niceties of the literature could then be reserved for the higher secondary course.

¹ U. P., page 43.

² Punjab University Enquiry Committee's Report, page 80.

(vi) *Teaching and teachers.*

50. Teaching in the schools has shown improvement.

In the *United Provinces*, "more and more trained teachers are becoming available, and men with good qualifications are joining aided schools. The young teachers are certainly better and keener While there is an improvement, it is not sufficiently marked. There is little professional pride in teachers generally. Teaching is still too little of a vocation, and any work outside school hours is resented or forms the basis for a claim for allowances The chief complaint is non-preparation of work and little plotting out of lessons beforehand. At the back of it all is lack of proper supervision by the headmaster—for which there can be no excuse in government schools, though in aided schools bad work is often excused by services performed for the manager or members of the committee. There is a peculiar form of conceit among some teachers which expresses itself in the statement that a man is so clever that he does not need to prepare his lessons. He knows it all and trusts to the inspiration of the moment instead of carefully working up the lesson at home and accounting for every minute of it. This leads to ill-digested lecturing, disproportioned lessons and dreary discourses, when the bell alone rescues the class from boredom and the teacher from running dry. The study of professional literature is seldom attempted. Often a teacher cannot afford the money and the school library contains nothing of a post-war vintage. There are signs, however, that more interest is being taken in newer methods, and the two pedagogical magazines of the province bear signs of this awakening. But it is uphill work infusing interest in matters pedagogical in a body of teachers whose main interests are domestic and not professional."¹

The position in *Bengal* is more depressing: "The immense majority of schools have been content to stand in the old ways, to teach the old subjects in the traditional manner, to be satisfied with success in the examination test". The prospects of the profession are such that they do not "attract the best men There is no career more damping to youthful ardour; only the slow progress of years brings any amelioration to the lot of teachers; and, at fifty, when his enthusiasm has long since evaporated and his keenness been blunted, a teacher may find himself in the proud position of headmaster with a salary of Rs. 100 or 150".²

51. The proportion of trained teachers in secondary schools has been improved and now reaches 56 per cent. of the total. The position in the *Punjab* and *Madras*, in particular, is most satisfactory, but that in *Bombay* and *Bengal* is deplorable. The provision for training will be discussed in a later chapter.

¹ U. P., page 41.² Bengal, page 37.

TABLE XLVIII.

Trained teachers in secondary schools

Province.	Teachers in secondary schools.						Annual output of teachers			
	Total number of teachers.		Number of trained teachers.		Percentage of trained teachers.		1927.		1932.	
	1927.	1932.	1927.	1932.	1927.	1932.	Holding degree.	Holding diploma.	Holding degree.	Holding diploma.
Madras	8,832	9,618	6,912	7,850	78.3	81.6	136	617	277	1,088
Bombay	4,284	5,530	844	976	19.7	17.6	36	53	62	100
Bengal	22,251	25,157	4,164	4,956	18.7	19.7	94	22	120	4
United Provinces	7,937	9,752	4,948	6,393	62.3	65.6	125	69	140	88
Punjab	17,678	22,847	12,363	20,018	69.9	87.6	65	328	76	318
Burma	5,314	5,557	3,172	3,753	59.7	67.5	..	5	..	7
Bihar and Orissa	5,078	6,583	2,533	3,495	49.9	53.1	30	25	1	80
Central Provinces	4,176	4,713	2,691	3,220	64.4	68.3	21	43	21	57
Assam	1,926	2,718	848	1,115	44.0	41.0
North-West Frontier Province	1,024	1,532	706	1,176	68.9	76.8	2	..
British India (including minor administrations).	79,817	95,777	39,844	54,033	49.9	56.4	507	1,172	699	1,744

52. A serious obstacle in the way of progress is the baneful practice of private tuition. In the United Provinces, an inspector has remarked that "some teachers earn more in private tuition than they draw as pay"¹. But the evil is deep-rooted in Bengal:

"The practice of private tuition is a necessary concomitant of such conditions and it is almost universal. Managers shut their eyes to it as they cannot pay proper salaries. In one unaided school in Calcutta, it was found that no fewer than three out of four boys had private tutors—and this is probably not exceptionally high, at any rate for urban schools. But when the suggestion was made that fees should be raised, there was a general outcry. Higher fees would enable schools to employ more teachers and pay them better and remove the necessity for private tuition both for the teacher and for the pupil. But it is a curious fact that parents in Bengal would rather pay Rs. 10 to a private tutor than Re. 1 more to the school. Private tuition, however, is no remedy; it is rather a symptom, an arc of the vicious circle. It helps to keep fees and salaries low and teaching inefficient."²

53. Improvement is reported in the teaching of individual subjects.

In *Bombay*, great improvement was noticed during the quinquennium in the teaching of mathematics; the importance of teaching history and geography on more realistic lines is being increasingly recognised; the teaching of science is well-handled in Government high schools, and in some aided schools which possess well-equipped laboratories.³

In the *United Provinces*, mathematics is well taught on the whole, though the teaching is apt to be dull and mechanical; geography is better taught than it was; nature study is popular and on the whole well-taught; universal approval is recorded of the great improvement made by refresher courses in drawing and manual training.⁴

In *Burma*, "the influence of Dalton propagandists is gradually popularising methods of individual study. Silent reading (systematically tested for speed and comprehension) is gradually replacing the old fashioned reading lesson. . . . There has been a marked improvement in the teaching of mathematics."⁵

(vii) Secondary education in rural areas.

54. The development of education in rural areas was retarded for a long time by a cleavage of opinion in a matter of policy. In the last Review it was stated that

"The subject of agricultural education in secondary schools has been much discussed and the divergencies of opinion have led to the evolution of two entirely different types of schools: the vocational schools known as agricultural middle schools, which provide a separate course of agricultural training suitable for the sons of tenants or small zemindars who intend to take up farming after leaving school; and the ordinary rural secondary schools (vernacular middle schools) in the curriculum of which elementary agriculture is included. The former type was first tried in *Bombay* where it finds favour, while in the adoption of the latter type the *Punjab* leads the way."⁶

These rival creeds represent at any rate a common desire to provide a more suitable form of schooling for the sons of agriculturists than is usually given in rural schools. It is difficult to escape the awkward feeling that the

¹ U. P., page 41.

² *Bombay*, pages 73-74.

³ *Burma*, page 18.

⁴ Bengal, page 37.

⁵ U. P., pages 43-44.

⁶ 9th Q. R., page 198.

present system of education tends to suck the best talent and initiative from the countryside into the towns; and that (what is doubly unfortunate) those village boys who have sought a literary form of education in the towns are more than reluctant to return to the villages in order to serve the countryside.

It is true that in England and elsewhere the brighter pupils from the villages, with the assistance of scholarships, often find their way to secondary schools and universities in the towns, but the difference between England and India is that young men and women in England are not thereby so dissociated from their rural environment as they are in India. There are available to English graduates many avenues of service to the countryside which maintain contact between town and country. The English universities give at any rate some return to the villages for what they have taken in the persons of the village parson, the country squire and the rural doctor. Such are the deadening and uncomfortable conditions of village life in India, however, that once a child has left his village in quest of education in a town, he rarely, if ever, returns to his village for more than a brief sojourn or even takes interest in its development. There is thus little guidance or leadership to the villages except what comes from bureaucratic sources,

55. The Royal Commission on Agriculture were of opinion that training in agriculture should be imparted in the ordinary rural schools rather than in separate agricultural schools:

"We consider that the *Punjab* type of school has much to recommend it. It may be that most boys who pass through the course will prefer to become teachers or village accountants rather than to farm their own land. But even if this should prove to be so, the value of their training in agriculture will not be lost to the countryside, and there will still remain a large residuum who will take up agriculture as their occupation. In the meantime, there is no doubt that the classes have so far proved a great success and that they have enjoyed a popularity which has been denied to schools of the vocational type. It may be hoped that schools of this type will develop into rural community centres."¹

56. Recent development has been largely along these lines, but those provinces which have allowed their vernacular system to fall into decay have been gravely impeded in their attempts to adapt their systems of rural education to rural requirements.

In *Bombay*, "the need for adapting the education to the conditions of those for whom it is intended is universally recognised."² With this end in view, "Government introduced in 1923 the agricultural-bias curriculum for rural children. In schools which follow this curriculum practical work is done in the fields and in village carpentry and smithing. The object of this special curriculum is to give village boys a form of instruction, which will be useful to them in their future life as agriculturists. The course is prevocational rather than vocational; while a boy who has passed through one of these courses is not likely to start off on his own, he will have a greater knowledge of the principles of agriculture than one whose education has been purely literary."³

The report pertinently proceeds to observe that "what matters is not so much the curriculum as the way in which it is taught. The attitude and outlook of the teacher are all important. The reiterated complaint that the

¹ Agriculture Commission's Report, pages 537-538.

² *Bombay*, page 105.

teaching is of a literary character is based on the traditional attitude of the teacher who refers for his facts neither to nature nor to the experiences of every-day life, but to the written word and to hereditary lore. Even a purely agricultural course taught by such a teacher is likely to give few results of a practical nature. In order to make teaching in village schools suitable for children of the agricultural classes, the first measure is to select teachers from the agricultural classes and then to train them in special training institutions."¹

A beginning has also been made in *Bengal* in these directions, but the value of the scheme is much reduced by the fact that it represents merely the addition of agricultural training in a middle English school, which is in all other respects urban in its outlook and is chained to Matriculation requirements. Moreover, the teachers selected for training in agriculture have been selected perforce from the products of high and middle English schools.

In the *United Provinces*, a scheme was started in 1927 whereby agricultural classes were attached to vernacular middle schools, and the number of these classes advanced from nine to 37 during the quinquennium. The expense of providing farms of five acres for each class has been found to be excessive; the area of farms has therefore been reduced to one acre, the total cost of which is borne by Government. A far more important innovation has been the institution of a Rural Knowledge course, which includes sanitation, hygiene, co-operation, civics and general rural economy.

57. The *Punjab* has steadfastly pursued the policy of enriching the curricula of rural schools instead of instituting separate agricultural schools.

The original policy was limited to the teaching of agriculture in a number of vernacular middle schools. With this purpose in view five-acre farms and, latterly, one-acre garden plots have been instituted in middle vernacular schools. At the end of the quinquennium, there were 72 farms and 91 plots as against 50 and 51 respectively in 1927. The number of pupils selecting agriculture as an elective subject has almost doubled, from 6,307 in 1927 to 12,484 in 1932. "What is still more gratifying is that boys take a real interest in field work and cheerfully do all the rough and toilsome operations with their own hands, and parents appreciate their sons' work at school. The adoption by farmers of the methods and crops found successful on school farms, and free offers of land by zamindars for the institution of these farms, provide a further evidence of the appreciation of the work."² In spite of the abnormal fall in prices, 78 per cent. of the farms and 96 per cent. of the plots have shown a credit balance. For the teaching of the subject specially selected senior vernacular teachers have been given a year's course of training at the Agricultural College, Lyallpur.

58. On this firm foundation the Punjab Government have widened the course of vernacular middle schools:

"Rural science (a composite subject embracing agriculture, science, village sanitation, co-operative and elementary civics) has recently been provided as an alternative to English at the Vernacular Final Examination.... The inclusion of this subject may

¹ Bombay, page 106.

² Punjab, page 86.

well be regarded as a far-reaching reform. Its study will not only equip a pupil with what he should know as an intelligent and useful member of the village community, but will also facilitate his return to his ancestral vocation of farming."¹

The ground has been carefully prepared, as a reform of this nature should "begin with the teacher and end with the text-book". Unless the teachers understand the spirit of the New Learning, the subject will be studied merely from text-books and without relation to practical realities. In order to meet this danger, the training given to vernacular teachers has been revolutionised and is now closely related to village conditions.

59. Improvement and expansion of vernacular middle schools, however, should be regarded only as a beginning of a constructive policy for the regeneration of the countryside :

"What India needs more than anything to-day is a new and wider system of education, a system which will be in harmony with village conditions and requirements, which will train up boys and girls desirous of remaining a part of the village and of spending lives of service to the progress of the countryside."²

As an illustration of what is being done and of what can be done, a short account of the activities and ideals of the Vernacular Middle and Training School at Moga, Punjab, will not be irrelevant. This institution is maintained by the American Presbyterian Mission and includes, in addition to the ordinary classes of a vernacular middle school, a training class for village teachers.

The Principal has described the main purpose of this institution as being

"to provide an education arising out of the child's experience and environment, to use his natural impulses with the object of inspiring and preparing him for real community service. Our object is to encourage him to see not only the present needy condition of the village but also what the village and his own people might become, and to realise that he has a peculiar responsibility and privilege in the light of his training to go back and help in their uplift. We cannot claim to have accomplished this objective, but several things have been achieved. We have succeeded in getting our boys to go back to the villages; and there is in them an enthusiastic desire to give their time and strength for the improvement of their people."

The promising achievements of this institution received high commendation from the Royal Commission on Agriculture :

"We cannot leave the subject of the teacher and his training without referring to a movement, which offers bright hopes of escape from the difficulties which clog the progress of education. The new scheme for training teachers, which has been worked out by the American Presbyterian Mission at Moga, has been adopted and extended by the Punjab Education Department and now prevails in every training institution for vernacular teachers in the province. The teachers are trained in community work and service; they are taught to participate in the healthful activities of village life and to put their hands to practical use. If, in the past, the deficiencies of the teacher have been an important cause of the failure of the expensive efforts to spread primary education, it may well be that the training of his successor on new lines may prove to be an important factor in achieving success. This system of training at Moga is but one example of the valuable pioneering and experimental work accomplished by missions, to which education in India owes so great a debt."³

¹ Punjab University Enquiry Committee's Report, pages 86-87.

² *Christian Education in India*, by Sir George Anderson and Bishop Whitehead (Messrs. Macmillans), page 104.

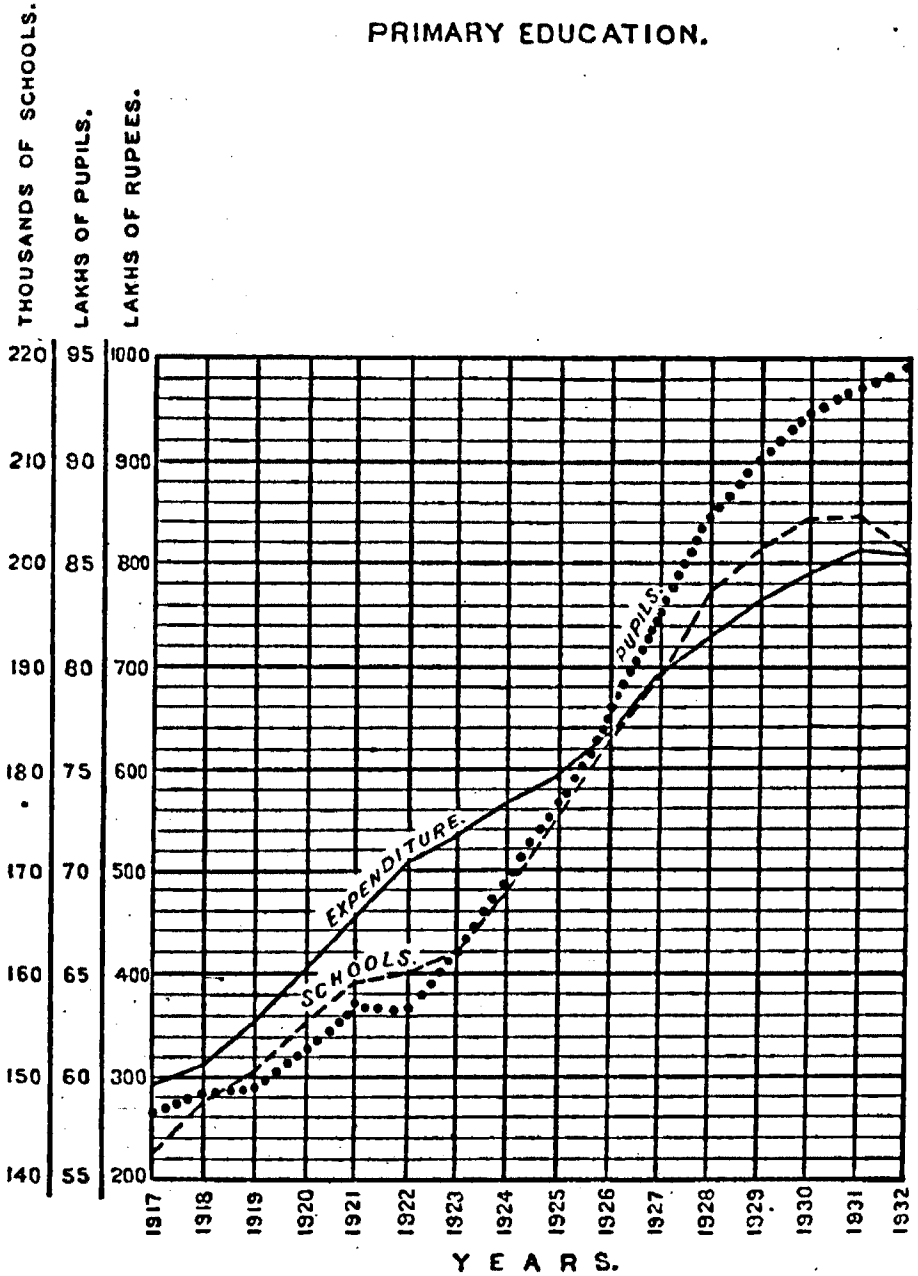
³ Agriculture Commission's Report, page 528.

This form of training suggests infinite possibilities for expansion. If village teachers can be trained, as they have been trained successfully, in their own surroundings for rural reconstruction, it should also be possible to provide training on similar lines for the many others, whose duty it will be to serve the village in a number of different ways. Village boys and girls, who have once left the village for their education in the towns, do not, and cannot reasonably be expected to, return to serve the villages; how then, can the villagers save themselves by their own initiative? The example of Moga and of the other places where work of this type is being attempted has provided the key to the solution of this problem.

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FIG. 7.

PRIMARY EDUCATION.



(To face page 125.)

CHAPTER V.

PRIMARY EDUCATION OF BOYS.

(i) *Statistical difficulties.*

This chapter is concerned with the primary education of boys ; that of girls will be discussed later.

It is difficult to collect reliable statistics regarding primary education owing to complications in the statistical tables.

All vernacular education in *Madras* and *Bombay* is regarded as 'primary' with the result that pupils in the upper classes of vernacular schools, who in other provinces would be enrolled in middle schools, are classified as 'primary'. In consequence, the number of primary pupils and the cost of primary education appear larger in these two provinces than they actually are in comparison with other provinces.

A second, though reverse, complication arises from the classification of pupils enrolled in primary departments of secondary schools as 'secondary', which causes the number of primary schools and pupils and the cost of primary education to appear less than they actually are, especially in the *Punjab* and *North-West Frontier Province*.

It has been the deliberate policy in these two provinces to refrain from making large increases in the number of primary schools and to depend rather on improving the status of primary schools by adding two classes to the better attended and more efficient primary schools and by thus converting them into lower middle schools (with six classes). As soon as the status of a primary school is thus raised, not only do the pupils in the two upper classes but also those in primary classes become automatically classified as 'secondary', and the cost of the whole institution, primary classes included, is debited to 'secondary' education. The confusion thereby created will be gauged by the fact that approximately half the number of primary pupils in these two provinces receive their primary education in primary departments of secondary schools.

A similar complication obtains in *Bengal*, but on account of a very different reason. Whereas in the *Punjab* and *North-West Frontier Province* the enrolment and cost of secondary education are swollen by the inclusion of primary departments of vernacular middle schools, the same process is carried out in *Bengal* by the inclusion of primary departments of secondary English schools, of which there are a far larger number than in other provinces. Indeed, the *Bengal* report claims that literates have usually received their primary education in primary departments of English secondary schools.

The duration of the primary course also varies between provinces. Whereas in some provinces the primary stage contains only four, in others it includes five classes; and, as has already been stated, eight classes in many schools in *Madras* and *Bombay*. Attention is invited to the diagram facing page 23.

A further complication is caused by including girls reading in boys' schools in the enrolment of these schools and by excluding boys reading in girls' schools. This practice vitiates still further the value of statistical tables, especially in *Madras* and *Burma* where co-education has been extended far more widely than in other provinces.

(ii) *Schools and their distribution.*

2. The following Tables give the total number of recognised primary schools for boys in British India and the provinces, but exclude from calculation primary departments of secondary schools.

TABLE XLIX.

Number of recognised primary schools for boys, 1917—1932.

Year.	Primary schools for boys.	Pupils (boys and girls) in primary schools for boys.
1916-17	124,081	5,183,411
1921-22	137,437	5,543,437
1926-27	162,666	7,290,546
1931-32	168,835	8,155,647
Increase in 1921-22	13,356	355,026
Increase in 1926-27	25,229	1,747,109
Increase in 1931-32	6,169	865,101

TABLE L.

Number of recognised primary schools for boys, by provinces.

Province.	1927.	1932.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
Madras	46,389	46,692	+303
Bombay	12,313	13,110	+797
Bengal	38,197	43,724	+5,527
United Provinces	18,818	19,769	+951
Punjab	5,912	5,611	-301
Burma	3,913	4,128	+215
Bihar and Orissa	27,457	25,124	-2,333
Central Provinces	4,189	4,152	-37
Assam	4,377	5,259	+882
North-West Frontier Province	547	597	+50

The following Table shows the agency by which primary schools are maintained. Whereas in most provinces they are generally maintained by local bodies, in *Madras*, *Bengal*, *Burma* and *Bihar* a very large number are under private management. This renders it more difficult to make a satisfactory distribution of schools in the latter provinces.

TABLE LI.

Primary schools for boys by management, 1931-32.

Province.	Government.		District Board.		Municipal Board.		Aided.		Unaided.		Total.	
	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.
Madras	1,686	74,638	15,650	844,852	1,116	122,148	27,564	1,200,999	676	23,323	46,692	2,265,960
Bombay	31	3,755	9,523	623,908	1,156	222,794	2,232	119,327	168	6,082	13,110	975,866
Bengal	83	3,620	3,954	188,410	257	30,084	34,725	1,302,585	4,705	157,804	43,724	1,682,503
United Provinces ...	14	1,039	14,533	884,887	809	93,446	4,287	151,820	126	5,457	19,769	1,136,649
Punjab	15	1,314	4,191	260,943	313	52,164	1,003	68,547	89	3,902	5,611	386,370
Burma	28	1,507	15	809	8	971	4,077	252,420	4,128	255,707
Bihar and Orissa ..	12	699	2,909	150,757	379	22,343	19,170	586,229	2,654	60,745	25,124	820,773
Central Provinces ..	3	412	3,471	223,169	408	61,166	132	10,712	138	5,787	4,152	301,246
Assam	274	7,777	3,747	196,153	40	4,647	690	20,392	508	18,761	5,259	247,730
North-West Frontier Province.	561	25,458	19	3,301	13	1,524	4	385	597	30,868

3. At first sight these figures are disappointing. An increase of only 6,169 primary schools in the whole of British India, as contrasted with one of 25,229 in the previous quinquennium and with one of 13,356 in the quinquennium of 1917-22, indicates the quantitative set-back caused by financial depression ; a more detailed examination of the figures, however, shows that in many provinces the primary system has been placed on a more effective and economical foundation than obtained five years ago.

The decrease of 301 primary schools in the *Punjab* is more than compensated by the conversion of 895 primary into lower middle schools. This should lead to a further strengthening of the position.

Another province showing an actual decrease is the *Central Provinces*, where the financial depression has probably been felt more acutely than elsewhere. The report takes consolation in the thought that "inefficient schools have been removed from the struggle"¹, and that "several schools with comparatively small enrolment have been closed". This should make for increased efficiency as well as economy.

By far the largest decrease has been in *Bihar* where the number of boys' primary schools is 2,333 less than it was five years ago. During the comparatively prosperous years at the beginning of the quinquennium "many boards and individuals opened schools more rapidly than was prudent."² The effect of retrenchment, however, has been salutary as the majority of schools which have disappeared were unaided institutions, a type of school which is usually ineffective in the reduction of illiteracy. According to the report, "superfluous schools are dropping out and the pupils are joining other schools."³

This reduction has been due also to deliberate policy. "Many district boards hold the view that money spent on middle and upper-primary schools is more likely to be well-spent than money spent on schools which may never make their pupils really literate." Whereas the number of lower primary schools (with only three classes) has been reduced by 2,806, that of upper primary schools has been increased by 472 ; whereas again the number of stipendiary schools decreased by 1,692 and of unaided schools by 1,328, that of primary schools maintained by local bodies increased by 788. Given a continuance of this wise policy, this province, in spite of its limited financial resources, may yet recover from the unfortunate legacy which it received at the time of its inception.

Another province which has suffered severely from financial depression is *Bombay*, yet the number of additional schools was as high as 797, as against 1,143 in the previous quinquennium. It is doubtful whether, with its depleted finances, this province can afford to multiply its primary schools at so rapid a pace, especially when other aspects of education need prior attention. It is satisfactory at any rate that the lion's share of this increase went to the hitherto backward area of *Sind* and thus brought about a larger measure of equality between the several parts of the Presidency.

¹C. P., page 42.²B. & O., page 51.³B. & O., page 52.

The *Assam* report suggests that "it is useless to formulate schemes for which the provincial exchequer cannot allot funds", and that "it is possible to secure efficiency and even expansion by overhauling the existing system."¹ In spite of these sentiments the number of primary schools increased by 882 as against 440 in the previous quinquennium.

The position in the *United Provinces* is satisfactory to the extent that 15,356 out of a total of 19,769 primary schools are under public management; of the remainder 4,287 are aided and only 126 are unaided. The decline of schools under private management is not a cause for regret: "With a few exceptions, these schools are ill-equipped and ill-housed. . . . They have done little to remove illiteracy. Managers are indifferent; their interest begins and ends with the starting of such schools, which they are confident will be converted into district board schools as soon as a member of their party or constituency is returned to the district board."² The best that can be said of these schools is that "they serve a purpose in preparing the way for a better school and in accustoming people to the school-going habit." It is doubtful whether they justify even the small expenditure incurred by them.

The position in *Burma* differs materially from that of other provinces in that a very large number of primary pupils receive their education in unrecognised institutions, which are ordinarily of a monastic type. In 1931-32, there were 4,128 recognised primary schools (with a total enrolment of 255,707 pupils) as against 18,128 unrecognised primary schools (with a total enrolment of 200,851 pupils).

Grants have been given during the quinquennium to local authorities towards the creation of primary schools in backward areas, but the amount of these grants was curtailed later on account of financial shortage: "Lack of suitable buildings has interfered with the success of the scheme, for bad buildings usually mean bad schools, but the new policy has effected a more equitable and extensive distribution of schools and expenditure and has also improved our quinquennial statistics."³ A better type of school is thus being substituted for schools of an inferior type. Whereas "the number of lower primary schools showed a striking decrease from 699 to 286 and their enrolment from 29,957 to 13,980, the number of upper primary schools increased from 3,814 to 4,461 and their enrolment from 208,067 to 276,513 pupils". This province has also embarked on a well-devised policy of sustained improvement.

An increase of only 303 boys' primary schools in *Madras* as against one of 12,754 in the previous quinquennium is at first sight disappointing, but the report gives cause for optimism:

"Though the number of schools decreased between 1930 and 1932 by 3,772, the number of pupils increased by 7,399. That the strength of schools is not in simple ratio to the number of schools is further seen from the fact that while the net increase in the number of schools between 1927 and 1932 was only 303, the increase in the number of pupils was as much as 339,159. . . . While the steady increase in the number of schools between 1920-30 was the result of the encouragement given by Government in these years to the starting of schools, the decrease in their number since 1930 is due to the prevailing financial stringency, and also to the strength which the movement in favour of a redistribution of schools has gathered since 1930."⁴

¹ Assam, page 31. ² U. P., page 65. ³ Burma, page 21. ⁴ Madras, pages 81-82.

4. These statistics and opinions afford good grounds for the belief that an indiscriminate multiplication of primary schools is not attended by a commensurate increase in enrolment. This view is now shared by most provincial governments, and the general slackening of effort in creating new schools has been due not only to the need of retrenchment, but also to the belief that a wiser distribution of schools will be more effective. The much lamented retrenchment has not therefore been altogether an unmixed evil and may yet prove to have been the harbinger of a more fruitful system of primary education.

5. There are two provinces, *Bengal* and the *North-West Frontier Province*, whose position, while differing materially from each other, requires special notice.

The Hartog Committee were critical of the inequitable distribution of primary schools throughout India, especially in *Bengal*. The Committee quoted the memorandum of the Bengal Government that "primary schools are distributed so unequally that there are large areas without a school, while in others there are many tiny schools indulging in cut-throat competition."¹ A Bengal inspector was also quoted as having written that primary schools "are usually started by needy teachers who regard them as their personal property. Party faction also plays an important part in establishing rival schools in areas where there are already thriving schools."¹

The Committee observed that "there are in Bengal very large numbers of boys who come for a few months or for a year or two and then leave before they have had any opportunity of becoming literate." According to the 'wastage' figures, the percentage of boys enrolled in Class I in 1922-23 who reached Class IV in 1925-26 was only eleven, a considerably lower percentage than in any other province. The effect was that "in spite of the addition of nearly 11,000 new schools and of an increased enrolment of nearly 370,000 pupils (between 1917 and 1927), the number of pupils who reach Class IV has actually declined. The additional literates added to the population each year (without allowing for the death of existing literates) represent only 0·21 per cent. of the total population."²

6. Five years later, the Bengal report reveals a similar situation, but the note of depression is even more pronounced. The provision of primary schools has been examined from several aspects :

"By the last census the total number of males of school-going age was 3,906,254, and the number of boys in primary schools was 1,596,866 in 1931-32; that is, 40·8 per cent. of those who should be at school were actually there. If we take all the boys in the primary stage (by including those enrolled in the primary departments of secondary schools), the percentage is as high as 45·6. The actual strength of a primary school was 33·4 in 1931-32 (as against 36·6 in 1926-27). There is no reason, however, why a school should not include 70 or 80 pupils, given sufficient accommodation and the necessary teachers. If each school could double its numbers, there would be practically universal education for boys."

"The question can be approached from another angle. In 1931-32, there were 957,406 boys in Class I. The normal proportion of decrease from class to class may be reckoned at a sixth, which would include the incidence of mortality as well as the losses resulting from other causes. On this basis, taking 100 as the strength of the first class, there should be

¹ Hartog Report, page 53.

² Hartog Report, page 53.

359 in the first five classes, provided there is no abnormal wastage or stagnation. Thus, if boys who join the infant class remain at school for five years, there would be 3,437,000 pupils in the primary classes, or 88 per cent. of the male school-going population."¹

The report concludes that "the problem is not so much how to provide more school units or to draw children to school, but how to retain them until they are literate and how to give them efficient instruction. It is a problem of quality, not of quantity.....Nothing is more melancholy than the amount of time and money wasted in the past on schemes and efforts that have not appreciably increased literacy and have proved largely infructuous.....The mere expenditure of money cannot solve the fundamental problems of primary education, unless it is spent according to some well-considered scheme based on faith and courage as well as on the experience and experiments of the past."²

In face of these opinions and figures, "the number of boys' primary schools in Bengal increased during the period from 38,187 to 43,718, an increase of 5,531 as against 2,572 schools in the previous quinquennium. The rate of increase, therefore, has been twice as rapid as before; and it would have been even greater but for the reduction of educational expenditure."³ Thus, in spite of the opinion expressed in the report that "there are about twice the number of primary schools as are actually necessary", the number of additional primary schools in Bengal has been considerably greater than that of all other provinces put together.

7. The position and policy of the *North-West Frontier Province* differ markedly from those in Bengal. Whereas Bengal has a vast population, mainly resident in villages at very little distance one from another, the Frontier Province is sparsely populated. Whereas Bengal has a long history of education behind it, the Frontier Province has suffered from a late start and has much lee-way to make up. While the problem of Bengal is to correct the mistakes of the past, that of the Frontier Province is to build up a bold policy of future progress, free from the 'wastage' and errors which are so prevalent elsewhere in India.

The Education Minister has expounded his policy in the following words :

"The Education Department deserves gratitude for the progress already made, but a long road lies before us. It is not so much an increase in the number of schools, whether primary or secondary, that is required (entailing, as it does, an increase in the number of those who acquire the elements and then relapse into illiteracy) as an improvement in the quality of the education imparted, especially with respect to the utility in the daily lives of those who receive it. Our aim should now be to consolidate our work and to place it on a sounder basis."⁴

8. The Frontier Province has striven to develop its primary system of education in accordance with these ideals. The main object has been to strengthen the system by improving the status and efficiency of the better primary schools as well as to increase the number of primary schools. Indeed, in very recent years "more attention has been given to raising the status of institutions than to the opening of new schools". The original programme has been further modified to the extent that, in place of starting new primary schools, the money saved has been wisely utilised for the employment

¹ Bengal, page 22.

² Bengal, pages 22 and 31.

³ Bengal, page 20.

⁴N.-W. F. P. (Resolution), page 4.

of additional teachers in existing schools where the enrolment exceeded forty. Thus, an excessive number of single-teacher schools has been avoided.

A closer scrutiny of the figures reveals promising developments. The number of primary schools has risen only from 547 to 597, but this small increase is fully compensated by an increase in the number of lower middle schools (with six classes) from 73 to 160; and by that of full middle schools (with eight classes) from 33 to 39. A result of this policy is that 26,453 out of 57,121 primary pupils are enrolled in primary departments of secondary schools.

The fruits of this policy are evident. Whereas there are in Bengal an unknown number of lower primary three-class schools (the Hartog Committee estimated the number at 39,000 in 1927), there are none in the Frontier Province. Whereas there are only 54 vernacular middle schools in Bengal, there are already 199 such schools (inclusive of lower middle schools) in the Frontier Province. Whereas the average enrolment of a primary school in Bengal is 38·4, that in the Frontier Province is 51·4 in spite of the fact that most of the well-attended primary schools have been converted into middle schools and have thereby been removed from calculation. Whereas the percentage of boys in Bengal in Class I who reach Class IV in the normal period of time was only 13 in 1932, that in the Frontier Province rose from 12 to 18 during the quinquennium. Finally, whereas the percentage of trained teachers in primary schools in Bengal was 28·1 in 1932, that in the Frontier Province was 57·6 in the same year; and the percentage would have been even higher had the teachers in primary departments of secondary schools been taken into calculation.

9. A valuable test of an economical distribution of schools is their average enrolment.

TABLE LII.

Average enrolment of primary schools (for boys).

Year.	Number of primary schools.	Enrolment.	Average enrolment.
1916-17	124,081	5,188,411	41·8
1921-22	137,437	5,543,437	40·3
1926-27	162,666	7,290,546	44·8
1931-32	168,835	8,155,647	48·3

Thus, the average enrolment in 1932 was higher than in previous quinquennia. It should also be borne in mind that new primary schools are usually located in small villages where a high enrolment cannot be expected. Still, after making all possible allowances, the figures are disappointing. Unless enrolment is materially enhanced, there is little prospect of an effective system of primary education in India. Low enrolment shows that large numbers of boys do not take advantage of existing facilities; it also follows that a very large proportion of primary schools are single-teacher institutions.

10. The provincial statistics are of importance:

TABLE LIII.

Average enrolment of primary schools, by provinces.

Province.	Number of primary schools in 1932.	Total enrolment in 1932.	Average enrolment in 1927.	Average enrolment in 1932.
Madras	46,692	2,265,960	43	48
Bombay	13,110	975,866	69	74
Bengal	43,724	1,682,503	37	38
United Provinces	19,769	1,136,649	55	57
Punjab	5,611	386,870	66	69
Burma	4,123	255,707	53	62
Bihar and Orissa	25,124	820,773	32	32
Central Provinces	4,152	301,248	64	72
Assam	5,259	247,730	46	47
North-West Frontier Province	597	30,668	57	51

These figures should be read with caution. In *Madras* and *Bombay* primary schools often include what are regarded elsewhere as middle classes and therefore the average enrolment should have been higher. On the other hand, an average enrolment of 69 in the *Punjab* and of 51 in the *North-West Frontier Province* is generally satisfactory, especially when it is remembered that the better-attended primary schools have been converted into middle schools and have thereby been removed from calculation.

The comparatively high figure of 72 (as against 64 five years previously) in the *Central Provinces* is very creditable, but the provision of education

in smaller villages may still lie before that province, a task which also confronts the North-West Frontier Province.

An average enrolment of 38 (as against one of 37 in the previous quinquennium) in *Bengal* is unsatisfactory, especially when the close contiguity of villages is taken into consideration. This very low enrolment confirms the impression that there has been a reckless multiplication of schools with very little consideration for the expansion and improvement of existing schools in this province.

The lowest average enrolment is in *Bihar* which shows only a nominal improvement on the unsatisfactory figures of 1922-27. This is an additional reason for continuing the policy of concentration, which has already been discussed.

(iii) *Enrolment.*

11. Table XLIX has shown an increase of 865,101 pupils as against one of 1,747,109 in the previous quinquennium and of 355,026 in the quinquennium of 1917-22; but these figures include girls reading in boys' schools and exclude boys reading in girls' schools and in primary departments of secondary schools. The following Table gives the number of boys in primary schools, whether for girls or for boys.

TABLE LIV.

Enrolment of primary schools for boys showing the number of boys reading in girls' schools and that of girls reading in boys' schools.

Year.	Pupils in primary schools for boys.	Boys in primary schools for boys.	Girls in primary schools for boys.	Boys in primary schools for girls.	Total number of boys in all primary schools.
1926-27 ..	7,290,546	6,676,347	614,199	31,132	6,707,479
1931-32 ..	8,155,647	7,324,423	831,224	52,834	7,377,257
Increase ..	865,101	648,076	217,025	21,702	669,778

These modified figures are vitiated by the exclusion of boys reading in primary departments of secondary schools. The following Table is of value in estimating the extent in which primary departments of secondary schools provide primary education, but it is defective in that girls reading in boys' schools are included and boys reading in girls' schools are excluded.

TABLE LV.
Pupils in the primary stage.

Year.	In primary schools for boys.	In secondary schools for boys.	Total.
1916-17	5,188,411	504,418	5,692,829
1921-22	5,543,437	491,119	6,034,556
1926-27	7,289,968	862,018	8,151,986
1931-32	8,154,462	989,608	9,144,070
Increase in 1921-22	355,026	—13,299	341,727
Increase in 1926-27	746,531	370,899	2,117,430
Increase in 1931-32	864,494	127,590	992,084

A fresh attempt is now made to arrive at more satisfactory figures. For the purpose of the following Table, the 'primary stage' is arbitrarily judged to consist of five classes; the detailed figures have been drawn from General Table IV-A in the second volume of this Review.

TABLE LVI.
Enrolment of boys in Classes I—V of recognised primary schools or departments.

Provincia.	1927.	1932.	Increase (+) or decrease(—).
Madras	2,015,265	1,925,356	—89,909
Bombay	785,243	797,500	+12,257
Bengal	1,587,101	1,781,050	+193,949
United Provinces	987,907	1,101,064	+113,157
Punjab	772,630	862,234	+89,604
Burma	349,889	265,438	—84,451
Bihar and Orissa	921,422	820,231	—101,191
Central Provinces	332,110	344,902	+12,792
Assam	231,861	246,883	+15,022
North-West Frontier Province	48,895	60,886	+11,991
British India (including minor administrations)	8,182,370	8,270,484	+88,119

N.B.—The figures for 1927 are not strictly comparable with those for 1932 as the former includes girls reading in boys' schools. This explains the deficits in Madras and Burma.

Educational progress has been much hampered by economic distress. The serious fall in agricultural prices has adversely affected, in particular, the rural classes. In many parts of India the position became so precarious that children have been kept at home in order to add, however slightly, to the family income.

12. Table LVI provides a sound basis for calculating the percentage of the male population which is at school in a primary stage of five school classes.

The Hartog Committee first calculated the school-going population on the basis of fourteen per cent. of the total population.

TABLE LVII.

Male population of school-going age by provinces (14 per cent of the total population) in thousands.

Province.	Total male population (in millions).	Male population of school-going age (in thousands).		
		1911.	1921.	1931.
Madras	23.0	2,854	2,922	3,231
Bombay	11.5	1,436	1,425	1,610
Bengal	26.0	3,271	3,381	3,645
United Provinces	25.4	3,424	3,330	3,562
Punjab	12.8	1,508	1,583	1,803
Burma	7.4	866	943	1,048
Bihar and Orissa	18.7	2,360	2,347	2,631
Central Provinces	7.7	970	973	1,086
Assam	4.5	486	555	633
North-West Frontier Province	1.3	165	172	184

The Committee were then in a position to calculate the percentage of the male population of school-going age who are at school on the basis of the number "of all pupils in primary stages, minus all girls in all institutions". The figures for 1932 in the Table below have been based on the number of boys in Classes I—V of all recognised institutions (primary schools and primary departments), as shown in General Table IV-A and given above.

TABLE LVIII.

Percentage of male population of school-going age, receiving instruction in Classes I—V, by provinces.

Province (with male population in millions).	1917.	1922.	1927.	1932.
Madras (23·0)	39·2	42·5	59·0	59·6
Bombay (11·5)	37·2	45·1	49·2	49·6
Bengal (26·0)	39·8	37·2	45·1	48·8
United Provinces (25·4)	19·2	23·1	30·5	30·9
Punjab (12·8)	20·5	23·9	44·7	44·0
Burma (7·4)	28·2	20·9	23·0	24·1
Bihar and Orissa (18·7)	25·7	26·3	37·3	31·2
Central Provinces (7·7)	29·1	27·3	30·7	30·3
Assam (4·5)	36·5	29·5	36·4	38·9
North-West Frontier Province (1·3).	19·2	21·6	23·4	30·8
British India (including minor administrations).	30·3	31·5	42·1	42·2

Thus, Madras has gone considerably further than half-way; Bombay, Bengal and the Punjab have nearly gone half-way; the other provinces have still far to go before they reach half-way.

13. Greater attention is now being paid to improving average attendance. Where compulsory education has been introduced and properly applied, an almost immediate result has been an improvement in attendance together with a corresponding increase in the effectiveness of the schooling.

In boys' primary schools in British India, the percentage of average attendance to the total number of pupils enrolled in schools has increased to 79·1 in 1932 from 77·8 in 1927 and from 76·1 in 1922. This increase may appear small at first sight, but it is being steadily maintained; in view of the difficulties peculiar to the last quinquennium, it is at least indicative of improvement.

(iv) *Expenditure.*

14. Expenditure figures are vitiated by the exclusion of the cost of primary departments of secondary schools, which are debited to secondary education. In Madras and Bombay the cost of primary education is high in comparison with other provinces by the fact that, as already stated, it includes the cost of the higher vernacular classes. The cost of educating girls in primary schools for boys is debited to boys' education.

TABLE LIX.
Expenditure on primary schools for boys.

Year.	Expenditure from				Total.
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1921-22 ..	2,33,98,645	1,14,68,604	46,31,758	38,48,437	4,33,47,444
1926-27 ..	3,04,69,306	1,31,25,265	49,89,370	56,36,385	5,92,20,326
1931-32 ..	3,41,12,891	2,26,16,976	48,86,823	64,81,479	6,80,98,169
Increase between 1922 and 1927..	70,70,661	66,56,661	3,57,612	17,87,948	1,58,72,832
Increase between 1927 and 1932..	36,43,585	44,91,711	-1,02,547.	8,45,094	88,77,£43

TABLE LX.
Expenditure on primary schools for boys, by provinces.

Province.	1927.	1932.	Increase.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	1,42,83,224	1,91,22,295	48,39,071
Bombay	1,63,56,585	1,67,65,007	4,08,422
Bengal	56,59,990	67,23,922	10,63,932
United Provinces	78,49,243	89,03,340	10,54,097
Punjab	34,99,920	37,98,489	2,98,569
Burma	16,18,776	21,13,837	4,95,061
Bihar and Orissa	51,06,941	51,94,858	87,917
Central Provinces	29,00,144	30,96,389	1,87,245
Assam	10,21,936	12,22,269	2,00,333
North-West Frontier Province	3,23,310	2,84,304	60,994
British India (including minor administrations)	5,92,20,326	6,80,98,169	88,77,843

Thus, *Madrās*, which is probably the most progressive province, has increased its expenditure by nearly Rs. 50 lakhs, while *Bihar* and the *Central Provinces*, which are backward, have scarcely been able to increase their expenditure at all. Bearing in mind its large enrolment, expenditure in *Bengal* is deplorably low. The comparatively small expenditure in the *Punjab* is explained by the fact that a large proportion of its expenditure was devoted to primary departments of secondary schools and has therefore been debited to secondary education.

15. The Table on page 22, which gives the average annual cost of educating a pupil in a primary school for boys is of particular interest. The cost in *Bombay* is high, even if the larger scope of primary education is taken into account. The low cost in *Bengal*, *Bihar* and *Assam* goes far to explain many adverse features which are discussed in this Review. Perhaps the most interesting significance of these figures is the comparatively high cost per pupil in *Minor Administrations*. That education should be more costly in a sparsely populated and backward area such as *Baluchistan* is not surprising, but it is for comment that the cost per pupil in *Delhi* and *Bangalore* should be so much higher than in most provinces.

(v) *Wastage.*

16. The previous sections of this chapter have been written in a spirit of restrained optimism. The position is still far from satisfactory, but there are signs of improvement. Reckless multiplication of schools has been checked, except in *Bengal* and *Assam* where the pace has been accelerated; upper primary schools are increasing in number at the expense of lower primary schools; the number of unaided and stipendiary schools is being reduced; average enrolment is improving; attendance is becoming more regular.

The question arises whether better results could not be achieved from the present expenditure on primary education. It has been suggested that an increase in the number of schools is not necessarily accompanied by a commensurate increase in the number of pupils; the question is now asked whether an increase in the number of pupils is necessarily followed by a commensurate reduction in illiteracy.

17. The Hartog Committee were pessimistic on this point: "Throughout the educational system there is waste and ineffectiveness. In the primary system which, from our point of view, should be designed to produce literacy and the capacity to exercise an intelligent vote, the waste is appalling.... The vast increase in numbers in schools has produced no commensurate increase in literacy, for only a small proportion of those in the primary stage reach Class IV, in which the attainment of literacy may be expected. In one province (*Bengal*), despite a very large increase in the number of primary schools and pupils and in expenditure, the number of pupils who reached Class IV was actually less by nearly 30,000 in 1927 than it was ten years previously."¹

The Hartog Committee attributed this serious diminution of pupils between Classes I and IV mainly to two causes, 'wastage' and 'stagnation'. By 'wastage' was meant the premature withdrawal of pupils from school at any stage before the completion of the school course. By 'stagnation' was meant the retention in a lower class of a child for more than one year.

Wastage, stagnation and irregular attendance all tend to limit the spread of literacy. These three factors are not independent, but act and react on each other. The more irregular the attendance, the less progress is made by pupils and the greater their stagnation in the lower classes. Stagnation, again

¹ Hartog Report, page 813.

leads to wastage; owing to the poverty of the masses the length of time in which parents can afford to keep their children in school is limited. As soon as children reach an age when they become of economic value to the household they have to leave school, no matter what stage they may have reached in their education. It therefore follows that, if the maximum benefit is to be received from the money spent on primary education and on the time spent by the children at school, the attendance of pupils should be as regular as possible, thereby enabling them to obtain promotion from class to class in the shortest possible time before their assistance in family duties has become of economic value.

18. Provincial reports are fully alive to the seriousness of the situation.

In spite of its comparatively good statistical record, the *Central Provinces* are by no means satisfied. An inspector has stated that "the evil has passed the acute stage and has become deep-rooted and chronic. The system of primary education is ripe for detailed investigation". Another inspector attributes this unsatisfactory condition to "the general illiteracy and to lassitude on the part of teachers."¹

Bombay is another province with a good statistical record, but is yet disturbed by these problems:

"The increasing expenditure on primary education, coupled with the decreasing percentage of pupils passing vernacular Standard IV (Class V), clearly points to the fact that a considerable portion of expenditure and effort is wasted. The data available are not sufficient to show how far this diminution year by year is due to wastage, stagnation or kindred causes. . . . The main causes are the large number of one-teacher schools, the utilisation of child labour in the crop season, the neglect of the infant classes by teachers in preference to pupils of the upper standards, the artificial swelling of attendance by headmasters to retain their special allowances, the admission of children below five years of age. Underlying all these factors is the ignorance or indifference of many parents who either allow their children to leave school or, pressed by poverty, use them as wage-earners. Moreover, in the handling of infant classes the level of training and technique is lower than in other parts of our educational system."²

The *Bengal* report is perhaps the most pessimistic:

"There is, first, the test of literacy. The least that a school can do is to make its pupils literate; if it does not do that, it has no justification. But literacy in Bengal, instead of spreading, is dwindling: In 1921, the percentage of literate males was 15.9; in 1931 it was only 15.75. . . . A child can scarcely become literate unless he has at least reached the fourth standard. But the number of pupils in Class IV in 1931 was only 118,771, and this included those in secondary as well as primary schools. This number is barely sufficient to make up for the losses caused by death among the literate population. Roughly speaking, the primary schools do not produce literacy."³

19. Certain mitigating circumstances must be taken into account. There is, first, a diminution in number from class to class due to natural causes such as death and illness, which are more prevalent in India than in most other countries. Again, a period of rapid expansion naturally results in an abnormal enlargement of Class I; and, as a consequence, a temporary disproportion between the numbers in Class I and the higher classes. Again, pupils are often admitted to the first class throughout the year; enrolment is thereby swollen towards the end of the year by late admissions. It is seldom that class promotion is gained by those who join school towards the end of the year.

¹ C. P., page 45. ² Bombay, page 104. ³ Bengal, page 22.

Many provincial reports emphasise the extreme difficulty of reducing wastage in rural areas, in which recent expansion has mainly taken place.

The *Bengal* report suggests that "nearly a quarter of all male literates belong to the *badralok* classes, although they form only an eighteenth part of the whole population. . . . Most of these classes attend secondary schools from the very beginning of their school career and become literate; the backward classes and Muslims constitute the bulk of the pupils of primary schools and these rarely become literate. . . . Primary schools in town and country and rural secondary schools are the most wasteful."¹

The *Bombay* report states that "in rural areas a large number even of those who pass the fourth standard relapse into illiteracy."²

20. In spite of these manifestations of depression there are signs of improvement; it is at least satisfactory that the magnitude of the evil is realised and that strenuous efforts are being made to combat it.

The following Table shows that, at long last, enrolment in Class I is less than half of the total enrolment in Classes I—V, but the percentages in *Bengal*, *Bihar*, *Burma* and the *Frontier Province* still exceed this amount.

TABLE LXI.
Enrolment of boys in Classes I—V, 1931-32.

Province.	Class I.	Class II.	Class III.	Class IV.	Class V.	Total number of boys in Classes I—V.	Percentage of boys in Class I to total in Classes I—V.
Madras	879,772	402,985	297,102	245,241	100,256	1,925,356	46
Bombay	292,711	156,016	138,390	112,607	97,776	797,500	37
Bengal	957,406	361,563	248,655	118,771	94,655	1,781,050	64
United Provinces	468,610	247,115	158,493	119,632	87,214	1,101,064	44
Punjab	393,523	182,898	120,186	97,685	67,942	862,234	46
Burma	147,069	44,584	34,381	26,661	12,743	265,438	55
Bihar and Orissa	435,568	170,303	122,126	52,093	40,141	820,231	53
Central Provinces	126,559	77,294	66,033	59,161	15,855	344,902	37
Assam	94,847	46,489	42,245	34,194	29,108	246,883	38
North-West Frontier Province	31,264	10,518	8,114	6,748	4,212	60,886	51
British India (including minor administrations).	3,571,186	1,709,608	1,249,351	882,653	557,696	8,270,494	47

21. The Hartog Committee collated the class enrolment in boys' primary schools which, read diagonally, showed the diminution between the several classes. The result of this investigation was disquieting: "The diminution is enormous. Out of every hundred pupils who were in Class I in 1922-23, only eighteen were reading in Class IV in 1925-26"³; and only eleven were reading in Class V in 1926-27.

¹ Bengal, pages 21-24. ² Bombay, page 104. ³ Hartog Report, page 47.

TABLE LXII.
Proportion of pupils in Classes I, IV and V in provinces.
 (a).¹

Province.	1922-23. Class I.	1925-26. Class IV.	1926-27. Class V.
Madras	100	26	11
Bombay	100	41	36
Bengal	100	11	7
United Provinces	100	18	15
Punjab	100	25	18
Burma	100	17	9
Bihar and Orissa	100	14	9
Central Provinces	100	16	16
Assam	100	17	6
British India (including minor administrations)	100	19	11

(b).

Province.	Number of boys in					Proportion of boys in		
	Class I.	Class II.	Class III.	Class IV.	Class V.	Class I.	Class IV.	Class V.
	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.	1927-28.	1930-31.	1931-32.
Madras	902,832	384,689	288,685	236,775	100,256	100	26	11.
Bombay	272,183	145,277	131,747	108,684	97,776	100	40	36
Bengal	885,907	341,786	246,754	130,393	94,655	100	15	11
United Provinces	537,732	247,310	164,427	121,689	87,214	100	23	16
Punjab	398,363	202,618	115,804	96,073	67,942	100	24	17
Burma	102,671	41,963	34,268	27,633	12,743	100	27	12
Bihar and Orissa	526,043	179,325	122,250	49,680	40,141	100	9	8
Central Provinces	130,774	71,552	63,412	58,128	15,855	100	44	12
Assam	131,163	30,572	27,617	32,903	29,108	100	25	22
North-West Frontier Province	31,152	9,960	7,773	6,405	4,212	100	21	14
British India (including minor administrations)	4,191,091	1,572,655	1,170,149	877,633	557,696	100	21	13

22. The class enrolment figures can be examined from another aspect. The following Table shows the extent of diminution between the various classes each year ;

¹ Hartog Report, page 43.

TABLE LXIII.

Wastage in the primary system.

	1927-28.	1928-29.	1929-30.	1930-31.	1931-32.
<i>Diminution between Classes.—</i>					
I and II	3,029,137	2,618,438	2,633,911	2,558,145	2,196,712
II and III	396,902	412,508	402,506	361,890	486,569
III and IV	316,513	310,260	337,963	292,516	367,324
IV and V	279,866	264,071	293,598	243,896	319,937

These figures give promise of future improvement. The amount of wastage has tended to decrease each year, especially between Classes I and II; but there was a sudden increase in diminution between the other classes in the final year of the quinquennium. The reason of this disquieting factor is obvious as, the older the child, the more valuable become his services to the family. With increasing economic distress pupils are removed from school to a greater extent in the higher than in the lower classes, where their tender years render their value to the family in the fields negligible. Full use should therefore be made of the early years of schooling and promotion should be as rapid as possible; otherwise, valuable time and money will be lost and there will be no appreciable reduction of illiteracy.

23. The enrolment of Class IV gives the clue to the position. Unless the enrolment of this class is steadily increased from year to year, no satisfaction can be felt in an increasing number of schools and pupils.

The following Table gives an indication of the tangible progress made by provinces towards the attainment of literacy.

TABLE LXIV.
Enrolment of Class IV and its proportion to population.

Province (with male population in thousands).	Number of pupils in Class IV.			Number per 10,000 of popula- tion in		
	1917.	1927.	1932.	1917.	1927.	1932.
Madras (23,083) ..	184,042	230,362	294,259	44	54	63
Bombay (11,505) ..	90,382	123,099	139,501	46	61	64
Bengal (26,042) ..	126,057	96,343	128,599	27	21	26
United Provinces .. (25,445).	59,619	100,869	126,960	12	22	26
Punjab (12,880) ..	41,729	82,911	109,582	20	41	46
Burma (7,490) ..	38,207	30,020	38,017	31	23	26
Bihar and Orissa .. (18,794).	22,958	45,974	54,666	6	14	15
Central Provinces .. (7,762).	49,835	50,854	64,764	35	37	42
Assam (4,537) ..	29,809	22,018	39,703	44	29	40
North-West Frontier Province (1,316).	..	5,715	7,861	..	25	32

N. B.—Figures for 1917 and 1927 have been taken from the Hartog Report, page 59.

(vi) *School organisation and administration.*

24. The intention in this section is to examine the defects in the system and the remedies which are being attempted.

In *Bihar*, an attempt has been made to restrict admissions to the first two months of the school year: "The old custom of waiting for an auspicious day for joining school at a fixed age will have to give way to this simple expedient for rendering less difficult the work of the teachers, particularly those of one-teacher schools."¹

The *Punjab* report gives as an explanation of a fall in enrolment during the latter part of the quinquennium the imposition of a rule restricting infant class admissions to certain parts of the year.

It is also advisable to refrain from admitting pupils before the age of five.

The *Bengal* report states that "most parents regard the school as a convenient creche; and teachers are glad to make up anyhow the requisite number of pupils for earning a grant."²

Most reports refer to the neglect of children in the infant class and point out that this class, composed as it usually is of pupils of varying ages and attainments, is often unmanageable. The first reform would be to ensure that pupils join school at the same time in the year and that, as far as possible, they are of the same age.

¹ B. & O., page 58.

² Bengal, page 23.

25. It is also suggested that school hours are too long for the younger children and that the old adage that 'more work and less play makes Jack a dull boy' is as true in India as elsewhere. The *Bihar* report suggests that schools should be made more attractive: "Only too often are pupils kept sitting for long hours in rooms which may not be any too well lighted or ventilated, and during part only of these long hours do they receive attention from the teacher who probably has at least two classes to manage, perhaps more. Anything less likely to attract, or be healthy for, a small child can hardly be imagined."¹

Many reports refer to poor attendance during the cropping season. School hours and sessions should be adjusted to the requirements of the parents.

26. It has been suggested that a system of rewards might be an incentive to teachers, but experience shows that it is liable to abuse. The *Bengal* report has already been quoted as suggesting that primary school headmasters are prone to admit unsuitable and sometimes even bogus pupils for the purpose of increasing the grants to their schools.

27. The advisability of instituting an examination at the end of the primary course has been much discussed.

In the *Central Provinces*, an examination is usually held *in situ*, but the arrangements are somewhat cumbrous and occupy a very long period of time. In Amraoti district an experiment has recently been made of grouping the schools for the purpose with the result that "the work of examination was expedited and, instead of taking four months, was finished in three months".² Another inspector feels, however, that "candidates are of too tender an age to be subjected to the examination fever, accompanying too formal an examination."²

In *Bombay*, it has been considered advisable to introduce a system of written examinations for the purpose of ensuring uniformity of standard in admissions to secondary schools. It is reported that this experiment has proved successful and has received approval from the public.

In *Bengal*, the old public examination "has been revived and was first held in November, 1927. The examination is gradually growing in popularity and may arouse a healthy rivalry between schools and help to arrest wastage."³

A test of some kind is undoubtedly required on the completion of the primary stage, if only to regulate admissions to the secondary stage, but it is inadvisable to impose upon young children too formal an examination. The number of pupils also is so vast that a formal examination, with written answers corrected by an external authority, can only be attended by much difficulty and expense.

28. These several suggestions, however, even if they are successfully carried out, are but palliatives of the disease of 'wastage' and do not go to the root of the matter. A fundamental cause of the disease is to be found, as already suggested, in a faulty classification and distribution of schools.

Practically every report condemns the single-teacher school, which is often an extravagance and usually ineffective. In sparsely populated areas it may

¹ B. & O., page 55.

² C. P., page 52.

³ Bengal, page 23.

be an unwelcome necessity, as it would be unfair to deny facilities for education to children, merely because they are resident in those areas. But in some provinces, notably *Bengal*, *Bihar* and *Madras*, these schools are often the result of misguided competition among stipendiary schools which are indulging "in cut-throat competition." This spirit of competition is also accentuated by segregate schools which are established for the benefit of special communities, a matter which will be discussed in a later chapter.

The following Table reveals the distressing fact that the number of single-teacher schools does not show signs of reduction.

TABLE LXV,

Number of single-teacher primary schools for boys and girls, by provinces.

Province.	Number of single-teacher schools in 1927.	Total number of primary schools,	Number of single-teacher schools,	Percentage of (B) to (A).
		(A).	(B).	
Madras	28,695	52,374	23,141	44.2
Bombay (local body schools only)	5,452	11,988	5,670	47.3
Bengal	40,184	61,162	33,555	59.8
United Provinces	19,262	21,502	(a)
Punjab	(b)1,501	7,233	1,258	17.4
Burma	2,535	4,762	2,723	57.2
Bihar and Orissa	21,615	27,571	(c)20,000	72.5
Central Provinces	710	4,566	752	16.5
Assam	3,339	5,891	(d)
North-West Frontier Province	..	710	293	41.3

(a) Figures not available.

(b) Boy's schools only.

(c) Approximate figures.

(d) Actual figures are not available, but very many, if not the majority, of primary schools under local boards are single-teacher schools.

29. The problem of single-teacher schools is rendered still more difficult in some provinces by the multiplication of lower primary schools with only three classes in each. If these schools were regarded as preparatory or kindergarten schools in which young children received special attention they might be productive of good, but they are too often the sole means of providing education for young children in the vicinity of their homes and thus represent both the beginning and the end of their education.

Schools of this type are especially numerous in *Bengal* :

" Figures are not available to show the numbers of upper and lower primary schools. In one division, 85 per cent. of the primary schools are lower primary ; and the proportion is probably much the same for other divisions. The preponderance of such schools accounts in part—but only in part—for the extraordinary decrease in numbers between the third and fourth school years ; many children, when they finish the lower primary course, have no higher school in the vicinity to attend. But three years of schooling are insufficient to impart permanent literacy, secure from any danger of relapse. This fact does not appear to have been recognised, and even the *panchayat* union schools are all only of the lower primary standard. What makes the lower primary schools even more futile is that nearly all have only a single teacher. One district board has refused to allow more than one teacher each in lower primary schools. Thus, first, we have schools which are not likely to make pupils literate ; and, secondly, we destroy whatever chance of literacy there may be by a system of teaching that is equivalent to a system of neglect. The lower primary schools in Bengal remind one of the old nursery rhyme of the old woman who lived in a shoe ; the last line supplies an alternative not much worse than the present method."¹

The report goes on to suggest that " any scheme of reconstruction should aim, first, at the substitution of upper primary for lower primary schools, by improvement or by amalgamation."

There are also in *Bihar* a large number of single-teacher and lower primary schools. The report contends that " an upper primary school is almost always a permanent institution and does not depend for its assistance on the caprice of an individual, as is the case with many lower primary schools. It must have more than one teacher and is therefore unlikely to cease work when a single teacher is ill or otherwise occupied. The five years of the upper primary course are much more likely to produce permanent literacy than the three years of the lower primary."²

The tendency is for upper primary schools to increase and for lower primary schools to decrease in numbers.

30. The Hartog Committee drew attention to the ephemeral nature of many of these single-teacher schools, especially ' teacher-manager schools'. They pointed out that, in *Madras* for example, " during the five years, 1923-27, as many as 25,537 boys' schools were closed, of which over 50 per cent. were aided schools. During the same period only 51 per cent. of the aided schools received grant-in-aid for five years without a break ; a fact which further reveals the ephemeral nature of the schools."³

This defect is discussed in the *Madras* report, which indicates that the abuse is still prevalent :

" During the period under review, 89 per cent. of the schools closed were aided and unaided ones. An interesting feature exhibited by the figures is that the number of schools opened steadily decreased, while that of schools closed noticeably increased (although not steadily). In 1931-32, 2,673 schools were opened against 7,479 in 1927-28, and 6,114 schools were closed in 1931-32 against 5,452 in 1927-28, a feature doubtless connected with the need for consolidation and concentration of schools which has become felt since 1930. Judged by the test of continuity of aid, 72 per cent. of the aided schools on March 31, 1932, were schools that had received aid without a break for five years.... Among the aided schools the mission-managed schools were more stable than the non-mission schools."⁴

¹ Bengal, pages 24-25.

² B. & O., page 53.

⁴ Madras, page 85.

³ Hartog Report, page 62.

31. Another potent means of improvement lies in the employment of better qualified and trained teachers, a matter which will be discussed later; but it is pertinent here to discuss the administration of primary education with reference to the discipline and selection of teachers.

It is evident from provincial reports that teachers of primary schools are not always selected on account of their educational qualifications, that personal and political considerations affect efficiency and discipline, that teachers take part in local and provincial politics, that frequent transfers of teachers constitute a grave abuse.

In the *Central Provinces* a primary school teacher is "led to believe that conscientious daily work is not the sole criterion for promotion. He often makes an indispensable election agent, and his prospects in his profession vary according to the election results. He seeks his reward, not for his work as an honest schoolmaster, but as a useful election agent and a flatterer of persons in power."¹

In *Bombay*, "a factor responsible for the lowering of standards is the influence which primary school teachers have begun to wield. A schoolmaster is very often the only educated person in a village; he thus has opportunities of assisting or obstructing the candidature of individuals in elections. He has thus come to possess a political power, which has reacted adversely on the performance of his legitimate duties."²

The *Bihar* report refers to the appointment of untrained teachers by local bodies, even in places where trained teachers are available. Reference is also made to the practice of teachers "taking part in political propaganda, a feature which made it necessary for Government to frame a salutary rule disqualifying such teachers from continuance in their employment."³

32. Another disquieting feature of local board administration is the constant transfer of primary school teachers.

The *Central Provinces* report draws "particular attention to the number of transfers effected by certain district councils. The Department has frequently drawn the attention of local bodies to the excessive number of transfers."⁴

This action on the part of the Department has not been successful, as "too many teachers frequent the houses of influential members of school boards and by so doing succeed in obtaining transfers to more desirable schools, where they can earn a higher charge allowance."

33. There is thus room for improvement, if the primary systems of education are to escape the alarming wastage which still disfigures their development. Far more attention should be paid to the proper distribution of schools, to the avoidance of multiplying schools without reference to their efficiency and effectiveness, to the enrolment of pupils at the proper time and season, to more regular attendance. In addition, provincial Governments should possess an agency, adequate in numbers and armed with sufficient authority, to ensure that financial resources are spent both wisely and effectively. This is the very

¹ C. P., page 51. ² Bombay, page 114. ³ B. & O., page 55.
⁴ C. P., page 49.

essence of a responsible system of government. The most effective means of improvement, however, lies in an adequate supply of well-trained and well-qualified teachers.

(vii) *Teachers and teaching.*

34. The reports are in many ways optimistic in respect to improvement in teaching.

An inspector in the *United Provinces* is of opinion that "teachers in primary schools are intellectually better equipped than they were ten years ago."¹ It is also recorded that "play-way methods offer inducement to the infants, who are beginning to prefer school to their homes. . . . There is great activity in the introduction of brighter methods and signs that their introduction is having effect."¹

The *Punjab* report is similarly optimistic: "The replacement of untrained by qualified teachers and improvement in the methods of instruction, which can largely be traced to the rural bias imparted to training in normal schools, have helped in improving the efficiency of teaching and in accelerating class promotion. The introduction of a better type of reading book has resulted in creating a taste for independent reading, which is a surer guarantee of permanent literacy than anything else."²

35. In view of financial stringency not much improvement could be expected in school buildings and equipment, but there are signs of progress.

The efforts of the *Burma* Government have already been described, and it is "now generally recognised that a school should look like a school."³

A pleasing innovation is reported from *Bombay* in the Sir Purshottamdas Thakurdas building scheme in Surat district. An essential feature of the scheme is "that villagers shall contribute at least one-third of the cost of the buildings in each case. 66 buildings were thus constructed during the year."⁴

36. There have also been attempts to render school surroundings less drab than they used to be.

In the *United Provinces*, "flourishing gardens with seasonal flowers and vegetables are to be seen; in Benares circle there is hardly a district board school which has not planted a garden in its compound. . . . The supply of seeds, however, is a difficulty"⁵. A solution of this difficulty is suggested by the practice in the *Punjab* of establishing central nursery gardens in normal schools, which have a plentiful supply of good seeds available for primary schools.

Advance has also been made in the *Punjab*, mainly as a result of the stimulating training given to village teachers in vernacular training institutions. The report is also illuminating with reference to the introduction of games and physical training in primary schools:

¹ U. P., pages 59-60. ² Punjab, page 58. ³ Burma, page 23. ⁴ Bombay, page 100.

⁵ U. P., pages 65-66.

"The appointment of a new type of physical training supervisor some years ago heralded a new era in physical instruction....Through being attached to vernacular training institutions, they have indirectly made a laudable contribution to improvement in the organisation of games and other physical activities of rural schools. Further, they have been instrumental in establishing games clubs for villagers, and in organising tournaments both for school boys and for adults."¹

37. Many reports discuss whether the curricula could not be better adapted to the conditions in which pupils live and have their being, especially in rural areas. The *Bengal* report pertinently observes that nature-study and observation lessons often have little connexion with either observation or nature; and that hygiene is learnt by rote in unhygienic surroundings without reference to its practical application. The general view is that far more depends upon the teacher than upon the text-book or the curriculum, and that improvements in the latter by themselves are practically valueless—possibly even harmful—unless the teacher can teach in the spirit of those improvements.

The following extract from the *Punjab* report shows what a leading part the village school and the village teacher can play in the progress of the countryside:

"There is not a tahsil or sub-tahsil, where useful uplift work has not been done by teachers and inspecting officers....Scores of school-boys have formed themselves into singing parties for carrying on uplift propaganda in villages....As a result of this propaganda vigorously pursued, one is beginning to see a streak of light on the horizon, and one has occasion to see signs of the wholesale effect of the work now being done. Thousands of lectures have been given by teachers and inspecting officers. Thousands of people have been vaccinated and inoculated at their persuasion. Prophylactic measures have been taken in hundreds of villages against disease. Streets have been cleaned, manure pits have been dug, wells have been purified, and so forth."²

It is on these lines that the solution of the intricate problems of village education in India can best be found. When once teaching in village schools is based on a spirit of service to the countryside, when once the village teacher becomes the rallying point in village activities towards improvement, there need be little anxiety about text-books and curricula or even about wastage and stagnation. The village school will then have become a valued village institution, from which radiate kindness, sympathy and intelligent guidance.

It is essential, therefore, that the teacher should be of the village and from the village; he should be linked to the village by a bond of service to its welfare and improvement.

38. The maintenance and improvement of vernacular middle and training schools, therefore, form the pivot around which all schemes of primary education should revolve.

"There is little hope of real progress in primary education unless a definite break is made with the policy of inconsiderately multiplying schools, and of hastily expanding or improvising new ineffective arrangements for training the additional teachers required. As matters stand in India, effective arrangements for training vernacular teachers must, generally speaking, precede the expansion of primary schools, as the training of vernacular teachers itself depends upon a good supply of recruits from middle vernacular schools. Hence money spent on expansion or improvement of middle vernacular schools and on vernacular training institutions will yield a larger and more permanently fruitful return than money spent on almost any other of the many objects which are dear to the heart of the educationist."³

¹ Punjab, pages 58-59. ² Punjab, pages 16-17. ³ Hartog Report, page 77.

A recent committee of American experts, who were concerned mainly with the educational work of Christian missions, arrived at a similar conclusion :

" We would get further in the end if we closed one half of our village schools and spent money in training teachers for the other half. . . . What we need for village teachers are not foreigners nor even urban, English trained Indians of city schools. The one has never had, and the other has lost, the ability to think along the furrows cut by Indian tradition. The need is for young men and women who, having grown up in a village, are used to its ways of living ; and who have been given an education which opens their eyes to village and agricultural problems and suggests the means of dealing with them."¹

The Committee came to the conclusion that the chief educational need of India is " the development of middle vernacular and normal schools so that they can truly become ' the keystone of the arch of educational reform '."

Those provinces, in which vernacular middle schools have fallen into decay, must find the problem of providing suitable teachers for primary schools almost insoluble.

39. The following Table gives the position in regard to trained teachers in boys' primary schools. The all-India percentage has risen from 44·2 to 50·3, but there is still much disparity between provinces, the percentages ranging from 28·1 in *Bengal* to 73·3 in the *Punjab*. The percentage in *Assam* is unsatisfactory, especially as there has been a decline from the very low percentage of 36·7 in 1927.

TABLE LXVI.

Trained teachers in primary schools for boys of all kinds.

Province.	Total number.	Trained.	Percentage of trained to total.	
			1927.	1932.
Madras	96,534	57,312	48·7	59·4
Bombay	32,425	15,189	48·1	46·8
Bengal	75,950	21,332	25·6	28·1
United Provinces	38,640	25,601	66·5	68·2
Punjab	11,529	8,449	53·3	73·3
Burma	5,947	3,890	42·6	65·4
Bihar and Orissa	36,792	18,051	37·5	49·1
Central Provinces	10,215	5,976	46·4	58·5
Assam	7,285	2,305	36·7	31·6
North-West Frontier Province	925	533	56·0	57·6
British India (including minor administrations).	318,018	159,820	44·2	50·3

40. The low percentage of 50·3 is serious enough in itself, but this defect is accentuated by the low initial qualifications of many of those who have been selected for training. The completion of the middle course should be an essential qualification, but the following Table shows that far inferior qualifications are often accepted.

¹Re-thinking Missions, pages 132-133.

TABLE LXVII
Men teachers in primary schools.

Province.	Total no. of teachers. (A).	No. of trained teachers possessing the following educational qualifications.		Percentage of (B) to (A).
		Passed primary stage.	Higher qualifications. (B).	
Madras	96,534	30,128	26,746	27.7
Bombay	32,425	..	15,189	46.8
Bengal	75,950	3,880	17,399	22.9
United Provinces	38,646	4,144	21,437	55.4
Punjab	11,529	673	7,804	67.7
Burma	5,947	2,748	555	9.3
Bihar and Orissa	36,792	3,880	14,170	38.5
Central Provinces	10,215	666	5,310	52.0
Assam	7,285	423	1,879	25.7
North-West Frontier Province	925	22	511	55.2
British India (including minor administrations).	318,018	61,895	96,746	30.4

41. The following Table gives the number of training institutions and their enrolment in each province for 1927 and 1932.

TABLE LXVIII.
Training schools for males.

Province.	Institutions.		Students.	
	1927.	1932.	1927.	1932.
Madras	94	83	8,697	10,983
Bombay	15	12	999	711
Bengal	96	91	2,190	2,587
United Provinces	73	83	1,223	1,622
Punjab	32	20	2,851	1,742
Burma	69	26	1,615	820
Bihar and Orissa	125	83	2,333	1,676
Central Provinces	11	10	1,137	1,053
Assam	8	6	336	211
North-West Frontier Province	1	3	65	163
British India (including minor administrations).	527	425	21,610	21,823

The reduction in the number of institutions is due mainly to a wise policy of concentration, but it is disappointing that, in view of the large demand for trained teachers in most provinces, the increase in enrolment is only nominal.

The following Table gives the average annual cost of training teachers in provinces.

TABLE LXIX.

Average annual cost per pupil in training schools for males, by provinces.

Province.	Average annual cost per pupil in	
	1926-27.	1931-32.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Madras	170 3 9	136 13 2
Bombay	272 3 4	329 9 10
Bengal	181 9 4	180 0 7
United Provinces	280 12 10	278 6 9
Punjab	122 7 0	150 14 6
Burma	328 9 7	297 14 10
Bihar and Orissa	158 0 5	186 4 9
Central Provinces	299 9 6	296 2 3
Assam	236 5 3	434 10 7
North-West Frontier Province	313 9 7	254 5 7
Delli		126 10 10
Ajmer-Merwara	345 1 11	216 7 0
Baluchistan	461 9 9	466 3 2
Bangalore	291 9 0	323 7 4
Other Administered Areas	284 15 10	234 7 8
	195 14 10	182 4 11

42. Financial stringency has borne heavily on training institutions, but retrenchment in this direction is an incentive to waste, not to economy. If 'wastage' is to be reduced, the percentage of trained teachers should be largely increased in many provinces. Greater care should also be taken in the selection of students for training.

Table LXVIII shows that the number of teachers under training in *Madras* is far greater than in other provinces. A pleasing feature is "the appreciable increase in strength in the secondary and higher elementary grades and a welcome decrease in the strength of the lower elementary grade".¹

¹ Madras, page 108.

In *Bombay*, sufficient care had not been taken in the past to adjust admissions to the requirements of particular districts with the result that the distribution of trained teachers among districts became very unequal, some having as many as 93 per cent. and others as few as 30 per cent.; the number of third year trained teachers was also in excess in relation to second year trained teachers with the result that the system became extravagant. Training arrangements have been modified to obviate these defects, but it is unfortunate that calculations have been based on the assumption that a percentage of fifty trained teachers will be sufficient. The report states that "a new scheme, intended to reduce the cost and at the same time to provide a higher percentage of trained teachers, is under consideration".¹ The comparatively high cost of training shown in Table LXIX indicates that this "further consideration" is required, especially as the number of teachers under training is inadequate.

Another grave defect is the procedure for regulating admission to training institutions (the majority of which are maintained by Government), the selection being in the hands of local authorities. A principal of a training school has stated that the "present selection of candidates by local authorities has decidedly lowered the standard of efficiency, and the only means of improvement is to make selections on a competitive basis"; another principal has stated that "many of the students sent by local authorities are of such mediocre abilities that the staff and I have to coach them outside regular college hours"; a third principal has urged that "medical officers seem to have the idea that teachers with serious physical defects can carry out their duties."²

In *Bengal*, "the number of trained teachers in primary schools rose by 5,661 from 15,671 to 21,332, but the number of untrained teachers rose by 9,157. Thus, out of every three teachers appointed only one was trained. It will be many decades before even a majority of primary school teachers are trained. Nor do even all those who are trained enter the profession; many are attracted by more lucrative—perhaps, we should say, less poverty-stricken—employment elsewhere."³

A reconstruction of the middle vernacular and training systems is the first essential step in the long journey towards educational improvement in this province.

Considerable progress has been made in the *United Provinces*. Until a few years ago, almost the only means of training teachers for primary schools was provided by a very large number of small training classes, "which are in the nature of temporary expedients to reduce the number of untrained teachers in primary schools".⁴ The head teacher of a primary school was then entrusted with the training of eight pupil-teachers, but a master of method is now employed in addition to the staff of the practising school.

Central training schools are also being started, the object being to have one in each circle. The staff of such an institution consists of a trained undergraduate headmaster and four assistants; and the normal strength is thirty

¹ *Bombay*, page 119.

² *Bombay*, page 122.

³ *Bengal*, page 103.

⁴ *U. P.*, page 95.

pupil-teachers. Each school has a one-acre farm for training in rural knowledge.

There are also eight normal schools, whose object is to train assistant teachers in middle vernacular schools and headmasters of primary schools. Headmasters are in the Provincial Service. "Students are given stipends by Government and are selected by a committee consisting of the Chairman, Education Committee, the assistant and deputy inspectors, the final choice resting with the inspector. This system is working well, and headmasters report that they are getting a better type of candidate".¹

In the *Punjab*, the high percentage of trained teachers has rendered possible a large reduction in the number of pupil teachers and an improvement in the quality of the training. The course for senior vernacular teachers has been extended from one to two years. "This experiment has proved a success in producing men of better qualifications, deeply interested in rural uplift."²

The following extract from the report gives an indication of the wide scope of training:

"All vernacular training institutions have developed during the quinquennium into centres of training in community and propaganda work. Dramatic clubs and singing parties have carried on a good deal of propaganda. Villages have been selected for intensive uplift work by the Gakhhar and Jullundur schools. Pupil-teachers have dug manure pits, popularised vaccination and inoculation, chlorinated wells, filled-up ponds, tried quinisation schemes, held health exhibitions, laid out village gardens, cleaned streets, constructed drains and attended to all aspects of village amelioration such as sanitation, cooperation, hygienic living and co-education. At Jullundur, every pupil teacher has been trained to handle a magic lantern and to lecture with it. In some schools meetings are organised where pupil teachers are required, in turn, to address their fellow students as though they were illiterate villagers: this is done with the object of giving them ample practice in community work before they proceed in small parties to villages in the neighbourhood, singing songs and delivering lectures on useful topics, and offering assistance to those in trouble. Beneficent departments have frequently sought the assistance of our pupil-teachers in carrying out their propaganda work; and several deputy commissioners, particularly in the Rawalpindi division, have utilised their services in connection with the organisation of health weeks, locust campaigns and the furtherance of the cause of rural uplift. Tributes are paid by many to the commendable activities of the normal school students."³

In *Burma*, facilities for training have been much reduced. In 1926-27 there were 85 classes for training elementary teachers; the number rose to 95 in 1928-29, but was reduced to 34 in 1931-32.

In *Bihar*, enrolment in elementary training schools has been reduced from 1,984 to 1,344.

"At first sight it would seem that no form of retrenchment could be less desirable than one which would restrict the output of trained teachers. It has, however, to be borne in mind, firstly, that the output of the schools, though calculated according to the normal requirements of district boards, had become too great for boards to absorb during a time of retrenchment; and, secondly, that many of the schools were undoubtedly inefficient. If the effect of retrenchment has been to get rid of the least efficient teachers, and if the schools can be thoroughly overhauled when finances improve, retrenchment may prove to have been a blessing in disguise."⁴

¹ U. P., page 93.

² Punjab, page 67.

³ Punjab, page 72

⁴ B. & O., pages 77-78.

In the *Central Provinces*, the number of normal schools was reduced from eleven to ten, as "there was a definite indication that the supply of trained teachers exceeded the demand" ¹.

In *Assam*, the percentage of trained teachers is very low, while the cost of training is very high in comparison with other provinces. A further scrutiny of the system is advisable.

(viii) *Compulsory education.*

43. The following Table shows the number of urban and rural areas in which compulsion has been introduced in each province.

TABLE LXX.

Areas under compulsion, 1932.

Province.	Acts.	Number of areas under compulsion.	
		Urban.	Rural.
Madras	Elementary Education Act, 1920	25	7*
Bombay	Primary Education (District Municipalities) Act, 1918	4	..
	City of Bombay Primary Education Act, 1920	1	..
	Primary Education Act, 1923	5	2
Bengal	Primary Education Act, 1919
	Primary Education (Amendment) 1930	1	..
United Provinces ..	Primary Education Act, 1919	37	..
	District Boards Primary Education Act, 1926	24†
Punjab	Primary Education Act, 1919	54	2,024‡
Bihar and Orissa ..	Primary Education Act, 1919	1	3
Central Provinces ..	Primary Education Act, 1920	24	422
Assam	Primary Education Act, 1925
Delhi	(Punjab Act extended to Delhi—1925) ..	1	10
	Total	153	3,302

* Taluk Boards (the number of villages under compulsion was 206 in 1931).

† Districts (the number of rural areas under compulsion was 378 in 1931.)

‡ School areas.

44. Compulsion has been introduced far more extensively in the *Punjab* than in any other province. Certain municipalities, notably Lahore, Amritsar and Multan, have achieved considerable success, but on the whole "municipalities are much less enthusiastic than district boards".¹ In rural areas the unit of compulsion is usually that of a single school area in which, according to the Act, all boys "not under six and not over eleven or not under seven and not over twelve" are compelled (unless specially exempted) to attend school. In some places, notably in Montgomery and Lyallpur districts, there has been promising progress and up to ninety per cent. of boys of school-going age have been enrolled. In other places, the introduction of compulsion has been only nominal, the reason adduced being that the areas have been unwisely selected. The comparatively large total increase in enrolment during the last decade suggests that the introduction of compulsion has been to some extent at least successful; but the task of keeping the boys at school in regular attendance throughout the compulsory period is infinitely more difficult. The rapid advance made in the Punjab in the enrolment of Class IV indicates that compulsion has achieved some success also in this direction.

The machinery of enforcing compulsion has often been ineffective and cumbrous. The report comments upon "the lack of interest on the part of attendance committees, inaction of attendance officers, the unwillingness in some divisions to make use of the power of prosecution, the delay in the conviction of defaulters".² However, improvement in these respects is being made. "In the Rawalpindi division alone about 2,000 prosecutions were launched during the last year of the quinquennium. In the Multan division similar steps were taken, especially in the Montgomery district, where cases are being tried by magistrates possessing summary powers. Public opinion is in favour of coercion, wherever and whenever other devices have failed; but legal aid is sought only in the last resort, while persuasion by means of active propaganda is the chief agency. The percentage of admissions ranged between 70 and 100. In other districts compulsory attendance officers have been appointed for the three-fold purpose of advising attendance committees, assisting school teachers in improving attendance, and instituting cases against recalcitrant parents".²

45. Progress in the *United Provinces* has been 'patchy'. Some boards "have not appointed qualified superintendents, while attendance officers are often unfit. School Committees often take no interest and are nearly always reluctant to prosecute through fear that they will become unpopular. When they do prosecute, inadequate fines are often imposed and the result is practically nil".³

In rural areas, the chances of success have been reduced by the selection of unsuitable areas and by the difficulty experienced in obtaining suitable supervisors.

46. The aim of the Compulsory Education Committee (1921-22) in *Bombay* was that, largely as a result of compulsion, "the total attendance of boys of

¹Punjab, page 11.

²Punjab, page 60.

³U. P., page 61.

school-going age would be increased by 500,000 in ten years and that at the end of the period 80 per cent. of such boys in the Presidency proper and 60 per cent. in Sind would be at school. Under the Act a proposal of a local authority to provide for compulsory education is required to be submitted to Government in the form of a scheme... Owing to financial stringency it has not been possible for Government to sanction all the schemes submitted to it".¹ In 1932, the total number of local authorities which had introduced compulsion was twelve, ten of which were municipalities.

47. Progress has been made in the *Central Provinces*, but registration is sometimes faulty, attendance officers and authorities "have not performed their duties properly.....proceedings against defaulters are dilatory, protracted and cumbersome, and the penalties so slight as to prove inefficacious".²

48. In *Bengal*, the Primary (Rural) Education Act was eventually passed in 1931. The total cost of putting the Act into full operation has been calculated at Rs. 3,76,65,000. Against this sum the estimated income from cess, taxation and Government allotment is about Rs. 1,32,50,000. It is difficult to conceive how a system of compulsion can be grafted upon the present system of primary education in this province. The three-class primary schools, still less the makhtabs, etc., cannot do much to reduce illiteracy. An essential preliminary is a policy of consolidation with a view to establishing five-class primary schools. In the absence of vernacular middle schools, the provision of suitable teachers will be an insuperable difficulty.

49. Compulsion has been introduced gradually in *Delhi City*; the Act is now applied in six out of nine areas. There has been a rapid increase in enrolment, but in consequence of the large increase in population, as revealed in the Census of 1931, the goal is almost as distant as ever. Moreover, "compulsion has not succeeded in even partly solving the outstanding problems of primary education, stagnation and wastage".³ The task has been rendered even more difficult by a hasty multiplication of privately-managed schools, many of them housed in insanitary and expensive buildings and served by untrained and inefficient teachers.

50. These accounts indicate that the high hopes entertained five years ago have not been fulfilled. It was then suggested that "it was only a question of money" and that with additional funds compulsion would become a panacea of all our ills. But more money has not been forthcoming; and grave difficulties in working even limited schemes have been encountered. It is doubtful whether large additional sums should be spent on compulsion in many provinces. A careful preparation of the ground is essential.

On the other hand, there is undue pessimism. The report of the *United Provinces* has wisely pointed out that in other countries also success has by no means been immediate: "Ten years after compulsion had been introduced in England, attendance was not more than 72 per cent., and that with much better machinery than can be attained in India".⁴ Indeed, it is only in recent years that the provision of schools in England has become adequate;

¹Bombay, page 112.²C. P., page 57.³Delhi, pages 61-62.⁴U. P., page 63.

despite vast expenditure and the widespread availability of literature, relapse into comparative illiteracy must still be very great.

51. Lamentation over the shortage of funds is therefore out-of-place; what is required is a firm determination to grapple with the difficulties.

There is, first, a grave danger that an introduction of compulsion in a few areas will be a means of accentuating the already large disproportion in expenditure between progressive and backward, between town and country, between boys and girls, between literary and vocational education. This danger is particularly great in those provinces in which grants are based solely on expenditure, as by this means, whereas the rich obtain more, the poor obtain less. There is much to be said for the Punjab system, whereby grants are distributed to districts by reason of their needs rather than their resources. For this purpose each district is graded so that comparatively rich districts obtain grants approximating one-half, while poor districts obtain up to ninety per cent. of their approved additional expenditure. Moreover, compulsion is fairly evenly distributed between town and country as well as between districts.

52. The acid test of the value of compulsion is the extent in which it is successful in reducing waste caused by stagnation or 'wastage' or both.

In his recent book "The Education of India", Mr. A. I. Mayhew has suggested that "India is too poor to afford any further extension based solely or mainly on the present wasteful voluntary system". It may be suggested with even greater justification that India cannot afford an impetuous and widespread extension of compulsion, which will accentuate "wastage" and render the present difficulties even more complex and baffling. Unless a system of compulsion is based on firm foundations, unless the majority of parents are actively in support, unless an ample supply of trained and efficient teachers is available, unless there is careful supervision and a wise distribution of schools, compulsion will do more harm than good. It is also of doubtful morality to compel parents to send their children to school unless the schooling will be really beneficial to them and unless the health of children will not be impaired by working in unhygienic conditions. Again, it would be folly to graft compulsion on to a system of three-class primary schools, in which there would be little prospect of the pupils attaining a firm grasp of literacy.

53. Much time and energy have been wasted in the past in preparing detailed estimates of expenditure likely to be incurred by a system of widespread compulsion. Such estimates quickly become out-of-date and, in any case, are often valueless. On the basis of the number of boys of school-going age and of the average cost per pupil, a rough estimate of the cost can easily be prepared, but there must be wide variations between the two extremes of maximum and minimum expenditure. The actual cost is dependent upon the degree of efficiency that is attained. If, to take the two extremes, efficiency and organisation are so perfect and the attendance of pupils is so regular that all boys of school-going age complete the primary stage in four years, the cost will be far smaller than it would be if, in consequence of inefficiency of teaching, defective organisation and irregular attendance, no

pupils completed the primary stage within six years and even then left school illiterate. In other words, an efficient system of compulsion is an economy, but an inefficient system is an extravagance.

The figures in the table below are calculated by regarding pupils over twelve years of age in Class IV, those over the age of eleven in Class III, those over the age of ten in Class II, and those over the age of nine in Class I as 'over-age'. These pupils cannot hope to complete a single primary course of four classes by the time that they become twelve years of age; many of them are in a far worse plight as there are actually 5,322 pupils between the ages of seventeen and eighteen in Class I, some even of twenty years or over.

TABLE. LXXI.

'Over-age' pupils at the primary stage.

Province.	No. of pupils (boys and girls), in Classes I-IV.	No. of pupils (boy. and girls), overage in these classes.	Percentage of overage pupils to total num- ber of pupils.
Madras	2,509,245	677,783	27·01
Bombay	940,415	168,274	17·80
Bengal	2,215,554	200,438	9·05
United Provinces	1,163,015	324,279	27·88
Punjab	924,886	192,122	20·77
Burma	447,554	122,850	27·45
Bihar and Orissa	896,088	117,712	13·13
Central Provinces	388,576	117,138	30·14
Assam	269,140	17,113	6·36
North-West Frontier Province	68,392	16,621	24·30
Coorg	7,398	1,707	23·07
Delhi	30,487	8,892	29·16
Ajmer-Merwara	12,339	2,305	18·68
Baluchistan	5,903	2,300	38·96
Bangalore	11,851	2,549	21·51
Other Administered Areas	13,874	3,534	25·47

The very large number and the high percentage of overage pupils in *Madras* may be accounted for to some extent, because separate figures for girls and boys are not available and therefore a large number of girl pupils are included in the figures. But, after making every possible allowance, the figures indicate that an immense burden is thereby imposed on the public finances. School organisation must also be gravely impaired by admitting pupils to school (and allowing them to continue almost indefinitely) who have neglected their opportunities for many years and have been dilatory in attendance. Another reason for this high percentage may be the fact that compulsion is less developed in *Madras* than in many other provinces.

The comparatively low percentage in *Bengal* and *Assam* is to some extent misleading. It is largely discounted by the fact that (as already shown) the primary system in these provinces is extremely ineffective in reducing illiteracy. The deduction is that a primary system based largely on three-class primary schools is unable either to reduce illiteracy or to retain pupils at school.

In view of these disturbing figures, the Royal Commission on Agriculture made a very pertinent suggestion that "the main object of compulsion is to stop the wastage rather than to strain after the last truant".

54. It is suggested in the reports that in the matter of compulsion excessive attention is paid "to straining after the last truant". For example, in the *United Provinces* it is stated that many of the older boys brought to school under compulsion remained there for a year or so, "irregular in attendance and incapable of learning".¹

Spasmodic 'drives' to bring in all and sundry of varying ages and competence cannot be productive of any lasting benefit and militate against orderly organisation of good class-teaching. The better plan would be to make a careful survey of the census statistics and to estimate for each area the number of pupils attaining the age of six years in each year who should be admitted to school by the agency of compulsion. By that means class organisation would be simplified and, with regularity of attendance resulting from compulsion, pupils should complete the primary course in the normal period of time. 'Straining after the last truant' is both vexatious and extravagant. It is far more important to exact penalties from parents of children who are irregular in attendance and who leave school before completing the course than in respect to boys who have no desire to attend school.

The machinery for enforcing the Act is important. In towns the matter is comparatively simple, but in rural areas complications arise. To be effective, speedy action is required; delays are vexatious to all parties. There is a grave danger of inflicting upon the countryside a horde of petty officials, attendance officers and the like, who will batten upon the people and make the very name of education a by-word and a reproach.

55. There is also a tendency to select a fairly wide area and to plaster it with schools with the object of providing facilities for every boy of school-going age, even if he lives in a minute village and has no desire for education.

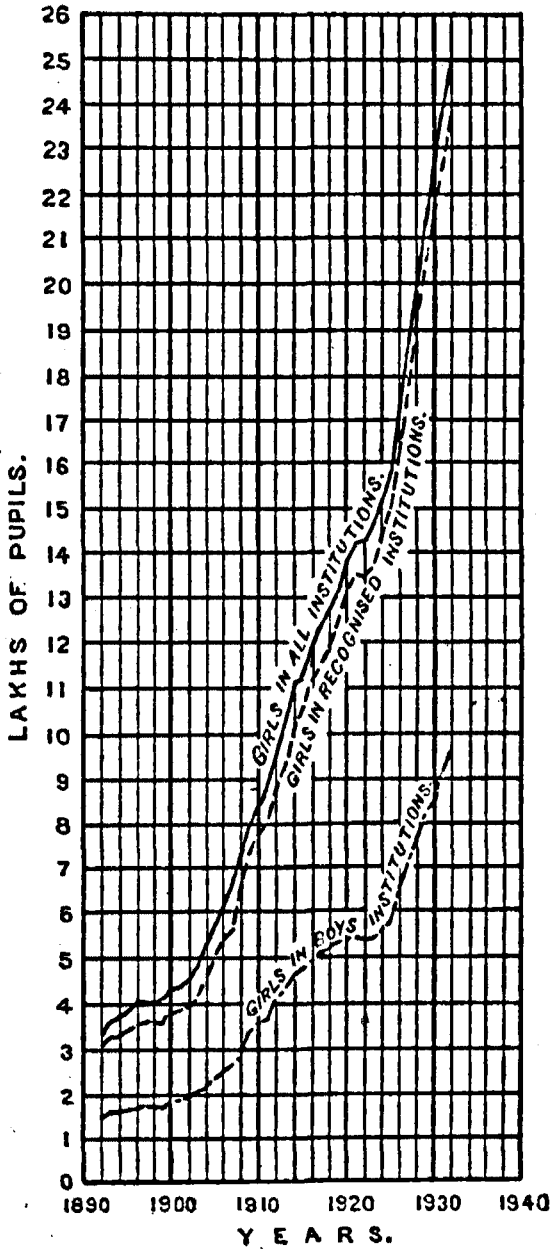
¹U. P., page 64.

Apart from the fact that such policy is inequitable by lavishing facilities on the few at the expense of the many, it is advisable that only those areas should be selected for compulsion in which conditions are favourable. Otherwise, there will be extravagance and disappointment.

56. There is, therefore, no cause for undue pessimism, provided that earnest efforts are being made to prepare the way for compulsion. As efficiency of teaching is improved, so will the prospects of compulsion become brighter. The essential preliminary is the establishment of a series of efficient five-class schools, staffed by well trained products of vernacular middle schools. A well devised distribution of schools is also essential; compulsion cannot be based on ephemeral schools without continuity or tradition. A village school under compulsion should become a village institution.

FIG. 8.

FEMALE EDUCATION.



(To face page 161.)

CHAPTER VI.

THE EDUCATION OF GIRLS AND WOMEN.

(i) *Increasing interest; inadequate support.*

Many have stressed the difficulties and importance of girls' education in India and the vital necessity of affording it ampler support. For example, the Hartog Committee were of opinion that

'the importance of the education of girls and women in India at the present moment cannot be overrated. It affects vitally the range and efficiency of all education. The education of the girl is the education of the mother, and through her of her children. The middle and high classes of India have long suffered from the dualism of an educated manhood and an ignorant womanhood—a dualism that lowers the whole level of the home and domestic life and has its reaction on personal and national character.

"The education of women, especially in the higher stages, will make available to the country a wealth of capacity that is now largely wasted through lack of opportunity. It is only through education that Indian women will be able to contribute in increasing measure to the culture, ideals and activities of the country."¹

The Committee, being thus impressed by the importance of girls' education, recommended that "in the interests of the advance of Indian education as a whole, priority should now be given to the claims of girls' education in every scheme of expansion".²

A few years later, the Commission on Christian Higher Education in India went further and urged that active steps should also be taken to rectify even the existing disproportion in expenditure between boys' and girls' education:

"We believe that there is no more pressing need or more inspiring opportunity in the present educational system in India than that presented by women's education. The resources at present expended on men's education and on women's education respectively do not at all represent the proportion of the needs and opportunities of men's education and of women's education. We commend to all interested in the subject an earnest consideration of possible ways of rectifying this disproportion."³

2. Though there has been improvement in certain directions, these words of warning have passed almost unheeded. Writing a few years ago, the (then) Directress of Public Instruction, Punjab, plaintively observed that girls' schools in that province were in a position similar to that occupied by younger children of a large family, who never have new clothes of their own but have to be content with the cast-off clothing of their elder brothers and sisters.

The Chief Inspectress, North-West Frontier Province, has made similar complaints about the preferential treatment which is almost invariably accorded to boys' institutions at the expense of girls' institutions:

"A five-year programme for the expansion of vernacular education in the province has been sanctioned by the Government of India. According to this programme, 246 new primary schools are to be opened for boys, but only 25 for girls. This is a mistake—it is merely widening the gulf between the men and the women of the province. The girls can never hope to catch up when, in addition to having been handicapped in the past, they are also to be handicapped in the future."⁴

3. The provincial reports give hopeful indications that the difficulties arising from apathy and from the persistence of social customs are tending to

¹ Hartog Report, pages 150-151.

² Hartog Report, page 347.

³ Lindsay Commission's Report, pages 254-255.

⁴ N.-W. F. P., page 91.

disappear ; it is particularly pleasing that this hopeful tendency is reported even from provinces, in which the forces of reaction have hitherto been firmly entrenched.

For example, the *United Provinces* report records that

“ the encouraging feature of the quinquennium is that public opinion in regard to girls' education has changed, and in many places and among many communities indifference has been succeeded by appreciation. This is manifested by a willingness to prolong the school life of girls, by an active desire to raise the standard of girls' education, and by a demand for additional schools. It is to be regretted that at this juncture progress should be hampered by lack of funds. The progress that has been achieved, however, is doubly valuable because its path has been difficult.”¹

The *Bengal* report is similarly optimistic :

“ Not only has the pace quickened, but some of the social obstacles to women's education are crumbling. Instead of being generally hostile, men are now generally friendly to the education of their women folk ; purdah is slowly disappearing ; the age of marriage has been raised by the Sarda Act ; women are being gradually relieved from the bondage of social fetters and are coming to be recognised as partners in the home and commonwealth. This is a movement of no small consequence, for it entails and demands the education of women as a necessary corollary. But even more significant is the interest now taken by educated women themselves in the uplifting of their sisters. The influence of the Women's Educational Conference already reaches out in different directions. On the one hand, the example is contagious and in increasing numbers women are entering public life ; on the other hand, an organised movement can exert a far more powerful pressure on Government, legislative bodies and public opinion than the voices of a few enthusiasts crying in the wilderness.”²

Another province in which grave difficulties have been encountered in the past is the *Punjab*, but in that province also the outlook is regarded as far more promising than formerly :

“ The education of girls is still in its infancy, but the depressing literacy figures are to some extent counterbalanced by the real and earnest desire of parents and girls for education. One of the most interesting features in the progress of education during the quinquennium is the lengthening of the very short school life of girls. This is not only an advantage in that it increases the efficiency and standard of education, but it is beneficial in many other ways. Girls formerly had little or no girlhood and passed from childhood to marriage all too suddenly. There is now a real demand for good and regular teaching in village primary schools. Much remains to be done, but the former apathy or antipathy has disappeared, except where dire poverty forces upon parents a narrowly utilitarian view of education.”³

Welcome news has also been received from *Assam* :

“ During the period under review, the prospect of women's education has become brighter than in the past. The old orthodox ways of Hindu and Muhammadan society are showing unmistakable signs of slackening, and the rigours of the *purdah* system are already giving way. The passing of the Marriage Reforms Act, the political awakening of the people, the introduction of compulsion in primary education, the need of training old women and widows in useful arts in order to enable them to earn a living, all these will prove potent factors in the education and emancipation of Indian girls and women to an extent beyond our previous estimates.”⁴

4. Enrolment statistics also afford justification for this spirit of optimism. Whereas in the previous quinquennium an increase of 417,930 in the number of girls at school compared unfavourably with the large increase of 2,352,216 in the number of boys at school, the number of girls at school increased during the

¹ U. P., page 70. ² Bengal, page 66. ³ Punjab, page 103. ⁴ Assam, page 145.

quinquennium under review by as many as 650,297 as against 958,744 additional boys at school.

TABLE LXXII.

Number of pupils according to sex in all institutions.

	1917.	1922.	1927.	1932.
Males	6,621,248	6,962,928	9,315,144	10,273,888
<i>Increase</i>	+341,680	+2,352,216	+958,744
Females	1,230,698	1,424,422	1,842,352	2,492,649
<i>Increase</i>	+193,724	+417,930	+650,297

The provincial enrolment figures are of particular interest; they disclose considerable variations between the provinces.

Madras, which has long been a pioneer in girls' education, has shown further progress. The enrolment of girls in all types of institutions advanced during the quinquennium from 539,351 to 742,536, or an increase of 203,185 as against an increase of 193,509 in the number of boys; thus, at long last, progress among girls has become more rapid than among boys.

The record of the Punjab, which has previously been regarded as retrograde and apathetic in the matter of girls' education, also deserves early notice. The enrolment of girls in that province rose during the quinquennium from 128,880 to 213,287 or an increase of 84,407, as against a total increase of 150,831 for boys and girls combined. Thus, in this province also, the increase in enrolment among girls has become more rapid than among boys.

TABLE LXXIII.

Total number of girl pupils in all institutions.

Province.	No. of girl pupils in		Increase in the number of girls.	Increase in the number of boys.
	1927.	1932.		
Madras	539,351	742,536	203,185	193,509
Bombay	223,317	292,658	69,341	114,778
Bengal	425,152	569,712	134,560	305,285
United Provinces	124,236	167,011	42,775	125,812
Punjab	128,880	213,287	84,407	66,424
Burma	171,803	216,539	44,736	86,698
Bihar and Orissa	119,030	126,453	7,423	-21,094
Central Provinces	43,530	66,416	22,886	37,767
Assam	37,802	62,167	24,365	69,333
North-West Frontier Province ..	7,905	13,551	5,646	13,105

5. The following Table shows the several types of institutions in which these girls are enrolled. The increasing enrolment of girls in high schools

is a pleasing feature of the figures. It is true that the vast majority of these girls are enrolled in the primary classes, but they should be receiving better instruction than they would have received in primary schools; there is also greater incentive to them to reach the higher standards.

TABLE LXXIV.

Enrolment of girls by institutions.

Year.	In arts colleges.	In high schools.	In middle schools.	In primary schools.	In special institutions.	In unrecognised institutions.	Total enrolment.
1916-17 ..	493	15,571	69,837	1,033,574	16,535	73,951	1,209,961
1921-22 ..	938	25,130	85,079	1,195,892	11,184	77,580	1,395,803
1926-27 ..	1,624	39,858	123,892	1,545,963	14,729	90,745	1,816,811
1931-32 ..	2,966	75,479	170,997	2,073,141	18,981	123,120	2,464,684
Increase in 1922	445	9,559	15,242	162,318	-5,351	3,629	185,842
Increase in 1927	686	14,728	38,813	350,071	3,545	13,165	421,003
Increase in 1932	1,342	35,621	47,105	527,178	4,252	32,375	647,873

N. B.—This Table excludes statistics for European institutions.

6. The total number of institutions for girls, disappointing though it undoubtedly is, becomes all the more disappointing when the nature and standards of these institutions are examined. The vast bulk of these institutions are primary schools, many of them with only three classes. Moreover, of the 32,635 primary schools for girls in 1932, as many as 17,438 were in Bengal: but, according to the Bengal report, "this number is no indication of their usefulness, as by every test of efficiency they fail miserably".¹ If these schools be removed from calculation (as they well might be), the provision of girls' schools becomes deplorably inadequate.

The failure to provide more than an insignificant number of secondary schools, high and middle, vernacular and anglo-vernacular, is very marked. In 1932, there were only 324 high schools for girls as against 2,801 high schools for boys; there were only 847 middle schools (vernacular and anglo-vernacular) for girls as against 9,769 such schools for boys.

The *Punjab* has made a notable contribution in this respect, the number of high schools having advanced from 21 to 40, and that of middle schools from 93 to 135 during the quinquennium.

The record of *Madras* also gives evidence of a keen desire to rectify the niggardly treatment of girls' schools in the past. Whereas during the quinquennium the number of boys' institutions was increased only by 281 in that province, that of girls' institutions was increased by 2,323.

¹ Bengal, page 72.

TABLE LXXV.

Recognised institutions for girls.

Year.	Arts colleges.	High schools.	Middle school.	Primary schools.	Special institutions.	Total.
1916-17	8	81	446	18,077	512	19,124
1921-22	12	120	548	22,579	258	23,517
1926-27	18	145	656	26,621	316	27,756
1931-32	20	218	787	32,564	380	33,969
Increase in 1922 ..	4	39	102	4,502	-254	4,393
Increase in 1927 ..	6	25	108	4,042	58	4,239
Increase in 1932 ..	2	73	131	5,943	64	6,213

N. B.—This Table excludes statistics for European institutions.

7. The expenditure figures indicate that increased financial support has not been forthcoming. The figures in the Table given below do not include the sums spent on inspection, scholarships, buildings and other miscellaneous objects. Moreover, no account has been taken of the cost of educating the largely increasing number of girls reading in boys' institutions, the cost of which is debited to boys' and not to girls' schools.

 TABLE LXXVI.
Expenditure on institutions for girls, by sources.

Year.	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total expenditure.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1916-17	26,19,678	19,82,810	5,23,431	18,87,019	70,22,938
1921-22	63,51,849	29,81,277	8,97,729	29,02,704	1,31,33,559
1926-27	81,88,066	45,06,817	14,18,734	39,15,183	1,80,28,800
1931-32	1,09,31,402	57,71,992	22,24,020	50,12,597	2,39,40,011
Increase in 1922 ..	37,22,171	9,98,467	3,64,298	10,15,685	61,10,621
Increase in 1927 ..	18,36,217	15,25,540	5,18,055	10,12,479	48,92,291
Increase in 1932 ..	27,43,336	12,65,175	8,08,236	10,97,414	59,14,161

N. B.—This Table excludes expenditure on European institutions.

8. It would be unreasonable to expect that, during a period of acute financial stringency, the necessary funds could be provided in a moment of time, but the following Table indicates that even the modest additional funds which were actually available have not been distributed equitably between boys' and girls' education and that little effort has been made to correct the disproportion in expenditure between the sexes.

For example, whereas in the *United Provinces* expenditure on boys' education rose by Rs. 32 lakhs during the quinquennium, that on girls' education rose by only Rs. 4 lakhs. In *Bihar*, again, an increased expenditure of Rs. 87,000 on girls' institutions compares very unfavourably with one of Rs. 11 lakhs on boys' institutions. The figures convey the awkward impression that, in times of financial stringency, the first item to be thrown overboard is that of girls' education.

A pleasing exception to this attitude of neglect is in *Madras*, whose annual expenditure on girls' education rose by Rs. 24 lakhs during the quinquennium. The additional expenditure on boys' education amounted to Rs. 64 lakhs, so that even in this province the disproportion is being accentuated.

The next highest additional expenditure was in the *Punjab* where the amount reached Rs. 9 lakhs, as against an increased expenditure of Rs. 45 lakhs for boys' institutions.

Additional expenditure on girls' education in *Bombay* was only Rs. 4 lakhs during the quinquennium, but this province has been more liberal in the past in its support of girls' education than other provinces. Hence its expenditure of Rs. 58 lakhs does not compare unfavourably with that of Rs. 74 lakhs in *Madras*.

TABLE LXXVII.

Expenditure on educational institutions for boys and girls.

Province.	Expenditure on institutions for males.			Expenditure on institutions for females.		
	1927.	1932.	Increase.	1927.	1932.	Increase.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras ..	2,90,21,925	3,54,23,350	64,01,425	49,84,590	74,22,761	24,38,171
Bombay ..	2,72,73,932	2,86,45,651	13,71,719	53,52,429	58,29,207	4,76,778
Bengal ..	2,57,97,910	2,90,26,148	32,28,238	28,08,635	36,54,487	8,45,852
United Provinces	1,90,94,583	2,23,32,981	32,38,398	23,13,863	27,55,467	4,41,604
Punjab ..	1,78,26,459	2,23,53,551	45,27,092	19,75,811	28,98,606	9,22,795
Burma ..	93,98,868	1,12,94,638	18,95,770	17,01,814	20,24,872	3,23,058
Bihar and Orissa	1,12,59,012	1,23,91,319	11,32,307	8,33,654	9,21,047	87,393
Central Provinces	66,10,720	73,51,830	7,41,110	6,43,957	6,39,454	1,95,497
Assam ..	27,15,180	33,84,687	6,69,507	2,74,553	3,77,308	1,02,755
North-West Frontier Province ..	13,21,798	17,85,539	4,63,741	1,36,911	2,45,262	1,08,351

9. The main reason why the necessary financial support has not been forthcoming has been the inability of provincial Governments to maintain the increased measure of financial support, which had been given in the previous quinquennium.

TABLE LXXVIII.

Government contribution to girls' education, by provinces.

Province.	1922.	1927.	1932.	Increase between 1922-27.	Increase between 1927-32.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	20,11,795	30,88,857	44,71,091	10,77,062	13,82,234
Bombay	17,27,812	25,71,128	25,63,112	8,43,316	—8,016
Bengal	11,30,429	18,21,017	18,09,328	6,90,588	—11,689
United Provinces ..	7,31,850	15,48,779	17,33,868	8,16,929	1,85,089
Punjab	7,09,338	11,91,600	17,67,122	4,82,264	5,75,522
Burma	3,90,852	6,58,299	7,98,601	2,67,447	1,40,302
Bihar and Orissa ..	3,11,839	4,23,525	4,25,194	1,11,686	1,669
Central Provinces ..	3,77,848	6,33,348	6,31,457	2,60,500	—6,891
Assam	1,30,521	2,05,428	2,63,643	74,907	58,215
North-West Frontier Province	24,310	58,087	1,51,767	33,777	93,690

N. B.—The figures for 1922 do not include such indirect expenditure as cost of inspection and direction, buildings, etc., for which separate figures are not available.

10. The position is therefore critical. The quantitative advance in the enrolment of girls will at least be maintained; it will probably be expedited. Unless, therefore, more generous financial support is given the grave defects in the education of boys will be accentuated in the education of girls.

A striking passage is quoted below from the *Bengal* report. It is not suggested that the observations made in this passage are applicable to all parts of India; it may be even that the unfavourable position in Bengal itself has been exaggerated. At the same time, an aspect of the general problem has been represented which should not pass unheeded:

“When we consider the recent history of women's education, there is reason to be disquieted at the haphazard manner in which it is developing. The history of men's education should have been fruitful of warnings at least, but those warnings have been unheeded; and women's education is following the same ill-advised, disordered path. The truth is that it has not yet received sufficient attention; it has been regarded as of secondary importance, incidental not vital. In the province which has the largest female population and the largest number of women's institutions, there is no woman as yet on the headquarters staff to plan and control. The women's inspecting agency in Bengal is absurdly small—there are no more than two inspectresses and twelve assistant inspectresses for over 17,000 girls' schools. They could inspect only a fraction of the schools and the rest have either been left unsupervised or else visited by the already over-burdened male sub-inspectors. It is true that Government have given administrative sanction to the appointment of an Assistant Directress; that one of the inspectresses has, at the request of the Department, drawn up a scheme for the development of women's education; that in 1923-29 Government gave their general approval to the policy of the establishment of an aided girls' high school in each district headquarters, whenever there should be a demand for it; but all these plans have been held up by lack of money. The number of Government

institutions for girls has scarcely increased at all during the period. The new schools that have arisen are the result of private interest and enterprise. The establishment of such schools is a hopeful sign of the times, but unless some large constructive scheme is devised and put into operation, girls' schools will become as inefficient, as narrow in their aim, as ill-adapted to their purpose as boys' schools. At present, if women's education is expanding, it is expanding as the result of impulses from below, not from above. The income from fees in all women's institutions together has arisen from Ra. 11½ lakhs to Ra. 14½ lakhs, but the contribution from provincial revenues to this most important and potentially fruitful of all creative public duties has actually decreased. It is to be hoped that this apathy and lack of policy will soon be replaced by some wise, well-planned comprehensive scheme, buttressed by adequate financial support."¹

(ii) Co-education.

11. It is difficult to recall to mind that, only a comparatively short time ago, the practice of co-education was widespread in India. In 1902, as many as 44·7 per cent of the girls under instruction were reading in boys' institutions, but this percentage dropped to 38·5 in 1927. The main reason for this decline was that, in order to improve the quality of girls' education, the number of separate girls' schools was largely increased during the years when money was comparatively plentiful.

✓ TABLE LXXIX.

Percentage of girls in boys' schools to the total number of girls under instruction.

Province.	1922.	1927.	1932.
Madras	52·1	55·5	51·1
Bombay	36·4	33·9	36·2
Bengal	16·5	14·4	17·5
United Provinces	36·0	33·3	35·8
Punjab	5·4	8·1	11·2
Burma	74·8	78·5	81·0
Bihar and Orissa	42·6	39·6	42·7
Central Provinces	40·4	35·7	38·5
Assam	50·6	52·4	50·3
North-West Frontier Province	6·0	8·6	5·9
British India (including minor administrations)	37·7	38·5	38·4

12. Though the total percentage of girls reading in boys' schools does not tend to increase, some of the provincial figures are striking. *Madras* and *Burma*, which have the highest percentage of girls under instruction, have also a much higher percentage of girls reading in boys' schools than other provinces. The low percentage recorded in *Bengal* is due primarily to the very large number of separate institutions for girls. Indeed, more than half of the girls' primary schools in British India are in Bengal. The very low

¹ Bengal, pages 77-78.

percentage in the *Punjab* is due to the rigidity of the social system which renders co-education difficult, even at the primary stage.

TABLE LXXX.

Co-education.

Province.	Number of girls reading in boys' institutions.	Number of girls reading in girls' institutions.	Total No. of girls.
Madras	379,434	363,102	742,536
Bombay	105,878	186,780	292,658
Bengal	97,926	461,788	559,712
United Provinces	59,873	107,138	167,011
Punjab	23,680	159,407	213,287
Burma	175,474	41,065	216,539
Bihar and Orissa	53,947	72,506	126,453
Central Provinces	25,550	40,866	66,416
Assam	31,268	30,899	62,167
North-West Frontier Province	793	12,758	13,551
British India (including minor administrations)	958,220	1,534,429	2,492,649

The *Madras* figures call for special notice. The number of girls reading in boys' schools advanced from 193,768 in 1922 to 299,177 in 1927; and again to 379,434 in 1932. The number has been nearly doubled during the space of ten years.

Much advance has also been recorded in *Bombay*, where the number of girls reading in boys' schools increased from 75,602 (out of a total of 222,859) to 105,878 (out of a total of 292,658).

13. The general attitude towards co-education has changed very considerably during the quinquennium, probably as a result of financial stringency.

In 1927, a committee in the *Central Provinces* recorded the following proposals:

"The co-education of boys and girls in schools should not be continued beyond the primary stage, and no boys should be admitted to girls' schools at any stage of their education. But in places where there is not sufficient demand for girls' primary education to justify the opening of separate girls' primary schools, the present system of admitting girls to boys' primary schools should be continued, both as a valuable means of propaganda to popularise female education and in order to procure a number of girls necessary to justify the opening of separate primary schools for girls.

As soon as the number of girls in a boys' primary school reaches thirty, a separate girls' primary school should be opened, if there is a generally expressed desire on the part of the parents."¹

The report of the Committee was published only a short time before the financial stringency set in with all its intensity, and therefore its main recommendation that separate girls' schools should be opened in places where there

¹ C. P., page 85.

is a strongly expressed demand and where thirty girls are forthcoming soon became an idle dream. A Government, which was compelled in 1927-32 to reduce its total educational expenditure by as much as Rs. 24 lakhs, could scarcely be expected to open a number of separate girls' schools; it is at least open to question whether it would have been advisable to do so. Even if thirty girls had been enrolled in a school, it is doubtful whether more than a single teacher would have been appointed; it is now generally admitted that single teacher schools are of very little benefit and make a very small contribution towards the reduction of illiteracy. The alternative no longer lies between co-education and separate girls' schools, but rather between co-education and no school provision whatever.

14. It is not surprising, therefore, that the advantages and even the inevitability of a system of co-education are now being investigated. For example, the Director of Public Instruction, *Bihar*, has advocated an extension of the system, mainly on the ground that a poor province has no other alternative:

"This decrease (in the number of girls' primary schools) accompanied by a rise in the number of girls reading in boys' institutions from 46,869 in 1926-27 to 53,747 in 1931-32 is not a matter for regret. It shows that both local bodies and parents are realising that, at the primary stage, it is seldom necessary to have separate schools for girls. Nothing short of the absence of any practicable alternative could justify the maintenance of these separate schools, nearly all of them staffed by a single elderly, untrained male teacher. Co-educational schools should provide better teaching at less cost. Incidentally, the more efficient that we can make our primary schools, the more popular should co-education become. If all the boys could be encouraged to complete the lower primary stage by the age of ten, there could be little objection to co-education from any but the more conservative parents."¹

15. It is the more disquieting, therefore, that the reports of co-education from the more progressive provinces are in many ways unfavourable.

An Inspectress of Schools, *Bombay*, has pointed out that, in practice, there is no proper system of co-education, and that girls are admitted to boys' schools merely as a concession and a convenience:

"Girls are not part of the corporate life of the school. There is no lady teacher in these schools. There are no special arrangements for physical education, nor for sewing and music which, whatever their standard, are now taught in all girls' schools, and sometimes no special sanitary arrangements are made....."

"There is a mistaken idea among parents that a daughter at a boy's school has an added prestige, but such an idea should be condemned. Girls in a class of boys become extra shy or overbold. The teacher does not address them in class, for fear that the boys would laugh at any foolish answer they may give; and after school he ignores them lest the boys would jeer at him..... If the school is a co-educational one in the real sense of the word, with a mixed staff and a fair proportion between the boys and girls, that is quite a different matter."²

Burma has made far greater advance than any other province in co-education, but even in that province girls reading in boys' institutions still suffer from serious disadvantages:

"Our village system of education is co-educational, and the prejudice against it even among monastic school managers is breaking down. The *Dwars* sect still holds that girls should be excluded from monastic schools, but the *Kan* sect sees no objection to their admission. Girls will not, however, get a fair chance either in secular or monastic co-educational village schools until the proportion of women teachers can be increased. Our inspectresses have constantly pressed local educational authorities to appoint more women

¹B. & O., page 79.

²Bombay, pages 167-168.

teachers and would like to go on training women, although many qualified men are out of work. 'We are constant,' writes Daw Hmi, 'in our advice to local educational authorities to have at least one woman teacher appointed in all vernacular schools as the presence of women teachers tends to prolong girls' attendance at school.'"¹

16. The present position and the future prospects of girls' primary education are therefore perplexing. The demand among Indian girls for education will increase very rapidly, but with the continuance of the financial stringency it is difficult to suggest how that demand can be met, especially in sparsely populated areas. The creation of separate primary schools for girls is prohibited on financial grounds and the only alternative would appear to be a wide expansion of co-educational schools, but co-education must be confined almost entirely to the pupils and not to the staff, except possibly in *Burma*. Save in very rare cases, principally where the wife of a village schoolmaster has become a trained teacher, the appointment of a mixed staff in primary schools is impracticable; but in provinces such as *Madras*, *Bengal* and *Bihar*, where the employment of men teachers in girls' schools is so prevalent, the girls would not be placed so unfavourably in co-educational schools as they are in many of the separate schools for girls. It is for consideration whether co-education could not be established better on the foundation of girls' than of boys' primary schools. Women, provided they are well-qualified and trained, are usually better teachers for small boys than men. Little boys might therefore be encouraged to attend girls' primary schools in places where teaching is in efficient hands.

(iii) *Primary education.*

17. The Hartog Committee drew pointed attention, five years ago, to the alarming 'wastage' in the primary stage.

TABLE LXXXI:

Wastage: 1922-27.

Province.	Number of pupils in girls' schools by stages.					Proportion of pupils in Classes I, IV, and V in 1922-27.		
	Class I 1922-23.	Class II 1923-24.	Class III 1924-25.	Class IV 1925-26.	Class V 1926-27.	Class I 1922-23.	Class IV 1925-26.	Class V 1926-27.
Madras ..	116,615	35,725	26,091	18,403	10,075	100	16	9
Bombay ..	48,089	25,383	18,816	14,728	11,241	100	31	23
Bengal ..	195,534	51,675	16,653	4,239	2,014	100	2	1
United Provinces	42,706	9,078	5,686	3,275	2,428	100	8	6
Punjab ..	26,488	10,075	7,933	5,752	4,203	100	16	12
Burma ..	22,934	13,546	4,608	4,161	1,570	100	18	7
Bihar and Orissa	40,646	10,551	5,128	1,091	799	100	2	2
Central Provinces	6,452	5,022	3,041	2,174	619	100	23	7
Assam ..	10,258	1,745	1,199	913	419	100	9	4
British India (including minor administrations).	533,678	161,228	66,646	55,794	33,588	100	10	6

¹Burma, page 25.

These figures have been brought up to date in respect to the quinquennium under review and are given below. There is, however, a discrepancy between the Table for 1922-27 and that for 1927-32. Whereas in the 1922-27 Table girls reading in boys' schools have been omitted, they have been included in the Table for 1927-32.

TABLE LXXXII.

Wastage: 1927-32.

Province.	Number of girls by stages.					Proportion of girls in Classes I, IV and V in 1927-32.		
	Class I 1927-28.	Class II 1928-29.	Class III 1929-30.	Class IV 1930-31.	Class V 1931-32.	Class I 1927-28.	Class IV 1930-31.	Class V 1931-32.
Madras ..	360,299	101,123	66,020	42,813	20,752	100	12	6
Bombay ..	105,358	41,493	33,256	24,611	17,838	100	23	17
Bengal ..	328,314	68,974	38,306	9,441	5,951	100	3	2
United Provinces	83,967	22,534	13,268	6,694	4,764	100	8	6
Punjab ..	58,683	16,072	12,732	10,546	8,943	100	18	15
Burma ..	90,814	35,741	16,683	10,867	3,249	100	11	3
Bihar and Orissa	87,430	18,740	10,509	2,184	1,602	100	2	2
Central Provinces	27,724	8,336	6,229	4,689	980	100	17	3
Assam ..	28,270	3,910	2,763	5,093	3,410	100	18	12
North-West Frontier Province.	4,774	1,169	1,043	904	451	100	19	9
British India (including minor administrations).	1,215,822	311,281	197,321	120,464	69,945	100	10	6

Though these figures, even as revised and brought up to date, do not give cause for optimism, there are signs of improvement.

In the *United Provinces*, the position has been slightly improved, as the "number in the lower primary and preparatory sections taken together is now 86 per cent. of the total enrolment of pupils in public institutions as against 90 per cent. in 1927."¹

In *Bengal*, the failure of the girls to make any appreciable progress is very striking: "In the lowest class, there are two girls to five boys, but in Class III only one to twelve, and in Class IV one to sixteen. In the primary stage, as a whole, there are three girls to every ten boys, but in the middle stage only one girl to every 24 boys; and in the high stage only one to thirty. The number of women in arts colleges was only 712 in 1931-32, while the number of men was 20,912."²

¹ U. P., page 71.² Bengal, page 67.

The main cause of this disappointing state of affairs is due largely to the very large number of lower primary schools (with only three classes):

"Girls' primary schools in Bengal are even more inefficient, incredible as it may seem, than boys' schools. Their number is certainly large, larger than in all the other provinces put together. Out of the 26,682 girls' primary schools in British India in 1926-27, no fewer than 14,612 were in Bengal. . . . If we regard Class III as the standard of literacy (an optimistic assumption) it takes two schools to make a single literate in the year, largely because most of them are lower primary schools. No figures are available to show the number of upper primary schools, but in 1927 only one in 62 of the girls' primary schools was of the upper primary stage. There are only 5,183 primary women teachers, less than one for every three schools. Nearly all the schools are single-teacher schools; the great majority of them have men teachers. The average enrolment was only 24.5, whereas in boys' schools it was 33.4. The average annual cost of a school was Rs. 82, less than Rs. 7 a month; the annual cost of an unaided school was only Rs. 19

"These are amazing figures, and the only consolation is that, since practically all the expenditure was wasted, more money was not spent. The whole system of girls' primary schools in the province, with a few exceptions, is practically useless."¹

18. A reliable test of progress is provided by the enrolment of Classes IV and V, the stages at which literacy should be expected.

TABLE LXXXIII.

Girls in Classes IV and V.

Province.	Class IV.			Class V.		
	1927.	1932.	Increase.	1927.	1932.	Increase.
Madras	19,097	49,018	29,921	10,075	20,752	10,677
Bombay	16,169	26,894	10,725	11,259	17,868	6,609
Bengal	4,326	9,828	5,502	2,014	5,951	3,937
United Provinces ..	7,185	7,328	143	3,656	4,764	1,108
Punjab	6,130	11,897	5,767	4,203	8,943	4,740
Burma	3,097	11,356	8,259	1,570	3,249	1,679
Bihar and Orissa ..	1,250	2,573	1,323	799	1,602	803
Central Provinces ..	2,505	5,603	3,098	619	980	361
Assam	1,020	5,509	4,489	419	3,410	2,991
North-West * Frontier Province ..	435	1,113	678	139	451	312
British India (including minor administrations).	58,054	133,783	75,729	33,588	69,945	36,357

N. B.—The figures for 1927 are not strictly comparable with those for 1932 as the former represent pupils reading in girls' schools, while the latter include girls reading in schools for both sexes.

For the purpose of comparison between the provinces, the following Table is of interest.

TABLE LXXXIV.

Girls in Classes IV and V, and female population, by provinces.

Province (with female population in millions).	Number of girls enrolled in Classes IV and V.		Increase.
	1927.*	1932.	
Madras (23·6)	29,172	69,770	40,598
Bombay (10·3)	27,428	44,782	17,354
Bengal (24·0)	6,340	15,779	9,439
United Provinces (22·9)	10,841	12,092	1,251
Punjab (10·7)	10,333	20,840	10,507
Burma (7·1)	4,667	14,605	9,938
Bihar and Orissa (18·8)	2,049	4,175	2,126
Central Provinces (7·7)	3,124	6,583	3,459
Assam (4·0)	1,439	8,919	7,480
North-West Frontier Province (1·1)	574	1,564	990
British India (including minor administrations) (131·7)	91,642	203,728	112,086

* The figures for 1927 give the number of pupils reading in schools for girls and are not strictly comparable with those for 1932, which include girls reading in schools for both sexes.

Madras and *Bombay* are far more advanced than other provinces. Indeed, the enrolment of girls in Classes IV and V in *Madras* is greater than that of all other provinces taken together, excluding *Bombay*. The very considerable drop in *Madras* between the enrolment of Class IV and Class V provokes the fear that girls are reluctant to prolong their stay at school in a system of co-education, in which there are few women teachers.

The *Punjab* figures deserve attention. Bearing in mind the comparatively small population and the widespread persistence and rigidity of inimical social

customs, it is remarkable that this province should stand third, though a bad third, to Madras and Bombay in the enrolment of those school classes which should denote the attainment of literacy. It is difficult to resist the feeling that the very difficulties which beset the Punjab may in reality have proved her salvation, and that this province gains benefit in the long run by being compelled to depend on women teachers in girls' schools and by thus being released from the temptation of employing decrepit old men in single-teacher schools. It is probable also that the rapid development of Government secondary schools for girls has contributed towards this promising result.

19. Provincial reports are generally pessimistic in regard to the standard of instruction in girls' primary schools.

The *United Provinces* report, while recognising that efforts have been made to improve the condition of girls' schools, suggests that the management of schools by district and municipal boards is frequently defective: "Well founded reports are received that incompetent teachers are appointed, sometimes for private reasons, and are retained against the advice of the inspectress, even in large municipalities."¹

In the *Punjab*, there are signs of improvement: "Though the wheels of progress are moving slowly, they have most certainly begun to move. The teachers are more open to suggestion with the result that the children are now more lively and less inclined to take things for granted. The greatest needs of village schools are decent healthy buildings, small enclosures in which the children can have their own bit of ground to grow vegetables, and space for exercise and play."²

The *Bombay* report, while recording that the education of girls has made progress, is critical of the neglect of physical training:

"Children who would ordinarily be at work in the fields or at home, or playing in the streets, are spending long hours a day in stuffy, overcrowded rooms. Scientific physical training is therefore necessary as a corrective. Very many of the children are poorly developed and are suffering from the effects of malaria and other diseases, or from under-feeding.... Mental energy and alertness cannot be produced from sluggish and unhealthy bodies."³

The *Burma* report harps on the same theme: "Progress in the physical training of Burmese girls is even more desirable. Much has been done for boys, but the physical training of Burmese girls, even in our best organised anglo-vernacular and vernacular schools, is still defective." It is suggested that "selected girls should be trained as physical training experts, and that their special duty would be to advise vernacular school mistresses."⁴

Inspectresses in *Madras* are agreed that schools for girls are generally better equipped than schools for boys, but not so well-housed. The reason why they are better equipped is that women teachers often show greater resourcefulness than men teachers in acquiring teaching appliances and materials for their schools.

¹ U. P., page 76.

² Punjab, page 97.

³ Bombay, page 160.

⁴ Burma, page 26.

It is also held that aided mission schools are as a rule better equipped and better housed than are those under the management of local bodies.¹

20. These excerpts from provincial reports show that progress in the actual schooling of young girls is disappointingly slow, but criticism of this kind should be accompanied by an appreciation of the immense difficulties which impede progress. Unbounded patience is required.

There are, first, the difficulties imposed by certain social customs, by poverty and disease, by the frequent absence of communications and by the consequent difficulty experienced by the little girls in going to and from school. As has been shown at the beginning of this chapter, there are unmistakable signs that some at least of these difficulties are tending to disappear and that, during the last few years, the whole attitude towards the education of girls has been changed for the better.

But there are other difficulties connected with the administration and organisation of girls' primary schools. In most villages the attendance of girls at school is, and must necessarily remain for some time, so insignificant that only a single-teacher school can be provided, with the result that the schooling, though often costly in comparison with that given to boys, is of little value and makes little appeal to parents to send their girls to school. In certain provinces, again, notably the *Punjab*, this difficulty is accentuated by the demand of parents that even a minute school should be duplicated and even triplicated in order to cater for the different vernaculars used by the girls. This aspect of the question has been explained in the *Bihar* report:

"The social customs that keep the roll down are dying, but dying slowly; the smallness of the roll itself restricts the supply of qualified teachers and therefore raises their value; and though the motor bus is helping to solve the conveyance problem, it can at most reduce the waste of time that was formerly involved and provide a better service at little, if any, more cost."²

21. All provincial reports are agreed that future progress depends very largely upon the employment of a far greater number of well-trained and suitably qualified school mistresses in village schools. Laudable efforts were made in the previous quinquennium to improve the size and the quality of vernacular training institutions for girls; but these welcome improvements, even if they are maintained, will not by themselves remove the root difficulty. It is far from easy to make suitable arrangements for the living accommodation of women teachers in villages. In consequence, many girls, who have successfully completed their period of training are reluctant, not unnaturally, to accept service in remote villages, far from their family surroundings and by no means immune from risks and dangers. It is mainly because they often possess the means of coping with these difficulties that mission institutions compare favourably with those maintained by local bodies.

The most effective solution of this difficulty would appear to lie in attaching small training classes to some of the better and stronger schools situated in rural areas. By this means promising girls from the locality can be trained; and less difficulty would be experienced in providing for their accommodation in the villages in which they will teach than would be the case of those coming from a distance.

¹Madras, page 95.

²B. and O., page 79.

(iv) *The provision and training of primary school teachers.*

22. The following Table shows the number of women teachers working in girls' primary schools in the provinces.

TABLE LXXXV.

Number of women teachers and of trained teachers in primary schools for girls by provinces.

Province.	Number of primary schools for girls.	Total number of women teachers.	Percentage of trained women teachers in 1927.	Percentage of trained women teachers in 1932.
Madras	5,682	12,404	67	76
Bombay	1,741	5,046	54	52
Bengal	17,438	5,225	11	12
United Provinces	1,733	2,094	13	11
Punjab	1,627	2,847	31	39
Burma	634	1,533	65	86
Bihar and Orissa	2,447	1,661	24	27
Central Provinces	414	1,192	47	49
Assam	632	571	23	16
North-West Frontier Province	113	243	27	25
British India (including minor administrations).	32,635	33,524	45	51

These figures illustrate the large extent, in which men teachers are employed even in primary schools for girls, especially in *Bengal, Bihar* and *Assam*; but even these figures, unsatisfactory as they undoubtedly are, overestimate the number of women teachers employed in girls' schools, as they include the women teachers employed in boys' schools, the numbers of whom in Madras and Bombay are fairly considerable. The dearth of women teachers is especially great in *Bengal, Bihar* and, to a lesser extent, in the *United Provinces* and *Assam*.

23. The following Tables show the number of training schools for girls and their enrolment and cost in 1927 and 1932 :

TABLE LXXXVI.

Training schools for women and their enrolment.

Province.	Training schools.		Enrolment.	
	1927.	1932.	1927.	1932.
Madras	37	64	1,831	3,232*
Bombay	18	21	666	803
Bengal	10	10	201	234
United Provinces	34	45	316	412
Punjab	12	18	445	853
Burma	29	22	599	511*
Bihar and Orissa	11	11	180	249
Central Provinces	6	8	228	337
Assam	2	2	36	22
North-West Frontier Province	2	1	28	48
British India (including minor administrations).	166	209	4,664	6,945*

* There were also 2 girls in Madras and 135 in Burma who were reading in training schools for males.

TABLE LXXXVII.

Expenditure on training schools for women and average annual cost per pupil.

Province.	Expenditure from					Average annual cost per pupil.	
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	1927.	1932.
	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra.	Ra. s p.	Ra. s p.
Madras ..	5,38,823	13,415	6,770	1,55,026	7,14,034	281 13 2	220 14 10
Bombay ..	1,54,875	15,189	10,636	60,135	2,40,835	345 3 6	299 14 8
Bengal ..	65,417	18,635	84,052	353 1 4	359 3 2
United Provinces	1,65,649	143	13,244	21,390	2,00,426	473 14 6	496 7 6
Punjab ..	1,06,086	521	3,319	6,359	1,16,285	206 0 1	136 5 2
Burma ..	61,901	11,206	73,107	264 8 9	143 1 1
Bihar and Orissa	51,255	..	790	7,913	59,958	383 15 9	240 12 9
Central Provinces	50,933	..	1,664	13,400	65,997	268 0 5	195 13 5
Assam ..	3,066	3,066	57 9 9	139 5 10
North-West Frontier Province.	15,617	15,617	300 14 2	325 5 8
British India (including minor administrations).	12,35,174	29,269	40,644	3,11,273	16,16,359	299 9 8	232 11 10

In 1932, 110 of these institutions were managed by Government; the majority of the remainder were under mission management.

3,234 of the girls under training out of a total of 7,082 are in *Madras*. The enrolment in those provinces, in which there is a great dearth of women teachers, is disappointing.

Of the total of 7,082 pupils under training in 1932 only 2,810 were Hindus or Buddhists, as against 3,086 Indian Christians. The enrolment of Muslims was 657 and that of Sikhs was 174.

24. The position is still unsatisfactory, though it varies very considerably between provinces.

In *Madras*, the number of training institutions has advanced from 37 to 64 during the quinquennium; in an increase of 27 institutions, Government has contributed as many as 20.

In *Bombay*, the enrolment of training institutions dropped from 713 in 1917 to 666 in 1927, but has increased during the quinquennium to 803.

In *Bengal*, the number under training advanced from 141 in 1917 to 201 in 1927, and again only to 234 at the end of the quinquennium. The report states that in primary schools there are very few trained women teachers indeed. What is even more deplorable is the large number of failures at the end of the course, only 50 having been successful out of 119 in the examination held in 1931-32.

Something has been done to remedy this serious state of affairs :

"The system of training women teachers for primary schools has been reorganised during the period. In 1929, a Training Board was established with the Inspector of West Bengal as secretary to deal with the whole problem of vernacular training for women teachers in the Province. The rules and syllabuses have been revised. The standard of admission was raised, the Matriculation becoming the qualification for the senior class, and Class VI (middle vernacular or middle English) for the junior class. The course was extended to two years for junior students and three years for Moslem and backward Hindu students."¹

Efforts have been made in the *United Provinces* to reduce the deficiency. The number of trained teachers has risen from 750 in 1927 to 979 in 1932. The number under training has similarly advanced from 208 in 1917 to 316 in 1927 and again to 412 in 1932, but there is still much lee-way to make up.

The *Punjab* has made a commendable advance, the enrolment of training institutions having risen from 224 in 1917 to 445 in 1927, and again to 853 in 1932.

In *Burma* there has been much discussion as to how the training of vernacular teachers can best be carried out, when better times return :

"A choice will have to be made between centralisation of training at one or more superior institutions and improvement of the present system under which elementary teachers are trained near their homes and under rural conditions. The advantages and

¹ Bengal, page 106.

disadvantages of these two alternatives have been much discussed. The majority of inspectors favour the first alternative, the writer of this report favours the second."¹

In view of what has been said already on this aspect of the question, the writer of this Review agrees with the writer of the Burma report.

The *Bihar* report is disappointing in that it discloses the fact that "though the demand for trained women teachers is as great as ever, one of the Government training classes had to be closed as a measure of retrenchment."² The enrolment in these training institutions has only increased from 137 in 1917 to 180 in 1927, and again to 249 in 1931-32. "It is also difficult to obtain suitable women for training, as in many cases local bodies allow unqualified women and men to teach in primary schools rather than insist on their preparing themselves as teachers."³

In the *Central Provinces*, the number of training institutions has been increased from six to eight, and the enrolment from 223 to 337 during the quinquennium.

The position in *Assam* has unfortunately gone from bad to worse. In the last Review it was suggested that, in view of the dearth of women teachers in schools in Assam, the provision of only two training schools, which only admit a total of 36 pupils, is quite inadequate for the province.⁴ It is for regret that "the training classes for school mistresses attached to the Mission high schools for girls at Silchar and Nowgong have been suspended. This is very unfortunate at a time when the demand for these classes was steadily growing."⁴

The report of the *North-West Frontier Province* provides more refreshing reading. The number of stipends has been increased, and a motor bus has been purchased for the use of students going to and from their practical classes.

25. The position in most provinces is far from satisfactory. The inevitable result will be that, when additional funds are forthcoming, money will be wasted in maintaining schools for which suitable mistresses will not be forthcoming; during even the time of financial stringency, the number of unprofitable schools has been increased. The better course would have been to strengthen the training institutions and to abstain from a prodigal increase in the number of largely unprofitable schools.

(c) *Secondary schools for girls.*

26. The following Tables show the number of secondary schools of girls and the number of pupils in them in 1927 and 1932.

¹ Burma, page 27.

² B. & O., page 81.

³ 9th Q. R., page 156.

⁴ Assam, page 142.

TABLE LXXXVIII.

High schools for girls and their enrolment.

Province.	Institutions.			Pupils.		
	1927.	1932.	Increase.	1927.	1932.	Increase.
Madras	56	65	9	11,957	16,360	4,403
Bombay	48	60	12	9,683	14,449	4,766
Bengal	42	61	19	9,421	15,644	6,223
United Provinces	27	29	2	4,260	6,354	2,094
Punjab	21	40	19	3,641	12,263	8,623
Burma	23	25	2	6,423	7,606	1,183
Bihar and Orissa	4	7	3	814	1,822	1,008
Central Provinces	7	11	4	183	363	180
Assam	5	6	1	1,063	1,937	874
North-West Frontier Province.	..	2	2	..	366	366
British India (including minor administrations)	243	324	81	49,757	81,249	31,492

TABLE LXXXIX.

Middle schools (anglo-vernacular and vernacular) for girls and their enrolment.

Province.	Institutions.			Pupils.		
	1927.	1932.	Increase.	1927.	1932.	Increase.
Madras	43	43	..	5,655	6,408	753
Bombay	42	43	1	3,253	3,531	278
Bengal	70	70	..	8,072	8,606	534
United Provinces	192	242	50	21,663	33,600	11,937
Punjab	93	135	42	16,868	28,135	11,267
Burma	118	108	-10	13,306	14,590	1,284
Bihar and Orissa	28	32	4	3,674	5,186	1,512
Central Provinces	54	60	6	5,751	6,531	780
Assam	32	48	16	3,098	5,413	2,315
North-West Frontier Province.	14	26	12	2,084	4,773	2,689
British India (including minor administrations).	723	847	125	88,649	122,790	34,131

27. The figures in these Tables give an exaggerated impression of the number of girls who are receiving secondary education, as they include the very large number of girls who are reading in the primary departments of these schools. In 1932, out of the 270,026 girls in secondary schools, 70,613 were in the middle stage and only 14,531 were in the high stage. Of the total number in the high stage 6,752 were Hindus, 3,261 Indian Christians, 1,278 Parsees and 594 Muhammadans.

On the other hand, it is open at least to suggestion that even if they do not go further than the primary stage in these schools, girls should have benefited by such instruction more than they would have done in separate primary schools.

23. The following Tables, however, show that there has been a welcome improvement during the quinquennium. Not only has the total enrolment in secondary schools been materially increased, but a larger proportion of the girls are staying longer at school and are reaching the higher classes.

TABLE XC.
Number of girls in the middle stage.

Province.	1927.	1932.	Increase.
Madras	9,083	18,061	8,984
Bombay	10,613	19,239	8,626
Bengal	2,287	4,916	2,629
United Provinces	2,807	5,289	2,482
Punjab	2,879	6,063	3,184
Burma	3,363	10,244	6,881
Bihar and Orissa	535	1,111	576
Central Provinces	1,420	2,575	1,155
Assam	670	2,164	1,494
North-West Frontier Province	341	1,041	700
British India (including minor administrations).	32,961	70,613	37,652

TABLE XCI.
Number of girls in the high stage.

Province.	1927.	1932.	Increase.
Madras	1,623	2,992	1,369
Bombay	2,273	4,631	2,358
Bengal	1,534	3,855	2,321
United Provinces	343	543	200
Punjab	408	1,011	603
Burma	673	1,780	1,107
Bihar and Orissa	145	360	215
Central Provinces	183	380	197
Assam	304	548	244
North-West Frontier Province	27	27
British India (including minor administrations).	6,770	14,581	7,811

N. B.—In the above two Tables, the figures for 1927 are not strictly comparable with those for 1932, as the former show the number of pupils reading in girls' schools, while the latter include girls reading in schools for both sexes.

TABLE XCII.

Girl candidates for Matriculation or High School Final examination.

Province.	Number of candidates.		Successful candidates.	
	1927.	1932.	1927.	1932.
Madras	384	544	383	542
Bombay	363	751	175	375
Bengal	215	608	157	394
United Provinces	115	259	82	139
Punjab	148	551	60	336
Burma	343	667	120	281
Bihar and Orissa	13	39	8	13
Central Provinces	43	90	16	49
Assam	40	78	32	53
North-West Frontier Province	6	8	6	6
	1670		1037	

It will also be of value in this connexion to compare the number of candidates for Matriculation or High School Final examination in each province in 1927 and 1932 ; and, again, a considerable advance will be indicated.

29. The number of secondary schools for girls and their enrolment in *Madras* have not materially altered during the quinquennium, but the number of girls reading in boys' secondary schools (excluding European schools) has advanced from 2,765 to 4,775 during the quinquennium.

In *Bombay*, facilities for the secondary education of girls are provided mostly by private agencies with the assistance of grant-in-aid, as "the Department only maintains a full high school at Ahmedabad, and anglo-vernacular girls' schools at Thana, Nasik, Ahmednagar, Dharwar and Bijapur."¹

In *Bengal*, the number of Indian girls' high schools advanced from 19 to 36 during the quinquennium, and that of middle schools from 48 to 58. But the advance is "trifling as compared with that of boys' schools. Ninety-one new high schools were opened for boys during the period, but only seventeen for girls."²

¹Bombay, page 163.²Bengal, page 71.

“On the whole, largely because nearly all of these schools are aided and many of them are maintained by missions, the girls’ high schools are more or less efficient.”¹

In the *United Provinces* the number of pupils reading in the secondary stage has advanced from 2,145 to 4,809. A feature of the system in the United Provinces, as also in the Punjab, is the prominence given to vernacular middle schools for girls. The number of schools of this type has risen during the quinquennium from 153 to 186; as many as 65 of these are maintained by Government. Efforts have been made to improve the staffing of these schools.

Marked progress has been made in the *Punjab*. The number of high schools has risen from 21 to 40, and that of middle schools from 93 to 135. It has been the policy of the Punjab Government to open three new Government high schools in each year with a view to there being at least one such school in each district. Unfortunately, owing to financial stringency, only one school of this type was opened in the final year of the quinquennium.

The report states that “the work of these Government schools is very good, as shown by examination results, by the influx of girls and by the anxiety of parents to secure admission for their children.”² The report also speaks appreciatively of many of the aided high schools in the province.

The rapidity of the advance which has been made in this province has been graphically described by the Principal of the Kinnaird College for Women, Lahore:

“Those who knew the College five years ago firmly believed that as time goes on the number of students would increase; but even the most optimistic little dreamed that the increase would take place as rapidly as it has done. The report of 1926-27 foretold an increase in the number of students by showing how the number of girls appearing in, and passing, the Matriculation, had increased between 1918 and 1927. In 1918, there were 34 candidates of whom 17 passed. In 1927, 96 were successful out of 168. In 1931, 317 girls were successful out of the 507 who appeared in the examination.”³

The position in *Bihar* is disappointing. The number of high schools increased only from four to seven; and that of middle English schools from 15 to 22. A pleasing relief has been provided by Babu Kidar Nath Goenka, by whose generosity an excellent building has recently been completed at Monghyr for a girls’ high school.

In the *North-West Frontier Province*, enrolment in vernacular middle schools has risen from 1,871 to 3,247; that in anglo-vernacular middle schools from 213 to 1,526. Two high schools have also been opened with a total enrolment of 356 girls.

30. Suitable provision for the training of women teachers should keep pace with the increasing demand. That the demand is great is shown conclusively by the following Table, which includes teachers in all secondary schools for girls, middle and high, vernacular and anglo-vernacular.

¹ Bengal, page 71.

² Punjab, page 98.

³ Punjab, page 99.

TABLE XCIII.

Number and percentage of trained women teachers in secondary schools.

Province.	Total number of teachers.	Number of trained teachers.	Percentage of trained teachers.
Madras	1,468	1,250	85
Bombay	1,244	547	44
Bengal	1,244	651	52
United Provinces	2,005	969	48
Punjab	1,620	1,104	68
Uurma	2,328	2,004	86
Bihar and Orissa	415	298	71
Central Provinces	398	273	69
Assam	304	132	43
North-West Frontier Province	206	104	50
British India (including minor administrations)	11,878	7,748	65

31. Five years ago, the Hartog Committee pointed out that "the provision of only seven training colleges for women (most of which did not teach up to the degree standard) for all India, of which five are located in two provinces, is most inadequate. Even more depressing is the enrolment of only 115 students in these colleges".¹

The following Table shows that very little has been done in most provinces to reduce this deficiency and that therefore further advance in the secondary education of girls must be retarded by the dearth of trained women graduates.

Considerable progress has been made by the Lady Willingdon Training College for Women in *Madras*. "One hundred and four graduates applied for admission in 1931-32 as against 31 in 1927-28, the number selected in those years being 36 and 31 respectively".² An interesting feature of the quin-
quennial has been the institution of a physical training diploma class in 1928; and the introduction of domestic science in 1929 as one of the special subjects prescribed by the University for the L. T. course has led to greater emphasis being placed on this subject in girls' schools and to its being made a compulsory subject in the revised S. S. L. C. scheme.

¹ Hartog Report, page 177.² Madras, page 55

TABLE XCV.

Training colleges for women.

Province.							Colleges.	Students.
Madras	2	66
Bengal	3	43
United Provinces	11 (a)
Punjab	1	29
Central Provinces	1	8
Total ..							7	157

(a) Reading in the University department.

(iv) Collegiate education.

32. The following Table shows the very rapid increase in the enrolment of women's colleges in India :

TABLE XCV.

Number of arts colleges for women, and the number of women in arts colleges for men and women.

Province.	Arts colleges for women.			Number of women in arts colleges for men and women.		
	1927.	1932.	Increase.	1927.	1932.	Increase.
Madras	5	6	1	490	692	202
Bombay	382	704	322
Bengal	4	4	..	321	712	391
United Provinces ..	5	6	1	133	270	137
Punjab	2	2	..	77	271	194
Burma	138	184	46
Bihar and Orissa ..	1	1	..	7	9	2
Central Provinces	17	41	24
Assam	4	12	8
British India (including minor administrations).	19	20	1	1,933	2,966	1,033

Of the 2,966 women attending college in 1932, 1,595 were Hindus, 726 were Indian Christians, 197 were Parsees, and 105 were Muhammadans.

In *Bombay* and *Burma* there are no separate women's colleges, as girls in considerable numbers attend the ordinary colleges for men.

33. The following Table shows the large increase in the number of women graduates :

TABLE XCVI.

Number of women graduates.

Province.	Candidates for B. A. and B. Sc. examinations (pass only).		Successful candidates.	
	1927.	1932.	1927.	1932.
Madras	64	102	54	56
Bombay	33	43	20	27
Bengal	43	87	29	64
United Provinces	19	54	11	32
Punjab	12	53	9	20
Burma	13	25	5	14
Bihar and Orissa	2	..	1	..
Central Provinces	1	11	1	6
Assam	1	..	1
North-West Frontier Province	1
British India (including minor administrations)	188	385	130	226

34. Many provincial reports are optimistic in regard to the development of collegiate education for women.

In *Madras*, St. Theresa's College and the Maharajah's College for Women, Trivandrum, were raised to the degree status during the quinquennium.

In *Bombay*, the number of women studying in men's colleges rose from 382 to 704 at the end of the quinquennium.

The report records surprise that the Indian Women's University at Poona has not met with greater success :

" During the quinquennium one college at Bombay was affiliated to this University in addition to the three at Poona, Ahmedabad and Baroda. But all these four colleges have on their rolls some 107 women only against 40 in 1926-27. The main characteristics of this University are that (i) courses of study are specially designed to suit the requirements of girls (domestic science, human physiology, child physiology, hygiene, fine arts, etc., are included in the curriculum); (ii) the mother tongue of pupils is used as the medium of instruction, English being, however, a compulsory subject, (iii) external candidates are admitted to the University examinations. The degrees of the University are not recognised and this detracts from its popularity, but it is an interesting and original experiment to provide higher education for Indian women on indigenous lines ".¹

¹ Bombay, page 161..

The *Bengal* report is generally cheerful. The four women's colleges, including the Intermediate Department of the Eden High School for Girls, Dacca, have all improved their position in varying ways. A feature of the quinquennium has been the opening of a women's section in the Vidyasagar College, Calcutta, in which 110 women students were enrolled. Other men's colleges have made special arrangements to attract women students.

In the *United Provinces*, science teaching at Isabella Thoburn College, Lucknow, has been improved. Women's departments have also been opened in Benares and Aligarh Universities.

In the *Punjab*, the numbers in the two women's colleges have been increased very largely. The enrolment at the Lahore College for Women has advanced from 60 to 135, and that of Kinnaird College, Lahore, a mission institution, from 26 to 105, of whom as many as 75 are resident. Both colleges have been compelled to refuse large numbers of applicants through lack of accommodation.

35. The prospects of women's collegiate education in India are therefore bright. The demand for such education is rapidly increasing, and many girl students acquit themselves with great credit in university examinations. The Commission on Christian Higher education in India observed that women's colleges "have escaped many of the difficulties which confront men's colleges".¹ The comparatively small numbers have been a great advantage to women's colleges and have enabled them to pay individual attention to students. The small hostel units have also been a great asset in fostering residential life of the right kind.

During the next quinquennium, it is probable that applications for admission to women's colleges will increase even more rapidly than in the recent past. How will this demand be met? Some relief will be afforded by the admission of girl students to men's colleges, especially in Burma and Bombay. Special provision and accommodation for the girls should be made and well-qualified women should be appointed to the staffs of these colleges, whose special function will be to supervise the needs of the girls. But, even with this respite, the burden on the women's colleges will still be very great. The serious shortcomings of the large men's colleges should be avoided at all costs. New colleges should therefore be opened, in order that existing colleges should not be overburdened by excessive enrolment.

¹ Lindsay Commission's Report, page 250.

CHAPTER VII.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.

This chapter deals mainly with institutions which aim at training students for a profession and which are either associated with a university and prepare candidates for university degrees, or are engaged in work which approximates the standards of a university.

(i) *Legal education.*

2. In the last Review it was observed that "the demand for legal training has increased in spite of the fact that the profession is already over-crowded. A very large proportion of students (perhaps fifty per cent.) have joined Law College, Madras, not by preference for the legal profession but because they could find no other occupation after taking a degree."¹

The following Table indicates that, in spite of the institution of new law colleges at Ahmedabad and Agra, the total enrolment has decreased by 916 students.

There has been a striking decline in the enrolment of *Law College, Madras*, the numbers having fallen from 967 to 498 during the quinquennium. The abolition of the pleadership class has been responsible for the loss of about a hundred students; the remainder of the decline is attributed by the Principal to "the decreasing utility of a law college".

Enrolment at *Law College, Patna*, has also declined from 547 to 278. This decrease is attributed to the reduction of the course from three years to two and to economic reasons.

TABLE XCVII.

Number and strength of Law Colleges and Law Departments, 1931-32.

Province.	Institution.	Number of students in 1926-27.	Number of students in 1931-32.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
Madras ..	1. Law College, Madras ..	967	498	-469
Bombay ..	2. Law College, Bombay ..	498	601	+103
	3. Law College, Poona ..	467	523	+56
	4. Law College, Karachi ..	59	50	-9
	5. Law College, Ahmedabad	165	+165
	Bengal ..	6. University Law College, Calcutta ..	3,196	2,537
7. Ripon College, Calcutta ..				
8. Dacca University ..		442	237	-205

¹ 9th Q. R., pages 187-188.

Number and strength of Law Colleges and Law Departments, 1931-32—contd.

Province.	Institution.	Number of students in 1926-27.	Number of students in 1931-32.	Increase(+) or decrease(-).
United Provinces	9. Allahabad University	625	355	-270
	10. Agra University	545	+545
	11. Lucknow University	354	420	+66
	12. Aligarh Muslim University	314	162	-152
	13. Benares Hindu University	143	112	-31
Punjab ..	14. Law College, Lahore	545	625	+80
Burma.. ..	15. Rangoon University	77	88	+11
	16. Law College, Patna	547	279	-269
Bihar and Orissa	17. Ravenshaw College, Cuttack	62	55	-7
	18. University College of Law, Nagpur.	194	345	+151
Assam ..	19. Earle Law College, Gauhati	91	75	-16
Delhi	20. Delhi University ..	104	98	-6
	Total	8,635	7,769	-916

3. Few developments in law colleges have been recorded in provincial reports.

In *Law College, Madras*, the system of special lectures by members of the legal profession (introduced in 1924) was abolished in 1930, as it was not found possible to arrange an hour suitable to the demands of their profession on practising lawyers. The system of recruitment to teaching posts was reorganised in 1930, so as to provide for one full-time professor and seven part-time lecturers in addition to the Principal and the Vice-Principal.

In *Bombay*, the old-time policy of concentrating training in the capital city has given way to the institution of colleges at Poona, Ahmedabad and Karachi. The colleges at the three latter centres are maintained by private bodies.

In *Bengal*, the High Court of Calcutta have made certain rules relating to the training of legal practitioners, the most important of which enforces one year's probation work with a practising lawyer as part of the course.

In the *Punjab*, the Law College, Lahore, still continues to increase in numbers, the enrolment having risen from 545 to 625 during the quinquennium.

Similarly, in the *University College of Law, Nagpur*, enrolment has increased from 194 to 345.

4. The general impression is conveyed by provincial reports that, in spite of this large reduction in the total enrolment, the numbers in many law colleges

are still excessive in relation to the accommodation and to the probable absorption of students into the legal profession. This condition has a two-fold evil effect. It promotes litigiousness and, by acute competition among the less competent practitioners, it tends—except in the highest range—strongly to undermine the technical, civic and ethical standards of the profession.

The teaching in these colleges is often perfunctory; there is little corporate life among students. The fact that the bulk of the staffs consists of 'half-timers', who tend to forsake teaching as soon as they have begun to gain eminence in their profession, is not conducive either to continuity of traditions or to efficiency of teaching. Permanent specialist teachers should be employed in larger numbers for instruction in the main subjects of the course, and such men should be given the necessary leisure to contribute to the advancement of their special subjects of study. For other important technical subjects experienced lawyers of eminence in the various branches should be engaged. Greater co-ordination between the Departments of Law and History in subjects such as jurisprudence, comparative and constitutional law is advisable.

In most institutions income from fees exceeds expenditure; in consequence, many law colleges are regarded as profitable undertakings. Thus, there is no reason why considerable improvements should not be made.

5. The main examination results are given in the following Table:

TABLE XCVIII.

Bachelor of Law Examinations.

Year.	Number of candidates.	Number of passes.	Percentage of passes.
1926-27	5,048	2,669	52.9
1931-32	4,300	2,259	52.5
Decrease	-748	-410	-0.4

(ii) *Medical education.*

6. The Executive Committee of the General Medical Council passed the following resolution on 24th February, 1930:

"In the absence of authoritative information respecting the medical qualifications and standards of the Universities of Bombay, Calcutta, Lucknow, Madras and Punjab, the Executive Committee of the Council, in fulfilment of its duty under the Medical Act, 1886, Section 13, is unable for the time being to recognise the medical degrees of these universities as 'furnishing a sufficient guarantee of the possession of the requisite knowledge and skill for the efficient practice of medicine, surgery and midwifery' in this

country ; and accordingly the conditional recognition hitherto granted to these degrees has now lapsed."

Another resolution which was passed at the same time reads as follows :

"The proposal to set up a temporary Board in India has been carefully considered by the Executive Committee ; but it is unable to accept the proposal as furnishing a satisfactory method of supplying the Council with authoritative information on medical qualifications and standards in India and with the necessary guarantee of sufficiency."

The present position is that the medical and surgical degrees of Indian universities, which have been granted since 24th February, 1930, are not registrable by the General Medical Council of the United Kingdom. The question of establishing an Indian Medical Council to regulate higher medical qualifications on the lines of the British Medical Council has been under consideration by the Government of India for several years. A Medical Council Bill was introduced in the Legislative Assembly towards the end of the quinquennium. It is hoped that the establishment of an all-India Medical Council will provide a satisfactory machinery for regulating the standards of higher medical qualifications in India and for supplying authoritative information to registering bodies outside of India so that agreements may be entered into for the recognition of Indian higher qualifications on a reciprocal basis. After the close of the quinquennium the Bill was finally passed ; this important matter will be discussed in the next Review.

The main statistics regarding medical colleges are given in the Table on the next page.

TABLE XCIX.
Medical Colleges, 1931-32.

Province.	Name of College.	Management.	Students.		Expenditure in 1931-32.				Total expenditure.	
			1926-27.	1931-32.	Government funds.	Municipal Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	1926-27.	1931-32.
Madras ..	Medical College, Madras ..	Government.	586	711	Rs. 4,41,819	Rs. ..	Rs. 95,859	Rs. 2,552	Rs. 3,97,798	Rs. 5,40,230
Bombay ..	Medical College, Vizagapatam		Government.	518	488	2,00,282	..	1,14,442	11,101	3,43,872
	Grant Medical College, Bombay.	Municipal Board.	100	305	..	1,49,351	66,306	13,191	1,96,812	2,28,848
Bengal ..	Seth Govardhandas Sundardas Medical College, Bombay.	Government.	1,018	739	5,12,811	..	1,39,194	1,54,675	7,89,478	8,06,680
	Medical College, Calcutta ..									
	School of Tropical Medicine, Calcutta.	Aided ..	598	579	24,500	..	1,17,543	..	1,33,859	1,42,043
United Provinces.	Carmichael Medical College, Belgaohia.	Aided ..	254	492	45,000	..	575	491	..	46,066
Punjab ..	Lucknow University* Medical Department.	Government.	488	432	3,57,961	..	59,186	..	4,13,777	4,17,147
Burma ..	King Edward Medical College, Lahore.	Aided ..	71	82
Bihar and Orissa.	Rangoon University Medical Department.†	Government	154	247	1,97,758	..	35,501	..	2,58,954	2,33,259
Delhi ..	Prince of Wales Medical College, Patna.	Aided ..	67	126	1,78,950	..	28,411	1,499	1,55,203	2,08,860
	Lady Hardinge Medical College for Women.-	Total ..	3,854	4,201	19,59,081	1,49,351	6,57,017	1,83,509	26,89,753	29,48,958

* The King George's Medical College, Lucknow, is maintained directly by the University of Lucknow.

† The expenditure on the medical department of Rangoon University is not included in this table as separate figures are not available.

Enrolment has been largely stationary, as also has been expenditure by Government. On the other hand, receipts from fees have increased by more than Rs. 1½ lakhs, and revenue from 'other sources' has advanced from Rs. 24,698 to Rs. 1,83,509.

7. Important events in medical education have been as follows :

In *Madras*, though Vizagapatam Medical College is affiliated to Andhra University, students appear for the same examinations as those of Madras University.

Several changes have been made in the courses. Regulations have been framed by Madras University allowing licentiates of over three years' standing to enter for the examination for the M. B. B. S. degree after undergoing a course of two years' training and passing certain examinations.

Annual admissions to the Medical Colleges at Madras and Vizagapatam have been fixed at 120 and 50 respectively on the expectation that about 25 per cent. of the original entry will fail to pass the pre-registration test. Certain retrenchments in the staffs of these colleges have had to be made owing to financial stringency.

The Medical Schools at Madura and Coimbatore were abolished in 1929 and 1930 respectively, and orders have been issued for the abolition of the Medical School at Tanjore in 1933. Thus, the only remaining Government Medical schools will be the Royapuram Medical School and the Lady Willingdon Medical School for Women, Madras.

The length of the course in medical schools has been extended by one year so that the course will be of five years. Increasing insistence is being attached to the possession of good standards of preliminary education by students. The number of students to be admitted yearly will be limited to 64 in the case of the Royapuram Medical School, and 24 in the case of the Lady Willingdon Medical School for Women.

The employment of honorary workers in the various teaching hospitals in *Bombay* is reported to have given satisfactory results. Accommodation has been provided in a new building at Grant Medical College, Bombay, for the departments of pathology and bacteriology and for the museum.

There are three medical schools in the province ; at Poona, Ahmedabad and Hyderabad (Sind). The school at Poona suffers from lack of facilities for practical work. A feature of this institution is the large demand by women for admission.

There is a general tendency in *Bengal* to recognise that the standard of a university degree should correspond with that of British universities. In the hospitals of the Medical College, Calcutta, cardiograph and tuberculosis departments have been opened. The new Eye Hospital, which was instituted in 1926, has an average of 108 in-patients and 165 out-patients and offers complete facilities for training. The transfer of the Ear, Nose and Throat Department

to the old buildings of the Eye Hospital has been of great advantage to students.

Two new schools have been opened at Jalpaiguri and Chittagong, but the conditions of neither can be regarded as satisfactory in the absence of an efficient hospital and of a clinical field large enough to afford the necessary experience.

In the *United Provinces*, the State Medical Faculty have submitted proposals for a five years' course of study leading up to the qualification of Membership of the Faculty. Students who have taken the course for the degree of Lucknow University but are unable to pass the M. B. examination will be eligible to compete for Membership. Similar facilities will be given to students who have taken the L. M. P. course.

Additional buildings have been constructed to accommodate the Pharmaceutical Department of Lucknow University and the provincial Public Health Institute. The Queen Mary's Hospital for Women and Children, an anti-rabic centre and a special clinic for skin and venereal diseases, has been opened in connexion with the University, which has also assumed charge of the Leper Hospital.

In the *Punjab*, the admission of women students to the King Edward Medical College, Lahore, and to the Medical School, Amritsar, is reported to have been a success. Ten places are reserved yearly for women students at the College, and fifteen at the School.

In *Bihar*, the first batch of students passed out of Patna Medical College in 1931. Lecturers in bio-chemistry and chemical pathology have been appointed as well as a demonstrator in organic chemistry. The question of raising the standard of instruction and examinations of licentiates in the two medical schools is under consideration.

The Lady Hardinge Medical College for Women, Delhi, which is affiliated to the Punjab University, has continued to retain its all-India character by attracting students from all over India. The number of students at the end of the quinquennium was greater than ever before, in spite of the fact that the award of scholarships and prizes from college funds had been discontinued.

The decision to abolish the pre-medical science course owing to financial stringency was reversed when the Government of India, on the recommendation of the Standing Finance Committee of the Legislative Assembly, sanctioned the additional grant required for the purpose. There is still uncertainty regarding the continuance of this department as an integral part of the college owing to the financial situation. The projected scheme to build a new hostel for students, which is urgently needed, has been abandoned owing to financial stringency.

8. The statistics of the various examinations for medical degrees and diplomas are given in the following Table:

TABLE C.

Medical examinations for degrees and diplomas.

Degrees or Diplomas.	1926-27.		1931-32.	
	Number of examinees.	Number passed.	Number of examinees.	Number passed.
Doctor of Medicine or Surgery	17	2	31	12
Master of Surgery	8	1	19	2
Bachelor of Medicine or Surgery	1,525	548	1,247	484
Diploma in Hygiene	1	1
Bachelor of Hygiene	10	4	11	4
Bachelor of Sanitary Science	15	3	1	1
Diploma in Public Health	24	21	33	26
Diploma in Ophthalmology	4	2
Licentiate of Medicine and Surgery	43	10	63	21
Member of the College of Physicians and Surgeons.	7	2
Member of the State Faculty of Medicine	15	7	21	10
Master of Obstetrics	1	..	1	..
Diploma in Tropical Medicine	40	25	38	31
Total	1,705	623	1,470	594
Percentage of passes	36.5	..	40.4

(iii) *Forestry.*

9. *The Indian Forest Service College, Dehra Dun*, which provided training for probationers recruited in India for appointment to the all-India Service in the provinces or to posts of similar status in Indian States, was maintained throughout the quinquennium, but arrangements were made to close the institution at the end of 1932. A total of 28 Indian Forest Service diplomas were awarded during the period.

Arrangements have also been made for the closure of the *Rangers College, Dehra Dun*, which provides a two-year course for non-gazetted forest rangers. 87 students completed the course during the quinquennium.

The course of the *Forest College, Coimbatore*, extends over a period of 23 months (August to June). Approximately five months in the year are spent in camps and are devoted mainly to practical work. Except for the introduction of lectures on malaria and its treatment, the syllabus remained the same during the quinquennium. In practical work a new feature has been the setting aside of two forest areas for demonstration purposes.

The three years' course in forestry leading to a B. Sc. degree in *Rangoon University* has been continued, and five students were successful in this examination in the last year of the quinquennium.

The *Burma Forest School, Pyinmana*, is under the control of the Forest Department and maintains vernacular or anglo-vernacular classes for the training of forest rangers.

(iv) *Agriculture.*

10. The *Imperial Institute of Agricultural Research, Pusa*, and the *Imperial Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying, Bangalore*, which are central institutions, have continued to provide facilities for post-graduate study in various branches of agricultural science. The number of students who completed the course in 1930-31 was seven at Pusa and five at Bangalore.

The question of re-organising the Pusa Institute as a post-graduate centre has received attention. As a result of the recommendations made by the Imperial Council of Agricultural Research, it is proposed to establish provincial committees for the selection of students.

11. The proposals for instituting an Agricultural College at Patna and an Agricultural Institute at Dacca have not materialised on account of financial stringency. Thus, the number of Government agricultural colleges has remained six, and includes colleges at Coimbatore, Poona, Cawnpore, Lyallpur, Nagpur and Mandalay. All except the last-mentioned are associated with universities.

There are also a few institutions under private management which train students for degrees in agriculture. Prominent among these is *Allahbad Agricultural Institute*, which is maintained by the American Presbyterian Mission. The vernacular class which was attached to this college has been transferred to Gorakhpur and the college itself has become affiliated to Agra University.

Khalsa College, Amritsar, has also been affiliated to Punjab University for the B.Sc. degree in agriculture.

12. The following Table shows the enrolment and expenditure of these colleges in 1926-27 and in 1931-32:

TABLE CI.

Agricultural Colleges.

College.	1926-27.		1931-32.	
	Enrolment.	Expenditure.	Enrolment.	Expenditure.
		Rs.		Rs.
Poona	201	1,35,854	231	1,70,653
Coimbatore	82	1,01,544	150	1,18,808
Nagpur	109	79,001	101	78,613
Cawnpore	147	1,05,241	168	1,30,485
Lyallpur	186	1,28,757	217	1,31,609
Mandalay	46	84,775	26	2,19,599

There has been a slight increase in the enrolment of these colleges, but the demand for admission has been much reduced. Whereas, for example, at Lyallpur¹ 450 and 412 students applied for 63 and 46 vacancies in 1927-28 and 1928-29 respectively, only 75 candidates applied for 56 vacancies in the last year of the quinquennium. This decline is attributed mainly to the unprecedented fall in the prices of agricultural commodities, which rendered it difficult for the land-owning classes to finance the education of their sons; to the decreasing opportunities of finding employment under Government or private management; and, to a slight extent, to the affiliation of Khalsa College, Amritsar, for the degree of B.Sc., in agriculture.

The Principal, Government Agricultural College, Cawnpore, has reported that "the increasing number of unemployed graduates is not conducive to a continued demand for agricultural training, except for those who are anxious to employ their talents and learning on their own farms. A hopeful feature of the situation is that an increasing number of students have gone back to work on their estates."²

The Principal, in commenting on the excellent examination results of the College, has observed that "these brilliant results have been offset to a large extent by the appalling slump in the employment market. There are more graduates out of employment since the degree was taken than there were diplomates in all the previous existence of the college"³.

13. In the Punjab an experiment has been started in distributing land among agricultural graduates:

"Under the scheme of colonising certain *chaks* with educated men, four grants of two squares each were allotted to graduates of this college and it is gratifying that these men are reported to have thrown themselves whole-heartedly into the work. Government further proposes to give thirty-eight grants of two squares each to agricultural assistants who have come under reduction."¹

14. The Royal Commission on Agriculture recommended that there should be closer co-operation between agricultural colleges and science departments of the universities. The Imperial Council of Agricultural Research has accordingly enlisted the help of Indian Universities and University Colleges (as distinct from the agricultural research institutes and agricultural colleges, most of which are affiliated to Universities) in the prosecution of agricultural research. Two general methods of approach have been adopted. In the first it has been found possible, with the aid of a small grant from the Research Council, for a University professor or reader to develop the agricultural aspect of a line of research on which he has already been engaged. In the second method, a more definite "farming out" of a definite piece of agricultural research to a university laboratory has been possible. With the aid of a grant from the Research Council an important major scheme of work has been developed on the distribution and method of carry-over of the various rusts of wheat

¹ Punjab, page 79.

² U. P., page 101.

³ U. P., page 100.

and barley in India and on the different biological forms of these rusts. Dacca University has undertaken in its Chemical Department a major investigation on the acid soils of Eastern Bengal and on the nutrition of the rice plant. Close collaboration has been arranged with the Agricultural Chemist, Bengal, who is also stationed at Dacca. A scheme of research on the wither tip of citrus fruits is being carried out in the University Botanical Laboratory, Lahore with the aid of a grant from the Council. In connexion with the Research Council's scheme of locusts research, most of which is conducted by full time workers, the co-operation of several university workers has been obtained on some of the systematic work involved. Another scheme of research work, on the cytology of crop plants to be carried out at the Madras University under Professor Ekambaram, has been sanctioned by the Governing Body.

(v) *Veterinary Colleges.*

15. No new veterinary colleges have been established, but the *Bihar and Orissa Veterinary College, Patna*, which was established in the previous quinquennium, began to admit students in 1930. The colleges are therefore five in number; those at Bombay, Madras, Calcutta, Lahore and Patna. There is, in addition, a veterinary school at Insein in Burma.

The course of instruction in all colleges is now given in English; and the duration of the course is of three years, except in Lahore where it is of four years.

The Imperial Council of Agricultural Research has recently considered the question of an all-India curriculum for adoption in all veterinary colleges as circumstances permit. This matter was first discussed by a committee of experts and later by the Animal Husbandry Wing of the Board of Agriculture. The following conclusions were arrived at:

- (a) The F.Sc. (Medical Group) standard of education should be accepted as the test of admission in all colleges; and
- (b) The suggested three-year curriculum based on the assumption that students would be of this high standard of education should be circulated to all provinces and States. It is hoped that the first step towards placing veterinary education in India on a more uniform footing will be generally accepted, as circumstances permit.

The suggested three years' course was recommended only because it was realised that it is impossible, in present conditions, for the majority of provinces to introduce a longer course of training. It was not proposed that the four-year course, with the F.Sc. standard of admission, already in operation in Lahore, should be reduced, the anticipation being that in course of time a four-year course would become general.

16. The main figures regarding the expenditure and enrolment of veterinary colleges are given in the Table below:

TABLE CII.

Veterinary Colleges.

Province.	Name of college.	Management.	Students.		Expenditure in 1931-32.			
			1926-27.	1931-32.	Government funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.
Madras ..	Veterinary College, Madras.	Government	73	125	Rs. 86,692	Rs. ..	Rs. ..	86,692
Bengal ..	Veterinary College, Belgachia.	Government	125	169	1,88,394	1,88,394
Punjab ..	Punjab Veterinary College, Lahore.	Government	132	143	1,40,254	31,190	..	1,71,444
Bihar and Orissa.	Bihar and Orissa Veterinary College.	Government	*	52	48,422	5,104	6,000	59,526
		Total ..	330	489	4,63,762	36,294	6,000	5,06,056

* The College was opened on the 1st July 1930, and had 49 students on its rolls in 1930-31.

Provincial reports are generally fearful lest enrolment will be reduced materially by the unfavourable prospects of employment.

17. An important change in veterinary education has been the re-establishment and extension of annual courses of post-graduate training at the Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research, Muktesar. These courses are found to be of the greatest value; the number of officers who have attended them has been 67 during the period. Applications for admission to the course have exceeded the numbers which can be accommodated.

(vi) Engineering Colleges.

18. The enrolment and expenditure of engineering colleges are given in the Tables below:

TABLE CIII.

Enrolment in Engineering Colleges.

Colleges.	1926-27.	1931-32.
1. College of Engineering, Guindy	183	253
2. College of Engineering, Poona	184	172
3. Bengal Engineering College, Sibpur	291	307
4. MacLagan College of Engineering, Moghalpura	207	235
5. Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee	198	188
6. Bihar College of Engineering, Patna	263	252
7. Nadirshaw Edulji Dinshaw Engineering College, Karachi	143	149
8. Rangoon University Engineering Department	65	51
9. Benares University Engineering Department	475	584
Total	2,009	2,171

TABLE CIV.

Expenditure on engineering colleges.

Institutions.	1926-27.	1931-32.
	Rs.	Rs.
1. College of Engineering, Guindy	1,63,211	1,92,450
2. College of Engineering, Poona	1,98,481	2,05,204
3. Bengal Engineering College, Sibpur	3,38,692	3,98,599
4. Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee	4,26,253	1,87,278
5. Maclagan College of Engineering, Moghalpura	2,08,928	2,57,661
6. Bihar College of Engineering, Patna	1,51,597	1,42,680
Total ..	14,87,162	13,83,872

Enrolment has been largely stationary, but expenditure on Government engineering colleges has been reduced by a lakh, largely in consequence of drastic reduction in Thomason College, Roorkee.

19. Few developments have been recorded in provincial reports.

In *Madras*, the subordinate classes, which had been transferred to the School of Engineering, Trichinopoly, during the preceding quinquennium, were re-transferred to the *College of Engineering, Guindy*, during the quinquennium. The figures in the Table above are confined to the collegiate portion of the institution.

Many additions have been made to the buildings of the *College of Engineering, Poona*. In 1927, extensions to the workshop were completed at a cost of Rs. 1,53,000 ; a new building for physics and electrical engineering, towards the construction of which the Wadia Trust donated Rs. one lakh, has been erected ; a steel chimney and a Babcock and Willcox boiler have been erected for the new workshops ; the drawing hall has been doubled in size and additional rooms provided for staff, stores and lectures.

The Thomason College of Civil Engineering, Roorkee, in the *United Provinces* has more than other institutions, felt the pinch of economic and financial depression. The number of college departments has been reduced from six to three ; these comprise the civil engineering, the overseers and the draftsmen classes. The number of those seeking admission has been considerably reduced.

Many of the civil engineer students, who passed out of the College in 1929-32, cannot be provided with appointments owing to widespread retrenchment.

The *Engineering College, Benares Hindu University*, continued to attract a very large number of students, the enrolment having exceeded five hundred at the close of the quinquennium.

In the *Punjab*, the *MacLagan College of Mechanical Engineering, Moghal-pura*, has been affiliated with reference to its "A" class to the University of the Punjab, and henceforward students of this class will sit for university degrees. In spite of the serious trade depression, most students have obtained appointments in the railways, hydro-electric, public health and other branches of the Public Works Department.

In *Bihar*, the regulations of Patna University have been re-cast in order to meet the changed nature of *Bihar College of Engineering*. A scheme for expanding the college so as to include instruction up to the degree standard in mechanical and electrical engineering was accepted by the Board of Governors and the Board of Industries, but Government are not yet satisfied that provision of such instruction is urgently required, while the possibility of finding the cost of this innovation is remote.

20. The *Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad, Bihar and Orissa*, is a central institution. The first session of the school was held in November, 1926; the period under review therefore covers five complete academic years.

Each candidate for admission must be under twenty-two years of age and possess an educational qualification showing that he has passed either the Intermediate examination of an Indian university or board, or the Higher Certificate examination of the Cambridge Local Examinations Syndicate, or Matriculation, or the final examination held after a full three years' course at the Bengal or Bihar and Orissa evening mining classes, provided that certain preliminary subjects appropriate to the course of the School have been taken in the examination.

In the first two years of the course, which are common to all courses of study, the subjects include chemistry, mathematics, physics, mechanics, surveying, mechanical drawing, workshop practice, electrical engineering, hydraulics, geology and mineralogy. General tuition is continued in the third and fourth years; in addition, the special requirements of coal and metal mining engineering and geology are provided for. Throughout the course visits are made to mines and workshops. During the long vacation, every student is required to undergo at least two months' practical training.

The Secretary for Mines, Great Britain, has approved the School in respect of its Diploma of Associateship in Mining Engineering under section 9 (b) of the British Coal Mines Act, 1911; a holder of the diploma of the School is thereby entitled to claim exemption from two of the five years' mining experience normally required from applicants for first or second class certificates of competency prescribed by the Act; the diploma has also been recognised by the University of London for the purpose of its B.Sc. degree in engineering (mining).

Many applications for admission were received in 1926 and the full complement of students was taken ; in subsequent years the numbers have dropped. The number of successful candidates is indicated in the Table below :

TABLE CV.
Certificate and Diploma examinations, Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad.
Successful candidates.

	1929.	1930.	1931.	Total.
Certificate in Coal Mining ..	19	20	15	54
Certificate in Metal Mining ..	8	13	8	29
Certificate in Geology ..	10	5	5	20
Diploma in Mining Engineering	17	17	34
Diploma in Geology	9	4	13

(vii) *Colleges of Commerce.*

21. The following Table gives the number and enrolment of Colleges and University Departments of Commerce.

TABLE CVI.
Colleges and University Departments of Commerce, 1931-32.

Provinces.	Institutions.	Number of students.		Expenditure.			
		1927.	1932.	Government funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.
Bombay ..	Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics ..	269	314	Rs. 11,075	Rs. 58,058	Rs. 20,499	Rs. 89,632
Bengal	{ Calcutta University Dacca University ..	{ 151 41	{ 150 24	} Separate figures not available.			
United Provinces.	{ Allahabad University Lucknow University	{ 69 64	{ 56 55	} Separate figures not available.			
Punjab	Hailey College of Commerce, Lahore	125	41,200	15,452	2,430	59,082
Delhi ..	College of Commerce (Delhi University)..	17	84	Separate figures not available.			
	Total ..	611	808				

N. B.—This Table does not include statistics of the commercial classes attached to arts colleges affiliated to Calcutta and Agra Universities.

22. The pioneer of this form of education is the *Sydenham College of Commerce, Bombay*, which was instituted in 1913 and has a fine record of achievement. As a College of Commerce, it aims at training those who aspire to a commercial career; as a College of Economics, it aims at providing a liberal education in all branches of social science which are likely to be helpful to those concerned with public affairs. It also offers facilities for post-graduate research in connexion with the many problems of Indian economic development.

In regard to the general prospects of commerce graduates, the Principal has written :

"The students of the College are well received in business houses, and several of them are holding responsible positions in industrial and commercial concerns. . . . Although all students of the College do not obtain employment as soon as they pass out, they have better prospects than graduates in Arts. The number of commerce graduates is still limited and thus the market is not flooded by them. Some are employed by banks, insurance companies, mercantile firms, by the Income Tax Office and other Government offices. A few have set themselves up as brokers, accountants and auditors, but only a few have shown initiative and enterprise and started independent business on their own. The general tendency of our young men is to seek employment as clerks or office assistants. This is mainly because our students belong chiefly to middle-class families and are anxious to secure employment as soon as they take their degrees. The College has not attracted sons of well-to-do business men in appreciable numbers, though a slight improvement has been noticed in the last two or three years. There is a limit to the scope for clerical employment; it is therefore desirable to provide training for several different spheres of employment. The introduction of actuarial science has opened up a new avenue of employment. The introduction of economics of transport as a special subject will throw open a new field of employment, but unfortunately no provision could be made for teaching this subject."¹

The experience of the *Hailey College of Commerce, Lahore*, which is maintained by the Punjab University and owes much to the generosity of the late Sir Ganga Ram, appears to have been more favourable in so far that it "has an increasing proportion of students from among the sons of business men, which indicates that the work done is being recognised by practical men as likely to be of service to the future careers of the young men in whom they are specially interested."²

The number of candidates seeking admission, however, has declined. This is probably due to the present trade depression, and also possibly to the somewhat extravagant hopes formerly entertained by the public about the possibilities of good employment for its graduates. It is satisfactory, however, that the more successful graduates of the College have been absorbed into business.

A criticism which has been passed on the Colleges and Departments of Commerce is that they form somewhat exclusive institutions, remote from other ranges of study, especially the Departments of Economics in universities. This seems an unnecessary duplication.

* * * * *

¹ Bombay, page 45.

² Punjab, page 78.

23. This brief summary of the activities of professional colleges and departments indicates that many institutions are admirably equipped and accommodated. The question arises whether recent retrenchments, especially in the matter of staff, have been wisely conceived. It is scarcely an economy to maintain these institutions, whose buildings and equipment have been provided by an expenditure of large sums of money, unless the qualifications and experience of the staffs are such as to maintain a high standard of teaching.

Many institutions are suffering acutely from the present economic depression, and students often find it as difficult as arts students to obtain suitable employment. A multiplication of institutions of these types, therefore, will not provide means for relieving middle-class unemployment, as is often suggested.

(viii) Teaching.

24. This section is concerned with the provision made in Training Colleges and Departments of Universities for training men teachers for service in English or anglo-vernacular secondary schools. The provision made for training teachers in vernacular schools has already been discussed in Chapter V, and that for women teachers of all kinds in Chapter VI of this Review.

25. It has already been shown on page 119 that in most provinces the supply of trained secondary teachers is still inadequate, especially in Bombay and Bengal. Thus, the remark made at the end of the previous section that graduates of professional colleges now find it difficult to obtain suitable employment does not ordinarily apply to students under training as teachers.

TABLE CVII.
Training Colleges for Men.

Province.	1926-27.			1931-32.		
	Institution.	Students.	Female students included in the previous column.	Institution.	Students.	Female students included in the previous column.
Nadras	3	224	..	3	280	..
Bombay	1	48	7	1	75	10
Bengal	2	136	..	2	144	..
United Provinces ..	3	258(a)	1	3	282(b)	4
Punjab	2	269	3	2	175	7
Burma	12(c)	4	..	91(c)	42
Bihar and Orissa ..	2	57	..	2	83	..
Central Provinces ..	1	120	2	1	134	8
Assam
North-West Frontier Province ..	1	18	..	1	41	..
British India ..	15	1,142	17	15	1,305	71

(a) Includes 84 and (b) 101 students reading at Benares and Aligarh University Departments
(c) Reading at the University Department.

TABLE CVIII.
Expenditure on Training Colleges.

Province.	1926-27.					1931-32.				
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	1,57,489	1,816	743	13,147	1,73,195	1,56,537	276	2,685	17,932	1,77,430
Bombay	64,702	64,702	70,394	..	2,445	10	72,849
Bengal	1,83,694	..	872	367	1,84,923	1,64,703	..	925	242	1,65,870
United Provinces*	1,60,255	1,402	1,67,747	1,41,042	1,41,042
Punjab	1,32,406	..	3,881	9,026	1,45,403	1,29,862	..	18,248	5,932	1,54,042
Burma*
Bihar and Orissa	76,260	76,260	67,228	120	67,348
Central Provinces	1,22,903	1,22,903	1,30,466	..	681	4,464	1,44,611
Assam
North-West Frontier Province	22,239	22,239	18,872	18,872
India	9,26,038	1,816	5,496	24,022	9,57,372	8,88,104	276	24,984	29,700	9,42,064
India	1921-22 ..	9,38,684	7,080	2,209	34,241	9,82,814
	1916-17 ..	5,01,822	3,691	5,846	14,621	5,26,980
	1911-12 ..	2,08,243	875	3,142	9,279	3,11,539
	1906-07 ..	1,08,227	213	2,905	8,942	2,10,287
	1901-02 ..	88,558	403	550	843	90,354
	1896-97 ..	33,332	90	590	722	34,734

*This table does not include expenditure on University Departments at Benares, Aligarh and Rangoon, for which separate figures are not available.

26. The following have been the main developments during the quinquennium.

The Teachers' College, Saidapet, in *Madras* trained 560 graduates during the quinquennium, but increasing numbers of applications for admission have had to be refused.

The Government Training College, Rajahmundry, has been granted temporary affiliation by Andhra University.

In *Bombay*, the Secondary Training College was affiliated to the University of Bombay in the previous quinquennium; the number of admissions has been increased from 60 to 75, but even this enhanced figure is inadequate to meet the large demands for more trained teachers.

The *Bengal* report has not recorded much development either at the David Hare Training College, Calcutta, or in the Teachers' Training College, Dacca; in this province also the provision for the training of teachers is inadequate to meet the large demands.

In the *United Provinces*, there are three Government institutions, one at Allahabad, a second at Lucknow and a third at Agra. These are all classified as colleges, but only students in the Allahabad Training College read for a degree in education. Students at Agra and Lucknow are prepared for the Final Teachers' Certificate. There are also teaching departments in Aligarh and Benares Universities.

The Government Training College, Allahabad, provides facilities for training about sixty students each year, but this annual allotment has been exceeded during the quinquennium. Practically all the teachers who have been trained have obtained teaching posts; and the qualifications of candidates for admission have improved. This is fortunate, as the extension of Intermediate College work has thrown a heavier responsibility on the College.

In the colleges at Agra and Lucknow the course is either of one or of two years; the former for students who have taken the Intermediate and the latter for those with a lower qualification. The two years' course is reported to achieve the better results.

The *Punjab* is fortunate that the supply of teachers trained at the Central Training College, Lahore, actually exceeds the demand:

"The problem this year has been not so much to provide sufficient trained teachers to cope with expansion, but on account of retrenchment to find posts for those teachers who have been thrown out of employment or have left the Central Training College. . . . For every vacancy there are now so many applicants that the rate of salary offered, after being stable for many years, has fallen and it is by no means uncommon for trained graduates to accept posts on Rs. 55 or Rs. 60 per mensem."¹

The academic attainments of recruits have improved, but many of these have taken for their degrees combinations of subjects which are unsuitable for teaching work in schools.

As there is now a sufficient supply of trained graduate teachers, the Junior Anglo-Vernacular Certificate examination has been discontinued and the classes preparing for that examination have been closed.

¹ Punjab, page 62.

The Principal of the Central Training College has again recommended that the course be increased from one to two years.

The *Burma* report is enthusiastic over the Training College for Teachers which was opened in July, 1931 :

"The College is situated on the University estate and is a constituent college of the University. It undertakes the training of graduate teachers formerly undertaken by the Education Department of University College. The course in University College was for one year only and led to a University diploma in teaching. The course at the Training College is for two years and leads to the degree of Bachelor of Education. The College also provides a two years' course for matriculates leading to the Trained Teachers' Certificate of the University...To many of us this college is by far the most important institution in Burma, a child of many prayers born long after we had become tired of praying for it. It replaces a departmental system of training, once considered up-to-date, which became obsolescent twenty-five years ago, mainly because it was sufficient unto itself and aloof from the schools of the Province."¹

In *Bihar*, a degree course was started in the Training College, Patna, in 1928 in addition to the old diploma course ; but the enrolment is very small and only approximates four students. The activities of the Training College, Cuttack, are confined to the Diploma course.

In the *Central Provinces*, the Spence Training College, Jubbulpore, prepares students for the B. T. degree of Nagpur University and also for the Trained Teachers' Certificate examination. The annual enrolment of the former class approximates twenty-five.

No provision is made in *Assam* for the training of teachers in English schools, but a few students from the province are admitted to the Training College, Dacca.

27. The Calcutta University Commission stressed the advisability of arranging a thorough and systematic study of educational questions :

"Far reaching changes are imminent, not least in the sphere of primary education, but very little has been done to prepare for these changes by systematic enquiry or experiment. The conditions are favourable for setting such enquiries on foot and for instituting experiments in new methods of teaching and of school organisation."²

Provision has been made for specialised research of this kind in Dacca and Andhra Universities, where a higher degree is now awarded on a thesis implying "a distinctive contribution to the advancement of learning", and is open to approved candidates two years after taking the earlier degree.

(ix) *Seamanship.*

28. During the period under review the Government of India initiated two schemes of far-reaching importance in pursuance of their policy of assisting the development of an Indian Mercantile Marine.

The Training Ship "Dufferin" was established as a result of the recommendation of the Indian Mercantile Marine Committee in 1923, that an

¹ Burma, pages 13-14.

² Calcutta University Commission's report, Volume V. page 74.

institution to be conducted on the lines of the Mercantile Marine training ships in the United Kingdom should be established in Indian waters with the object of giving a sound preliminary training to Indian boys who desire to qualify for executive appointments in the mercantile marine. The ship is the only institution of its kind in India and the cadets are drawn from all parts of the country. When it was first established, doubts were expressed as to the extent to which Indian boys would be forthcoming to train for careers at sea as deck officers. These doubts have been proved to be groundless, and the increasing number of candidates seeking admission to the ship testifies to its popularity. The institution is now in its sixth year; during this period nearly a hundred cadets have completed their training and taken the final certificate. Some of these have already obtained suitable employment, while others have been engaged as apprentices by shipping companies, engineering firms, etc.

Under the scheme for the training of Indians as marine engineers, nine scholarships, each of the value of £240 per annum, have so far been granted. Each scholar has to undergo training for a period of six to seven years, four to five years of which are spent at a dockyard and the remaining period at sea on a foreign-going ship. In view of the need for economy in central expenditure, no addition is being made to the number of scholars at present undergoing training.

(x) *Indian Military Academy, Dehra Dun.*

29. An outstanding feature of the quinquennium was the appointment of the Indian Military College Committee in 1931, with the object of instituting at an early date a military college in India. The Chairman was His Excellency Sir Philip Chetwode, Commander-in-Chief.

The Committee first considered how the sixty annual vacancies (apart from those filled by cadets nominated by Indian States) should be distributed. The majority of the Committee recommended that thirty of these should be allotted to cadets selected from the ranks of the Indian Army; and that of the thirty remaining vacancies 24 should be open to competition and six should be filled by nomination by the Commander-in-Chief. If, however, the Commander-in-Chief should not exercise his right of nomination in any year, or should he be unable to select Indian Army cadets up to the proportion decided upon, the resulting balance is added to the number of competitive vacancies.

In considering the length of the course and the age and qualification for admission, the Committee took into account the present position of education in India:

"We gather from educational reports and from other sources of information that, in recent years, the ordinary Indian schools have shown considerable improvement in the directions indicated by the Skeen Committee, especially in the provision of better buildings and, play-grounds, in a larger supply of trained teachers, in better organised games and physical training, but Indian boys still suffer from many disadvantages. The financial resources of the schools are often inadequate; they are sometimes overcrowded by boys who are unable to benefit by the training, as is shown by the large proportion of failures at Matriculation (which is a lenient test); the pupils are overstrained by

being expected from an early age to study an excessive number of languages ; and the use of English as the medium of instruction is a very serious handicap to a proper understanding of the subjects of study and to a quickening of the intelligence of the pupils, while even in the collegiate stage many students are so deficient in English that they are unable to follow the lectures which are delivered in that language.

“ But there are other disadvantages which appear to us to result from an imperfectly devised system of education. It is essential that professional education should be based on the firm foundation of general education. We have noticed from certain university calendars that there is a tendency towards premature specialisation, and that subjects such as biology, philosophy and economics may be taken by students at what would appear too early an age. There does not seem to us sufficient guarantee that boys have always received an adequate grounding in what are usually considered to be the basic subjects of school education.

“ Again, such general education should be given, in our opinion, in a good and well-regulated school, but we observe that many boys pass Matriculation at the early age of fifteen (or even younger) and then proceed to a college. They thus lose the bracing stimulus of school life, and are denied suitable training in those qualities which are so valuable to success in life. However beneficial it may be in other directions, a college education is no substitute for good school education (with its school discipline, its school games, and its school methods of work) for boys who are on the threshold of professional study.”¹

In view of these considerations, the Committee were of opinion that the course at the Indian Military College should be longer than that at Sandhurst and should include, in addition to military subjects, a period of academic study, by means of which cadets would be enabled to improve their general education and their knowledge of colloquial English. The Committee therefore recommended that the course should be one of three years, of which the first year would be devoted mainly to academic study and the last two years mainly to military training ; and that the age of admission should be between eighteen and twenty years of age.

[The Academy was opened by His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief in Dehra Dun, towards the end of the quinquennium. Its progress will be discussed in subsequent Reviews, but the indications of its success are already promising.]

¹ Indian Military College Committee's Report, page 3.

CHAPTER VIII.

VOCATIONAL TRAINING.

The present chapter is concerned with a type of training, which can be termed vocational training. Pupils attending vocational institutions do not ordinarily aspire to reach the higher ranks of trade or industry, though some may do so by force of character, by industry or by natural aptitude. Many institutions in India provide for both vocational and professional training, and thus it has been difficult to disentangle their widely differing activities. The results of this operation, as seen in these two chapters, have not been altogether satisfactory.

(i) Schools of Art.

2. The number of Schools of Art has increased from eleven to sixteen; six of these are Government institutions in Calcutta, Madras, Bombay (2), Lucknow and Lahore; six are aided institutions; two are unaided; two are maintained by local bodies.

The name given to these institutions is often misleading, as several institutions classified as 'Schools of Art' are really craft schools, with very little teaching of the fine arts such as music and painting.

TABLE CIX.

(a) Schools of Art: 1931-32.

Province.	No. of Institutions.	Pupils in		Expenditure from			
		1927.	1932.	Government and Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	4	494	614	43,972	316	16,993	61,281
Bombay	3	575	743	91,469	21,461	3,497	1,16,427
Bengal	5	567	519	55,000	16,855	10,121	81,976
United Provinces ..	2	164	258	47,661	2,509	3,936	54,106
Punjab	1	164	264	53,497	1,999	8,659	66,155
Burma	1	..	56	425	460	375	1,260
Total	16	1,964	2,454	2,94,024	43,600	43,681	3,81,205

(b) *Government Schools of Art: 1931-32.*

Institutions.	Pupils in		Expenditure from			
	1927.	1932.	Government and Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
School of Arts and Crafts, Madras.	494	265	35,846	206	5,390	41,442
Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay.	350	432	90,349	(a)	(a)	1,12,742
The Government School of Art, Bengal.	335	237	33,120	11,480	280	44,880
The School of Arts and Crafts, Lucknow.	164	221	43,259	2,509	..	45,768
The Mayo School of Arts, Lahore.	198	303	55,497	1,999	8,659	66,155
Total ..	1,541	1,458	2,58,071	16,194	14,329	3,10,987

(a) Separate figures not available.

N.B.—This Table does not include statistics for Reay Art Workshops, Bombay, and the Drawing and Design class at Ahmedabad.

3. In *Madras*, a committee was appointed in 1929 to make proposals for re-organising the School of Arts and Crafts, Madras. In accordance with its recommendations, the Arts and Crafts sections of the School have been completely separated. The Arts section now consists of two sections, one in painting and the other in modelling, each course being of three years' duration. The enrolment has fallen from 494 to 265 owing to restrictions having been imposed on admissions and to limitations in the total strength of each class. The Section, however, has gained in popularity and attracts students from other provinces as well as from Indian States.

In *Bombay*, the Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy School of Art, Bombay, has been made a department independent of the Director of Public Instruction, and the Principal is now designated Director of the Sir Jamsetjee Jeejeebhoy School of Art. Important developments have been the introduction of a class preparing for the Final Associateship examination of the Royal Institute of British Architects now held by the R. I. B. A. Examination Board in India; and the introduction of day school classes in architecture.

The painting section of the School was entrusted by the Government of India with the task of painting the domes and of decorating the panels of the Imperial Secretariat, New Delhi. The mural paintings are possibly the most complete and extensive work of the kind, which has been executed by the students of any School of Art in the world.

There are in Bombay fourteen special schools and classes for the teaching of music, vocal and instrumental, with 2,210 pupils.

The number of Art Schools in *Bengal* is now five, of which one, the most important, is maintained by Government. Of the others three are aided and one unaided.

Though the enrolment of the Government School of Art, Calcutta, has fallen from 335 to 237, its record of good work in the past has been maintained. Students are now admitted on the results of a preliminary test, and the course extends from five to six years. The School is divided into an elementary and an advanced section. There are eight departments comprising Indian painting, fine art, commercial art, wood engraving, lithography, draftsmanship, clay-modelling and teachership.

In the *United Provinces*, the Government School of Art, Lucknow, has increased in enrolment from 164 to 221. The School is advancing in popularity and includes instruction in the plastic and graphic arts of the province. The Balak Prasad Khatri Industrial School has been amalgamated with the Government Brassware School, Benares.

The *Marris School of Music, Allahabad*, was started in 1926. It has a staff of a principal, two professors of singing and one assistant, three professors of sarod, sitar and pakhawaj, and a lady teacher of singing. There are 161 students; the course is of five years. The School has been permitted to occupy part of the old Council Chamber building, and receives a grant-in-aid of half its expenditure up to a total maximum of Rs. 8,000. The classes are popular and the standard of music is improving.

In the *Punjab*, the Mayo School of Arts, Lahore, has increased in popularity during the quinquennium, the enrolment having advanced from 198 to 303. In 1930-31, the drawing teachers' training class was re-opened, but the sanitary inspectors' class has been closed as a measure of retrenchment.

(ii) *Technical, Craft and Industrial Schools.*

4. The total number of schools of these types has increased from 450 to 463, and the number of pupils from 24,837 to 26,711. The largest increase in the number of these schools has been in the *Punjab*, where the number increased from 24 to 43 during the quinquennium.

TABLE CX.
Technical, Craft and Industrial Schools.

Province.	Number of institutions.		Increase (+) or decrease (-).	Number of pupils.		Increase (+) or decrease (-).
	1927.	1932.		1927.	1932.	
Madras	63	73	+10	4,307	5,738	+1,431
Bombay	33	44	+11	2,878	2,895	+17
Bengal	153	144	-9	6,234	6,315	+81
United Provinces	111	107	-4	3,941	3,933	-8
Punjab	24	43	+19	3,535	4,516	+981
Burma	2	2	..	167	231	+64
Bihar and Orissa	43	48	+5	2,462	2,079	-383
Central Provinces	2	2	..	262	149	-113
Assam	15	15	..	476	374	-102
British India (including minor administrations).	450	493	+33	24,537	26,711	+2,174

TABLE CXI.

Expenditure on Technical, Craft and Industrial Schools.

Province.	Expenditure from				
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	3,37,320	412	25,606	9,18,242	12,81,580
Bombay	2,06,466	54,384	1,24,397	1,11,235	4,96,482
Bengal	3,77,292	1,14,658	49,870	1,96,326	7,38,146
United Provinces	6,28,563	41,184	8,221	1,78,423	8,56,391
Punjab	3,39,539	8,697	16,055	29,496	3,93,787
Burma	43,891	12,000	55,891
Bihar and Orissa	3,19,686	424	13,087	2,44,288	5,77,485
Central Provinces	1,597	14,388	15,985
Assam	46,968	4,563	717	1,119	53,367
British India (including minor administrations).	23,24,560	2,24,322	2,37,953	17,14,464	45,01,299

5. Reference will be made first to what may be termed technical schools, which provide a specialised training in some particular sphere of industry and whose pupils have already reached a fairly high standard of general training. In some institutions the pupils, on admission, have reached the Matriculation and in some cases a higher standard. These institutions, therefore, are able to specialise each in its own particular sphere and need not provide concurrently with that training additional instruction in general subjects. It is difficult to classify these institutions, and it is possible that mention of some has been omitted.

The *Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Caumpore*, was founded in 1920 and provides courses in applied chemistry, oil and leather chemistry, and the technology of sugar. In 1929, the classes were transferred to new laboratories, which were built at a cost of Rs. 4,86,516. An up-to-date sugar factory plant was purchased in 1931 at a cost of Rs. 1,25,000. The annual expenditure has decreased from Rs. 3,97,265 in 1926 to Rs. 2,22,153 in 1931-32 while the enrolment has fallen from 32 to 23. During the quinquennium 53 students completed the three-years' course of training.

The *Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay*, has continued to impart advanced training in five branches of technology, mechanical and electrical engineering, textile manufactures, technical and applied chemistry, sanitary engineering and plumbing. The course in each department extends over four years. The number of students in 1932 was 559 as against 520 in 1927. Students from this Institute appear for the City and Guilds of London Institute examination.

The *Jamshedpur Technical Institute* was started in 1921 by the Tata Iron and Steel Company and continued to provide a course in metallurgy approximately equal in standard to that of English universities until towards the end of the quinquennium. The Company then revised the scheme of education in such a way that the Institute has been changed from a part-time day institution to a part-time evening school. Government has withdrawn the grant-in-aid, which it formerly contributed.

The *Trades School* has been converted into the *Government School of Technology, Madras*, and additional buildings and equipment have been provided. An important innovation has been the introduction of day classes for engineering apprentices, which are conducted on the 'sandwich system' in place of the evening classes. The School continued to be a centre for the examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute.

The *Government Textile Institute, Madras*, which was started in 1922, continued in rented buildings until 1929 when, with the exception of the practical weaving section, it was shifted to the Government buildings formerly occupied by the Leather Trades Institute. In 1931, a building was also constructed for the weaving section. The Institute has continued to provide two courses of training; the superior course for those who intend to become teachers in weaving schools or managers of weaving factories; and the artisan course.

The *Government Industrial Institute, Madras*, is the only institution providing instruction in the mechanical engineering and wood-work trades in the southern districts of Madras Presidency. The cost of maintaining

this institution has been high and the Retrenchment Committee reviewed the advisability of retaining it, but it was felt that its usefulness is so great that its closure would inflict great hardship on the people of these districts. The Institute has therefore been retained, but its cost of maintenance has been greatly reduced.

The more important technical schools in Bengal are the *Calcutta Technical School* and the *Kanchrapara* and *Kharagpur Schools*. The two latter institutions cater chiefly for railway apprentices.

The *Walton Railway School of the North-Western Railway, Lahore*, provides facilities for training in railway work to candidates for railway service; it also provides refresher and training courses for those already in service.

The *Railway Technical School, Lahore*, which has been re-named the *Government Industrial School*, has continued its creditable work of the past, but its enrolment has fallen, largely on account of financial reasons and of a restriction of admissions from 769 to 584. The School imparts training in ten crafts and engineering trades. With a view to providing more advanced training a scheme for the revision of the curriculum has been drawn up and is under consideration.

The *Government Technical Institute, Insein, Burma*, has continued to train students for civil and mechanical engineering diplomas. Students of the Institute take the examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute. The Institute also provides evening classes in Rangoon for part-time students.

In *Bihar* there is the *Orissa School of Engineering*, which trains students for a diploma course; the *Tirhut Technical Institute*, where an industrial diploma course has been introduced and a combined oil engine and agricultural tractor drivers' class has been organised; the *Jamalpur Technical Institute*; and the *Cottage Industries' Institute*.

6. With the provincialisation of education, scholarships for technical training have been awarded by provincial Governments. In 1926-27, the number of State technical scholars under the supervision of the High Commissioner in London was 57, but in 1931-32 that number had decreased to 52. This slight decrease has been due partly to financial stringency and partly to the fact that facilities in India for advanced training in a number of technical subjects have been developed. The special subjects of study pursued by these scholars have included marine, civil, electrical, mechanical and automobile engineering and a number of textile subjects. Of the 52 technical scholars in 1931-32, seventeen were undergoing training in colleges, thirty-one were working in factories and workshops, and four were enrolled in technical schools. In addition to the scholars large numbers of Indian students have proceeded abroad at their own expense in order to obtain technical training. The following Table shows the number of students, as far as is known, studying technological and industrial subjects in England during 1931-32.

TABLE CXII.

Technical students in the United Kingdom.

Subject.	Number of students.	
	1927.	1932.
Engineering	202	237
Technology	98	65
Metallurgy	6	5
Architecture	3	7
Printing	4
Total ..	309	318

The Central Government has also played some part in encouraging this form of training. Four scholars have been sent to England for the study of metallurgy. On completion of their training, the first three scholars were provided with appointments in the Indian Stores Department. The fourth scholar was sent to England in 1928 for a period of three years and took the degree course in ferrous metallurgy in the University of Sheffield. He has since obtained employment in the Tata Iron and Steel Company, Jamshedpur. Owing to financial stringency, no further scholarships of this type have been granted.

7. Considerable progress has been made in the institution of what may be termed 'craft schools'—institutions which provide training in a particular craft to students who have already acquired a reasonably adequate foundation of general training in the ordinary schools.

In *Bombay*, the Department of Industries has devoted its attention particularly to the development of the hand-weaving industry. In 1927-28 a survey was made of this industry and, as a result, a Central Hand-Weaving Institute was opened at Poona in 1929. Government have also sanctioned the opening of two weaving schools, two weaving demonstrator classes, and a dyeing demonstrator class in Sind.

In *Bengal*, in addition to a number of weaving schools, there are institutions which provide artisans with training in carpentry, blacksmithy, cane-work and pottery. Among the most important of these institutions are the Calcutta Tanning Institute, the Government Weaving Institute, Serampur and the Government Weaving and Dyeing Institute, Berhampur.

There are fourteen Government textile and dyeing schools in the *United Provinces*. Among the more important are the Government Textile School, Cawnpore, the Government School of Dyeing and Printing, Cawnpore, the Central Weaving Institute, Benares, the Government Weaving and Cotton Printing School, Muttra. The number of Government carpentry and leather-working schools has been increased to six and four respectively.

In the *Punjab*, the Government Institute of Dyeing and Calico Printing, Shahdara, provides theoretical and practical instruction in textile dyeing, bleaching, finishing and calico-printing and is advancing in popularity, the

enrolment having increased from 66 to 136 during the quinquennium. Enrolment at the Government Central Weaving Institute, Amritsar, however, has remained practically stationary. The Government Hosiery Institute, Ludhiana, has made great strides and has been successful in breaking down the distrust with which it was first regarded by local hosiery manufacturers. Another institution which has shown great progress is the Wood-Work Institute at Jullundur.

In *Assam*, the policy of encouraging hand-loom weaving and sericulture has been continued. There are two weaving schools including the weaving section of the Surma Valley Technical School. There are 26 peripatetic weaving demonstrators, working under the direction of four weaving assistants who conduct propaganda and demonstration work towards the improvement of the hand-loom industry.

8. There are also a number of what are generally known as industrial schools.

The number of recognised industrial schools in *Madras* has increased to 68, of which 63 are in receipt of Government grant-in-aid. The number of pupils has increased from 3,591 to 6,005.

In *Bengal*, the number of industrial schools decreased from 153 to 144, but in spite of this reduction the enrolment advanced from 6,234 to 6,315.

In the *Punjab*, fifteen new industrial schools have been opened by Government, making the total of such schools 32. The number of pupils increased from 2,560 to 3,829.

In *Bihar*, the number of schools of this type increased from 43 to 48, but the enrolment decreased from 2,462 to 2,079.

In the *Central Provinces*, there are three Government and six aided industrial schools. Those at Khamgaon and Chanda were opened during the quinquennium. The demand for such schools is reported to be keen, but new schemes for improvement have been held in abeyance owing to financial stringency.

There is a Government Industrial School at *Delhi* which provides training in carpentry and smithy. The numbers in this school have remained practically stationary during the quinquennium.

9. Progress is thus being made by these schools of varying types, especially by the craft schools, but the numbers of institutions and pupils are still insignificant in comparison with those of ordinary schools. This marked disparity has evoked much adverse comment; there is a widespread desire that early steps should be taken to rectify this disproportion.

Many have advocated an alternative policy of providing concurrently with the general courses in schools and, indeed, in colleges a number of optional subjects of a vocational type.

While teaching in the ordinary schools should become more of a reality to the pupils by its connexion with what a pupil sees and knows and understands, while the teaching of subjects such as drawing and manual training should be improved as a means of training the eye and hand, while

students and school children should be encouraged to take part in practical pursuits such as carpentry and gardening in their leisure hours, the introduction of vocational subjects in the ordinary curricula would be inadvisable. The expenditure on equipment would not be negligible, while experienced and competent teaching is essential. These resources should be concentrated in a few institutions and not be dissipated over a large number of institutions, whose main objective is in another direction. It is also open to question whether training for a few hours a week in such subjects, interspersed between long hours of study in general subjects, would be of value. There is also a danger, which in the light of past experience is by no means imaginary, that these subjects might be regarded as 'soft options' by those who aspire to enter college and would therefore be handicapped in their college careers. The very object of these innovations might also be defeated. Boys, whose bent does not lie in literary studies, might be induced to prolong unduly their literary education by the temptation that a small portion of their time would be spent in vocational training.

10. The better course would be to provide a larger number of vocational institutions, technical, craft or industrial, in which the pupils could devote their whole time and energy to practical pursuits, freed from the temptation of hankering after a literary career.

It is essential that recruits to these several types of institution should first have gained in the ordinary schools that modicum of general knowledge which should form the foundation of their vocational training; otherwise, there would be an even more disastrous situation, whereby vocational schools were compelled to provide an inferior form of general training alongside of the practical training. This is the main defect of many of the existing industrial schools, in which pupils are often admitted at the very start of their schooling and at an age unsuitable for vocational training. A scheme of vocational training should be adjusted to that of general training, and the two schemes should interlock harmoniously and not be in competition with each other.

The opinions of the Hartog Committee are relevant in this connexion :

"All pupils, whatever be their aim of life, should first receive general education, but it should be open to boys at some suitable stage in the subsequent course to branch off to craft schools or to vocational classes. We are told that the industrial schools are not widely appreciated at present, but we are hopeful that if once industrial training is given its proper place in the higher stages of the educational system, many of the boys who now waste time and money in secondary schools will be diverted to more fruitful forms of education and occupation."¹

In the existing system large numbers of school pupils and college students prolong unduly their literary studies, to their own disadvantage as well as to that of the schools and colleges which they attend. It is mainly these boys and young men who swell the ranks of middle-class unemployment, a problem which is becoming more and more insistent.

It has been suggested that the standards of matriculation and university examinations should be stiffened in order to cope with this difficulty; this may be an admirable suggestion on other grounds, but boys should not be denied education merely because their bent does not lie in the direction of literary

¹ Hartog Report, page 111.

studies. By far the better policy would be to release these boys once for all from their literary studies at an earlier age than at present, and to utilise the money thus saved by expanding facilities in vocational institutions which are more in harmony with their attainments.

The question arises as to when the time for such bifurcation or diversion should be fixed. The actual time would vary in accordance with the attainments and ambitions of the boys. The diversion of the humblest class, those who would furnish *mistries*, etc., would be on the completion of the primary stage; of better educated boys, who would be absorbed in industries, would be at a stage somewhat earlier than the present Matriculation; while those who sought admission to the better type of technical schools would continue longer in their general studies.

(iii) *Commercial schools.*

11. The main statistics regarding commercial education are given in the Table below :

TABLE CXIII.
Schools of Commerce.

Year.	Insti- tutions.	Pupils.	Expenditure.				
			Govern- ment funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.
1927	144	6,705	Rs. 1,14,626	Rs. 8,068	Rs. 2,47,250	Rs. 78,323	Rs. 4,46,267
1932	135	6,246	1,35,620	250	2,60,879	48,846	4,45,595

12. There has thus been a serious set-back, the numbers of both institutions and pupils having suffered reduction. This has been due very largely to trade depression, as pupils receiving instruction in these institutions have found it increasingly difficult to obtain employment.

The most severe set-back has been in *Bombay*, the number of aided institutions having decreased from seven to two.

In *Madras*, there has been a fall in the enrolment of the Institute at Madras, as well as in that at Calicut. At the close of the quinquennium the latter institution was closed as a measure of retrenchment. The School of Commerce at Vizagapatam also attracted fewer students, the number having fallen from 106 to 72.

There has been no marked change in *Bengal*. Classes in shorthand, typewriting and book-keeping were opened at the Narasingha Dutt College, Howrah, in 1928-29, but the Commerce Department of Krishnath College, Berhampur, was abolished in 1929-30 owing to dearth of pupils. A scheme for the reorganisation of the Government Commercial Institute, Calcutta, was sanctioned in 1929, and the Institute was moved to new premises. Its status was improved by the recognition of its Final Commercial Course examination as equivalent to the Intermediate Arts examination for the purpose of the admission of students to the B. A. or B. Com. classes of the University.

Valuable evening classes are held in many centres by the *Young Men's* and *Women's Christian Associations*, which are much appreciated by those who are starting their careers in Government offices and in commercial houses. These classes have also been reduced in strength in consequence of trade depression.

13. An interesting experiment was started some years ago in the *Punjab*, by which clerical classes were attached to high schools and intermediate colleges for the benefit of matriculates, who desired short specialised courses with a view to obtaining clerical employment.

In accordance with the recommendations of a committee appointed in 1925, ten post-matriculation classes were opened in 1927. The course of instruction covered two years and a diploma examination was conducted by the Education Department. The numbers attending these classes soon exceeded three hundred.

In 1929-30, a committee was appointed to review this experiment. Its most important recommendation was that, since many pupils obtained employment before the completion of the course, the length of the course should be reduced from two years to one. This recommendation was put into effect in 1930 and the syllabus was modified accordingly, attention being confined very largely to English, shorthand and typing.

It has been suggested that the initial qualifications of students should be further raised, that greater importance should be attached to drafting, noting and correspondence, and that higher speed should be demanded in shorthand and typewriting. The shortened course has at any rate proved popular, as the enrolment for the single year's course has already risen above four hundred pupils.

Much advantage is gained by attaching these classes to the ordinary schools and intermediate colleges, as an essential of success is a sound working knowledge of English by the pupils; competent instruction of this kind is more likely to be provided in schools and colleges than in vocational institutions.

14. *The Accountancy Diploma Board, Bombay*, which was constituted by Government in 1915, now holds examinations every year at Bombay, Madras, Calcutta, Allahabad, Rangoon and Karachi, the last-named centre having been created in 1929. During the quinquennium, 1,928 candidates were examined, of whom 464 were declared successful.

In connection with the proposed Indian Accountancy Board, the Secretary writes:

"For some years past the question of forming an Indian Accountancy Board for the purpose of advising the Governor General in Council regarding the granting of auditors' certificates and assisting him in maintaining a high standard of qualifications and conduct of persons enrolled on the register of accountants was under the consideration of the Government of India. In 1925 a scheme for the establishment of such a Board was drawn up and circulated for opinion. After consideration of the replies received and consultation with commercial and professional bodies, the Government of India framed rules called the Auditor's Certificate Rules, 1932, which came into force from 1st April, 1932. These rules provide for the maintenance of a register of Approved Accountants, the granting of Auditor's Certificates, the examinations to be passed and the theoretical and practical

training to be undergone by persons wishing to be enrolled on the register, and for the constitution of an All-India Board called the Indian Accountancy Board. Under these rules the Government of India and not the local Governments will be the statutory authority for the grant of certificates to persons entitling them to act as auditors of public companies in India. The First Examination prescribed by the new rules will be held in 1933 and the first Final Examination in 1935. The Government of India have recognised that an abrupt transition from the old to the new system might involve hardship to persons already engaged in a course of training for the accountancy profession, and they have therefore decided that the G. D. A. examination should continue to be held under the old rule until a date not later than the 31st December, 1934. The Accountancy Diploma Board will continue in existence for a certain period beyond that date for the purpose of making recommendations to the Government of Bombay for the award of the Government diploma in Accountancy to any persons who may have passed the examination, but may not have completed the practical training by the end of 1934."¹

¹ Bombay, pages 131-132.

CHAPTER IX.

EDUCATION OF SPECIAL CLASSES AND COMMUNITIES.

(i) *Chiefs' Colleges.*

The most important event of the quinquennium was the approval given by the Secretary of State, for a period of five years as from April, 1931, to a new scheme for the control of chiefs' colleges and for the regulation of their relations with the Government of India. A lump sum is now provided annually by the Government of India for distribution among these colleges, this being the average total of previous subventions *plus* the average annual saving to Government on account of the leave and pension contributions for Indian masters of Mayo, Aitchison and Rajkumar Colleges, which will be defrayed in future by their governing bodies. As the Kathiawar States, which are interested in the welfare of Rajkumar College, Rajkot, desired to become wholly responsible for its expenses, the Government grant has been discontinued.

The governing bodies of the colleges have accordingly been reconstituted with the object of affording them the largest possible measure of independence, and they have been recognised as corporate bodies, capable of suing and being sued. The masters, Indian and European, will be recruited in future by governing bodies, but Government will continue to be responsible for annual inspection.

2. The following Table shows the strength of these colleges for the last three quinquennia :

TABLE CXIV.

Enrolment of chiefs' colleges.

College.	1921-22.	1926-27.	1931-32.
Mayo College, Ajmer	99	126	115
Daly College, Indore	51	63	78
Aitchison College, Lahore	95	110	74
Rajkumar College, Rajkot	53	43	29
Rajkumar College, Raipur	64	50	42
Total	362	392	438

The total enrolment of the five colleges has thus seriously declined and is less even than it was ten years ago, the most serious decline having been at Aitchison College, Lahore. This fall in numbers has been due to some extent to economic depression which has been felt acutely by the landowning classes, but this cannot be the only reason. There is an impression, which is gaining ground, that the standard of personal expenditure among the boys is unduly high and that an exclusive type of institution reacts adversely on the training and advancement of the boys themselves. Efforts are being made to reduce the number of private servants and to extend the practice of common messes. Be this as it may, a serious situation has been created by

the fall in enrolment. The number of college classes remaining the same, there can be few reductions in the staffs; the loss in fees cannot therefore be compensated, except by increased contributions. Moreover, the small numbers of boys, with their very varying ages, present difficulties in the internal organisation of the colleges.

3. Most colleges have continued to prepare boys for the Chiefs' Colleges Diploma examination, which is regarded as equivalent to the Matriculation examination of an Indian university. There are two courses; one is intended for those who desire to proceed to a university; the other qualifies a candidate for a diploma, but not for admission to a university. The examination differs somewhat from the ordinary Matriculation examination in that candidates may offer administration, which includes law, land revenue and surveying.

Mayo College prepares boys for the Higher Diploma examination, the course of which extends over three years. A four years' course is being substituted with an examination held in the middle of the course.

TABLE CXV.

Chiefs' Colleges Diploma Examinations.

Institutions.	1927-28.		1928-29.		1929-30.		1930-31.		1931-32.	
	Candidates.	Successful candidates.	Candidates.	Successful candidates.	Candidates.	Successful candidates.	Candidates.	Successful candidates.	Candidates.	Successful candidates.
Mayo College, Ajmer	12	9	12	10	12	8	13	12	13	8
Aitchison College, Lahore.	9	6	13	4	18	11	17	17	15	6
Rajkumar College, Rajkot.	1	1	4	3	2	2	6	3	3	3
Rajkumar College, Raipur.	4	4	5	5	3	3
Total ..	22	16	33	21	32	21	41	37	34	20

NOTES.—(1) The candidates who did not appear in the examination are excluded.

(2) The Daly College, Indore, did not submit candidates for the Diploma examination during the quinquennium.

TABLE CXVI.

Chiefs' Colleges Higher Diploma Examination.

Mayo College, Ajmer.

Year.	Candidates.	Successful candidates.
1927-28	5	4
1928-29	3	3
1929-30	1	..
1930-31	6	6
1931-32	5	5
Total ..	20	18

4. The average number of kumars on the roll of *Rajkumar College, Rajkot*, during the quinquennium was fourteen lower than the average of the previous quinquennium, but it is a cause for optimism that nineteen kumars now in the College are sons of former pupils.

In 1930, Mr. F. T. Turner, the Principal, retired from service and was succeeded by Mr. A. C. Miller. A fund amounting to Rs. 22,000 has been collected to commemorate Mr. Turner's association with the College. There are two European members on the staff.

The average annual cost of upkeep has been slightly more than a lakh of rupees. Thus, the cost per boy reaches a high figure. The College, however, is well endowed, the total invested capital amounting to nearly Rs. 10 lakhs with a yearly income of nearly half a lakh. The Government grant of Rs. 10,000 was voluntarily surrendered in 1932.

While no major building works have been constructed at *Mayo College, Ajmer*, much has been done to add to the amenities of the institution. Mr. S. F. Madden was succeeded as Principal in 1931 by Mr. V. A. S. Stow. The European staff, which in the past consisted of as many as seven members, has now declined to three. While continuing to be an institution for the benefit of ruling families of Rajputana, the College draws pupils from places as far distant as Madras and Assam. In March, 1930, the College celebrated its jubilee; the occasion was honoured by the presence of His Excellency the Viceroy and Lady Irwin,

The serious decline in enrolment at *Aitchison College, Lahore*, has already been noted. A feature of the College is that a larger proportion of the pupils come from British India than in other colleges. There are three Europeans on the staff, but the need of a fourth has been stressed in the report.

In 1930, *Daly College, Indore*, mourned the death of its Principal, Mr. W. Fanshawe, who had done much for its advancement. Though the

enrolment is higher than it was in 1927, it is less than it was in 1930. This decline is reported to have been due almost entirely to economic depression and is not expected to become permanent. The number of boys coming from Central India is higher than it has been for many years. Much has been done to improve the equipment of the College. A new science block, in which the fine library is installed, has been built. A new cricket and hockey ground and a racquet court have also been constructed. In 1930, the annual competitions with Mayo College, Ajmer, were revived with satisfactory results. The Old Boys' Association, started in 1927, is doing good service; in 1932, a member of the Association was appointed to a seat on the College Council.

Improvements have been made in the finances of *Rajkumar College, Raipur*. As a result of the collection of the Irwin Memorial Fund, it became possible to carry out important improvements in the staff. The generosity of the Chiefs has also provided a temple and guest house.

Mention may here be made of the *Colvin Taluqdars' School, Lucknow*, which is maintained by a voluntary cess on the land revenue of taluqdars, by income from fees, and by a large Government grant amounting to nearly Rs. 30,000. The number of boys approximates 45. The School is residential and has large grounds and many activities, while most of the staff are resident, but "the expenditure is excessive in relation to the number of boys and a reorganisation scheme is at hand. . . . It is hoped that by reducing the fees and by opening the doors to a wider public the School will attract larger numbers."¹

(ii) Education of Europeans and Anglo-Indians.

5. In all provinces except Burma, European education is a provincial and reserved subject and is in charge of a Member of the Executive Council of each provincial Government. It is governed by its own code of regulations for the award of grants, the prescription of courses and the like, which differs from the code applicable to Indian schools. In Burma, European education is a provincial transferred subject and is under the control of the Minister for Education.

6. The Tables below give the main figures for European and Anglo-Indian education in respect to the number of schools and their enrolment.

The enrolment figures give the numbers of pupils in institutions of various types, whether for boys and girls, but there is an extensive system of co-education, many boys attending girls' schools and *vice versa*. The enrolment is practically stationary.

The figures also include 13,055 Indian pupils or 22 per cent. of the total, a matter which will be discussed later. On the other hand, 3,908 European and Anglo-Indian pupils are reading in Indian institutions. Thus, there is a total of 48,801 pupils from the community at schools of one type or another. The European and Anglo-Indian population of British India approximates 2.7 lakhs. Thus, 18 per cent. of the total population, as compared with 4.7 of the Indian population, are receiving instruction. This high percentage reflects great credit on the members of the domiciled community and indicates a keen

¹U. P., page 82.

desire for their children to be educated. As the population tends to be stationary, the actual provision of education is generally satisfactory.

The Anglo-Indian is essentially a poor community; many of its members are in destitution and are living on public or private charity. The majority of the few who achieve distinction and affluence tend to leave the community, and sometimes the country; thus the community loses the benefit of their leadership. The bulk of the community reside in towns where the standard of living is high; its members live in European fashion in the matter of clothing, food and housing. In recent years, they have felt the strain of competition for many posts in Government service, of which they used to hold almost a monopoly.

A large section of the community is migratory in character, many of its members being employed in railways, telegraphs, customs and other all-India services. The children either accompany their parents from one province to another, or else are sent to boarding schools where the cost is often beyond their means. The varying courses in the provinces are a cause of much embarrassment.

TABLE CXVII.
European schools for boys and their enrolment.

Year.	Colleges.		High schools.		Middle schools.		Primary schools.		Special schools.		Total.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
1921-22	2	488	65	12,168	52	5,653	46	2,812	17	909	182	22,028
1926-27	7	263	69	16,760	42	4,559	55	3,287	3	176	176	25,045
1931-32	8	293	72	17,660	36	4,608	48	3,212	3	268	167	26,041
Increase or decrease between 1922-27	5	-225	4	4,594	-10	-1,094	9	475	-14	-733	-6	3,017
Increase or decrease between 1927-32..	1	30	3	900	-6	49	-7	-75	..	92	-6	996

TABLE CXVIII.
European schools for girls and their enrolment.

Year.	Colleges.		High schools.		Middle schools.		Primary schools.		Special schools.		Total.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
1921-22	4	358	88	13,081	78	7,669	56	2,826	35	638	261	24,572
1926-27	3	351	98	19,879	66	6,755	61	3,655	17	466	245	28,108
1931-32	2	43	106	19,594	60	7,172	71	4,654	16	444	255	31,907
Increase or decrease between 1922-27..	-1	-7	10	3,798	-12	-914	5	829	-18	-172	-16	3,534
Increase or decrease between 1927-32..	-1	-308	9	2,715	-6	417	10	999	-1	-22	10	3,601

7. The statistics of schools given above are not altogether reliable, as there have been many changes in classification during the last fifteen years. The total number of schools tends to decrease, largely in consequence of the tardy, but growing, recognition of the need for concentration.

There is particular need of concentration in respect to the railway schools, many of which have only minute enrolments and are thus liable to extravagance and inefficiency of teaching. The Hartog Committee were of opinion that "economy could be effected by the adoption of the policy already accepted by the North-Western Railway of granting assistance to the children of European and Anglo-Indian employees to attend the ordinary schools, at whatever distance, in preference to the present policy of other railways which maintain small schools at outlying stations to meet the needs of scattered groups of children."¹ Religious differences, social distinctions and vested interests still stand in the way of a complete system of concentration.

8. The following Table (which includes indirect expenditure, such as the cost of buildings) gives statistics regarding the cost of European education. Government contributions have declined by nearly Rs. 4 lakhs during the quinquennium, but this loss has been more than compensated by an increase of the fee income amounting to nearly Rs. 8½ lakhs.

TABLE CXIX.

Expenditure on recognised institutions for Europeans.

Year.	Expenditure from				Total expenditure.
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1921-22	46,70,968	21,653	49,06,770	36,73,835	1,32,73,226
1926-27	50,98,162	52,236	53,94,471	45,16,549	1,50,61,418
1931-32	47,18,670	50,764	62,43,495	45,26,227	1,55,39,156
Increase between 1922-27 ..	4,27,194	30,583	4,87,701	8,42,714	17,88,192
Increase between 1927-32 ..	-3,79,492	-1,472	8,49,024	9,678	4,77,738

At first sight, the cost appears to be unduly high, but the figures should not be accepted without reservation, especially if the object is to draw comparison between the cost of Indian and European schools.

¹Hartog Report, page 235.

A large number of European schools are residential institutions and the cost per pupil includes boarding charges, while in Indian schools the practice is for pupils to make their own messing arrangements. A European pupil, therefore, pays a far larger sum in fees than an Indian pupil. The average annual fee of a European pupil is Rs. 100, while that of an Indian pupil is less than Rs. 5.

Again, more than five-sixths of the total number of pupils in Indian schools are in the primary classes, nearly half of these being in Class I; most primary pupils receive free education. The proportion of free pupils in European schools is also very much smaller than in Indian schools, and a far higher proportion reach the higher stages of education, the cost of which is comparatively high.

9. The following Table gives the number of institutions and pupils in each province :

TABLE CXX.

Recognised European schools and their enrolment.

Province.	Institutions.			Pupils.		
	1927.	1932.	Increase(+) or decrease(-).	1927.	1932.	Increase.
Madras	87	82	-5	10,390	10,759	369
Bombay	39	37	-2	4,921	5,456	535
Bengal	62	69	+7	10,321	11,586	765
United Provinces ..	55	58	+3	6,213	6,564	351
Punjab	34	32	-2	2,669	2,847	178
Burma	36	35	-1	8,358	10,191	1,333
Bihar and Orissa ..	21	21	..	1,370	1,624	254
Central Provinces ..	34	37	+3	2,388	2,801	413
Assam	4	4	..	375	384	9
North-West Frontier Province	1	1	..	62	88	26
British India (including minor administrations).	421	422	+1	53,151	57,948	4,797

In *Madras*, the number of institutions has been reduced from 87 to 82, mainly in consequence of a policy of concentration.

In *Bombay*, the number of institutions has also decreased from 39 to 37, "but nothing more has been done in regard to the very obvious solution of concentration raised in the previous quinquennium."¹

The *Bengal* report comments favourably on the "increasing tendency among European and Anglo-Indian students to take advantage of university education through the facilities which the Intermediate classes attached to European schools offer... There is every indication that a new direction has

¹Bombay, page 174.

been given to the higher studies of Anglo-Indians and that university qualifications will be more largely sought after than in the past."¹

There has been activity in the *Punjab* in building construction. Loreto Convent, Simla, completed the erection of a new school building at a cost of over Rs. one lakh, towards which Government awarded a grant of Rs. 50,000; St. Edwards' School, Simla, constructed a new block of class-rooms, towards which Government contributed Rs. 19,885. The Bishop Cotton School, Simla, rebuilt its kitchens and store-rooms and also constructed a fine assembly hall and library on the top floor. At Lawrence College, Ghora Gali, a new hostel has been erected, the cost of which was almost entirely defrayed by the Diocesan Board of Education. The report observes that "little more remains to be done in the extension of facilities for European education. The majority of the schools are commodious and modern. The present accommodation should prove sufficient for many years to come."²

In *Bihar*, the buildings of Bishop Westcott Boys' School, Namkun, have been satisfactorily completed, and the eastern part of St. Michael's School, Kurji, has been rebuilt so as to provide a fine dormitory, a hall and ample accommodation for bathing.

The impression conveyed by provincial reports is that, though the schools have been hard hit by the economic depression and though little has been found possible in material improvements and expansion, much promising work has been done in trying circumstances.

10. The following Table shows that the percentage of trained teachers in all provinces has improved during the quinquennium; the total percentage of 68.3 trained teachers is far from unsatisfactory.

TABLE CXXI.
Teachers in European schools.

Province.	Number of teachers.			Percentage of trained teachers to total number of teachers.	
	Trained teachers.	Untrained teachers.	Total.	1927.	1932.
Madras	559	109	758	69.9	73.7
Bombay	257	134	391	56.6	65.7
Bengal	483	310	793	55.9	60.9
United Provinces	377	117	494	67.9	76.3
Punjab	172	68	240	66.5	71.7
Burma	346	101	447	69.2	77.4
Bihar and Orissa	77	36	113	59.3	68.1
Central Provinces	86	69	155	52.0	55.5
Assam	32	8	40	86.5	80.0
North-West Frontier Province	5	..	5	..	100.0
British India (including minor administrations).	2,601	1,207	3,808	63.0	68.3

¹ Bengal, page 87.

² Punjab, page 108.

The *Madras* report repeats the observation of five years ago that "there is a reluctance on the part of young men and women leaving European schools to enter the teaching profession, and that the few who qualify are attracted to other provinces where they can more often obtain remunerative employment than in this Presidency."¹ There are three training classes for women teachers in the Presidency.

There are no separate training colleges for men in *Bengal*, *Bombay* and the *United Provinces*, but teachers are sent on deputation to the College at Ghora Gali.

Arrangements are made in *Bengal* for the training of women teachers at the Dow Hill Training College, where 41 teachers were trained during the quinquennium.

In the *United Provinces* the supply of women teachers is met by two training departments at All Saints Diocesan College, Naini Tal, and Woodstock College, Mussoorie, which train about twelve to fifteen qualified teachers annually. The report states that "few of the domiciled community possess good science degrees; teachers of the subject have often been recruited from England or from among Indian teachers specially trained in science. Girls' schools seldom find mistresses strong in mathematics and capable of teaching the subject satisfactorily in the higher stages. The supply of physical training mistresses has improved."²

The *Punjab* report records that "the designation of Chelmsford Training Class, Ghora Gali, was altered to that of Chelmsford Training College in 1928. This institution works in close contact with the Intermediate College and School and trains teachers for the rest of India. The reorganisation of the course referred to in the last report has proved successful, as several of the students have since proceeded to B. A. and B. Sc. degrees."³

Training of women teachers is provided in St. Bede's College, Simla. The course of training has been revised in order to bring it in closer relation with the F. A. examination of Punjab University. In 1929, additional stipends were granted for a third year of study in order to enable selected students to compete for this examination.

For kindergarten teachers, a training class is attached to St. Denys High School, Murree.

11. There has been criticism of the staffing of European schools to the effect that only a small number of posts are filled by members of the domiciled community and that very few indeed have been placed in charge of important schools. There have been some grounds for this criticism, but it should be borne in mind that in the past members of the community have been reluctant to join the teaching profession and that comparatively few have become trained; very few indeed have become graduates and received training.

¹ Madras, page 121.

² U. P., page 79.

³ Punjab, page 111.

TABLE CXXII.

Members of the domiciled community on the staffs of European schools.

Province.	Teachers.			Headmasters.	
	(A) Total number.	(B) Members of the domiciled commu- nity.	Percentage of (B) to (A).	Total number.	Members of the domiciled commu- nity.
Madras	750	454	60.5	79	36
Bombay	373	190	50.9	37	12
Bengal	228	150	66.3	14	(a)
United Provinces	510	389	76.3	48	32
Punjab	258	159	62.1	32	(a)
Burma	515	356	69.1	35	11
Bihar and Orissa	113	84	74.3	20	15
Central Provinces	156	77	49.3	18	3
Assam*	8	1	12.5	1	
North-West Frontier Province	5	4	80.0	1	(a)
Delhi	17	9	52.9	2	2
Ajmer-Merwara	63	37	58.7	9	5
Bangalore	188	157	83.5	20	(a)

N.B.—The figures given in this table were compiled after the close of the quinquennium and are not based on the General Educational Tables for 1931-32.

(a) Information not available.

* Only for one Government school for girls.

This Table shows that a large percentage of the staffs of European schools are members of the domiciled community; at the same time few *fas* yet have been placed in charge of important schools. Far greater facilities have been provided in recent years, however, for young men and women reading in the schools to take the Intermediate examination of an Indian university; many of these have also succeeded at a later date in taking a degree, often through availing themselves of the concession given to teachers of appearing as private candidates by universities.

For example, the Principal, Chelmsford Training College, Ghora Gali, has stated that, of the 55 students who have been trained in the College, as many as 22 have subsequently graduated from a university; some, indeed, have taken a Master's degree. Moreover, all these 55 students, with one single exception, have obtained teaching posts.

The following passage from the Bombay report is relevant in this connexion :

"The practice has continued (but, now especially, is tending to decrease owing to financial difficulties) of recruiting specialist graduate teachers from England to fill senior positions in the schools. As a rule, these teachers are without experience and are untrained; it is rare to find them accepting a renewal of contract, which is usually for three or four years in the first instance. Non-European teachers in European high schools are almost invariably graduates, often with a post-graduate degree in theory of teaching. As these contracts expire, about half of the English recruited teachers are being replaced by recruits from this country."¹

12. Another controversial matter is the scheme of examinations, for which these schools prepare their pupils. The position varies in the provinces, but the popularity of the Cambridge examinations is steadily increasing.

In *Madras*, the European School Leaving Certificate Board was reconstituted in 1929-30 and was given the duty of selecting text-books for examinations. All schools, except two which prepare pupils for the Cambridge examinations, prepare pupils for the High and Middle School Certificate examinations which are conducted by the Board.

In *Bombay*, "the Cambridge local examinations have been found entirely suitable by almost all European schools. Those who pass the Cambridge School Certificate examination are entitled to entrance into colleges affiliated to the Home universities or to other professional institutions. This examination is also regarded as equivalent to Matriculation by Bombay University under certain conditions All European schools prepare for the Cambridge examinations and are generally opposed to substituting Matriculation for the Cambridge examination, though many see no objection to adapting the courses to suit the requirements of both examinations."²

In *Bengal*, 73 candidates appeared for the Matriculation examination of Calcutta University and 103 for the Cambridge School Certificate in 1931-32. The advantages of the latter examination are thus summarised: the work is continuous without capricious changes in the system; the conductors of the examination are experts; there is uniformity of standard; the examiners are expert; the development of educational practice in England is continually affecting the curricula of the examinations.

The matter is discussed in some detail in the report of the *United Provinces* :

"There is among educational authorities, publicists and others in India ever-recurring discussion concerning the suitability or otherwise of the Cambridge examinations as the standard examinations for pupils in European schools; but so far no alternative scheme has been put forward which satisfies the schoolmaster, and the adoption of these examinations by most provinces in India is an advantage where, in such a community as the Anglo-Indian, pupils move from one province to another. The increase in the number of optional subjects in recent years has met the demands for more elasticity. It is yet true that, with all these improvements, much of the work prescribed is far from ideal when considered in connexion with the requirements of a certain proportion of the pupils—in particular, those in orphanages and others of the poorer classes. Boys of the same class in England go to public elementary schools which have no connexion with the Cambridge or other Local examinations; their education is designed to fit them for certain walks of life; many become skilled and unskilled labourers and skilled workmen of various

¹ Bombay, page 185.

² Bombay, pages 181-182.

types. Whilst the problem of future employment is daily becoming more acute for boys leaving European schools, the difficulties will be felt more severely by boys of this class than by others who can be educated to higher stages and whose parents have stronger financial backing. It is difficult to devise and work a scheme which will suit the poorer classes of the domiciled community."¹

In the *Punjab*, there has been a departure from the departmental to the Cambridge examinations during the quinquennium, the reasons for which are explained in the report :

"The year under record is the first year when all high schools have sent in candidates for the Cambridge School Certificate examination. This examination was substituted for the departmental High School examination, which was held for the last time in 1930. A considerable body of opinion regretted the abolition of this examination on the grounds that an examination controlled by a body in close touch with the schools and their conditions . . . was in a better position to test satisfactorily the pupils of the schools. It was decided, however, to abolish the High School examination, as it was not recognised in England by any English university. A great majority of schools preferred the Cambridge examinations, as it was difficult to find examiners, in all subjects, not directly connected with the schools and also familiar with European schools standards."²

There has been a similar tendency in *Bihar* :

"I have discussed with headmasters the question whether the Cambridge examinations should give way to the Patna University Matriculation. We still have open minds on the subject. At present the balance of argument is in favour of retaining the Cambridge examinations. They form a series of examinations, of which the Junior examination marks the stage at which many pupils, especially girls, end their school life. On the whole the papers are more educationally sound, and the School Certificate is held in higher repute than the Indian matriculation. There is therefore no handicap. The Calcutta University allows the I. A. examination to be taken in one year by holders of the School Certificate in certain groups of subjects. The schools, however, at present allow their whole curriculum to be controlled by the examination, which leads to a far too purely literary schooling, especially in the case of girls. More emphasis should be laid on such subjects as needlework, hygiene and infant care. In boys' schools there should be a corresponding emphasis on subjects such as geometrical and mechanical drawing, woodwork and modelling."³

In the *Central Provinces*, the Cambridge examinations were substituted for the departmental examinations in 1928-29.

13. There is thus a balance of argument in favour of the Cambridge examinations so long as there is no co-ordinating authority in India capable of organising and conducting an all-India system of examinations, which would be suited to Indian requirements and also acceptable to authorities in the United Kingdom. It is difficult to believe, however, that examinations which are conducted, however efficiently, many thousand miles away can be really suitable to Indian conditions ; a greater degree of flexibility is required. Though, again, the passing of these examinations is of undoubted advantage to those who wish to continue their education in England, the poorer pupils are placed at a disadvantage. The vast bulk of the children will live their lives in India ; the scheme of education should not therefore be lacking in contact with Indian conditions.

The number of those who take the Intermediate examination and subsequently join a university or professional college is growing rapidly, especially in Bengal, the United Provinces and the Punjab. This is a move in the right direction.

¹ U. P., page 80.

² Punjab, page 108.

³ B. & O., page 84.

14. Another question which has aroused controversy in the past is the admission of Indian pupils to European schools. The following Table shows the enrolment of non-European pupils in European schools. There has been a large increase in recent years, the number having advanced from 4,838 to 9,599 in the previous quinquennium and again to 13,055 during the quinquennium under review.

TABLE CXXIII.

Enrolment of non-European pupils in European schools.

Province.	(A) Total No. of pupils.	(B) No. of non- European pupils.	Percentage of (B) to (A).
Madras	10,759	1,602	14·9
Bombay	5,456	1,259	23·1
Bengal	11,586	2,323	20·1
United Provinces	6,564	919	14·0
Punjab	2,847	357	12·5
Burma	10,191	4,292	42·1
Bihar and Orissa	1,624	189	11·6
Central Provinces	2,801	873	31·2
Assam	384	57	14·8
North-West Frontier Province	88	49	55·6
British India (including minor administrations).	57,948	13,055	22·5

It was suggested in the last Review that "the policy of admitting Indian pupils to European schools is sound, provided that the proportion does not exceed a definite limit, and that they are admitted on equal terms with others and at the same rate of fees. The proportion of Indians might vary as between boarding and day schools, and be higher in the latter type of school."

This policy is now generally accepted throughout India. The *United Provinces* came into line during the quinquennium :

"For a long time there has been increasing pressure for the extension of facilities for Indians in respect of their admission to European schools. Results are shown (a) in the raising of the maximum percentage from 15 to 25; (b) in the abolition of the higher rates of fees previously charged to non-Europeans with, however, the payment of attendance grants on their behalf; (c) in the introduction of rules which allow non-Europeans to enjoy the emoluments of scholarships awarded under the European Schools Code."¹

¹ U. P., page 77.

(iii) *The Education of Muslims.*

15. The Muslim population of British India is approximately 67 millions or 24·7 per cent. of the total population.

TABLE CXXIV.
School enrolment of Muslims.

Year.	Number of Muslim pupils in all institutions.	Percentage.		
		Muslim population of total population.	Muslim pupils of Muslim population.	Muslim pupils of total pupils.
1921-22	1,966,442	24·1	3·3	23·5
1926-27	2,821,109	24·1	4·7	25·3
1931-32	3,408,758	24·7	5·2	26·7
Increase between 1922 and 1927	854,667	..	1·4	1·8
Increase between 1927 and 1932	587,649	0·6	0·5	1·4

These figures are generally satisfactory from the quantitative point of view. An increase of 854,667 Muslim pupils in the 1922-27 quinquennium coupled with one of 587,649 in the 1927-32 quinquennium, or an increase of 1,442,316 in a decade, indicates the rapidity with which the school enrolment of Muslims is increasing. Whereas in 1932 the Muslim population formed 24·7 per cent. of the total population in British India, Muslim pupils formed 26·7 per cent. of the total number of pupils enrolled from all communities.

The provincial figures are given below.

TABLE CXXV.

Muslim pupils and population, with comparative percentages.

Province.	1927.				1932.			
	Muslim pupils (all institutions).	Percentage.			Muslim pupils (all institutions).	Percentage.		
		Muslim population of total population.	Muslim pupils of Muslim population.	Muslim pupils of total pupils.		Muslim population of total population.	Muslim pupils of Muslim population.	Muslim pupils of total pupils.
Madras	278,568	6.7	9.8	11.0	319,506	7.1	9.7	10.9
Bombay	209,913	19.6	5.5	18.2	259,003	20.4	5.8	19.4
Bengal	1,140,140	54.0	4.5	48.7	1,437,978	54.9	5.2	51.7
United Provinces	244,697	14.3	3.8	18.2	282,782	14.8	3.9	18.6
Punjab	590,834	55.3	5.2	50.0	675,081	56.5	5.1	50.6
Burma	24,776	3.8	5.0	3.8	32,431	4.0	5.5	4.5
Bihar and Orissa	144,911	10.9	3.9	13.1	148,141	11.3	3.5	13.5
Central Provinces	37,920	4.1	6.7	9.5	49,249	4.4	7.2	10.7
Assam	74,831	29.0	3.4	25.9	108,802	32.0	3.9	29.2
British India (including minor administrations).	2,821,109	24.1	4.7	25.3	3,408,758	24.7	5.2	26.7

The following Table gives the percentages for Muslim girls reading in recognised institutions :

TABLE CXXVI.

Percentage of Muslim girl pupils in recognised institutions.

Province.	Percentage of Muslim girl pupils to Muslim female population.		Percentage of all girl pupils to total female population.	
	1926-27.	1931-32.	1926-27	1931-32.
Madras	3.8	4.8	2.5	3.1
Bombay	2.3	2.7	2.4	2.8
Bengal	1.8	2.3	1.8	2.3
United Provinces	0.5	0.7	0.6	0.7
Punjab	0.5	0.7	0.8	1.3
Burma	3.1	3.4	2.6	2.9
Bihar and Orissa	1.2	1.1	0.7	0.6
Central Provinces	1.5	2.6	0.6	0.8
Assam	0.4	0.9	1.0	1.4
British India (including minor administrations).	1.4	1.8	1.5	1.8

16. A closer examination of these figures, however, will disclose disquieting features. The vast majority of Muslim boys do not proceed further than the primary stage. In 1932, Muslims formed 30.5 per cent. of the total in Class I; in Class II they formed only 25.3 per cent; in Class V only 19.4 per cent. In the middle stage there were only 165,144 pupils or 18.2 per cent. of the total; in the high stage only 47,031 or 15.0 per cent. of the total. In colleges and universities there were only 13,302 students or 13.6 per cent. of the total.

The position of Muslim girls is even more disturbing. In 1932, there were 647,713 Muslim girls at school and college, or 26.0 per cent. of the total. In Class I they formed 28.6 per cent of the total, but in Class V only 9.87 of the total. There were only 4,591 or 6.5 per cent. in the middle stage; and 594 or 4.1 per cent. in the high stage. There were only 127 Muslim girls in all colleges and universities.

The Census literacy figures are equally disquieting. In all communities the number of literates by no means reflects school attendance figures as large numbers of school children never attain literacy, but this disappointing tendency is more prevalent among Muslims than among most other communities. The Census Commissioner, Punjab, has suggested as a reason that Muslims are mainly agriculturists and therefore require the labour of their children at an early age before they have attained literacy. Conditions of life in the villages are also such that relapse into illiteracy is very frequent; nor do Muslims ordinarily pursue occupations in life such as would encourage them to attain literacy at a later age.

17. The main reason why Muslims in large numbers are unable to reach the higher school stage is loyalty to their traditional learning and religion. The Hartog Committee distinguished between 'separate' and 'special' institutions. The former type includes Islamia colleges which prepare for university examinations; Islamia secondary schools which prepare for Matriculation; Islamia primary schools, many of which are maintained by district authorities.

'Special' schools comprise an extensive net-work of Islamic maktabas, madrassahs and Koran schools, Mulla schools in Sind, culminating in higher institutions of oriental learning such as those at Deoband and Lucknow. Only an insignificant proportion of the pupils attending these schools make sufficient progress in their general studies to enable them to make headway at a later stage.

In some provinces very large numbers of Muslim pupils attend these 'special' schools. In *Bengal* the number of boys in maktabas increased from 448,968 to 614,717 and that of girls from 179,478 to 244,816. The enrolment of Mulla schools in *Sind* advanced from 24,022 to 31,896, an increase of 32·8 per cent. In the *United Provinces*, enrolment in recognised maktabas increased from 43,973 to 53,070; in *Bihar* from 86,384 to 87,347.

18. Provincial reports, however, are generally optimistic.

In *Madras*, literacy is more advanced among Muslim men and less advanced among Muslim women in comparison with other communities, but "the most depressing features of Muslim elementary schools continued to be the high wastage, the comparatively greater stagnation of pupils and the poor qualifications of teachers."¹

In accordance with the recommendations of a committee appointed to consider the education of Mappillas, "the policy has been to develop Mappilla schools on lines most acceptable to the community".² Wastage in these 'segregate' schools is reported to be very high.

A satisfactory feature in *Bombay* is that "the percentage increase was larger in secondary schools and colleges than in primary schools, and the largest was in arts colleges."

The important event of the quinquennium was the opening of Ismail College, Andheri, in 1930, which owes its existence to the donation of Rs. 8 lakhs by Sir Mohammed Yusuf.

It has been suggested that "the necessity of learning two languages has tended to retard the progress of Muslim youths. Government, however, have been guided by the desire of the community, and the Department has loyally given effect to this desire even when it felt that the material advantages of Muhammadans would be better served in their competition with other communities by their accepting the local vernacular as their chief medium of instruction in schools."³

The *Bengal* report starts in a vein of pessimism:

"Wastage is much greater among Muhammadan pupils. In the infant class three children out of five are Muslims, but in Class IV only two out of five, in Class VII only one

¹ Madras, page 126.

² Madras, page 127.

³ Bombay, page 198.

four, in Class XI only one in six. Of Muslim boys in the primary stage only one in twelve is in the upper primary class; of the girls only one in 120. By the census of 1921, 9.5 per cent. of Muslim men were literate; by the census of 1931 the percentage was still only 9.8. Among Muslim women, however, the increase has been more rapid, from 0.5 to 1.5 per cent. By far the greater number of Muslim pupils never get beyond the lowest class."¹

The report goes on to show, however, that there has been progress. In the previous quinquennium the number of Muslim pupils in the middle and high stages was relatively declining, but this retrogression has been arrested. Pupils in the high stage increased by nearly 50 per cent., and those in the middle stage by over 63 per cent. The percentage of Muslims to all pupils in the high stage has risen from 15.5 to 18.7 and in the middle stage from 19.3 to 24.7. The number in the upper primary classes has nearly doubled. The number of students in colleges has fallen, but this is true of all communities and has been the result of economic depression.

The progress of Muslims is retarded by "general apathy to that culture which a liberal education such as is imparted in ordinary schools gives; to the scarcity of Muslim-managed high schools; to inadequate facilities near the centres of Muslim population; to poverty of the mass of Muslims; to preference shown for special institutions, maktabas and madrasahs, which combine secular education with the teaching of Islamic ritual and religion."¹

In the *Punjab*, practically all Muslim pupils attend the ordinary primary schools, while in the secondary stage they attend either the ordinary institutions or Islamia secondary schools which prepare for Matriculation. Progress has been very rapid, the enrolment of Muslims having advanced from 278,340 in 1922 to 590,834 in 1927 and again to 675,061 in 1932.

In *Bihar*, "in all stages of instruction taken together Muslims remain ahead of the general level of the province; it is remarkable that during the five years the number of Muslim pupils should have risen while that of others has fallen... Muslims are making steady progress in secondary schools, being well ahead of the average in the high school stage. Improvement in the middle stage is partly due to increased facilities for teaching through the medium of Urdu."²

19. On the whole, the prospects are promising. In many provinces Muslim pupils in larger numbers are tending to reach the higher classes, but the obstacles in the way are still considerable, especially in provinces in which the vernacular system of education has been allowed to fall into decay. For the most part Muslims are agriculturists and live in rural areas. A system of education, therefore, which leads their children into the towns to schools preparing for Matriculation is unsuitable. But the greatest handicap to progress in the higher ranges of education is that children in largely increasing numbers attend segregate schools. The Hartog Committee recorded the opinion that these institutions have "undoubtedly brought Muslim pupils under instruction more extensively and more quickly than would have been the case had the only facilities been those afforded by the undenominational and publicly

¹ Bengal, page 79.

² B. & O., pages 66-67.

managed schools. But these institutions have done but little to raise the general standard of education among Muslims to that of other communities. A continuance of these institutions on a large scale will be prejudicial both to the interests of Muslims themselves and to the public interest."¹

In order to encourage more Muslims into the ordinary schools, the Committee suggested that efforts should be made to provide opportunities for religious instruction, to employ a larger number of Muslim teachers and to reserve a certain number of places for Muslim pupils. Though these suggestions bristle with difficulties, little seems to have been done in these directions. So long as segregate 'special' schools continue in such large numbers, the progress of Muslims must continue to be seriously retarded.

(iv) *Education of the Depressed Classes.*

20. The following Table gives the number of pupils from among the depressed classes which were at school at the beginning and end of the quinquennium. The largely increased enrolment gives cause for optimism.

The Table does not include figures for Burma and Assam. There are no depressed classes in Burma; in Assam, owing to the large aboriginal population, it is not easy to classify depressed classes separately.²

TABLE CXXVII.

Enrolment of depressed class pupils in all institutions.

Province.	1927.	1932.	Increase (+) or decrease (-).
Madras	228,511	338,578	+ 110,067
Bombay	(a)60,260	69,186	+ 8,926
Bengal	344,179	440,054	+ 95,875
United Provinces	94,669	125,965	+ 31,296
Punjab	19,502	34,664	+ 15,162
Bihar and Orissa	25,006	24,971	- 35
Central Provinces	34,531	47,501	+ 12,970
Total	806,653	1,080,619	+ 274,261

(a) For Bombay Presidency proper. (Figures for Sind not available.)

¹ Hartog Report, page 199.

²The Census of 1931 estimated the number of depressed classes in Assam to be 1,829,000 (Census of India, 1931, Volume I, Part I, page 474).

The Hartog Committee observed that

"Two policies have been suggested for meeting the educational needs of the depressed classes. In the view of some, their interests can best be safeguarded by a policy extending the system of segregate schools and by providing separate supervising staffs for these schools. The other policy is to admit the children of depressed classes on equal terms into the ordinary schools. . . . The latter policy is the right one. The system of segregate schools tends necessarily to emphasise rather than to reduce the differences between the depressed classes and the other Hindu castes."¹

Considerable success has been achieved in encouraging these people to send their children to the ordinary schools. Indeed, the improved position of depressed classes in the ordinary schools is one of the most pleasing features of the quinquennium.

The policy in *Madras* has been "to get the pupils of these communities admitted into existing elementary schools. In places where depressed class pupils are denied admission or have no access to existing schools and in those places where there are no educational facilities separate schools are started². . . . Deserving students of these classes have been helped by the grant of scholarships, boarding grants and stipends."³

In *Bombay*, a committee which had been appointed to enquire into the condition of the depressed classes made the following recommendations in 1930 :

- "(a) Reaffirmation of the Government policy that there should be equality of treatment for all classes of children in publicly-managed institutions ;
- (b) Encouragement of common schools as opposed to segregate schools for depressed classes ;
- (c) More frequent interchange of teachers in common and separate schools ;
- (d) Abandonment of the titles 'depressed classes' and 'low caste schools' ;
- (e) Institution of additional scholarships and relaxation of age-limits in certain conditions ;
- (f) Increasing the number of teachers belonging to backward classes in primary schools."⁴

These recommendations have been accepted by Government. Opinions vary as to the degree of success in which they have been carried out. One inspector states that "the alleged obstacle of religious bigotry has been practically removed"; another that "no caste distinction in the matter of admissions has been observed". A third, however, states that "efforts to remove disabilities are meeting with some success and old prejudices are rapidly dying out in large towns, but very slowly in villages. . . . Steps are taken to carry out the orders of Government, but there are occasions when to do so would only result in depriving the depressed classes of education altogether. A change in the attitude of the people to this matter can only come slowly and from within."⁵

In *Bengal* "very considerable progress has been made, but it has not been so startlingly rapid as in the previous quinquennium. The increase in the

¹ Hartog Report, pages 225-226.

² Madras, page 131.

³ Madras, page 133.

⁴ Bombay, page 219.

⁵ Bombay, page 220.

number of girls at school is particularly satisfactory. Education is spreading faster among the backward than among other classes."¹

The report of the *United Provinces* is very cheering, as 84 per cent. of the depressed class children at school are in board schools as compared with 75 per cent. at the beginning of the quinquennium. An inspector has stated that "the practice of boys of the depressed classes sitting outside the class room or in a separate corner has disappeared."²

The position has also been much improved in the *Punjab*: "In the quinquennium of 1922—27 the number of boys rose from 1,182 to 19,502, of which 15,308 attended ordinary schools. In this quinquennium the number has further increased by 13,693 to 33,196. The award of scholarships and other concessions has been much appreciated. As many as forty students from these classes are being trained in the Government Normal School, Jullundur, alone."³

The enrolment figures in *Bihar* have remained practically stationary, but depressed class pupils "are now found in larger numbers in ordinary schools in which teaching is more efficient than in the special schools reserved for them. Caste prejudices among the higher class Hindus in rural areas are not as strong as before. I have seen untouchable pupils sitting with pupils of higher castes in class-rooms in almost all schools visited by me in 1931-32."⁴

"In *Assam*, again, no school is closed to the children of these classes; wherever there is a demand Government provides hostel accommodation for their residence."⁵

In the *Central Provinces*, "it has been the policy of Government to discourage the opening of schools specially meant for children of depressed classes and to encourage enrolment in ordinary schools"⁶. The prejudice against the depressed classes has largely disappeared.

(v) *Education of Aboriginal and Hill Tribes.*

21. This section deals with a variety of aboriginal and hill tribes, for whom special educational provision is made.

In *Madras*, the number of schools for the Badagas, Kotas, Irulas, Panians, Kurumbas and Todas in the Nilgiris increased from 68 in 1926-27 to 75 in 1931-32, while their strength rose from 3,678 to 3,800. The Badagas are educationally the most advanced among the hill tribes owing to their homes being less scattered than the others.

There has been an appreciable increase in the number of schools intended for Tondas Lambadis, Yenadis, Chenchus and the itinerant tribe of Sugali.

¹ Bengal, page 97.

² U. P., page 85.

³ Punjab, page 116.

⁴ B. & O., page 93.

⁵ Assam, page 196.

⁶ C. P., page 100.

There were 350 institutions for aboriginal and hill tribes in the Agency Tracts with 9,789 pupils as against 301 schools and 8,517 pupils in the beginning of the quinquennium. The more important of these tribes are Savaras, Jatapus, Valmiki, Khondadoras, Koyas, Khondareddis, etc. The number of girls reading in elementary schools in the Agency was 611.

Altogether, there were 21,546 pupils belonging to the aboriginal and hill tribes under instruction throughout the Presidency.

Bhils are the most numerous of these tribes in *Bombay*, other important tribes being Varlis, Dhodias and Mahadev Kolis. The total number of pupils increased from 20,847 to 24,006. Of these, 17 were in colleges, 90 in secondary schools, 23,180 in primary schools, 15 in training institutions and 704 in other special schools. The policy of Government has been "to collect boys of these communities in central schools and to teach them in Standards V, VI & VII and prepare them for the Vernacular Final examination. These then serve as teachers in the jungle and hill villages inhabited by the community, where teachers of other communities are loath to go."¹

Of aboriginal tribes in *Bengal*, Santals are the most important. In 1931-32, there were altogether 334 schools exclusively intended for them. The number of Santal pupils increased from 9,527 in 1926-27 to 12,477 in 1931-32.

In Chittagong Hill Tracts, there were 158 recognised schools for the education of aboriginal and hill tribes. The total number of pupils was 3,250.

The population of aboriginal tribes in *Bihar* is approximately 4·30 millions, of whom 2·616 millions are located in Chota Nagpur, 1·117 millions in Bhagalpur and 0·295 million in Orissa divisions. The total number of pupils of these tribes attending school has remained almost stationary, being 79,488 as against 79,689 in the previous quinquennium. Of the four Government elementary training schools for aborigines, three were closed during the last year of the quinquennium, it being found that the school at Taljhari could supply sufficient trained teachers to fill vacancies in the staffs. There are two aided training schools and four aided training classes for aboriginal men and women respectively. Aboriginal pupils are admitted on a specially low scale of fees to all Government schools; two senior and seven junior scholarships and ten special free studentships in colleges are reserved for them. The expenditure earmarked for aborigines amounted to Rs. 54,710 in 1931-32 as against Rs. 53,973 in 1926-27.

Four out of twelve districts in *Assam* are inhabited by hill tribes. The number of pupils receiving secondary education increased from 2,569 in 1926-27 to 4,431 in 1931-32, while the number of primary school pupils increased from 17,629 to 20,876.

The total number of institutions in Garo Hills increased from 164 in 1926-27 to 201 in 1931-32, while the enrolment rose from 5,045 to 5,684. The number of middle English schools remained stationary at seven, while primary schools increased from 156 to 193.

¹ *Bombay*, page 223.

Other hill districts are the North Cachar Hills and the Manipur State. Proposals for the improvement of education in the North Cachar Hills have been under consideration, but have been held in abeyance pending the decision as to the future method of administering the hill tracts.

There are several difficulties in securing the progress of education in these hill districts of Assam. The inspecting staff is inadequate; and difficulty of communication and absence of post offices in most villages render the task of inspectors very difficult. Language problems present further obstacles. Many Khasi parents desire their children to learn Bengali in addition to the Khasi vernacular, as this is indispensable for their trade and other business transactions with the peoples of the plains. In the Naga Hills, Assamese is taught as a second language even at the primary stage and has to be taken for the Middle English and High School examinations. In consequence, Naga pupils are handicapped in their higher education.

(vi) *Education of Criminal Tribes.*

22. In *Madras*, there are settlements for criminal tribes at five places. Each settlement has a school, at which attendance is compulsory. In 1931-32, 1,146 pupils (of whom 499 were girls) were under instruction. The industrial schools for girls at Nellore and that for boys in Perambur have been closed. Reclamation work on behalf of Kallars, including provision of facilities for the education of their children, was continued in Madura, Ramnad and Tanjore districts. In 1931-32, the number of schools for Kallars was 333 with a strength of 16,331. Boarding homes for Kallar pupils are maintained, while 783 scholarships and fee remissions are granted to pupils reading in ordinary schools. A scheme for the reclamation of Koravas, a criminal tribe in the Salem district, was introduced during the quinquennium.

In *Bombay*, schools in criminal tribes settlements are under the control of the "Backward Class Officer", who was formerly designated "Criminal Tribes Settlement Officer". Education in settlements is compulsory; boys and girls are required to attend school up to the age of thirteen and, in the case of half-timers in the mills, up to the age of fifteen. There were 1,976 pupils in day schools and 298 in night schools in these settlements out of a population of 7,786. Manual training is a special feature of settlement schools, and trades such as carpentry, tailoring, weaving, smithing, shoe-making and agriculture are taught. There has been marked advance in literacy among these tribes, and children of both sexes are encouraged to pass on to the higher stages. The Special Officer has remarked that "the day may not be too far distant when settler boys and girls will compete along with candidates from other castes for recruitment to the higher posts in Government service."¹

Owing to their nomadic and unsettled mode of life, the criminal tribes of *Bengal* are not easily susceptible to the influence of education. There is an industrial settlement for one of the tribes—the Karwal Nats—in Rangpur district; its management has been placed in the hands of the Salvation Army, and various industries such as weaving and carpet making are taught.

In the *United Provinces*, four schools are maintained by the Salvation Army in its settlements for criminal tribes. Of these, two are located in Moradabad district for the benefit of Haburas, one at Gorakhpur for Doms, and one in

¹Bombay, page 226.

Kheri district. The total number of pupils was 325 as against 260 in the previous quinquennium. There is also a district board school at Sigra in Muzaffarnagar for Bawaryas.

The total number of schools for boys and girls of criminal tribes in the Punjab rose from 44 in 1927 to 59 in 1932, and the enrolment from 1,597 to 2,391. In addition, the number of pupils attending village schools rose from 3,650 to 6,304. The total number of pupils now forms 5·8 per cent. of the population which, when compared with the general average for the Punjab (5·6 per cent.), is satisfactory. An anglo-vernacular middle school at Kacha Khuh is maintained by members of the criminal tribes with Government aid; it included on its rolls 56 boys of zemindars of the locality in addition to their own pupils.

Many provincial reports refer to the admirable influence exercised by Boy Scout and Girl Guide troops which are maintained in settlements.

CHAPTER X.

MISCELLANEOUS.

(i) *Education in the Army.*

The aims and organisation of education in the Army have been described in previous Reviews ; these in essentials have remained the same, but there have been developments and improvements during the last five years.

2. In 1931, a new edition of " Educational Training ", based very largely on the experience of the work done in the British Army during the last ten years, was published. Education in the Army in India to-day is based on this manual.

In *British* units steady work is now carried out on an organised and progressive system. Instruction for the more elementary certificates is mainly conducted by regimental instructors, who have qualified as such in the Army Schools of Education at Shorncliffe or Belgaum : that for the First Class and Special Certificates is given by members of the Army Educational Corps, the examinations being regulated centrally by the War Office in London.

TABLE CXXVIII.

Percentage of British troops holding educational certificates.

Year.	Special.	1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.	Nil.
1930	·15	5·4	55·3	35·2	3·7
1931	·25	7·0	55·5	33·3	2·7
1932	·26	8·57	56·22	30·08	2·7

Advantage of sitting for external examinations of London University, the Royal Society of Arts, etc., is also taken by a number of soldiers serving in India.

3. An annual average of 1,100 British soldiers in the last nine months of their service are now trained in various trades in India, a proportion of whom find suitable employment in this country.

In addition, 500 men are permitted annually to attend vocational training centres in the United Kingdom. These men remain on the Indian establishment until they have completed their course, when they are discharged or transferred to the reserve in the United Kingdom.

The War Office have recently introduced a scheme whereby all soldiers are compulsorily registered at Employment Exchanges before leaving the Colours. It is hoped thereby to simplify the method of registration and to provide regiments and corps and their associations with statistics (and names, if required) of those who have found employment. Full particulars are given in the pamphlet "*Civil Employment for Ex-Regular Soldiers*".

4. The Army has striven to improve facilities for the education of children of British soldiers serving in India. The difficulties in obtaining adequate and suitable school accommodation both in the plains and the hills and the inconvenience caused by frequent moves are great. Nevertheless, new schools have been built or old buildings reconditioned; improved quarters for school-mistresses have been made available; schools are now more adequate, suitable, and better organised than in the past.

The experiment of employing the temporary services of a few London County Council school-mistresses has not always proved a success. Schools, however, are now staffed with competent Army school-mistresses; and in a few of the bigger military stations large amalgamated schools (for infants as well as for older children) have been formed and placed under the charge of fully-qualified warrant officer instructors of the Army Educational Corps. Moreover, in all stations warrant officer and sergeant instructors of this Corps assist in the local Army children's schools for at least two hours a day. A few appointments for short service Army school-mistresses recruited in India have also been made.

5. The position of the *Lawrence Schools* is as stated in the previous Review, with the exception that

- (a) The Sanawar School now caters for 530 children;
- (b) The staff and pupils of this School are eligible to take the examinations of London University; and
- (c) The grant from Army funds to the Ghora Gali School has been discontinued.

6. In 1932, a new edition of "*Educational Training, Indian Army*" was published. The general principles of education, its organisation and syllabuses have been brought up-to-date and modifications in matters of detail have been made.

The responsibility for the educational training of the *Indian* soldier rests with the commanding officer of each unit; all instruction is carried out by unit instructors (trained at the Army School of Education, Belgaum), except in the case of work for the Special Certificate of Education and the First Class English Certificate, for which station classes are often arranged and are usually undertaken by personnel of the Army Educational Corps.

The general purpose of this branch of training is to assist in producing a disciplined soldier who can think and act on his own initiative. The syllabuses are largely connected with matters and problems of military life and represent a blend of general, semi-military and military subjects such as mathematics, geography (chiefly Imperial), Indian history, Urdu and English, regimental history, map reading, reconnaissance citizenship and Empire study.

7. The standard of work has advanced in a marked degree. This is due, first, to the keenness of the Indian soldier; he is wholeheartedly anxious to learn and thereby to better his prospects. Moreover, the possibility of gaining admission to the Indian Military Academy and of thereby gaining a King's Commission has stimulated still further the demand for higher education in the Indian Army.

A knowledge of English has become increasingly important. A beginning has been made to spread a wider knowledge of English amongst the Indian other ranks. There are certain factors which tend to render this new task less difficult than might have been expected. An increasing number of recruits already possess at least a rudimentary knowledge of English; boys from the King George's Royal Indian Military Schools have also learnt English for several years before joining the service; and a number of men of good education with a more advanced knowledge of English are enlisting in the hopes of gaining a King's Commission.

8. The following Table indicates the great progress which has been made in educational training:

TABLE CXXIX.

Percentage of Indian troops holding educational certificates.

Year.	Special.	1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.	Uncertificated (including those who have passed recruits' test).
1930	·06	3·1	16·0	24·3	56·2
1931	·06	3·4	16·7	23·6	56·3
1932	·1	5·03	15·8	25·8	53·0

9. *The School of Education, Belgaum*, was re-organised in 1932; its curriculum has been altered, and educational courses for British officers have been abandoned. Its main purpose, however, remains the same; to train non-commissioned officers (British and Indian) in the practice of teaching.

Much research and experiment in the teaching of English to the Indian soldier have also been carried out. Satisfactory results are now being

obtained and many Indian non-commissioned officers, who arrive with no knowledge of English, return to their units with a very fair working knowledge of the language.

10. *The King George's Schools at Jhelum and Jullundur* were instituted some eight years ago. They are admirably laid out and equipped, and well-designed for their purpose.

English is taught throughout the course; games, physical and elementary military training are special features; as a result, the Indian Army is receiving into its ranks a steady flow of good recruits. The third of these schools was opened at Ajmer in November, 1930, and will reach its full strength of 210 boys in September, 1934. The intention of establishing four more of these schools has been abandoned owing to the financial situation. In order to improve the standard of instruction in English, a British warrant officer of the Army Educational Corps has been added to the establishment of each School. With this facility it is hoped that the Schools will provide a quota of Indian Army cadets for the Indian Military Academy. One of the boys has already been admitted to the Academy:

11. The course for improving the standard of troop and platoon commanders in *Kitchener College* was initiated in 1929, but it has since been decided that, as it provided only for general subjects, it should be discontinued. In its place, an advanced educational course was instituted in 1932, the object being to provide facilities for sixty soldiers of the Indian Army in each year to prepare themselves for the Indian Army Special Certificate of Education, which is one of the qualifications necessary for nomination to an Indian Army cadetship at the Indian Military Academy.

12. Consequent to the institution of the Indian Military Academy, Dehra Dun, the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich, and the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, have been closed to Indian and Anglo-Indian boys.

The Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College, Dehra Dun, now trains boys for the Indian Military Academy, from which commissions, in the Indian land forces are obtained; for the Royal Air Force College, Cranwell, from which commissions in the Indian Air Force are obtained; and for the Royal Indian Marine. The education is as stated in the previous Review; and the Diploma examination remains in force. The establishment of the College has been further increased to 130 cadets, which number will be reached in August, 1933.

(ii) *Reformatories.*

13. The Table below shows that there has been an increase of three in the number of reformatories (two in Madras and one in Bengal), and of 563 in the number of inmates. The total expenditure has increased by Rs. 30,932, but the average cost per boy has decreased in all provinces except in the United Provinces and Bihar.

TABLE CXXX.

Strength and expenditure of Reformatories.

Province.	1926-27.				1931-32.			
	Number of schools (places).	No. of boys.	Expenditure.	Average cost per boy.	Number of schools (places).	Number of boys.	Expenditure.	Average cost per boy.
			Rs.	Rs.			Rs.	Rs.
Madras	2 (Chinglepet. Ranipet.)	363	56,524	155.7	4 (Chinglepet Ranipet, Alipuram, Madras.)	593	72,610	122.4
Bombay	3 (Yeravda, Matunga, Byculla.)	665	1,53,142	241.8	3 (Yeravda, Matunga, Byculla.)	620	1,45,184	234.2
Bengal	1 (Calcutta.)	81	8,436	165.4	2 (Calcutta, Bankura.)	492	72,766	147.0
United Provinces ..	1 (Chunar.)	151	56,282	373.7	1 (Chunar.)	126	52,941	392.2
Punjab	1 (Delhi.)	119	42,929	360.7	1 (Delhi.)	127	43,476	342.3
Burma	1 (Insein.)	106	40,855	378.3	1 (Thayetyaya.)	99	22,406	226.3
Bihar and Orissa ..	1 (Hazaribagh.)	364	1,20,324	339.9	1 (Hazaribagh.)	223	1,00,042	438.0
Total	10	1,731	4,78,422	276.4	13	2,294	5,09,424	222.1

14. Of the four reformatories and certified schools in *Madras*, three are managed by Government and the fourth is an aided institution. The junior certified school, Rajahmundry, has been transferred to Alipuram in Bellary district.

There are three reformatory institutions in *Bombay*; one at Yeravda is managed by Government and the other two are aided institutions. Government have undertaken to make good any reasonable deficit in the David Sassoon Industrial and Reformatory Institute at Matunga, near Bombay, provided that no new expenditure is incurred without previous sanction. The Willingdon Boys' Home, Bombay, is maintained by the Salvation Army and receives grant-in-aid from Government.

The control of the Reformatory and Industrial School, Alipore, in *Bengal*, has been transferred from the Jail to the Education Department; the Director of Public Instruction has been appointed chief inspector.

The Reformatory School in the *United Provinces* is located at Chunar, while the school in Delhi is managed by the *Punjab* Government. In 1931, the reformatory at Insein in *Burma* was closed and the pupils were transferred to the Borstal Institute at Thayetmyo. In *Bihar*, the number of inmates at the Hazaribagh Reformatory School has been reduced, as juvenile offenders are no longer sent to that institution from Calcutta and Howrah.

15. General improvement in the training has been reported from these institutions. In addition to teaching in general subjects the boys are given training in a number of crafts. Attention is also paid to games and healthy exercise; boy scout troops are maintained in many institutions. Every endeavour is made to create in the boys a spirit of self-respect and to encourage a feeling that they are in a school, not in a penitentiary.

16. There has been a certain amount of legislation in regard to these institutions.

The *Bombay Children Act*, which was passed in 1924, came into operation in May, 1927, its main object being to wean juvenile delinquents from evil tendencies and to preserve them from corrupt habits. Since the Act came into force, eleven industrial and educational institutions for boys (including the three reformatory schools) have been certified for this purpose; and the upper age-limit of admission has been raised from fifteen to sixteen years.

The *Bombay Borstal Schools Act of 1929* came into operation on April 1, 1931. It provides for the establishment of Borstal schools, which admit boys from 16 to 21 years of age and may retain them at school up to a maximum age of 23.

Although these Acts apply equally to girls as to boys, difficulty has been experienced in devising arrangements for dealing with girls. In 1929, Government directed that girls below sixteen years of age awaiting trial and sentenced to imprisonment should be detained in any one of the eight institutions certified for the purpose. Government pay to these institutions a grant of Rs. 15 per mensem for each juvenile female convict sent to them.

17. Attention is paid to the after-careers of boys discharged from reformatories.

In 1931-32, out of 225 boys discharged from the three reformatory schools in *Bombay*, seventy have been reported as being in employment and only three have been re-convicted. Similarly, out of the 180 boys discharged from the Chunar School in the *United Provinces*, 112 obtained employment and only six have been re-convicted.

Many associations are dealing with this difficult problem, such as the Borstal Schools Association in *Bombay* and the After-Care Association in *Bengal*. The Children's Aid Society, *Bombay*, has continued to do valuable work.

(iii) Education of defectives.

18. According to the census of 1931, there were at least 108,434 defective children (blind and deaf-mutes) in India, between the ages of five and fifteen. Provision for their education and training continues to be inadequate, but full use is not even made of existing institutions.

TABLE CXXXI.

Schools for defectives.

Province.	Schools for deaf-mutes.	Schools for the blind.	Total.	Number of pupils.		
				Deaf-mutes.	Blind.	Total.
Madras	4	4	8	258	158	414
Bombay	4	3	7	151	127	278
Bengal	6	1	7*	268	78	346
United Provinces	2	2†	..	66	66
Punjab	1	1‡	..	28	28
Burma	1	2	3	27	42	69
Bihar and Orissa	2	2	..	92	92
Central Provinces	1	1	2	20	18	38
India	16	16	32	724	607	1,331

* There is also one unaided school for defectives in Bengal, with 22 pupils.

† Apart from these two schools, the Lal Singh Man Singh Industrial School, Mainpuri, has a class for the blind.

‡ There is also one aided school for defectives, with 33 pupils, the classification of which is not known.

19. In *Madras*, the number of schools for deaf-mutes has increased from three to four in consequence of the school opened by the Municipal Council at Coimbatore. The number of schools for the blind is still four, the institution of the Victory Memorial School at Poonamallee being counterbalanced by the closing of the school in Madras. The enrolment of these schools of both types has increased from 254 to 414. There is also a Leper School at Bapatla with an enrolment of 14.

There has been little progress in *Bombay*, the enrolment in these two types of school having risen only from 248 to 278. "There are no arrangements on scientific lines for the training of teachers in these schools, some of whom, however, have acquired by practice and experience some skill in handling defective children".¹ The Blind Relief Association has striven to preserve the blind from drifting into beggary by providing remunerative work for the inmates of the Home, which was instituted in 1927.

The Deaf and Dumb School, Calcutta, and the School for the Blind at Behala in the 24-Parganas are the more important of these schools in *Bengal*. The enrolment of the former institution rose from 109 to 199 during the quinquennium. Attached to it is a Teachers' Training Department, which has supplied teachers to deaf and dumb schools in various parts of the country.

Little is done in these directions in the *United Provinces*, but the Ahmadia School for the Blind, Aligarh, is maintained by the widow of the late Sahibzada Aftab Ahmad Khan in memory of her husband.

In the *Punjab*, the School for the Blind, Lahore, has an enrolment of 23 as against 25 in 1927.

¹ Bombay, page 241.

In Bihar, there are two schools for the blind, one at Ranchi and the other at Patna. The former school is maintained by the S. P. G., but its enrolment was only 67 as against 60 five years ago. The latter school had an enrolment of 25 as against ten in 1927. Good buildings have been constructed. "One of the teachers, himself blind, passed the Intermediate examination in 1931 and is now reading for the B.A. degree. The problem of the after-careers of the pupils is causing anxiety to the managing committee, who find that boys once admitted to the school do not want to leave it."¹

The training of defectives is thus fraught with difficulty. In view of the large numbers of these children, there is need of rapid expansion; in view of the insignificant enrolment, it is doubtful whether even the limited number of institutions is justified.

(iv) *The education of adults.*

20. There is no sphere of education in India which needs more attention than the education of adults. The conditions of village life being what they are, relapse into illiteracy is widespread. It is by no means uncommon to find only an insignificant number of literates in a village, although it has had a school for many years. A means of counteracting this serious defect is the provision of schools and libraries for adults. It is disappointing that the efforts which have been made in these directions have met with only qualified success.

TABLE CXXXII.

Schools and classes for adults by provinces in 1931-32.

Province.	Males.		Females.	
	Institutions.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.
Madras	3,322*	98,761*
Bombay	182	6,811	12	594
Bengal.. .. .	1,089	26,804
United Provinces	230	6,045	3	69
Punjab	584	12,779	1	21
Burma.. .. .	21	1,896	1	17
Bihar and Orissa	2	97
Central Provinces	41	1,410	3	234
Assam
North-West Frontier Province
Delhi	2	75
Ajmer-Merwara	9	182
Total	5,482	154,850	20	935

* This includes 3,304 night schools with an enrolment of 97,965.

21. In the previous quinquennium, rapid quantitative progress was made in Madras and the Punjab; in the quinquennium under review there has been

¹ B. & O., page 98.

an equally rapid decrease both in the number of schools and in enrolment in both these provinces.

In *Madras*, the number of schools decreased from 5,632 to 3,322, and enrolment from 151,691 to 93,761. This decrease is due largely "to the policy recently initiated of eliminating ill-working night schools and of encouraging only the well-established ones."¹

A similar policy of concentration has been attempted in the *Punjab*, where the number of schools has been reduced from 3,786 to 535, while the enrolment has fallen from 93,467 to 12,800: "It has been felt that much cutting away of dead wood was necessary. The need for adult education still exists, but with the closing down of unsuccessful schools the remaining schools should be able to do better work as a result of more frequent inspection."²

A pleasing feature of the system is that much attention is paid to training teachers to take an intelligent part in the teaching of adults:

"The pupil teachers of the Government High School, Multan (which also maintains classes for training vernacular teachers) have been maintaining no less than six adult classes, which had a roll of 127 with an average attendance of 100 per cent. in 1931-32, and which imparted instruction to constables, coolies, menials and members of depressed classes."³

22. There has also been a decline in *Bombay*, where the number of schools has been reduced from 202 to 194, while the enrolment has increased from 7,178 to 7,405. The Kalipraj schools in the northern division have had to be closed through lack of support:

"Indigenous night schools were attended in the beginning by adults as well as by grown-up boys and young children, who could not afford to attend day schools. Great enthusiasm was shown at first, but gradually began to wane. There are now only a few night schools in the district, which are not attended by adults but by young children of school-going age."⁴

Laudable work is being done by a number of societies. The activities of the Social Service League in *Bombay* are directed towards the removal of illiteracy among mill-hands; those of the Seva Sadan are mainly towards the social and educational uplift of Indian women.

In *Bengal*, the number of schools for adults has dropped from 1,515 to 1,089, and enrolment from 31,000 to 26,804:

"There is scarcely any organised attempt to provide 'after-care' on a large scale. Once a child leaves school, there is little opportunity or encouragement for him to continue or even to retain his education. The school fights a forlorn battle, with antiquated weapons, against an enveloping host of enemies. The fact that the school subjects and methods of teaching are not related to the actual environment makes it hard to sustain any interest in them afterwards. Once the books are laid aside, education is soon forgotten."⁵

In the *United Provinces*, a certain number of night schools are maintained by the Co-operative Department. In addition, schools are maintained by local authorities. "The general opinion is that these schools have not been a success. . . . From every circle come reports of their failure owing to lack of public interest and of suitable teachers. The teachers are usually teachers of the local board schools, who are too tired to be much good."⁶

¹Madras, page 90.

⁴Bombay, page 244.

²Punjab, page 6.

⁵Bengal, page 28.

³Punjab, page 71.

⁶U. P., page 67.

A similar tale of failure is reported from *Bihar* :

"The number of night schools has fallen from 802 with 17,581 pupils to 192 with 4,403 pupils. In many districts less than half of the pupils are adults ; the remainder would probably do better to attend day schools, for most of the night schools are reported to be inefficient and they are difficult to supervise. The general reputation of the schools being very poor, it is not surprising that, in a time of financial stringency, local bodies have withdrawn their aid from many schools, which have disappeared in consequence."

A promising start has been made in the *Central Provinces*. The number of night schools has risen from 36 to 117 and the enrolment from 865 to 3,160.

23. Efforts should not be relaxed, despite these disappointments. In present-day conditions, failure to promote education for adults must inevitably result in failure to remove illiteracy. Past experience has taught valuable lessons. Schools for adults, even to a greater degree than ordinary day-schools, cannot thrive without competent and suitably trained teachers, who should be supervised and guided by efficient and stimulating inspection. In the second place, boys of school-going age should not be admitted to schools for adults. The courses and methods of teaching should vary considerably between these two types of school. Particular attention should be paid in training institutions to devising suitable methods for teaching adults.

(v) *Libraries.*

24. The size of university libraries is indicated below.

TABLE CXXXIII
University libraries.

University.	Number of volumes.	
	1927.*	1932.
Calcutta	Over 100,000	102,096†
Bombay	25,160	41,172
Madras	44,460	74,892
Punjab	53,644	75,434
Allahabad	62,268	80,998
Benares Hindu	50,000	64,635
Mysore	14,640	20,663
Patna	6,886	12,627
Osmania	19,807	29,725
Aligarh Muslim	25,000	25,190
Rangoon	25,500	14,142‡
Lucknow	31,925	43,572
Dacca	54,000	78,917
Delhi	8,350	12,005
Nagpur	18,807
Andhra	6,000	18,000
Annamalai	31,032

* The figures for Madras, Allahabad, Lucknow, Dacca and Delhi are for 1926-27, while those for others are for 1925-26.

† Excluding books in departmental libraries in Arts, Science and Law.

‡ Excluding books in libraries of constituent colleges.

25. Many libraries receive strong financial support and are enabled to develop their activities.

The annual Government grant to *Madras University* library has been raised from Rs. 36,000 to Rs. 43,500. The amount spent on books and periodicals during the quinquennium was Rs. 2,44,093, the total amount spent since its formation having been Rs. 5,44,093. The library is at present located in the Senate House, but the construction of a new building has been begun and a sum of Rs. 2.35 lakhs has already been spent. At the end of the quinquennium, the amount available for construction was Rs. 15,61,000.

In 1931, the University instituted a special course in librarianship with the object of training librarians for educational institutions and public libraries.

The total amount spent on books and periodicals for the *Annamalai University* library up to the end of the quinquennium was Rs. 1,20,000.

The *Allahabad University* library, which is one of the best consulting libraries in upper India, receives an annual grant of Rs. 10,000 from Government. In addition, a special non-recurring grant of Rs. 25,000, payable in three instalments, was sanctioned in 1926-27. The University also awarded a special grant of Rs. 8,000 in 1923-29 and another of Rs. 20,000 in 1930-31.

Benefactions have been received by some libraries. A new building for the *Benares Hindu University* library, which was made possible by a generous donation of Rs. 2 lakhs from His Highness the Gaekwar of Baroda, has been completed. The Bayley Memorial Collection has been accommodated in the *Patna University* library. The library of the late Sir G. M. Chitnavis, consisting of 4,500 books, has been bequeathed to the *Nagpur University* library.

University libraries cater largely for the needs of advanced students and research workers, but they are now being used more widely by the generality of students. The number of books issued from the *Madras University* library rose from 73,053 to 114,235 during the quinquennium.

26. College libraries vary considerably in scope as well as in financial support. The library of Presidency College, Calcutta, has a fine collection of books; and that of Sydenham College of Commerce, Bombay, has perhaps the finest collection of economic and commercial publications in India. Development of college libraries, however, has been retarded by financial stringency.

27. School libraries are usually unsatisfactory in their equipment of books as well as in the use made of them. In some provinces efforts have been made to establish libraries in vernacular middle schools for the benefit not only of the pupils but also of villagers.

In the *United Provinces*, grants of Rs. 500 were made by Government to 199 schools for this purpose. It is reported that they are appreciated.

In the *Punjab*, "village libraries have continued to gain both in number and popularity. A village library is generally attached to a middle school and forms a little cultural centre for checking relapse into illiteracy,

and for providing a convenient meeting-place where lectures on various topics are delivered to peasant audiences."¹

In *Burma*, deputy inspectors of schools have done useful work as propagandists of the library movement and in starting village libraries. These libraries are becoming promising centres of intellectual and social life and afford opportunities for organising lectures and debates.

In the *Central Provinces*, a village library, attached to one vernacular middle school in each district, has been started as an experimental measure.

The development of school libraries is seriously handicapped by the lack of suitable literature: "While all schools have libraries, too many are collections of wormeaten and obsolete text-books with little or nothing of interest to boys".² "Almost all inspectors in the *Punjab* complain that literature suitable for villagers is not available".¹ In *Burma*, again, "the reading habit is retarded by the absence of good light literature in the vernacular."³

23. Some libraries are doing good work in the domain of oriental research.

In the Government Oriental Manuscripts Library, *Madras*, 1,104 manuscripts were acquired during the quinquennium. The library is growing in popularity and usefulness.

In *Bombay*, the Manuscripts Department of the Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, *Poona*, comprises a rare collection of about 20,000 Sanskrit manuscripts, collected by eminent scholars such as Buhler, Kielhorn, Bhandarkar and others.

The *Bombay* Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society maintains an excellent library, consisting of about 67,000 printed books, manuscripts, etc., of which about 7,000 were added during the quinquennium.

The *Bombay* University Library Committee has formulated a scheme of co-operation between itself, the *Bombay* Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society and the *Cama* Oriental Institute in order to assist by mutual arrangement the purchase of costly books, which would otherwise be difficult to obtain.

The Oriental Public Library, *Patna*, possesses a fine collection of books and manuscripts in oriental languages.

29. The Imperial Library, *Calcutta*, is maintained by Government and owes its foundation to Lord Curzon. It was instituted in 1902 as a result of amalgamating the *Calcutta* Public Library with a number of departmental libraries of the Government of India. It was originally housed in Metcalfe Hall, *Calcutta*, but was moved in 1923 to its present home, the Foreign and Military Secretariat Buildings, Esplanade Road.

The internal management of the library has been reorganised during the quinquennium. The Council now consists of the Educational Commis-

¹ Punjab, page 14.

² U. P., page 47.

³ Burma, page 34.

sioner with the Government of India, two members nominated by the Government of Bengal, two members nominated by the University of Calcutta, and three members nominated by the Governor General in Council to represent interests outside Calcutta; and it keeps in view the aims of the founder that "it should be a library of reference, a working place for students, and a repository of material for future historians of India, in which so far as possible every work written about India at any time can be seen and read".

There are approximately 300,000 volumes in the Library, of which 56,645 were added during the quinquennium. There are reading rooms, public and private, where facilities are offered to students and researchers. There is also a reading room for the exclusive use of women. Approximately 40,000 books were loaned during the quinquennium. There are printed and card catalogues.

30. The Imperial Secretariat Library is maintained for the use of officials of the Government of India and of members of the Indian Legislature. The number of volumes approximates 200,000. A special feature of the library is its rich collection of official publications and blue books relating to India and oriental countries, which are of great value to commissions and committees. About 120,000 volumes have been lent to departments and committees during the quinquennium. A catalogue is being prepared on up-to-date lines, and Dewey's decimal system of classification has been adopted. Proposals for lending books to a wider clientele are under consideration.

(vi) *Text Book Committees.*

31. The following Table gives information regarding the number of books considered during the quinquennium by Text-Book Committees.

TABLE CXXXIV.

Approval of books by Text-Book Committees, 1927—32.

Province.	Books examined.	Books approved.
Madras	6,650	5,763
Bombay	292*	245*
Bengal	3,608	1,176
Punjab	2,341	1,271
Central Provinces	1,118	843
North-West Frontier Province	992	†
Delhi	1,212	852

* For 1931-32 only.

† Figures not available.

32. The strength of the Text-Book Committee in *Madras* continued to be forty members. In 1927-28, Hindi was added to the list of languages dealt with by the Committee, while in 1931 text-books on religion were excluded from its scope. The increasing use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction has led to an increase in the number of vernacular books submitted to the Committee. Heads of institutions have been instructed that books other than those approved for school use should not be used in schools.

There are six School-Book Committees in *Bombay* to assist the Director of Public Instruction in determining what books should be sanctioned. The rules of these committees were revised in 1930. The Provincial School-Book Committee, of which the Director of Public Instruction is chairman, considers books proposed for use in secondary schools, while the five other committees deal with books in vernaculars.

During the first two years of the quinquennium, the two Text-Book Committees—one at Calcutta and the other at Dacca—did not function in *Bengal*, because the secondary school syllabuses were being revised and the committees themselves were in process of reorganisation. In 1929, a provincial Text-Book Committee was formed with a view to pruning the long lists of approved books.

As a result of a resolution in the Legislative Council, the Text-Book Committee in the *United Provinces* was abolished in 1929 and its work was distributed among various bodies. The Board of High School and Intermediate Education considers books intended for Classes V to XII of English institutions, while the Board of Vernacular Education deals with books for vernacular schools, primary classes of English schools, normal schools and training classes. There is also a separate Books Committee which considers books for use in English institutions as library books, prizes and reference books.

In the *Punjab*, the Text-Book Committee is composed of twenty-five members with the Director of Public Instruction as *ex-officio* chairman. The Committee has done much to enrich and encourage vernacular literature through translating books and awarding prizes. The Committee has purchased a portable cinema machine and films with a view to giving cinema shows to school children. This enterprise is much appreciated.

For many years the work of the Text-Book Committee in *Burma* was confined to deciding whether text-books submitted by publishers should be approved for use in schools. In 1923, the work of encouraging projects for the production of vernacular text-books was entrusted to it.

In *Bihar and Orissa*, the number of members of the Text Book Committee remained 21 during the quinquennium. In order to avoid delay in the examination of books, three meetings instead of two are now held annually and only two instead of three reviews of books are required.

In the *Central Provinces*, books for primary and normal schools are examined by a Text-Book Committee, while books for high and middle schools are

dealt with by committees of courses appointed by the Board of High School Education.

Two non-official members have been added to the provincial Text-Book Committee of *Assam*, and also to each of the two divisional Text-Book Committees. Attempts have been made to encourage the writing of popular books, but text-books in Assamese literature have not yet reached a sufficiently high standard. The Central Advisory Board of Education recommended in 1923 that "the number of approved text-books should be restricted to a definite figure in each subject so as to avoid unnecessary multiplication."

(vii) *Oriental Studies.*

33. The teaching of oriental classical languages (Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian) in the ordinary schools is far from satisfactory. This is due mainly to the fact that the teachers are usually pandits, munshis and maulvis, whose knowledge is confined almost entirely to traditional learning. They are lacking even in the rudiments of general knowledge of other subjects, which are essential to a modern teacher, and their methods of teaching are at least archaic. Few of them have sufficient knowledge of English to acquaint themselves with modern methods. Indeed, in a great many cases they are incapable of departing from their present outlook. Their status and emoluments in schools are also as a rule inferior to teachers of other subjects. Attempts should be made to employ as teachers of these important subjects men who have taken them for their degrees and have subsequently received training along with teachers in other subjects.

34. There are also a large number of special and segregate institutions, which are devoted to the study of these languages and of indigenous learning. Most of them, which include makhtabs, mulla schools, Quran schools, pathshalas, etc., impart elementary education according to old-time methods. The problems of these schools have already been discussed; they make little contribution towards the removal of illiteracy, nor do they give much assistance to their pupils to fight their way amid the trials and difficulties of a modern world.

35. There are also institutions which provide for higher study and research in oriental learning.

In *Madras*, there are eighteen oriental colleges for higher education in Sanskrit, of which fourteen are aided, three unaided and one maintained by a local body. An Oriental College for Women has been affiliated to Andhra University.

In *Bombay*, there is a Sanskrit College at Poona, which owes its origin to the Poona Sanskrit Association and has been provisionally recognised by Government. The Bhandarkar Oriental Research Institute, Poona, the K. R. Cama Oriental Institute, Bombay, and the Bombay Branch of the Royal Asiatic Society continue to do valuable research work in oriental learning. They maintain good libraries, keep in touch with similar institutions and societies in foreign countries, offer prizes for original work, and invite eminent

scholars from abroad to deliver lectures. The Mimansa Vidyalaya, Poona, caters for a critical study of Vedic texts and other religious books of the Hindus, while the Indian Historical Research Institute, founded by Father Heras, S. J., of St. Xavier's College, carries on original research in historical subjects. The Historical Museum, Satara, which was originally a private institution, was acquired by Government in 1928. It contains a fine collection of manuscripts, historical prints, drawings, pictures, etc., and is intended to serve as a centre for research work.

In *Bengal*, the Kabindra College, Gayla, continues to be a seat of higher Sanskrit culture. Facilities for advanced studies in Islamic culture are afforded in madrassahs, especially the Calcutta Madrasah. This was the first educational institution established in India by the British Government and was founded in 1781 by Warren Hastings.

In the *United Provinces*, the Sanskrit College, Benares, which was founded in 1791, continues to do valuable work. It possesses a fine library, containing about 40,000 old manuscripts and about 15,000 printed volumes, including original texts in Sanskrit, Pali and Prakrit and works of distinguished orientalists.

The oriental institutes at Deoband and Lucknow aim at traditional instruction of a high order in Arabic and Islamic religion. A Hindustani Academy was founded in 1927 to preserve, foster and develop Urdu and Hindi literature.

In *Bihar*, the Dharma Samaj Sanskrit College at Muzaffarpur and the Sanskrit College at Puri are managed by Government. Of the recognised madrassahs, the Madrasah Islamia Shamsul Huda at Patna is also managed by Government.

36. The Oriental College, Lahore, in the *Punjab*, deserves special attention owing to its intimate connexion with the University. It was founded in 1870 by the Senate of Punjab University College and was incorporated later in the University in 1882. It originally formed an oriental wing of the University, preparing students for degrees in oriental learning and for a series of titles parallel to the various degrees conferred by the western wing of the University. In recent years, however, the modern side of the University has far outstripped the growth of Oriental College, which has stood primarily for the maintenance of traditional learning in oriental languages. Even in Oriental College itself there has been a development in the higher arts courses of modern critical study of classical languages. The number of students attending the titles classes of the College is negligible, but the University conducts a series of Titles examinations, for which students of allied institutions as well as those of the College compete.

(viii) *Moral and physical training.*

37. Improvements in moral and physical training provide perhaps the most inspiring feature of the last quinquennium, though the progress of many promising developments has been arrested by retrenchment. In spite of grave difficulties, there is abroad a keen desire that education shall represent

a training for life, that schools and colleges shall become joyous places in which pupils will acquire valuable interests and habits, that a spirit of comradeship shall be engendered in the pupils.

38. In games and athletics India is undoubtedly coming into her own. The Indian Cricket Team, which toured England successfully in 1931, included college students. The Indian Olympic Hockey Team, which enjoyed uninterrupted success during a prolonged tour in many parts of the world, was largely composed of students and was captained by a college graduate from Lahore. In athletics many new records have been established. Inter-university contests, which were almost unheard of five years ago, have become increasingly frequent and attract large crowds of interested spectators.

There is, however, a danger in these developments. English games such as cricket, football and hockey cost a great deal of money; in consequence, there is a disturbing tendency to devote an excessive proportion of the slender games' funds to the benefit of the few at the expense of the many, who are compelled to become spectators instead of participants in the games. The excitement engendered by these contests has sometimes proved overpowering with unfortunate and unseemly results.

Attempts have been made to introduce indigenous and other games (especially volley-ball), which incur only slight expenditure and require little space. They can also be played by large numbers of boys at the same time in spare moments without any extensive preparation.

The following extract from the *Punjab* report gives a hopeful record of progress in these directions :

"The revival of district tournaments has been a prominent feature of the quinquennium. Endeavour has been made to utilise every inch of available space. Games clubs for village boys and adults have been instituted, and village clubs have taken a prominent part in district tournaments. A large number of teachers take an active part in school activities. Volley-ball has become the most popular of all games, and hockey has all but completely eclipsed cricket."¹

In the *United Provinces*, "the teachers are practised in athletics and basket-ball, and are taught how to referee in football and hockey."²

In the *Central Provinces*, "organised games are regularly played in most schools, and school teams take an active part in local tournaments. . . . The dearth of teachers who are really good at games is generally responsible for the failure of school teams to achieve a high standard of skill on the field of play."³

39. Great progress has been made in physical training.

In *Madras*, "the physical education movement has made very real advance in educational institutions both for men and women. . . . The grant of extensive Government land in Saidapet to the Y. M. C. A. College of Physical Education, Madras, was an event of considerable importance."⁴

In *Bombay*, provision is made for physical training in all Government schools. The old-fashioned drill teachers, however, are not satisfactory for imparting physical education according to new ideas."⁵ These duties are

¹ Punjab, pages 51-52.

² U. P., page 49.

³ C. P., page 31.

⁴ Madras, page 104.

now, being "entrusted to ordinary class teachers, preferably to those who have completed a special course under the Director of Physical Training. . . . The supply of such teachers, however, is very limited; unless efforts are made to supplement it, this source will die out."¹

The system in the *United Provinces* has been wisely devised. Two foreign scholarships for training in the College of Physical Training and Hygiene, Dumfermline, Scotland, were given in 1927. On their return these two scholars, together with another who had received training at the Y. M. C. A., Madras, were attached to the Training Colleges at Allahabad, Lucknow and Agra. During the early part of the cold weather they provide courses for all students under training as well as special courses for selected students. After Christmas, they give short courses to selected teachers. "Thus, in course of time, there will be sufficient teachers trained in physical training as a class subject."²

Similar arrangements are being made whereby most vernacular teachers shall receive training "so that the new methods will permeate every grade of education."³

In *Bihar*, "an instructor trained at Madras has been attached to each of the five secondary training schools."⁴

In accordance with the recommendations of a committee, the *Burma* Government

"began to build up a Physical Training Department under the guidance of Mr. Healy, Director of Physical Training. Two assistant inspectors were specially trained in Madras and began work in 1929. They encouraged the formation of school athletic associations and gave them valuable advice, helped to organise sports for anglo-vernacular and vernacular school boys, gave demonstrations and short training courses for teachers and normal students, paid special attention to indigenous games and trained many teachers at Cabin Island. For two years the success of Mr. Healy and his two lieutenants was remarkable. The axe of retrenchment then fell heavily on this new Department, not because Government had any doubts of its utility, but because the appointments were temporary. . . . To recover the position reached in 1931 will be difficult and costly."⁵

40. With the influx of new ideas, the days of the separate drill-instructor (who is often illiterate) are numbered, and picturesque acrobatic feats are giving way to a well-devised system of physical training, graduated to suit the varying physical development of pupils, in which all teachers should take an intelligent part.

The *Punjab* embarked on such a policy many years ago, and beneficent effects are already being felt throughout the province. Special courses of about six months' duration were first organised by Mr. H. W. Hogg for trained teachers (most of them graduates); some fifty teachers have already received this additional form of training. These teachers were then posted as physical training supervisors to Government colleges and training institutions of all types. By this agency all teachers under training (vernacular as well as an anglo-vernacular) have undergone courses in physical training under expert supervision with the result that almost all schools have teachers competent to impart physical training. From time to time refresher courses are held for

¹ Bombay, page 79.

² U. P., page 111.

³ U. P., page 112.

⁴ B. & O., page 105.

⁵ Burma, pages 39-40.

physical training supervisors so that they shall be kept in touch with new ideas and benefit by each other's experience.

Owing to the closure of a number of vernacular training institutions, it has now been possible to post a physical training supervisor to each district :

"By far the most important work done by the supervisors has been the holding of refresher courses to stimulate vernacular teachers who, despite their training in physical instruction, are generally apt to deteriorate on their return to schools. The system has been kept up-to-date and several of the supervisors have completed the latest courses in Europe; and the successful development of scouting has reacted favourably on the progress of physical training. The Punjab is fortunate in possessing Mr. H. W. Hogg to develop its physical training and scouting."¹

41. Remarkable progress has been made by the *Boy Scouts Associations*, and the number of scouts (including those in Indian States) reached 189,751 in 1932.

TABLE CXXXV.

Boy Scouts, 1932.

Provinces.	No. of groups.	Total of all ranks.
Madras	389	11,283
Bombay	1,008	36,642
Bengal	8,528
United Provinces	245	6,291
Punjab	1,140	37,462
Byrma	205	5,904
Bihar and Orissa	234	8,241
Central Provinces	1,328	38,167
Assam	96	2,425
North-West Frontier Province	91	4,116
Coorg
Delhi	9	791
Ajmer-Merwara
Baluchistan	14	551
Bangalore	21	665
Other Administered Areas	49	2,494
Indian States	760	27,994
Total	5,582	189,751

The *Bombay* and *Punjab* Governments subsidise their local Associations to the extent of Rs. 21,000 and Rs. 20,000 per annum respectively. The *Bengal Association* receives from its local Government Rs. 10,000; and the Government of the *United Provinces* contribute Rs. 12,000 each to the Baden-Powell and the Seva Samiti Boy Scouts Associations. In several provinces grants have been reduced under the present retrenchment scheme..

¹ Punjab, page 51.

The Seva Samiti Boy Scouts Association, Allahabad, does not entirely subscribe to the rules of the founder of the movement, nor is it recognised by the parent body owing to this fact. It has, however, modelled itself largely on the original movement, but lays more emphasis on social service than on scouting in the true sense of the word. While the Boy Scout Association is a branch of the all-India body, the Seva Samiti organisation is practically confined to the United Provinces. In view of the fact that the cardinal object of the Association is to link together all races and communities in the bonds of comradeship, it is a pity that in the United Provinces a cleavage has been introduced into what should be a united body.

42. The progress of boy scouts during the last five years is one of the most hopeful developments in India, which view is shared by many provincial reports. The movement has already been successful in providing ample means of healthy recreation and enjoyment for thousands of school boys in India; it has instilled in scouts a desire for service; and it shows signs of transcending the baneful limitations of caste and creed.

43. Good progress has also been achieved by the *Girl Guide Associations* as will be seen from the Table below:

TABLE CXXXVI.

Girl Guides, 1933.

Province.	Companies.	Flocks.	Ranger Coy.	Cadet Coy.	Extension Coy.	Commissioners.	Secretaries.	Guiders.	Guides.	Bluebirds.	Rangers.	Cadets.	Extension Guides.	Long Guides.	Provincial Totals Personnel.
Assam	6	3	1	2	1	12	178	229	5	427
Bengal	52	53	4	5	1	19	9	171	1,119	1,022	78	70	6	9	2,503
Bihar and Orissa	32	28	3	2	..	8	9	108	756	513	35	41	..	1	1,489
Bombay	151	211	13	9	..	39	24	498	3,337	3,983	282	190	..	8	8,349
Bangalore	10	12	1	2	1	29	243	243	13	15	546
Baluchistan	5	5	3	2	18	77	64	164
Central Provinces	42	27	4	2	..	10	9	127	833	517	104	32	1,732
Central India	5	6	2	..	14	114	96	226
Delhi	10	8	..	2	..	2	1	31	241	146	..	34	455
Hyderabad	33	25	3	1	..	6	4	89	661	489	47	19	1,315
Madras	144	143	23	14	..	35	21	419	2,716	2,519	342	257	..	10	6,319
Mysore	16	5	2	7	7	36	364	60	17	491
Punjab	38	48	3	6	1	12	10	148	799	1,010	53	108	24	..	2,162
Rajputana	26	18	2	1	..	7	4	60	634	364	23	10	1,102
United Provinces	45	37	5	5	..	12	11	137	1,085	688	51	82	2,066
Bengal-Nagpur Railway	6	6	1	6	7	20	60	95	16	204
Bhopal	2	1	1	4	40	48
Kashmir	2	2	1	1	4	60	50	116
Totals (India)	624	642	70	47	2	174	122	1,921	13,417	12,088	1,046	843	30	51	29,692
	Units — 1,385					Personnel 29,692									

N.B.—This table includes figures for Indian States.

44. Progress in *medical inspection of school children* has been retarded by financial stringency.

In *Madras*, the scheme of medical inspection of schools has been made compulsory in all Government institutions; it has also been made a condition of recognition that all aided schools shall introduce the scheme. Unfortunately, the payment of grants for medical inspection was suspended in 1932 as a measure of economy.

In *Bombay*, "the importance of medical inspection of school children is being increasingly recognised. Owing to lack of funds, however, it has not been possible for Government to set up an agency to direct and organise medical inspection work in schools on a satisfactory basis."¹

The *United Provinces* have the advantage of a number of school health officers. In consequence, "no less than 52,862 or 73·4 per cent. of those attending English schools, and 158,635 or 24·6 per cent. of those attending primary schools, were medically examined during the year that the scheme has been in force."² Interesting, though depressing, results of these examinations are given in the report, but it is not stated what steps have been taken to provide treatment for sickly children or to ensure that the treatment is carried out.

The experimental measure introduced in five districts of the *Punjab* appears to be working well in the Gurgaon district alone: "The number of diseased boys who attended dispensaries and were cured has risen from 46 to 69 per cent. in this district. The scheme can be productive of good, only if medical inspection is followed up by proper treatment. Many parents and teachers, however, are not keenly anxious for a cure unless the malady becomes positively troublesome, if not actually dangerous."³

In the *Central Provinces*, "a regular system of medical inspection is in vogue in Government anglo-vernacular schools, and expenditure on this account is admissible for grant-in-aid. Several aided schools, however, have made no provision for this important requirement. . . . No complete system of medical inspection of vernacular schools has been provided."⁴

In this province also medical inspections largely fail because cases are not followed up by treatment. Though prescribed, spectacles are not forthcoming on account of poverty."⁵

In *Bihar*, a system of medical inspection has been in force for some time: "The work done has been valuable, though it might have been more so had more attention been paid to such defects as the medical officers discover."⁶ As a measure of retrenchment, the posts of the school medical officers and of the lady school medical officers were abolished in 1932, but it has since been found possible to revive them.

In *Burma*, the work of medical inspection was progressing and "parents were beginning to appreciate it and to pay more attention to the recommendations of medical officers; with experience the work of medical officers was also

¹ *Bombay*, page 78.

² *U. P.*, page 113.

³ *Punjab*, page 53.

⁴ *C. P.*, page 105.

improving. The axe of retrenchment fell on this scheme also: at the end of 1931-32 schools were informed that the scheme had been temporarily suspended."¹

45. Medical inspection depends for its success very largely on the active co-operation of school authorities. Teachers should therefore receive training in the ordinary rules of health and should be able to participate in much of the routine work of medical inspection.

In Government schools in *Bombay*, "a record is kept of the weight, height, eye-sight and chest measurements of pupils, and serious defects are brought to the notice of parents".²

In the *Punjab*, "an inspection of nails, teeth, eyes and general hygienic condition is held in many schools every morning when the boys assemble for their morning prayer with the result that personal cleanliness has been promoted and the health of boys improved."³

46. It is in this connexion that the activities of the Junior Red Cross and St. John's Ambulance Societies have been particularly beneficent.

Remarkable progress has been made during the quinquennium. In 1927, there were only 565 schools with Junior Red Cross groups with a total membership of 28,956 boys, and the movement was confined only to the Punjab. By the close of 1932, the movement had spread to most of the provinces and to some Indian States; steps are now being taken to extend the movement to girls.

TABLE CXXXVII

Membership of Junior Red Cross groups.

Names of branches.	Number of groups.	Number of members.		
		Boys.	Girls.	Total.
Assam	5	266	..	266
Baroda	27	1,411	100	1,511
Bombay	103	8,359	1,641	10,000
Central India	1	114	..	114
Central Provinces and Berar	85	3,119	529	3,648
Delhi	41	2,939	241	3,180
Jodhpur	10	504	..	504
Madras	3	23	134	157
Mysore	9	505	28	531
Punjab	2,413	1,41,674	182	1,41,856
Rajputana	4	128	..	128
Sind	25	592	330	922
United Provinces	1,049*	28,994	298	29,292
Western India States	6*	332	75	407
Total	3,781	1,88,960	3,556	1,92,516

* Including 25 adult schools with a membership of 481.

¹ Burma, page 40.

² Bombay, page 78.

³ Punjab, page 62.

School children, who are enrolled, pledge themselves to take care of their own health and that of others, to help the sick and the suffering, especially children, and to regard children all over the world as their friends.

Miss Norah Hill, Secretary to the Indian Red Cross Society, has written as follows :

“ The chief activities of the Junior Red Cross groups are to organise morning inspections and health games competitions in schools, to promote healthy habits, to provide pure drinking water, soap, towels, nail cutters, etc., at school, to promote personal and school hygiene, to cultivate school gardens, to arrange for mid-day school lunches and school dispensaries, to stimulate health propaganda by staging of health plays and dialogues and by means of singing parties and processions. The groups co-operate with the public health staffs and rural uplift workers in their campaigns against insanitation and epidemic diseases. Funds are collected for helping poor children with tuition fees, books, food, clothing, medicines and appliances. Members are encouraged to equip themselves for service by taking courses in First aid, Home Nursing and Sanitation and to co-operate with other juvenile organisations working for similar aims.

“ The movement is welcomed and encouraged by every section of the population because of its non-political and non-sectarian nature ; and it is receiving hearty support from education authorities all over India.”

47. Attempts to engender a spirit of leadership among senior boys in school have been largely frustrated by the early age in which many capable boys now leave school in order to join college. This defect is referred to in the *Bihar* report :

“ The reports do not indicate any attempts to introduce real self-government among the pupils..... An Indian school boy often reaches the highest class of a high school as the age of fourteen or even sooner ; boys of this age can hardly be given disciplinary powers such as are exercised by prefects at English schools.”¹

This is a further argument in support of the contention that perhaps the most urgent educational need of India is a properly adjusted higher secondary course, which will afford to Indian boys the benefits of school discipline, school training and school comradeship.

¹ R. & O., page 42.