

THE Servant of India

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TOPICS OF THE WEEK.

THE exclusion of every class of Indians from the forthcoming Statutory Commission on Reforms, which appears to be in favour with certain high-placed officials and Anglo-Indian newspapers, has created something like a consternation among Indian publicists. The idea itself is outrageous when committees with an Indian majority and an Indian Chairman are almost the order of the day, but to some it seems to be necessarily involved in the constitution of an arbitral body which they think such a Commission ought to be. If Indians cannot be included in it, European ex-officials with an Indian experience cannot be included either, and the exclusion of such eminent persons as Lord Reading or Lord Ronaldshay should, it is thought, reconcile Indian opinion to the exclusion of men like Sir Sivaswamy Aiyer, Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru or Pandit Motilal Nehru. It may be conceded that an inquiry by a set of persons who have no manner of connexion with contemporary events in India, sitting in judgment upon Indian administrators and legislators sounds very correct, and would in fact be unexceptionable if the pace of constitutional advance was to be determined solely by the manner in which the present reforms are worked and was not influenced by political considerations. But who can deny that in every country an enlargement of political freedom follows as a result of the growth in political consciousness and such other factors rather than as the outcome of a verdict of impartial judges who weigh the doings of men in the legislatures in a pair of golden scales? Were not the Montagu-Chelmsford reforms themselves, the adequacy or inadequacy of which is now to be investigated, the direct consequence of a general upheaval in the country and the liberal instincts of Mr. Montagu? Were not the Morley-Minto reforms which preceded them due to a similar cause? On the other hand when are reforms ever introduced into a country or extended, merely because the people thereof are adjudged fit to exercise them? The very nature of the inquiry therefore forbids the appointment of men who will base their judgment exclusively upon the work done in the Councils, though India has nothing to fear from such an inquiry, and calls for the services of men who can also appraise the strength of popular sentiment and the political consequences resulting from its non-satisfaction.

Nor does it seem possible that either the Commission or the Government will in fact shut out political factors from its consideration. Why not then recognise them as legitimate factors and give them due weight in the choice of the personnel? The *Englishman's* two alternative suggestions regarding a Board of Arbitrators intended to furnish Indian experience to a Commission drawn wholly from non-Indian sources appear to be based on some information supplied to the paper by the Simla Secretariat. Even so we do not think it worth our while to consider them in detail. For the basic idea itself is entirely unacceptable to us. In this connexion we must point out that the special cablegram of *Forward* in which Sir Tej Bahadur Sapru's letter to the *Pioneer* was adversely criticised is based upon a misconception of the contents of the letter. For Sir Tej Bahadur lends no countenance to the exclusion of Indians from the Commission. Though he favours the non-inclusion of men like Lord Reading who have had official association with India, he insists as strongly as possible on the inclusion in sufficient numbers of men occupying eminent positions in the public life of India as an essential condition of the Commission's success. In no circumstances can the exclusion of Indians from the Commission be contemplated, and it is surely not necessary for us to cite instances of important Enquiry Committees having come to naught because, in the opinion of the people concerned, the composition of these bodies was inspired by a feeling of distrust. We hope that the Government will not commit a blunder which may easily prove fatal to the whole inquiry

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THE leadership of the Indian delegation to the League of Nations has again gone to a non-Indian, Lord Lytton. This has quite naturally aroused feelings of keen dissatisfaction among politically-minded Indians who feel that its leadership by a European, however sympathetic, is incongruous with India's

status as an original member of the League. True she is not yet fully self-governing; and cannot therefore have a determining voice in the election of persons to represent her at the League meetings. But surely India does not ask for too much when she presses that the leader of the Indian delegation should be an Indian. If Indians are good enough to serve on such delegations as members, they must be good enough to be their leaders. Besides the experiment of having an Indian as leader was found to be a complete success in the recent negotiations with South Africa that led to the African Settlement. When this question was discussed the Council of State in 1924, an undertaking was given on behalf of the Government that it would receive their careful consideration and the general impression created was that at the next opportunity an Indian would be selected to lead the delegation. Two years passed without bringing any change in the desired direction when in 1926 the matter was again pressed on the attention of the Government by means of a motion in the Upper House. The fact that the motion was carried without a single dissident shows the strength of Indian feeling on the subject. But all this has had no effect on the Government; and their action in the present case shows how unresponsive they are to the demands of public opinion. The Government's spokesman promised in the course of the 1926 debate that their decision on the subject would be published in due course. This is yet to happen; but perhaps their conferment of the delegation's leadership on a non-Indian on this as on the last occasion has to be treated as their deliberate decision on the point. We hope they will yet see the wisdom of satisfying the Indian demand on the subject.

* * *

HINDU society in Poona is considerably stirred by the marriage of Miss Panandikar with a Mahomedan gentleman. Panandikar-Khan Marriage.

Being the first marriage of its kind in this part of the country, there is no doubt some novelty about it. But why anybody should see in it something more than the union in wedlock of two individuals is more than we can say. The objection to the marriage seems to be based not so much on personal as on public grounds. The fact of a highly connected Hindu girl going and marrying a Mahomedan at a time when the relations between the two communities are so strained is regarded as something of which Hindu society ought to feel ashamed. But those who look upon the marriage in question in that light forget the simple fact that the relations between the Hindus and Mahomedans in the Deccan are not more strained than those between Brahmans and non-Brahmans. Will they object to a Brahman-non-Brahman marriage with the same vehemence with which they are objecting to this? Past experience does not show that they will. There is also a tendency to regard this marriage as part of a conspiracy to bring about more such marriages. We are unable to discover any ground for such a belief. Such marriages will for a long, long time never be celebrated in hundreds and so long as they take place by the free will of the contracting parties, there ought to be no objection to them. For our own part we should welcome them all. In this particular case the moral courage and freedom from communal bias showed by the couple and more especially the bride are exceedingly praiseworthy.

* * *

It will be recalled that the agreement reached between the Indian and the Union Governments contemplates improvement in the higher education of Indians. The published summary of conclusions says that "the Union Government are willing to consider sympathetically the question of improving facilities for higher education by providing suitable hostel accommodation at the South African Native College at Fort Hare and otherwise improving the attractiveness of the institution for Indians." On the education vote this term of the Agreement was discussed in the Union Assembly on the 13th May and the two members who participated in the debate took strong exception to Indians being admitted to an institution which was meant for the benefit of the natives. It would seem at first sight that the objectors had the interests of the natives at heart, but the speeches made by them dissipate such an impression. In next year's budget £742,743 is provided for University and technical education and £194,050 for agricultural education; that is to say, £936,773 for higher education in all. Of this only £5,760 is meant to be spent on the higher education of the natives, for that is the grant for Fort Hare, and all the rest, or £862,026 is meant exclusively for Europeans. That is to say, while for 1,600,000 whites a sum of £862,026 is being spent, for natives who are at least thrice as many as Europeans the money spent represents 6 per cent. of what is spent on Europeans. In other words one European is equal to 500 natives, so far as higher education is concerned. No, the solicitude of Messrs. Nel and Marwick who spoke on the question was not for the natives, but for Europeans, with whom they fear Indians will compete successfully if technical and higher education is given them. As a matter of fact the authorities of Fort Hare are friendly to the admission of Indians, but the prejudice in the mind of the Europeans is so great that the Minister of Education had to ward off the attack by saying that "the number of Indians attending Fort Hare will not under any circumstances, as far as we can judge, be largely increased, so the problem which the hon. gentleman fears will not arise." This will give us in India a good idea of the atmosphere in which the settlement has to be worked, and while we can never afford to relax our efforts we must be prepared to make allowance for the very grave difficulties confronting those to whom it falls to give effect to the agreement.

* * *

THE Dewan of Janjira apparently belongs to that species of public servants that have learnt to look upon all political agitation as a nuisance which must be nipped in the bud. Recently a few political meetings were held in the State which have greatly upset him. For the 'simple' and 'confiding' subjects of the State to mix themselves up in politics is more than he can bear and he asks them, in true grandmotherly fashion, to behave like good boys and mind their business. Swaraj or responsible government was asked for at the meetings referred to above; but this he regards as 'absurd' in a small Indian state. For it would amount to the agitators' rule, the ruler becoming their pensioner, should they choose to give him any pension. The Dewan, as can be easily understood, wants to avert such a calamity, not so much in the interests of the ruler or himself, but in those of the people! But apparently such agitation as there was in the State has not left him entirely unaffected; for he assures the subjects that the Janjira

Government will "encourage and develop" local self-government, if of course the people show themselves worthy of it: and the only way of convincing the Dewan that they were worthy is by not even dreaming of Swaraj! We hope the Jangira State subjects are not so simple as not to know what value to attach to the Dewan's gratuitous advice.

THOSE who have even the faintest idea of the loss of child and adult life caused in rural areas owing to ignorance of the fundamental rules of conducting labour cases will have no difficulty in appreciating the good work that is being done by the Lady Wilson Village Baby Scheme. The idea was originally placed before the public in 1924 by Dr. Accacio da Gama, Assistant Director of Public Health, who is also the Hon. Secretary of the Scheme, when he spoke in connection with the Poona Baby Week at the Kirkee centre. The Scheme does not aspire to turn out full-fledged midwives for work in villages; it merely seeks to improve the existing village methods employed in labour cases. The idea is to bring the village dais to a central place like Poona where during their fortnight's stay they witness about a dozen labour cases in hospitals. The importance of cleanliness is also impressed on their minds and they are taught to boil their scissors well before use; and how non-interference forms the major part of their duties. Before going back to their villages they are supplied with the most necessary outfit for their work. The Scheme was tried as an experiment in the Poona district the whole of last year, and is now spreading to other districts as well. Upto 31st March 1927, 113 dais from villages were brought to Poona, out of whom 108 were trained and five went back half trained owing to domestic difficulties. 289 sets of outfit were distributed free to villages with a population of over 500. If the scheme is worked on right lines it will go some way in reducing the infantile mortality in villages.

IN the Legislative Council of Kenya the following information was supplied in answer to a question with regard to the action taken by Government in reserving land in the lowland areas for the exclusive use of the Indians in accordance with the Kenya White Paper of 1923:—

"Effect was given to the policy laid down by Clause 8 of the White Paper on the Indian question by the provisional reservation for Indian occupation of—

- (1) 1,000,000 acres north of the Voi-Taveta Railway; and
- (2) 1,00,000 acres on the banks of the Tana River.

The reservation was to remain open for one year; if at the end of this time a reasonable number of applications were received the offer was to be kept open for a further year.

This proposal was communicated to the Indian National Congress on the 8th January 1924, for acceptance and an expression of their views. On the 16th May 1924, the Hon. Secretary of the Congress intimated that arrangements were being made to make a reconnaissance survey of the land. So far as Government is aware the Indian National Congress has taken no further action.

No applications from Indians for any portion of the land thus provisionally reserved were received until October 1926, when some forty Indians applied for portions of the Taveta Block.

The 'limited period' for which the original proposal was made has already expired."

THE INDO-UNION AGREEMENT.

NOT all the clauses of the Asiatic Bill, which, Reuter informs us, has now passed the Union House of Assembly, seek to carry out the agreement between the Union Government and the Government of India. In fact many of its provisions are intended to remove certain defects in the working of certain existing laws which have no relation to this settlement. Nor can all the terms of the Indo-Union Agreement be given effect to by legislation. Indeed a good deal of the agreement has to be implemented administratively. The Bill therefore by itself will give but a very imperfect idea of the solution which the two Governments attempt to find for the South African Indian problem in the result of their recent Conference. It deals with only two points in the agreement. The first relates to the further restrictions placed on the immigration of Indians into South Africa and the other to the conditions under which funds may be expended for the repatriation of Indians under the new assisted emigration scheme. To take the second point first. It is well-known that the Union Government hope considerably to reduce the size of the Indian problem by increasing the amount of the bonus to be given to those Indians who will consent to return to India or emigrate to other countries and by removing the sense of degradation involved in the acceptance of the offer of repatriation by reason of the condition which was formerly attached to it, viz. that of loss of domicile. The bonus has now been raised from £10 to £20 per individual without a maximum limit for the family, and it is no longer required of the person who avails himself of the assisted emigration scheme that he shall surrender his right of domicile in the Union, which would disqualify him for re-entry into the Union for all time thereafter. He will on the contrary retain his domicile, which will be lost, in accordance with a law of general application, after a continuous absence for three years. He cannot return to South Africa in the first year, but he can in the second or third year. India has obtained a great moral advantage in this important modification, but, as Dr. Malan explained in the Union Assembly, "this is not a concession that we have made to the Government of India, but it is a provision which is introduced with a view of making the emigration scheme more effective. . . . Experience has taught us that the great objection on their (i.e. Indians') part against going over to India is that on the day of their departure they must renounce the right of re-entering for ever into the Union. They know what they leave behind and they do not know what they will get on the other side, and in the uncertainty of their prospects they prefer to remain in South Africa. If this alteration is made it is expected that a very much larger number of Indians will avail themselves of the facilities for repatriation". Chapter II of the Bill deals with the conditions governing the expenditure of money on the

assisted emigration scheme. The conditions are, briefly, (1) that an Indian who takes advantage of the scheme cannot leave South Africa alone, but must take with him his family; (2) if he returns to the Union within the second or third year, he must return with his family; (3) that in case he returns he must refund the passage money and the bonus before he embarks and must bear himself the cost of the return voyage.

We have said above that the loss of domicile after three years' continuous absence will apply to all races indifferently. It must however be remembered that though the provision is nominally of general application, it will have quite a different effect on Indians from that on Europeans. For if Europeans lose their domicile on account of an absence for over three years, they can acquire it afresh whenever they desire to come back. Loss of domicile thus entails no serious hardship on them, while to Indians loss of Union domicile means a permanent separation from South Africa. Dr. Malan admitted it fully when he said in the Assembly, "That will not in reality affect Europeans, but it will affect Indians who as a class are deemed under the Law of 1913 to be prohibited immigrants." "After an absence of three years Indians will not be able to return to the Union unless they come to the Union as minor children of Indians who are domiciled in the country", while Europeans will be able to come in when they like by satisfying the ordinary requirements of the immigration law of the Union. While therefore the seemingly equal applicability of the clause relating to "domicile" must not delude us into believing that Indians will henceforward stand level with Europeans in this matter and that all discrimination will cease in fact as well as in name it must be admitted that the alteration constitutes an advance on the former position. In another respect, however, the position of Indians has worsened and this brings us back to the first of the two points with which the Bill deals, viz. the further restrictions put on the immigration of Indians. According to the Indians' Relief Act of 1914, Indians who are themselves domiciled in South Africa, are at liberty to introduce into the country their wives and minor children under the age of 16 years, on condition that such Indians, when living in the country, shall have only one wife living in the country and shall not have children by any other living woman in the country. Under this law some 600 persons used to enter South Africa every year. To the South Africans who were prepared to spend an enormous amount of money by way of bonus &c. in order that they might get some Indians out of the country it appeared incongruous that a stream of Indians, mostly boys, should come into the country on the strength of a law which in their view was grossly abused. The present Government had therefore provided in their old Asiatic Bill, which is now abandoned, for the entire prohibition of the entry of this class of persons after the 1st August 1930. The Indo-Union Conference agreed to bring into operation instead the resolution

of the Imperial Conference of 1918, which, while it would impose a restriction on immigration not contemplated in the Indians' Relief Act of 1914, would not prohibit it altogether after some three years as contemplated in the Bill now withdrawn. The Imperial Conference resolution, which is embodied in the present Bill, provides that the minor children of an Indian domiciled in any particular Dominion shall be allowed to enter that Dominion if they are accompanied by their mother or if their mother is already domiciled in such Dominion. The Union Government believes that if this resolution is carried out, the number of minor children who will be introduced into South Africa "will be very much reduced so that practically in that way the further immigration of Indians from abroad will be stopped."

The only other important clause in the Bill is the one amending the Asiatics' Registration Act of the Transvaal, which provides for the cancellation of all registration certificates shown, to the satisfaction of an appeal board or court, to have been fraudulently obtained and for the deportation of the holders of such certificates. The Provincial Division of the Supreme Court, Transvaal, has ruled that even if it is conclusively shown that an Indian had obtained his certificate fraudulently, it cannot be cancelled and an amendment is now being made to set it right. But the clause as drafted was to have retrospective effect giving power to Government to deport persons who as holders of fraudulent certificates might be living in the country for years together. Mr. Duncan on behalf of the South African Party and Mr. Alexander as an Independent pleaded for an amnesty in regard to past offences and complying with this suggestion, Dr. Malan has agreed to draw a sponge over the past and introduced an amendment restricting the operation of the clause to future acts.

EDUCATION IN BOMBAY IN 1924-25.

THE report on public instruction in the Bombay Presidency for 1924-25 which has been recently issued has been overdue by more than a year. Departmental administration reports are proverbially belated publications; but the delay that has taken place in making this report available to the public is nothing short of scandalous. Consequently for the general public it can but have a historical interest. How extremely out of date it is can be imagined from the fact that the affiliation of the Law College at Poona finds mention therein three years after the event and the eight months' leave taken by the Director in 1924 has been chronicled after he had earned another spell of equally prolonged rest. May it not be that, but for this projected leave, the Director may have been more leisurely in issuing the Report? Pressure of work has been assigned as one of the causes of this unconscionable delay. "Finally, and especially since the close of the year under Report, the

transfer of the control of the Primary Schools under the Primary Education Act of 1923 from the Department to the Local Authorities involves an amount of correspondence which the Director of Public Instruction and his office are unable to cope with." If the Director with his present staff finds himself unable to meet satisfactorily and promptly the demands made upon him, the obvious remedy is to strengthen his establishment. Far from that being done, a reduction in the clerical establishment seems to be seriously thought of. We wonder if Mr. Lory himself ever proposed any arrangements for a more efficient discharge of public business in his office; and if so, with what effect. He would be free from blame if his proposals in this behalf were turned down by higher authorities. If no such proposals emanated from him, he must shoulder the responsibility for all this delay in the publication of the report. We have thought fit to dwell at this length on what may appear to some a matter of comparatively minor importance; but that is because we feel strongly that public business in Government offices should be transacted efficiently and promptly.

In these democratic days when a large electorate is expected to use wisely and well the political power given to it, mass education has rightly come to be regarded as the basis of national progress. Let us see what progress has been achieved in this nation-building activity. In this connection our readers will recall the fact that Bombay was the first province to place a Compulsory Education Act on the statute book. This Act was further strengthened in 1923; but by the end of March 1925, the number of municipalities that went in for compulsion did not exceed 5 and, what is still more disappointing, none of these had done so under the 1923 Act. The position was not more hopeful in the case of local boards, none of them having taken over the control of primary education by that time. It may be said that though compulsion could not make much headway, expansion of primary education on a voluntary basis was being pushed on vigorously. But the achievements of the Department in this respect too are most uninspiring. Such schemes were submitted by twelve district local boards, only four of which were so fortunate as to receive Government's sanction. These "involved the opening of 413 new schools with an additional staff of 265 teachers and a recurring expenditure of Rs. 1,86,000, two-thirds of which was to be borne by Government." Why the other eight schemes were rejected is not made clear in the report. But if financial considerations had anything to do with Government's decision in the matter, we cannot help saying that the opening of 252 schools with an additional staff of 106 teachers for which they provided would not have landed Government in very serious financial difficulty. Whatever that be, their action in withholding sanction from these eight schemes appears to us to be very blameworthy. For it is, in our

opinion, necessary that while compulsion will take some time to be general, everything possible ought to be done for the diffusion of primary education on a voluntary basis. How much remains to be done in this respect will be apparent when it is remembered that "on the average one boy's primary school served an area of 10·859 miles and there was one school for every 2·4 inhabited towns and villages. The male population under instruction in Primary Schools was 6·8 per cent." 43 out of 156 municipalities have made primary education free; and while we are assured that poverty is not allowed to come in the way of a child receiving primary education, we do not see why it should not be made absolutely free throughout the presidency, as a preliminary to its being made compulsory in due course. The suggestion cannot be dismissed as impracticable or unreasonable, in view of the very small proportion—it was 3·6 per cent. during 1924-25—the fee receipts bear to the total expenditure on primary education.

One of the most complicated problems connected with the spread of primary education is how to prevent children who have gone through the primary course from relapsing into illiteracy. True it is not peculiar to this province; but that circumstance hardly helps in its solution. While the percentage of boys in the upper primary stage i. e. in standards V to VII was as low as 9·9, that of those in the lower primary stage was as high as 90·1; and of the latter 33 p. c. were in the infant class. This may be stated differently in the Director's own words:—"Of every three boys who enter the infant class only one reaches the IV standard, while of those who complete the IV standard successfully and may be regarded as literate it is believed that the majority relapse into illiteracy in a few years' time." This he attributes to irregular attendance and ineffective teaching consequent upon insufficiency of teachers, especially in the case of the one-teacher schools, of which there were as many as 52 p. c. in 1924-25. This is on the face of it a very unsatisfactory arrangement and the sooner it is found possible to add one more teacher to all such schools, as has been suggested in the Report, the better for the cause of primary education. It is gratifying to learn that the Department has come to realise, though somewhat late, the value of compulsion as an effective means of bringing children to school. After this, may we hope everything possible will be done to hasten its advent?

In regard to secondary education, the Director's complaint that the low scale of salaries paid to teachers in non-Government schools reacts most unfavourably on secondary education in general seems to be quite justifiable. The average monthly pay of the Head-master of a Government High School was Rs. 486, as against Rs. 259 for a high school under private management, the average for assistant master being Rs. 128 and Rs. 63 respectively. These inadequate salaries put him under the necessity of resorting to such means as

the writing of annotations, conducting preparatory classes, etc. for supplementing his income and make it difficult for him to put his best into his work in the school. No wonder instances of utterly ill-equipped students succeeding in reaching the highest standard in a secondary school, but unable to get through their matriculation, are by no means rare. The evil of private coaching classes conducted by or with the help of teachers in secondary schools, which is fast increasing, must, it seems to us, have something to do with undue promotions of boys and the sooner it is put a stop to, the better will it be for secondary education. But this is impossible without an appreciable improvement in their salaries, which should be effected as early as possible.

AGRICULTURAL OPERATIONS IN INDIA.

THE Review of Agricultural Operations in India for 1925-26 issued by the Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India is a very interesting document giving in a handy form a summary of the agricultural activities over the whole of India. The weather conditions are said to have been fairly good, although in certain parts the late rains failed almost completely.

The economic work on crops has naturally yielded some striking results. The main question has been one of purification of the mixtures in seed that is prevalent everywhere. From this point, pure line selection and hybridisation have been undertaken with very good results. The supply of pure seed of high yielding strains is a matter of the utmost importance and ought to find the first place in the programme of every department of Agriculture. The interesting fact is stated that where there is a deficiency of water for the growing of rice the application of phosphatic manures are particularly helpful in maturing a crop which would otherwise suffer from shortage of moisture. Of particular interest is the description of the work of the Central Cotton Committee and the Technological Laboratory under its control, the Institute of Plant Industry just commencing at Indore, and the Cane-breeding Station at Coimbatore. One striking fact is the rapid increase of the area under groundnut and the export of oilseeds and cake. Considering the value of cake both as fodder and manure, some means will have to be devised for their better utilisation in this country. The question of cold storage is receiving attention and when refrigerating cars and cold storage godowns come into being, we may expect to see a better utilisation of the fruits that grow in such abundance in this country. The renovation of the pasture lands is of supreme importance to the cattle industry and it is a good sign that this is receiving some attention.

Soil surveys have been commenced in various parts of the country and considering the value it has, it is hoped that this work will be pushed on vigorously and started in every Province and State.

It has been recognised that the soils in all parts have generally been starved for years, and still we see that huge quantities of oil cake and bones are being exported every year. It is time that something was done to stop this export and to see that more of green manure, oilcakes, and bones are applied to the land. It has been proved that the box-system of storing manure is the best, and that the animals do not lose condition under this system. Attempts are being made to produce artificial farmyard manure, and some of the methods described ought to prove useful in places where cattle manure is scarce. It is very interesting to note that the feeding value of grain produced by the application of farmyard manure is more than that produced by the application of artificial manures. This should make us wary about the wholesale introduction of artificial manures for grain crops. Animal nutrition experiments have shown the value of the sowing of crops, and that rice straw has a better nutritive value than wheat straw. A very successful method of eradicating lantana has been described. Apiculture is beginning to receive attention and we hope that ere long suitable strains of bees and apparatus will be made available to farmers.

The Chapter on Agricultural Engineering is very interesting. It has been recognised that attention will now have to be diverted to the finding out and tapping of underground supplies of water. The exploitation of surface water has been thoroughly done and means will now have to be found of utilizing the large supplies of water which are known to exist underground. The introduction of efficient types of implements is another very useful line of work being done by this section. A note of warning has however to be sounded in this connection, and that is that in the enthusiasm of introducing new implements the needs of small farmers may be lost sight of. Further, when new implements and machines are introduced, steps should immediately be taken for a ready supply of spares. It is only when facilities for repair and spares of all kinds are readily available, that machines like tractors can be expected to be utilised to the fullest advantage.

Propaganda and extension work is being carried on on a large scale by all Provinces. Some of the phases of this work that are worth mentioning are the establishment of Agricultural Associations and Co-operative Societies working in co-operation with the Agricultural departments, the setting apart of a portion of experimental farms to be run as economic units and the utilization of the farmers' own lands for conducting demonstration work. This latter method which appeals directly to the farmers is very useful in spreading the best methods of agriculture as evolved on the Government Farms.

Agricultural "bias" schools are said to have great possibilities, and it is said that special agricultural schools are never likely to be popular. Between the "bias" schools and the colleges there

is too big a hiatus and it seems to us that institutions offering a complete course in agricultural training to such as want it and at the same time are not eligible to enter colleges must find a place in any scheme of agricultural education.

It has been recognised that co-operative societies must function both as money-lender and marketer of produce. There has to be a freer supply of money to the farmer and a better organisation for giving to him the full value for his labour. The institution of co-operative marketing agencies will minimise the losses due to middlemen and help to give the farmer better returns for his work.

The serum simultaneous method of inoculation of cattle against Rinderpest has proved quite effective in the Mysore State, which conducted operations on a large scale. Pure breeding of cattle has been greatly appreciated, and facilities have to be provided to the farmers for the maintenance of bulls of good pedigree. Poultry-raising has received considerable attention in the United Provinces. This is a very important subsidiary industry on all farms, and we trust more attention will be paid to it hereafter in other provinces as well.

It is said that not enough money has been provided in the provinces for research work, and this is a great handicap to progress. The number of research workers is also said to be inadequate for the problems that have to be worked out. It is hard to believe that among the hundreds of students passed out by the Indian Universities year after year, there are not available the few research workers that are required by the Agricultural departments. The facilities and the inducements offered to research workers may be such as not to attract the right type of workers to this field. An investigation into this matter would be quite worth while. Emphasis is laid on the need of co-operation and co-ordination between the various provinces. This could be carried out by periodical conferences of the various Directors of Agriculture. Conferences could be held at different places for certain specific purposes, and thus the work of all the sections of agriculture could be co-ordinated.

GUNDAPPA S. KURPAD.

REVIEWS.

THE SCIENCE OF REVOLUTION.

MARX, LENIN AND THE SCIENCE OF REVOLUTION. By MAX EASTMAN. (George Allen & Unwin, Ltd., London.) 1926. 7½ x 5. pp. 267. 7s. 6d.

THE revolutionary dictatorship established by Lenin in Russia in 1917 has been subjected to much criticism, mostly hostile and destructive; in this book we have a criticism and a review of certain phases of that revolution which, while penetratingly frank and critical, is at the same time sympathetic and constructive. We should of course naturally expect as much from the gifted author who is a Communist of the first water and a writer on these subjects of international repute. What is more,

Max Eastman has spent a considerable amount of time in Soviet Russia studying the question at first hand, and his knowledge of Russian and other Continental languages, together with his revolutionary proclivities, which must have found him an entrance to the most exclusive *sanctum sanctorum* of the headquarters of Communism, invest his utterances and his conclusions with a weight and an authority that cannot be ignored.

Further, his book is more than a review and a criticism; it is a scholarly analysis of the causes of the Russian revolution and of revolution itself, which latter the author attempts to codify and raise to the dignity of a science—the science of social revolution.

A DANGEROUS PIECE OF LITERATURE.

From this standpoint the book is a dangerous piece of literature, at least it would be dangerous if it were convincing. That, after all, is the real value to society of a book like this, for while it is frankly and fearlessly revolutionary there is nothing subterranean about it; you know exactly where you are and with what kind of theories, methods and policies you have to deal.

The first part of the book, consisting of 12 chapters, concerns itself with the philosophy of Marxism, and the first chapter with thought and "the function of thinking." In the early part of the work much stress is laid on the necessity of "thinking scientifically" (the plea for scientific thinking is kept up throughout the book) and of freeing oneself from the glamour of animistic philosophy and the domination of a religious psychology. Some attempt is even made to get at the origin and nature of thought, but as the author's outlook is distinctly materialistic, if not atheistic, it will be easily understood, especially in India, that the results of such an attempt must be, as indeed they are, disappointing and defective. "The prior thing in the world", he says, on p. 31, "is matter and not mind, but the prior thing in mind is impulse and not reason." That is not very far removed from the exploded theory of Karl Vogt who said: "the brain produces thought as the liver produces bile," and it is somewhat surprising to find such an otherwise erudite writer as Max Eastman resting his very modern theory of the social revolution upon such a flimsy and unsatisfactory foundation, and calling it "science."

But apart from this rather basic defect—basic because it colours and vitally affects the author's handling of the whole subject, whether he is dealing with "Marxism and psychology of Freud" or "The theory of the class struggle", with "Ideology and the art of revolution" or "Marxism as a science", with the "Bolsheviks" or with the "Mensheviks", with "Lenin's philosophy" or with "the attitude to religion, art and morals"—there is much in the book that is shrewd, scientific (so far as it goes) and illuminating.

MARX'S PHILOSOPHY CRITICISED.

The author, as might be expected, finds a little difficulty in dealing with the teaching of Karl Marx, the father of revolutionary socialism on the Continent; for Marx, as is well known, was, in his college days, a disciple of the German philosopher Hegel; and though he was influenced a little later by the materialistic writings of Ludwig Feuerbach, his chief work—*Das Kapital*—is strongly tinged with Hegelian philosophy, the heart of which is that the real world is not matter but spirit or a "process of thought" or idea—another name perhaps for God—which evolves by the conflict of opposites and which opposites resolve themselves into higher opposites, *ad infinitum*. With regard to

this philosophy, the author says (p. 22): "Hegelianism is like a mental disease—you cannot know it until you get it, and then you cannot know because you have got it." He rightly considers that Marx was never quite able to free himself from the captivity imposed upon him by what he calls "the thought conjurings of the High Priest of the Idea", and he regards this as a serious defect in his teaching. On p. 92, speaking of Marx's best known work "Das Kapital", he says: "It combines the principal vices of the classical British economy with the principal vices of the German philosophy. In that sense it is indeed a classic, and has inevitably found its way, along with so many other classics, to the top shelves of a great many libraries. It contains a wealth of interesting ideas and much invaluable empirical material, but as a 'System of Economics' it must inevitably retire, along with the rest of the classical economy and that classical philosophy to which tradition it belongs, into a position of an intellectual "object of art"—an ingenious and fertile historic curiosity. For it is not in its fundamental form and theoretic substance a scientific book".

KARL MARX AND REVOLUTION.

At the same time the author, realising no doubt the enormous influence that Marxism has exercised in bringing about the Russian revolution and the great esteem in which it is still held on the Continent, providing, as it does, a working basis for the social revolution, makes an attempt to liberate it from its metaphysics and restate it in the form of a "practical science." "Marx saw", he observes, "that economics does define the essential mechanism of human society. This society, he saw, is neither a political nor a civil gathering, but a business association; and the major forces which control its operations are economic class interests, The Marxian method is to accentuate the class struggle between workers and capitalists, organise it both nationally and internationally, and carry it forward, undecieved by political forms and ideologies, and in full consciousness of the ruthlessness of the forces in play, to the goal of a revolutionary dictatorship of the proletariat. . . . That is what Marxism is, in outline, in so far as it is a concrete science of revolution and not an abstract philosophy of the universe."

MARXISM ACCORDING TO MARX.

The definition rather suggests that the wish is father to the thought, for the author is of course well aware of the fact that there are millions of people on the Continent, and more particularly in Russia, who interpret Marx in quite a different light. With Marx almost everything in history and society is thought of in terms of economics and "production-relations." Everything is in a state of evolution from the lower to the higher. What is more, at the back of this evolutionary movement which is essentially economic, there is a Determinism which moves towards the goal with a fixity and tenacity of purpose that is irresistible and undeflectable. By working with or against this "economic necessity," the processes, can be accelerated or retarded temporarily, but no great change can come to fruition until the full time is ripe. Perhaps the best summary of this idea is to be found in the following extract from Marx's "Critique of Political Economy" (Max Eastman's own translation): "In the social production of their subsistence men enter into determined and necessary relations with each other which are independent of their wills—relations which correspond to a definite stage of development of their material productive forces. The sum of these production relations forms the

economic structure of society, the real basis upon which a juridical and political superstructure arises, and to which definite forms of social consciousness correspond. The mode of production of the material subsistence conditions the social, political and spiritual life process in general. At a certain stage of their development the material productive forces of society come into contradiction with the existing production relations. From being forms of development of the productive forces these relations turn into fetters upon their development. Then comes an epoch of social revolution... No social formation ever disappears before all the productive forces are developed for which it has room, and new higher relations of production never appear before the material conditions of their existence are matured in the womb of the old society." And again: "The organisation of the revolutionary elements as a class presupposes the finished existence of all the productive forces which can be developed in the bosom of the old society... The industrially more developed country reveals to the less developed the image of its own future." (The last quotation is from the preface of Kapital.)

According to this, America, where capitalism is ripest, should have given us the revolution and not Russia where industrialism is in a backward state.

But Lenin, who both brought about and carried through the revolution, said; "Without a revolutionary theory there can be no revolutionary movement. The statement that no efforts even of the most inspired ideologist can distract the workers' movement from the path determined by material forces, is equivalent to a renunciation of socialism."

REVOLUTIONARY ENGINEERING.

The general heading for the second part of the book, which also consists of 12 chapters, is "The Science of Revolutionary Engineering," and is even more interesting than the first part. In these chapters the author has some very trenchant remarks to make about the conduct of affairs in Soviet Russia and about certain dangerous tendencies that have appeared and that require firm handling. He condemns a recent manifesto from Moscow which calls upon the "literary artists of all countries to organise an 'International of Proletarian World Literature' and be subordinate to a single practical enterprise." "Of this he remarks that "No great or consecrated poet or artist in the world could sincerely subscribe to such a manifesto. They should defend their independence, in my opinion, both against the attempt to organise them and against the attempt to intimidate them." But at the same time he thinks that they should be willing to submit to a "negative" censorship which would suppress anything positively counter-revolutionary.

COMMUNIST BUREAUCRATISM.

He frankly recognises the new danger to revolutionary progress that has arisen in Russia in the form of "bureaucratism in the proletarian government", where leaders who were once "disreputable rebels have suddenly been transformed into sovereign officials and captains of industry", to use his own words. His remedy is scientific rationalism both in government and in education. "To me", he says on p. 208, "the most unsatisfactory feature of the revolutionary experiment in Russia so far, is the failure to establish a great system of education. They have established in the place of it this great solemn fetish of dialectic-materialism, which is nothing but the old shoes of the Almighty God".

He declares that all the thinking of the third International since the Russian revolution has been confined within the limits of the formula: "This is the period of the breakdown of capitalism", a formula which he affirms belongs to the metaphysics of Marxism and which is unscientific. He claims that under the circumstances the more correct and scientific formula to have adopted, would have been: "We can break capitalism down now". This is a noteworthy admission to make, but we fail to see how this or anything else the author advances in the book in favour of a scientific social revolution supplies a satisfactory motive for the encouragement of class hatred, class warfare and the transformation of society by the violent and revolutionary methods contemplated by the author and frankly advocated by the leaders of the Communist Party. We are grateful however to the author for his own forceful contribution towards the solution of this great and growing problem, and we heartily recommend a study of this book.

E. KIRK.

MINIMUM WAGE.

A STUDY OF THE MINIMUM WAGE. By J. H. RICHARDSON. (George Allen & Unwin Ltd. London.) 1927. 8 x 5 $\frac{1}{4}$. pp. 198. 7s. 6d.

THAT human labour ought not to be treated as a commodity and its price ought not to be fixed solely by the law of demand and supply, has now become a universally accepted principle and has been solemnly recognised in the Labour Part of the Peace Treaty of Versailles. The operation of stern competition has been to some extent modified by what are known as Factory Acts and by other kinds of Labour Legislation, since the second half of the nineteenth century. Legislation for fixing hours of work, minimum age for employment and for determining some other conditions of service came to be enacted at the earliest part of this period. But legislation creating some machinery for fixing the minimum wage was only first passed in 1894 in New Zealand. Australia followed next. Great Britain and the State of Massachusetts in America had some legislation before the Great War. After the War several countries in Europe also followed suit and the subject is now being considered internationally by the International Labour Conference which will give a preliminary consideration at this year's Conference at Geneva and will be finally considered by the next year's Conference and the report recently published by the International Labour Office on this subject gives its full history. The publication of Mr. Richardson's book at this time will be very useful for conducting a study of this subject which is now receiving attention internationally.

The main object of fixing the minimum wage is to prevent sweating of unorganised workers. It also helps the employers in an industry by assisting standardisation of wages. Incidentally it also helps the work of organising labour as some of the legislation on the subject insists upon complaints being made by a trade union and also by the method of giving representation to trade unions on the Minimum Wage Board. But there is also another view that when wages can be increased by law the usefulness of organisation becomes less to that extent. Such legislation to some extent also prevents industrial unrest.

There are three main bases for fixing minimum wages:—(1) The relation of wages in allied trades

or other industries, (2) The living wage and (3) The capacity of the industry to pay. The principle underlying the first basis is that of 'equal pay for equal work'. The two main reasons for which it is given importance is that public conscience is satisfied when a given group of workers is paid the same wage as the other groups and the second is able to pay a certain wage, the others can be reasonably expected to do the same.

The determination of what is 'a living wage' will always remain a controversial subject as the ideas of different classes of people as to what is necessary for keeping a human being in reasonable comfort and as to what rights a human being is entitled to, differ greatly. In any case the wages must be such as to provide maintenance for the worker and his dependants and enable him to do his duties as a citizen.

In a competitive system of industry 'the capacity of one industry to pay' cannot be wholly ignored. By the fixation of minimum wages some inefficiently managed undertakings or those industries for which there are no natural advantages will be forced to stop. But there is no doubt that the loss will be made good by the extension of the operation of others. In any case workers must be ready to suffer some temporary loss instead of allowing inefficiency and misery to be perpetuated. The temporary loss of unemployment can be provided for by unemployment insurance.

The present day minimum wage legislation is generally limited to some groups of workers and the minimum wages fixed have generally relation to workers in one industry only. Mr. Richardson having accepted the view that this method only touches a fringe of the problem advocates fixing a national minimum varying according to the total productivity of the nation and in Chapter VI has discussed the method of fixing the national minimum. The author has come to the conclusion that to meet the cases of large families the system of family allowances to supplement the minimum wage fixed in relation to a family of ordinary size, is desirable. The questions of the relation of the wages of men and women and also of providing for the sub-standard workers are fairly discussed. Subsequent chapters deal with the various kinds of machinery devised for fixing the minimum wages in different countries and the methods of enforcing the decisions, and the last chapter states very briefly what is practicable internationally.

The book is written in a scientific spirit and is a valuable addition to the growing literature on the subject.

N. M. JOSHI

RURAL ECONOMICS.

STUDIES IN RURAL ECONOMICS—VAZHAMANGALAM. By VENKETASUBRAHMANYAN. (Natesan & Co., Madras.) 1927. 7 x 4 $\frac{3}{4}$. pp. 115. Re. 1.

THE book purports to be an economic study in detail of a village in the State of Pudukotah in South India. Here we have a presentation, in readable form, of the details of the economic conditions in a village, which are not often realised. It must be said at the outset that to those who know more or less intimately conditions obtaining in our villages, it sounds all so familiar. A comparison of this book with previous publications of the kind shows a remarkable similarity in the villages of South India at least.

The village selected for study has precarious and scanty rainfall, the soil is not rich, and the farmers themselves are not very well off. The rainfall averages 35.74 inches and during the last 21 years, has varied between 21.56 to 61.75. The distribution is very uneven. The village has six irrigation tanks, commanding an area of 414.39 acres. Wells are also used for irrigation, the cost of these is not heavy and they have generally proved economically sound.

The system of assessment in vogue in the old days was that the State took half of the gross yield from the land, the other half going to the cultivator. This system gave room to so much of corruption that settlement operations were commenced by Sir Seshia Sastry, and the cultivators were given an occupancy right in their holdings. Later, a revenue survey was undertaken in 1908 and the settlement based on a scientific classification of soils introduced. Due to the Hindu Law of Inheritance, the individual holdings are being gradually reduced in extent. Between 1910 and 1923, it had shrunk from 4.47 acres to 3.88 acres.

An enquiry into the family expenses revealed the fact that Rs. 254 is the amount necessary to keep an average family of 6 persons in bare comfort for a year, and it has been worked out that for this income about 8 acres of land are necessary. About 100 acres are left fallow every year. Thus agriculture alone cannot support the inhabitants and many utilize their spare time in working as coolies. The introduction of old time subsidiary industries like hand spinning and weaving, and poultry raising, bee-keeping, and sericulture wherever feasible, would help in the proper utilization of the farmers' spare time and add to their income. The question of fragmented and scattered holdings is one which deserves the earnest attention of all workers.

Double crop lands are a rarity. The usual dry crops like ragi, cambu, groundnut and pulses are grown. There is no deliberate rotation of crops. Some lands are left fallow because of want of rain and cultivation and thus get rest and chance for recuperation. The cattle have grazing for about six months of the year, and they all get straw during night time. They are not given any extra nutrient. The cattle are not as a rule housed in separate sheds. The houses are on an average 400 sq. feet in area and there are about ten houses with an area of 1000 sq. feet. The sanitation is very defective, the drainage water is allowed to stagnate in pools. The manure is stored away from the houses. The percentage of literates works out at 7.85. The percentage of the school-going children is 21.7. There is no school in the village. All the inhabitants are engaged in agriculture and connected occupations. Of the total income of the village, 69.7% is obtained from land. The total indebtedness of the village amounts to Rs. 9,820 with a total interest of Rs. 1,583, the rate of interest ranging from 6% to 30%. This position is not so bad as obtains in certain villages where the general indebtedness is much higher. The ways of money lenders are much the same here as elsewhere. The average incidence of compulsory charges per acre is Rs. 3-8-0. Due to the fact that a bumper season can be expected only once in seven years and that the income of two good years will not balance the total of the usual debts incurred in three average years, the village is in a state of chronic and irredeemable indebtedness.

To counteract the existing evils, the author suggests.—

(1) The increase of production over consumption, which could be done by digging more wells,

the introduction of dry-farming methods, a change of crops and the introduction of a variety of crops;

(2) The supply of cheap credit by co-operative effort, the establishment of land mortgage banks and the granting of long term loans.

(3) The adoption of the improved agricultural methods, the use of iron ploughs and better seed, consolidation of holdings, waste material used as manure and co-operative purchase of seeds and marketing of produce.

(4) The introduction of subsidiary occupations like poultry-keeping, cattle-rearing, vegetable and fruit gardening. The introduction of hand-spinning is considered premature. Basket-making, mat-weavings and rope-making may be introduced as cottage industries.

(5) The introduction of rural bias into primary and secondary schools.

The book reveals a very interesting similarity in conditions existing in villages all over South India at any rate, and it may be presumed to be equally true, with certain modifications, of villages in North India. The aim of these studies is to present material for the proper organisation of the villages for better production, better sanitation, and better living. In these studies, an account of the village life as a unit would be very valuable, especially in these days when we are harking back to the old village panchayat system. One thing, however, is clear, and that is that the position is not so utterly hopeless as some people try to make it out to be. We have now a fairly good idea of the economic conditions of our villages. While the accumulation of such data may be useful and may be undertaken, may we plead for the utilization of the available data and commencement of the work of rural organization for better living? This work demands the services of intelligent and enthusiastic young men who are in sympathy with the rural folk and if these studies will help to bring them out, they will have served a useful purpose.

GUNDAPPA S. KURPAD.

CORRESPONDENCE.

MYSORE AND THE VICEROY'S VISIT.

THE Publicity Officer to the Mysore Government has sent us a copy of his letter to the Editor, *Swarajya*, Madras, which like us had apparently criticised the proposed heavy expenditure of Rs. 1½ lakhs on H. E. the Viceroy's visit to the State. The letter runs as follows:—

"With reference to the leaderette published in *Swarajya* of the 15th June under the heading "Unconscionable" commenting on the provision made in the Budget Estimates for the next year for expenditure in connection with the forthcoming visit of His Excellency the Viceroy, I have to point out that it is calculated to create misleading impression in the public mind, which is not warranted by the facts of the case.

It is not true, as the article seeks to make out, that the whole of the sum of Rs. 1½ lakhs provided in the Budget is to be spent on the reception and entertainment arrangements in connection with the Viceregal visit, though you will doubtless recognise the propriety of according to high personages such as the Viceroy of India a welcome worthy of His Excellency's exalted rank and position. A good portion of the amount provided for the visit has been earmarked for works of permanent benefit, such as the improvement of roads, o

places to be visited by His Excellency and the like. It will thus appear that your comments are far wide of the mark and I shall be obliged if you will kindly take such steps as you may deem suitable for the publication of the correct facts."

SERVANTS OF INDIA SOCIETY.

MEMBERS' WORK IN 1926-27.

MR. KUNZRU'S REPORT.

1926.

April.—Indian National Party Conference. Attended a meeting of the Intermediate Education Committee appointed to make suggestions for the improvement of high school and intermediate education.

Middle of April to middle of May.—Routine work of the Servants of India Society, Seva Samiti and Boy Scouts' Association.

Middle of May to beginning of June.—Tour in Naini Tal and Almora in connection with Naik work.

June, July and August.—Attendance at the annual session of the Servants of India Society and collection of funds for Fire Relief Fund.

September, October, November and first week of December.—Election campaign and inspection of certain colleges in the first week of September on behalf of the Intermediate Education Committee.

Attendance at meetings of the Intermediate Education Committee and session of the National Liberal Federation at Akola.

1927.

First half of January.—Routine work at Allahabad.

Second half of January, February and March.—Session of the Assembly at Delhi.

First week of April.—Tour in my constituency.

April.—Kumbh Mela at Hardwar and tour to collect funds for the Servants of India Society.

May.—Routine work at Allahabad and work in connection with the establishment of Seva Samitis on the Badri Nath Pilgrim route.

H. N. KUNZRU.

MR. TIVARY'S REPORT.

I was on leave till the end of July 1926. From August onwards I was engaged in election work which continued till December 1926. In January and March I attended the sittings of the U. P. Legislative Council.

I was at Hardwar in April for about 10 days in connection with the Seva Samiti work, while the major part of the month of May was spent in drafting the constitution of the All-India Seva Samiti and the report of the Kumbh work done by the Samiti.

I have also been attending to my duties as a member of the District Local Board. In the course of the year, I served on the Wetherill Committee, the Board of Vernacular Education, the E. I. Ry. Advisory Committee and the District Boards Education Reorganisation Committee.

V. N. TIVARY.

MR. SURYANARAYANA RAO'S REPORT.

During the year under report, I have been in charge of the work of the Devadhar Malabar Reconstruction Trust and the Depressed Classes Mission, Mangalore. I had to divide my time between these two organisations going to Mangalore as often as

possible. Besides the work of these two organisations, I am also connected with the Distress Relief Fund Committee of which the Collector of Malabar is the President. I am also one of the Secretaries of the Prohibition League, Malabar, and the Railway Passengers and Traffic Association. I am the Secretary of a Committee that is conducting a Sanskrit school mainly for the depressed classes. Besides I am serving on the Calicut Welfare Committee and the Health Week Continuation Committee. I am the convener of the Work and Wages Sub-Committee formed by the latter Committee. I am also the Hon. Treasurer of the local Boy Scouts' Association. I am one of the Secretaries of the District Co-operative Federation.

Fuller information about my work on the Devadhar Malabar Reconstruction Trust and the Depressed Classes Mission will be found in their respective annual reports.

During the year I was in charge of the tour programme of the President of our Society and the Hon. the Minister for Development. This occupied some part of my time, as I accompanied them both in their tours in Malabar and South Kanara.

In November last I appeared before the Unemployment Committee appointed by the Government of Madras and offered evidence. I have just now completed my answers to the questionnaire issued by the special officer appointed for the survey of cottage industries.

For more than a month after my return from the last Anniversary session, of the Society I was engaged in making collections for the Fire Relief Fund.

R. SURYANARAYANA RAO.

MR. VENKATASUBBAIYA'S REPORT.

From the middle of June to the end of August 1926 I was engaged in making collections for the Fire Relief Fund. They were made chiefly in the Cities of Bangalore and Mysore. I made some attempt at collection in Madras City.

From October to the end of January I was busy conducting the advanced co-operative training class organised by the Madras Provincial Co-operative Union. I did this work as Secretary of the Education Committee of the Provincial Co-operative Union. I lectured to the students in certain subjects, took them out on excursions and was generally responsible for the conduct of the class.

For about a fortnight in the beginning of February I took part in training the students of a co-operative training class organised by the District Federation of East Godavari, in which connection I also did some propaganda work in the villages of that district.

In the latter part of May I gave discourses on co-operation for about a week to three rural reconstruction supervisors deputed for training in co-operation by the Chinleput District Board.

During the year I have been connected as joint secretary with the following institutions: (1) The Madras Vigilance Association the object of which is the suppression of commercialised vice. (2) The Children's Aid Society which conducts a Remand Home for boys and a certified school for girls. (3) The Madras Temperance League. (4) The Madras Liberal League, (5) The Social Service League, and (6) The Madras Railway Passengers' Association.

Work more or less of a routine nature has got to be done for all these Associations.

V. VENKATASUBBAIYA.

MISCELLANEOUS.

JUSTICE IN KENYA.

PITIALE PLIGHT OF NATIVES: NO PUNISHMENT FOR WHITE MEN.

MR. LEONARD WOOLF in a letter to *The Manchester Guardian* says:—

Kenya is physically a part of Africa; politically it is a part of the British Empire; morally what is it? A part of No Man's Land? It is inhabited by hundreds of thousands of Africans and a few thousand white men. These few thousand white men are now demanding what they call "self-government"—which is to be self-government only for the white men, with the hundreds of thousands of Africans handed over to their unfettered control. The kind of justice which the Africans of Kenya will get from the white planter if this kind of "self-government" is given to Kenya may be seen from the result of a case recently tried there, and reported in the *East African Standard* of February 5.

One Sunday night the native labourers on the farm of a planter, Mr. Milton, were having a dance. Another planter, Mr. Allen, had the adjoining farm. The noise of the dance disturbed Mr. Allen, Mr. Allen's mother, his wife, and his child. He sent two of his men to the dancers to tell them to stop the noise. The dancers replied that it was Mr. Milton's farm, not Mr. Allen's and they could dance as much as they liked. Mr. Allen then took a rifle, loaded it, and went off to the dancers, who, at his appearance, disappeared into their huts. Mr. Allen immediately fired at a hut on one of the huts and hit it. A native called Mathoo came out of one of the huts and asked him what he was doing firing at huts in which there were people. "This is Mr. Milton's farm," said Mathoo, "go." According to the native witnesses Mr. Allen then gave Mathoo a blow or thrust in the chest with the butt of the rifle, and as he fell, struck him over the head again with the butt of his rifle. Mr. Allen's story was that Mathoo was drunk and threatened him with a large knife; that he (Allen) pushed him over with the butt of his rifle, and when he threatened him again, in self-defence aimed a blow at his neck but caught him on the head. Mr. Allen went home after this. Mathoo was ill next day, but refused to go to the hospital. On the following day he was taken to the hospital in a car, but died two hours after admission. The medical evidence showed that he died of a fractured skull. Allen was tried before a jury of Europeans and acquitted both of murder and man-slaughter.

These are the bare facts of the case. British justice, as between European and native, when left in the hands of the planters themselves, is seen to be a curious and distorted thing. Kenya, let us recall the fact, is in Africa, but the Africans of Kenya may not make a noise or dance if by so doing they disturb the white man, his mother, his wife, or his child. A white man, if disturbed by Africans dancing and singing (in Africa), may walk on to land which does not belong to him, fire a rifle in order to threaten or intimidate the inhabitants, and, when threatened in turn by one of the inhabitants, may kill him with impunity. That is the kind of law and justice which the

native of Kenya gets from the white planter when the white planter is in control—it is not law or justice as understood by civilised people in other parts of the world. Would Mr. Allen have dared to act in France or Italy,—nay, India or Ceylon, China or Peru, as he did in Africa?

Mr. Allen is not more to blame than the jury which acquitted him, or, perhaps, than a great majority of the Kenya planters. In similar circumstances, as the verdict shows, they might have acted as he did. But that only hammers in the lesson that they are not fit persons to exercise unfettered control over the government of Kenya and over the natives of Kenya.

WANTED

An educated and beautiful Brahmin widow of 20-25 in marriage by a widower of 30 having three children and getting Rs. 200 per month. Apply to:—

S. C/o Servant of India, P. O. Deccan Gymkhana, Poona.

SUMMONS FOR DISPOSAL OF SUIT.

(ORDER 5, RULES 1 AND 5.)

IN THE COURT OF THE SMALL CAUSE COURT JUDGE

AT ALIGARH.

SUIT NO. 482 OF 1927.

BUDH SAGAR NULULAL, SON OF BHALE SINGH, CASTE BRAHMAN, LOCKS MANUFACTURER, MUDUR GATE, ALIGARH. } Plaintiff..

Versus

GOPAL DAS } Defendant.

TO,

GOPAL DAS SON OF JAMUNA DAS, C/o SURAJMAL OMKARMAL, BANGALOW, B. B. & C. I. Ry.

MATUNGA, BOMBAY. MUNSHIF, BOMBAY.

WHEREAS Plaintiff has instituted a suit against you for Rs. 270-0-0, you are hereby summoned to appear in this Court in person or by a pleader duly instructed, and able to answer all material questions relating to the suit, or who shall be accompanied by some person able to answer all such questions, on the fifth (5th) day of July 1927, at 10 o'clock in the forenoon, to answer the claim; and as the day fixed for your appearance is appointed for the final disposal of the suit, you must be prepared to produce on that day all the witnesses upon whose evidence, and all the documents upon which, you intend to rely in support of your defence.

Take notice that, in default of your appearance on the day before mentioned, the suit will be heard and determined in your absence.

Given under my hand and the seal of the Court, this day of 23rd June 1927.

(Sd.) ILLEGIBLE,

Munsarim,

SMALL CAUSE COURT, ALIGARH.