

**BUREAU OF EDUCATION,**

**2**

**INDIA**

---

**INDIAN EDUCATION**

**1922-23.**



**CALCUTTA: GOVERNMENT OF INDIA  
CENTRAL PUBLICATION BRANCH**

**1924**

# Agents for the Sale of Books Published by the Government of India Central Publication Branch.

## EUROPE.

Constable & Co., 10, Orange Street, Leicester Square, London, W.C.  
 Kegan Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., 68-74, Gutter Lane, E.C., and 39, New Oxford Street, London, W.C.  
 Bernard Quaritch, 11, Grafton Street, New Bond Street, London, W.  
 F. S. King & Sons, 2 & 4, Great Smith Street, Westminster, London, S. W.  
 Grindlay & Co., 54, Parliament Street, London, S.W.  
 Luzac & Co., 46, Great Russell Street, London, W.C.  
 W. Thacker & Co., 2, Creed Lane, London, E.C.  
 T. Fisher Unwin, Ltd., 1, Adelphi Terrace, London, W.C.

Wheldon and Wesley, Ltd., 2, 3 & 4, Arthur Street, New Oxford Street, London, W.C. 2.  
 East and West Ltd., 3, Victoria Street, London, S.W. 1.  
 B. H. Blackwell, 50 & 51, Broad Street, Oxford.  
 Deighton Bell & Co., Ltd., Cambridge.  
 Oliver and Boyd, Tweeddale Court, Edinburgh.  
 E. Ponsonby, Ltd., 116, Grafton Street, Dublin.  
 Ernest Loroux, 28, Rue Bonaparte, Paris.  
 Martinus Nijhoff, The Hague, Holland.  
 Otto Harrassowitz, Leipzig.  
 Friedländer und Sohn, Berlin.

## INDIA AND CEYLON.

Thacker, Spink & Co., Calcutta and Simla.  
 W. Newman & Co., Ltd., Calcutta.  
 K. Cambay & Co., Calcutta.  
 S. K. Lahiri & Co., Calcutta.  
 The Indian School Supply Depot, 309, Bow Bazar Street, Calcutta, and 226, Nawabpur, Dacca.  
 Butterworth & Co. (India), Ltd., Calcutta.  
 Rai M. C. Sarcar Bahadur & Sons, 90-2a, Harrison Road, Calcutta.  
 The Weldon Library, 26, Chowringhee Road, Calcutta.  
 Standard Literature Company, Limited, Calcutta.  
 Association Press, Calcutta.  
 Chukerverty, Chatterjee & Co., Ltd., 13, College Square, Calcutta.  
 Higginbotham & Co., Madras.  
 V. Kalyanarama Iyer & Co., Madras.  
 P. R. Rama Iyer & Co., Madras.  
 Roche and Sons, Madras.  
 Bright & Co., Trivandrum.  
 V. S. Swaminathan, Bookseller, West Tower Street, Madras.  
 Thacker & Co., Ltd., Bombay.  
 D. B. Taraporevals, Sons & Co., Bombay.  
 Sunder Pandurang, Bombay.  
 Ram Chandra Govind & Sons, Kalbadevi, Bombay.  
 Proprietor, New Kitabghana, Poona.  
 The Manager, Oriental Book Supplying Agency, 15, Shukrawar, Poona City.  
 The Standard Bookstall, Karachi, Rawalpindi, Murree, Lahore and Quetta.

Karsandas Narandas & Sons, Surat.  
 A. H. Wheeler & Co., Allahabad, Calcutta and Bombay.  
 N. B. Mathur, Supdt., Nazir Kanun Hind Press, Allahabad.  
 The North India Christian Tract and Book Society, 18, Olive Road, Allahabad.  
 Ram Dayal Agarwala, 184, Ratra, Allahabad.  
 Manager, Newal Kishore Press, Lucknow.  
 The Upper India Publishing House, Ltd., 41, Aminabad Park, Lucknow.  
 Munshi Soeta Ram, Managing Proprietor, Indian Army Book Depot, Juhl, Cawnpore.  
 Rai Sahib M. Gulab Singh & Sons, Mufid-i-Am Press, Lahore and Allahabad.  
 Rama Krishna & Sons, Booksellers, Anarkali, Lahore.  
 Manager of the Imperial Book Depot, 63, Chandney Chawk Street, Delhi.  
 Oxford Book and Stationery Company, Delhi.  
 Supdt., American Baptist Mission Press, Rangoon.  
 Proprietor, Rangoon Times Press, Rangoon.  
 The Modern Publishing House, Ltd., 70 Sparks Street, Rangoon.  
 The International Buddhist Book Depot, Post Box No. 971, Rangoon.  
 Manager, the "Hitavada," Nagpur.  
 S. C. Talukdar, Proprietor, Students & Co. Coorb Behar.  
 Times of Ceylon Co., Ltd.  
 The Manager, Ceylon Observer, Colombo.

## CONTENTS.

	PAGE.
Preface	
I. General . . . . .	1
II. Administration and Control . . . . .	8
III. University Education . . . . .	9
IV. Secondary Education . . . . .	11
V. Primary Education . . . . .	13
VI. Female Education . . . . .	16
VII. Professional and Technical Education . . . . .	17
VIII. Education of Special Classes . . . . .	19
General Educational Tables . . . . .	23

## PREFACE.

This volume contains statistics for education in India for the period April 1st, 1922 to March 31st, 1923. These statistics have been compiled for the first time in a new form prepared by the Central Advisory Board of Education. Many headings which were obsolete in the old tables have been excluded. The material left has been re-arranged and in some of the tables, particularly tables IV and V much additional information has been given. In the text of the report have also been incorporated tables showing in a comparative form the progress made in the various provinces. The text summarises very briefly the developments recorded in the various provincial reports. A much fuller account of the position of education in India at the present time will be found in the Quinquennial Review on education for the period 1917—1922 which was published at the beginning of this year.

J. A. RICHEY,

*Educational Commissioner  
with the Government of India.*

SIMLA,

*19th April 1924.*

# INDIAN EDUCATION

IN

1922-23.

## I. GENERAL.

During the year 1922-23 there was a marked recovery from the effects of the non-cooperation movement on the attendance at schools and colleges in British India.

### *Institutions and scholars.*

	Institutions.		Scholars.	
	1922.	1923.	1922.	1923.
Arts colleges . . . . .	170	174	47,632	52,639
Professional colleges . . . . .	64	59	13,662	13,497
High schools . . . . .	2,246	2,312	595,402	632,943
Middle schools . . . . .	6,731	6,732	643,839	608,462
Primary schools . . . . .	159,889	162,015	6,304,457	6,600,116
Special schools . . . . .	4,189	5,720	138,169	181,318
Unrecognised schools . . . . .	34,620	33,660	639,931	612,115
<b>TOTAL . . . . .</b>	<b>208,109</b>	<b>210,672</b>	<b>8,383,090</b>	<b>8,791,020</b>

It will be noticed that professional colleges alone of recognised institutions show a decrease in attendance. This is not due to any decline in the number of students seeking professional training. Indeed great competition for admission into the medical and engineering colleges is reported from Bombay and also from other provinces. It is due chiefly to the reduction in the number of students in training colleges for teachers. The decrease in the number of professional colleges is partly due to a reclassification of these institutions.

The fall in the number of unrecognised institutions, though the figures under this head are always unreliable, indicates the return

of many of the schools, which seceded under the influence of the non-cooperation movement, to the ordinary public school system.

The increase in attendance at other institutions would have been more significant but for the stringency from which public finances were suffering. Central and provincial budgets were framed with a view to economy. Schemes involving new expenditure were postponed. Several Governments including the Government of India went even further and set up committees to investigate the possibility of reducing their normal expenditure. These committees did not, as a rule, suggest any drastic reductions in educational expenditure; and where they did so their recommendations were not accepted. They did, however, sometimes make unexpected proposals. The Central Provinces Retrenchment Committee, for example, recommended that all inspection should be entrusted to provincial service officers and the inspection of primary schools to local bodies. The Bengal Retrenchment Committee suggested that all Government secondary schools should be handed over to local bodies. This recommendation is directly contrary to the accepted Indian educational policy which aims at discouraging local bodies from undertaking responsibility for any but vernacular education. The same committee would have abolished all institutions for the training of teachers, basing their recommendation on the pessimistic ground that the material at present entering the teaching profession was not worth training. No provincial committee, however, went so far as that appointed by the Government of India. This body suggested very heavy reductions in the expenditure on education in the areas, such as Delhi, Coorg, and the North-West Frontier Province, directly controlled by the Government of India: these suggestions were accepted with considerable modification. They further recommended the closing of the Delhi University which had only recently been brought into being by an Act of the Legislature in 1921: this proposal was not accepted. A further recommendation of the Committee which was accepted resulted in the amalgamation of the Department of Education and Health in the Government of India with that of Revenue and Agriculture. The combined department is now known as the Department of Education, Health and Lands. The Committee also succeeded in bringing to an end the Bureau of Education, and the Central Advisory Board of Education, the last meeting of which was held in February 1923. The latter institution had only been created in 1921 and formed a link between the educational activities of the different provinces. As the educational commissionership has not been abolished, this report issues as a publication of the Bureau.

In spite of all efforts at economy the bill for education in India has inevitably increased. Altogether the expenditure on education rose by sixty-six lakhs from Rs.18,37,91,398 to Rs. 19,04,04,036. But of the new expenditure no less than thirty lakhs was incurred in the Punjab. The Punjab also is responsible for one hundred and fifty thousand of the four hundred thousand

Retrenchment.

Increase in Numbers and Expenditure.

new pupils in school. This phenomenal increase in enrolment is due to the adherence of the Punjab Government to a consistent policy of educational expansion in rural areas; it is also partly due to the development of adult education in villages through the medium of co-operative credit societies.

It is satisfactory to find that an increase in attendance is reported from all provinces, save Burma, where a further decrease in numbers is the result of a deliberate policy of concentration with a view to efficiency, and Coorg, which little province, however, still has the highest percentage of school attendance in India. Even Bengal, which has reported a steady annual decline during the past five years, shows at last an enhanced attendance of 58,000 students with the result that the enrolment in 1922-23 is slightly in excess of that in 1916-17.

In view of the particular interest which attaches to a comparison of provincial figures now that education is administered provincially, the following tables are given for the first time in the annual narrative. Some Provincial Statistics.

(i) Number of Institutions.

Province.	RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.			UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.			TOTAL OF INSTITUTIONS.		
	1923.	1922.	Increase or Decrease.	1923.	1922.	Increase or Decrease.	1923.	1922.	Increase or Decrease.
Madras . . . . .	38,938	37,289	+1,649	2,308	3,358	-1,050	41,246	40,647	+599
Bombay . . . . .	13,209	13,309	-40	1,692	1,591	+101	14,901	14,900	+1
Bengal . . . . .	52,804	51,930	+874	1,208	1,840	-632	54,182	53,770	+412
United Provinces . . . . .	18,877*	18,555	+322	2,875	3,011	-136	21,752*	21,566	+186
Punjab . . . . .	8,699	7,919	+780	4,096	3,484	+612	12,795	11,403	+1,392
Burma . . . . .	6,684	7,179	-495	18,472	18,486	-13	25,156	25,664	-508
Bihar and Orissa . . . . .	26,663	25,064	+1,599	1,762	2,002	-240	28,425	27,066	+1,359
Central Provinces and Berar . . . . .	4,889	4,921	-32	190	70	+120	5,079	4,991	+88
Assam . . . . .	4,805	4,745	+60	251	276	-25	5,056	5,021	+35
North-West Frontier Province . . . . .	667	792	-125	288	234	+54	955	1,026	-71
Coorg . . . . .	110	113	-3	16	8	+8	126	121	+5
Delhi . . . . .	190	205	-15	84	92	-8	274	297	-23
Ajmer-Merwara . . . . .	180	187	-7	113	117	-4	293	304	-11
Baluchistan . . . . .	84	82	+2	192	230	-38	276	312	-36
Bangalore . . . . .	97	99	-2	23	22	+1	120	121	-1
INDIA . . . . .	177,012†	173,289	+3,723	33,600	34,820	-1,220	210,612†	208,109	+2,503

\* Includes 4 universities.

† Excluding 4 universities in the United Provinces.



## (ii) Number of Scholars.

Province.	IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.			IN UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.			IN ALL INSTITUTIONS.			PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL SCHOLARS TO POPULATION.	
	1923.	1922.	Increase or Decrease.	1923.	1922.	Increase or Decrease.	1923.	1922.	Increase or Decrease.	1923.	1922.
Madras . . . . .	1,847,833	1,745,518	+102,315	67,284	91,504	-24,220	1,915,117	1,837,022	+78,095	4.5	4.3
Bombay . . . . .	911,652	896,877	+14,775	62,108	61,515	+593	973,760	958,392	+15,368	5.0	5.0
Bengal . . . . .	1,900,226	1,830,716	+69,509	44,704	55,437	-10,733	1,950,929	1,892,153	+58,776	4.18	4.05
United Provinces . . . . .	1,016,842	965,059	+51,783	64,109	64,506	-397	1,080,951	1,029,565	+51,386	2.38	2.26
Punjab . . . . .	692,771	552,622	+140,149	84,207	74,088	+10,139	776,978	626,890	+150,288	3.75	3.03
Burma . . . . .	344,690	345,065	-375	214,162	216,960	-2,798	558,852	562,025	-3,173	4.23	4.26
Bihar and Orissa . . . . .	804,036	783,277	+40,759	30,990	47,705	-7,715	844,026	810,382	+33,644	2.48	2.38
Central Provinces and Berar . . . . .	332,130	330,681	+1,449	7,920	2,922	+5,298	340,050	333,303	+6,747	2.44	2.39
Assam . . . . .	221,882	208,014	+13,868	7,894	8,204	-310	229,776	216,218	+13,558	3.02	2.84
North-West Frontier Province . . . . .	50,158	40,395	+9,763	6,245	4,519	+1,726	56,403	53,914	+2,489	2.5	2.3
Coorg . . . . .	8,155	8,564	-409	299	151	+148	8,454	8,715	-261	6.16	5.32
Delhi . . . . .	15,943	15,024	+919	4,620	4,539	+81	20,563	19,563	+1,000	4.2	4.0
Ajmer-Merwara . . . . .	10,920	10,247	+673	5,033	4,879	+154	15,653	15,126	+527	3.18	3.05
Baluchistan . . . . .	4,550	4,162	+407	2,021	2,963	-342	7,180	7,115	+65	1.71	1.69
Bangalore . . . . .	11,479	11,348	+131	919	950	-40	12,398	12,307	+91	10.5	10.4
INDIA . . . . .	8,178,975	7,743,159	+435,816	612,115	630,931	-27,816	8,791,090	8,383,090	+408,000	3.48	3.39

(iii) *Distribution of Scholars in Recognised Institutions, 1923.*

Province.	NUMBER OF SCHOLARS IN INSTITUTIONS FOR MALES.							NUMBER OF SCHOLARS IN INSTITUTIONS FOR FEMALES.						
	Arts Colleges.*	Professional Colleges.	High Schools.	Middle Schools.	Primary Schools.	Special Schools.	TOTAL.	Arts Colleges.	Professional Colleges.	High Schools.	Middle Schools.	Primary Schools.	Special Schools.	TOTAL.
Madras . . .	8,883	1,900	128,132	28,997	1,459,964	16,656	1,644,631	367	26	10,272	6,071	183,683	2,783	203,202
Bombay . . .	5,114	2,877	49,230	18,656	700,248	16,598	792,732	..	..	7,678	2,951	106,192	2,090	118,920
Bengal . . .	21,108	5,213	202,192	123,596	1,189,830	72,651	1,614,590	211	38	7,305	7,173	275,277	1,601	291,635
United Provinces	5,454	886	49,137	51,278	832,498	14,111	950,364	56	..	3,845	12,752	46,290	526	63,473
Punjab . . .	4,856	1,442	83,472	163,541	350,434	23,481	627,226	71	35	2,330	11,192	50,974	943	65,545
Burma . . .	741	..	21,670	104,477	162,451	9,183	298,522	..	..	4,810	13,248	27,607	413	46,168
Bihar and Orissa	2,304	330	27,560	34,639	661,810	12,640	739,313	10	..	717	2,947	60,193	856	64,723
Central Provinces and Berar.	653	283	3,393	65,299	236,621	2,498	308,747	..	..	140	4,249	16,387	607	23,383
Assam . . .	943	70	11,920	22,528	169,206	2,640	207,307	..	..	621	2,770	11,134	44	14,575
North-West Frontier Province.	269	26	7,430	12,286	25,015	69	45,104	..	..	..	1,453	3,601	..	5,054
Coorg . . .	..	..	696	..	6,562	8	7,266	..	..	152	..	737	..	889
Delhi . . .	705	185	3,042	3,500	5,423	548	13,409	..	871	488	1,163	771	25	2,634
Ajmer-Merwara	95	..	2,093	945	6,093	156	9,382	..	..	219	496	517	7	1,238
Baluchistan . .	..	..	1,206	945	1,731	12	3,894	..	..	..	384	281	..	665
Bangalore . . .	452	..	1,391	898	4,390	68	7,199	317	..	830	992	2,067	95	4,280
INDIA . . .	51,577	13,311	592,582	631,591	5,812,306	171,319	7,272,686	1,062	180	39,416	67,816	787,810	9,990	906,280

\* Includes scholars in teaching Universities.

† Includes 33 scholars studying for arts and science.

## (iv) Expenditure on Education.

Province.	TOTAL EXPENDITURE.			PERCENTAGE OF EXPEN- DITURE FROM				AVERAGE ANNUAL COST PER SCHOLAR				
	1923.	1922.	Increase of Decrease.	Govt. Funds.	Board Funds.	Fees.	Other sources	to Govt. Funds.	to Board Funds.	to Fees.	to Other Sources.	Total cost.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.					Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Madras . . . . .	3,45,77,486	3,39,96,292	+5,79,194	44.85	10.45	22.10	22.60	8 0 3	1 15 2	4 2 1	4 3 8	18 11 2
Bombay . . . . .	3,11,80,382	2,96,02,944	+15,77,438	55.0	16.0	16.0	13.0	18 14 0	5 7 0	5 9 7	4 4 8	24 3 3
Bengal . . . . .	3,31,42,296	3,33,87,106	-2,44,810	39.7	5.0	38.7	16.0	8 12 0	0 15 1	0 9 4	2 11 3	16 15 0
United Provinces . . . . .	2,91,41,794	2,98,13,563	-6,68,769	57.0	14.0	12.3	16.1	16 5 0	4 3 2	3 8 7	4 9 10	28 10 7
Punjab . . . . .	2,29,38,296	1,89,62,287	+39,76,009	51.44	14.80	20.02	13.0	16 5 9	4 11 7	0 5 10	4 5 7	31 12 9
Burma . . . . .	1,16,50,226	1,01,64,870	+14,85,356	46.83	18.56	19.35	14.71	9 12 4	3 13 11	4 2 4	3 1 0	20 13 7
Bihar and Orissa . . . . .	1,11,03,400	1,15,16,347	-4,12,857	40.97	22.48	21.08	16.07	3 2 0	2 10 7	2 10 9	1 13 6	10 4 10
Central Provinces and Berar.	85,83,000	81,29,933	+456,067	64.99	18.14	8.02	8.85	12 7 9	3 10 3	1 9 4	1 9 5	19 4 9
Assam . . . . .	37,96,457	34,83,928	+3,12,529	63.9	12.7	14.7	8.7	10 14 5	2 3 2	2 8 0	1 8 0	17 1 7
North-West Frontier Province.	18,06,414	17,39,504	+66,910	62.8	12.1	7.3	17.8	23 12 6	4 9 5	2 12 9	6 12 9	37 15 5
Coorg . . . . .	1,93,420	1,71,716	+21,704	54.38	18.66	22.89	4.07	12 14 4	4 6 10	5 6 10	0 15 5	23 11 5
Delhi . . . . .	15,79,670	12,83,538	+2,96,132	40.83	8.47	11.21	39.49	31 10 7	9 6 4	12 9 7	16 7 9	79 2 7
Ajmer-Merwara . . . . .	5,36,890	6,31,338	-94,448	57.9	8.9	14.9	18.4	29 8 0	4 8 0	7 6 5	9 3 2	50 9 7
Baluchistan . . . . .	3,14,395	3,20,682	-6,287	66.84	12.74	7.91	12.51	46 2 0	8 12 0	5 7 0	8 10 0	68 15 0
Bangalore . . . . .	7,56,826	5,88,359	+1,68,476	42.5	5.3	19.8	32.4	34 6 9	4 4 0	16 1 1	26 2 8	80 14 6
INDIA . . . . .	19,04,01,036	18,37,91,398	+66,12,638	49.7	13.3	20.9	16.1	10 10 6	2 13 9	4 7 7	3 7 2	21 7 0

The General  
Tables.

The general tables at the end of this volume appear for the first time in a revised form prepared by the Central Advisory Board. The new tables provide a much clearer view of the conditions of Indian education. It will be noticed that the terms 'recognised' and 'unrecognised' have been substituted for 'public' and 'private' hitherto in use; the distinction between a public institution under private management (*i.e.*, a recognised private school) and a private institution (*i.e.*, an unrecognised private school) was not easily intelligible to the uninitiated.

So full an account was given in the recently published quinquennial review both of the present position of education in India and of the problems which demand attention, that the present work confines itself to a mere enumeration of the principal changes that have taken place during the year.

## II. ADMINISTRATION AND CONTROL.

Bombay  
Primary  
Education  
Act.

A most important administrative change was introduced in Bombay under the Primary Education Act passed on the 16th December 1922. In this province the management of primary schools had always been vested in Government. The management is, by this Act, transferred to district local boards and municipalities. Those who are empowered to manage their own schools are constituted Local Authorities. The schools of smaller municipalities will be managed by the Local Authority of the district in which each municipality is situated. Each Local Authority will have a school board, an administrative officer and its own inspecting staff. Consequently the inspecting staff of the Education Department will be largely reduced. Government have undertaken to pay two-thirds of any new approved educational expenditure incurred by the district local boards and half of the expenditure incurred by municipalities on primary education. A Local Boards Act passed in the same year empowers district local boards to raise additional revenue.

Local Bodies.

In the United Provinces new bodies elected under the new District Boards Act came into being. They are reported in many instances to show discontent with the present vernacular curriculum, desiring the inclusion of more technical studies. Such studies must be based on a substratum of general education. In Burma the divisional school boards have been replaced by new school boards with a popular electorate. The personnel of the new boards is reported to be often inexperienced and ill-educated; on one board of fifteen members only two had received any secondary education. In view of the reluctance ordinarily shown by local bodies to raise taxation for educational purposes, it is most satisfactory to find that in Madras no less than 55 taluk boards, one district board and seventeen municipalities decided to levy an educational cess under the Elementary Education Act of 1920. On the other hand district boards in Assam are reported to have spent funds designed for education on other purposes.

New educational authorities which came into existence are the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education, United Provinces, constituted by the Act of 1921, and the Boards of Secondary Education in the Central Provinces and in Bihar and Orissa, the former constituted by an Act passed in August 1922, the two latter established by executive order. All these three boards prescribe the curricula for secondary schools and conduct secondary and school leaving examinations: the Bihar and Orissa Board also calculates and submits to the local Government annual estimates of the grants required by aided secondary schools. These bodies contain representatives of the Education Department, the University and secondary schools and use the inspecting establishment of the local education department; in each case the Director of Public Instruction is *ex-officio* chairman of the Board. Educational Boards.

The inspecting staff was completely revised and improved in Madras; the grades of inspecting officers being reduced from four to two, each district (except the Nilgiris) being placed under a district educational officer and the subordinate inspecting agency being replaced by a single class of officers called deputy inspectors of schools. Inspection.

Elsewhere changes in the inspecting establishment were too often in the nature of retrenchment. In Assam, for example, the superior executive staff of the Education Department, has been reduced to three Indian Educational Service Officers, including the Director, with two advisory assistants, one for Muhammadan and one for female education. This is not an extreme instance, for there is no major province in which the number of Indian Educational Service officers employed in teaching the few hundred students in Government colleges does not far exceed the total number of such officers entrusted with the administration, inspection and development of education in all its branches.

In Burma and the Central Provinces the Directors of Public Instruction were made Education Secretaries to the local Governments, acting thus directly under the Ministers and issuing orders on their behalf and on behalf of the local Government. Direction.

### III. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

An Act reconstituting the University of Madras was passed in February 1923. The new Act follows very closely the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission while retaining for the university bodies the old nomenclature. The chief authorities of the University are a Senate enlarged and corresponding to the Court of other new universities, a Syndicate which corresponds to the Executive Council, an Academic Council and a Council of Affiliated Colleges. The Act provides for inter-collegiate teaching in Madras by a synthesis not unlike that suggested by the Commission for the colleges in Calcutta. It further differentiates the outside institutions affiliated to the university some of which are to be called university colleges and to be developed as potential university centres. The courses of studies are the same Madras University Act.

for both internal and external colleges. The present Government grant to the University is placed by the Act on a statutory basis and provision is made whereby provincial finance may bear some part of the cost of university expansion. The Act came into force after the close of the period under review.

**Nagpur.**

The Nagpur University Act was passed in the March session of the local legislature. While the new University is of the affiliating type the Act foreshadows the development of higher education at the university centre, Nagpur. The University starts its career without a habitation and the problem of providing it with suitable accommodation is closely bound up with the question of a new Science College in Nagpur where expert opinion condemns the present accommodation of the Victoria College of Science. Meanwhile the King Edward College, Amraoti, was completed at a cost of fourteen lakhs of rupees and can now boast of buildings which can stand comparison with those of any similar institution in India.

**Patna.**

The Patna University Amendment Act was passed during the year with a view to removing certain minor defects in the existing legislation. A committee was appointed by the local Government to advise on two alternative schemes—the one prepared by the Vice-Chancellor for the development of the University on the present site of the Patna and Bihar National Colleges, the other drawn up originally by the Nathan Committee for the foundation of a residential teaching university at Phulwari.

**Allahabad.**

The reorganised University of Allahabad commenced work in July 1922. Even within the period under review some dissatisfaction has expressed itself with the arrangement by which a residential teaching university is combined with affiliated colleges some of which are situated so far from the university centre as Rajputana. This dissatisfaction has led to movements for the establishment of universities at Agra and in Rajputana.

**Calcutta.**

The financial difficulties of the Calcutta University led to a request for an additional subsidy from Government and gave rise to some discussion in the local Council as to the relations between the University and the Bengal Government. Two private Bills were introduced aiming at reconstituting the University Senate and providing for greater Government control over the management of university finance. They were withdrawn on the understanding that a Government bill having the same objects in view would be introduced in the summer session. This Bill, however, provoked such criticism that the Governor of Bengal convened a conference to consider the proposed legislation which included a Bill for the better control of secondary education. This conference, which was attended by nominees of the Bengal and Assam Governments and of the Calcutta University and at which the Government of India were represented, met first in the summer of 1923 but has not yet solved the problems submitted to it for consideration.

**Delhi.**

The new University at Delhi, constituted by an Act passed in 1921, opened in May 1922. Its activities are largely hampered

by the lack of any central habitation and the want of funds. Considerable progress was made, however, during the year by the various university bodies in the drafting of necessary statutes and ordinances and the preparation of plans for further development when funds are forthcoming. The University survived the threat to its existence made by the Indian Retrenchment Committee and looks forward to securing a worthy habitation when in the course of time the Government of India moves out to Raisina and sets free buildings now in use in old Delhi.

The Punjab University has established an Academic Council. Punjab. This body, as at present constituted, is said to be of unwieldy size and to possess only limited powers.

An interesting development at Lucknow was the appointment Lucknow. of lecturers in Hindi and Urdu for the purpose of encouraging research in the vernaculars of the province.

The number of students in Arts Colleges has increased from Arts Colleges 47,632 to 52,639. "He would be a bold man" writes a principal "who would say that there was a real demand for so many students pursuing such strictly theoretical and literary courses of study." This fact appears to be realised in Bombay where the numbers of students applying for the B. A. were lower than they had been since 1916. The Director in Bengal notices the steady increase in the number of students taking science in the Intermediate but points out that if, as is probable, they do so with a view to obtaining employment, there is little practical or economic value in a smattering of physics and chemistry.

#### IV. SECONDARY EDUCATION.

There is nothing remarkable to record in the figures for second- General. ary education. The cost per scholar has slightly decreased and is now Rs. 48-15-2 in the case of a high school pupil and Rs. 22-8-0 for a pupil in a middle school as compared with Rs. 51-4-4 and Rs. 24-12-0 respectively in the preceding year.

The incidence of this cost is distributed as follows:—

Expenditure.	In high schools.			In middle schools.		
	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
From Government funds . . . . .	15	12	7	8	1	3
„ Board funds . . . . .	1	3	4	5	0	2
„ Fees . . . . .	24	8	7	6	2	6
„ other sources . . . . .	7	6	8	3	4	11
Total cost per scholar . . . . .	48	15	2	22	8	4

In the Punjab a general survey was undertaken of the facilities for secondary education. The main defect brought to light was

the very uneven distribution of the secondary schools in the province; certain advanced areas being very fully schooled while other large tracts were left unprovided.

Further attempts are reported to provide more practical education in secondary schools. The Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education, Dacca, opened courses in dyeing and in commerce at the Jaggannath Intermediate College, which were well attended. In Madras a very marked increase is noted in the number of candidates who took science and commercial subjects for the school leaving certificate. In Bihar and Orissa provision has been made for increasing the classes in non-literary subjects in Government high schools. In the United Provinces a scheme has been drawn up for the opening of agricultural middle schools, half the cost of which is to be met by Government and half by district boards, Government also undertaking to meet the whole cost of training the teachers.

The Central Provinces have extended the introduction of the vernacular as a medium of instruction to the first class in the high department (tenth) and have been confronted with the usual difficulty of providing for the needs of pupils speaking different vernaculars. In this province the scheme of classes has been reorganised the number of primary classes being reduced to four, while there are now four classes in the middle department and three in the high.

Dalton plan.

A few isolated experiments with the Dalton Plan are reported (from Sylhet, Lucknow, Raipur and Lahore) but to the ordinary difficulties attending the working of the plan there are added in India problems connected with the variety of vernaculars used in school, the great dearth in most vernaculars of those supplementary readers, reference books and illustrated literary matter which are needed to add interest and variety to individual study under the Dalton system; while the idea of co-operative work seems strange to the Indian pupil. The suitability of this system for introduction in Indian secondary schools was considered by the Central Advisory Board at its meeting in February 1923. It was decided that it was unlikely to meet with success except in institutions of a special character such as Chiefs Colleges and the new Intermediate colleges. It has been tried with fair success in two of the former.

Mental Tests.

The Central Advisory Board also considered at its meetings during the year the possibility of introducing some system of mental intelligence tests in India for use in secondary schools. At the request of the Board the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India arranged for a number of experiments to be conducted with the Stanford revision of the Binet-Simon tests under the direction of the principals of Provincial Training Colleges. The results of these experiments were reported to the Bureau of Education. Based on these a provisional series of tests has been compiled which has been issued to Directors for use by selected teachers. It is proposed to revise the series from time to time in the light of experience.



The Boy Scout movement continues to flourish. The training camp at Lonavla was a great success and raised the number of trained scout masters during the year from 177 to 413. It was closed in March 1923 to enable Mr. Miller, who was in charge of it, to tour the Bombay Presidency and supervise the work of the trained men.

#### V. PRIMARY EDUCATION.

There was an increase of two thousand in the number of primary schools for boys and of two hundred and seventy-five thousand in the number of pupils attending them. Burma, Bengal and the Central Provinces alone show a decrease both in schools and scholars. In Burma, as already stated, the decrease is due to the elimination of inefficient schools. The policy of relying chiefly on monastic schools is now being seriously questioned. While these schools have been responsible for the high standard of literacy in the province yet the instruction in most of them is of the poorest possible description. The *Pongyi* is not a teacher by profession and is often indifferent or hostile to secular education. It even appears that the Burman is losing faith in the old system of monastic education. In Bengal the fall is reported to be only nominal, since many schools for adults had hitherto been classed under the head of "primary schools." In the Central Provinces the decline in enrolment is partly due to the attitude of local bodies, who, in their anxiety to assert their independence of departmental control, have neglected or dispensed with the assistance which Government officials have given in the past in enlisting support for village schools. Bombay reports a decrease in the number of schools but an increase in the number of pupils.

The greatest interest naturally attaches to experiments in the introduction of compulsory education. The following table shows the number of areas in which compulsion had actually been introduced at the close of 1923.

Province.	Date of Act.	AREAS UNDER "COMPULSION."	
		Municipalities.	District Boards and Rural Areas.
Bombay . . . . .	{ Feby. 1918 (for city) 1920. Feby. 1923. }	5	—
Bihar and Orissa . . . .	Feby. 1919.	1	—
Punjab . . . . .	April 1919.	8	86 (school areas).
Bengal . . . . .	May 1919.	—	—
United Provinces . . . .	June 1919	8	—
Central Provinces . . . .	May 1920.	1	1
Madras . . . . .	Dec. 1920.	7	—

The above table does not include areas for which schemes of compulsory education had been sanctioned or submitted to Government but not actually introduced.

From Bombay, which was the pioneer province in the matter of compulsory education, no further extension is reported, for while a sixth municipality has introduced compulsion the town of Dhulia has abandoned it. A very important provision of the Act of 1922 empowers Government to call upon any Local Authority to introduce compulsory education if it has not done so on its own initiative. Every local authority is also required to prepare within a prescribed period as complete a scheme as possible for the universal introduction of compulsory education. The Act was based upon the report of a compulsory education committee which was published in June 1922.

It must not be assumed that in any of the municipalities which appear in the foregoing table compulsory education is in existence in the complete form in which, for example, it is found in Great Britain or in Germany. The schemes adopted by municipalities usually aim at the gradual provision of new schools and new teachers and demand three or four years for fulfilment. As yet no thoroughly organised system of registration and visitation by attendance officers has been developed. These will come in time. Meanwhile one of the most interesting events in the past twelve months has been the inauguration in the Punjab of a system of compulsory education in rural school areas. The Punjab Primary Education Bill permits of the introduction of compulsion in the whole or in any part of an area controlled by a local body; and in country districts the simple but effective plan has been adopted of starting with the smallest possible area, namely that served by a single village school. The more enlightened parents who are already sending their sons to school are readily persuaded of the advantages to be gained by raising the school enrolment through compulsion, so that each class in the school may be entitled to have its own wholetime teacher, and the school itself may claim a decent school building from the District Board. The example set by one village encourages other neighbouring villages to follow suit; and so in the Lyallpur District alone, which contains several canal colonies, no less than fifty-seven school areas have on their own initiative adopted compulsory education. The Central Provinces report applications also from two district boards in Berar for the introduction of compulsion in eleven village areas.

Duration of school life.

One of the most important effects of compulsion will be the prolongation of school life: even the shortest compulsory period should ensure that all scholars at least reach the stage of literacy. This is a greater need at the present time than the collection of more boys into school. The new tables IVa to Vb give the distribution of all scholars class by class. The following extract gives

the position in the first four primary classes and shows the serious wastage of material under a voluntary system.

Class I	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	3,453,046
Class II	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	1,184,318
Class III	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	833,303
Class IV	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	593,301
TOTAL										6,063,968

The Punjab and Madras, particularly the former, report considerable progress and expansion on a voluntary basis. In the latter province, a system of monthly allowances in lieu of capitation grants was brought into effect at the close of the year. The scales of pay of teachers in Government elementary schools were revised and the new scales were suggested for adoption by local bodies also.

In Bihar and Orissa although no further extension of compulsory education is reported the number of pupils in attendance at primary schools is the highest ever recorded for the province. Moreover funds have at last been provided for carrying out the three years' programme which has so long been kept in abeyance. It is proposed to standardise the grants to district boards on a system which will take account of the population of each district and the wealth of the board, while in the case of municipalities Government offers half the cost of teaching eighty per cent. of the boys of school-going age. On the other hand an attempt by the Bengal Government to give effect to Mr. Biss's scheme for redistributing and amalgamating primary schools met with small success. Government offered to bear half the cost of introducing the scheme; but, as the initiative was left entirely to local bodies, so far only six municipalities and twelve unions have accepted the offer.

Local bodies in Bombay are finding it difficult to meet even half of the cost of primary education, owing to the rise in recent years in the pay of the teachers. Eighteen municipalities refused to pay their teachers according to the scale prescribed by Government, which was obliged in these cases to pay the balance direct to the teachers recovering it by deductions from the grants to the municipalities. Others have tried to get more value for their money by adopting the shift system of school hours, thus increasing the number of pupils per teacher. This has met with some success when confined to the infant class and in single teacher schools but elsewhere it is reported that it does not find favour with the villagers 'who smart under a reduction in the hours of instruction.'

The reduction of the primary course from five to four years in the Central Provinces has been noted. In Bengal the course has been reduced from six to five years and a revised curriculum has been introduced the special feature of which is the inclusion of

English as an optional subject. In Burma, too, optional English now forms part of the primary school curriculum.

Adult  
Education

At the close of the year there were 1,873 schools for adults with an enrolment of 45,768. The total expenditure on these schools amounted to Rs. 2,55,793. Details are given in the statement below:—

	Schools.	Pupils.	EXPENDITURE FROM				Total expenditure.
			Govt. funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Government Schools . . . . .	5	283	2,570	..	..	..	2,570
Board Schools . . . . .	180	4,815	7,386	1,20,251	1,416	7,159	1,36,212
Aided Schools . . . . .	924	20,622	45,351	15,568	11,570	32,232	1,04,721
Unaided Schools . . . . .	764	20,048	..	..	2,616	9,668	12,284
TOTAL . . . . .	1,873	45,768	55,313	1,35,819	15,602	49,059	2,55,793

The education of adults in this country presents peculiar problems which require early attention if this branch of education is to be developed. Among these problems are the provision of suitable text books and the organisation of the school work, since the very uneven progress made by the students necessitates individual instruction after the first stage. Attendance is also apt to be irregular. It is intended in the Punjab to include "the means and methods of teaching adults" in the courses of instruction for all teachers under training both in the Training College and in training schools.

## VI. FEMALE EDUCATION.

The total number of recognised institutions for girls rose from 23,780, to 24,068 and their enrolment increased by over 27,000 from 879,013 to 906,289. But general tables Va and Vb show that only a very small proportion of these pupils have proceeded beyond the lower primary stage. The following extract gives the position in the first four primary classes:—

	No. of scholars
Class I . . . . .	533,878
Class II . . . . .	159,480
Class III . . . . .	91,362
Class IV . . . . .	53,661
TOTAL . . . . .	838,387

The foregoing statistics do not take account of the girls reading in boys' schools who are distributed as follows:—

Institutions.	Boys in Girls' Schools.	Girls in Boys' Schools.
Colleges . . . . .	..	507
Secondary Schools . . . . .	11,891	41,865
Primary Schools . . . . .	29,587	462,272
Special Schools . . . . .	200	2,012
Unrecognised Schools . . . . .	6,195	32,971
TOTAL	47,873	539,627

In the chill atmosphere of financial depression it is the weakest educational plants that suffer first and it is therefore not surprising that no province records any noteworthy progress in female education while several provinces report a decline either in schools or scholars. "In days of financial adversity local bodies tend to regard girls' schools as the first and obvious sacrifice"; but even the Government Normal School for women at Peshawar, which had had a short but very promising life, was closed for motives of economy. In Bombay the primary curriculum has been revised and optional subjects, such as school geometry and domestic economy, have been introduced. Madras and Bombay report the opening of classes for training teachers in drill, the theory of gymnastics and exercises suited to Indian girls—a side of education which is much neglected in girls' schools.

## VII. PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

The majority of provincial educational reports include mention only of those institutions which are administered or controlled by the Department of Education, hence there is little material for notes on professional education other than the training of teachers.

The number of teachers under training is shown in the following statement:—

(a) Training of teachers.

	For men.		For women.		TOTAL.	
	1922.	1923.	1922.	1923.	1922.	1923.
In Training Colleges . . . . .	1,190	984	57	99	1,247	1,083
In Normal and Training Schools	22,774	21,323	4,157	4,074	26,931	25,397
TOTAL	23,964	22,307	4,214	4,173	28,178	26,480

The total number of teachers employed in secondary and primary schools in India was 324,305 of whom 137,115 or 42 per cent. were trained.

The adverse effects of retrenchment have fallen rather heavily on this branch of education. Madras, Bombay, Bengal, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces, the Central Provinces and the North-West Frontier Province report a reduction in the number of training institutions and in the number of students. Economy was effected in the Punjab by combining some training schools with high schools. In the United Provinces the reduction in some districts is due to the supply of trained teachers being in excess of the demand. The whole question of the training of vernacular teachers was considered by a special committee appointed by the United Provinces Government whose recommendations are being carried out.

There is ordinarily no dearth of applicants for training as primary teachers. Indeed a curious example of the effect of demand on supply comes from Sind, where the number of Muhammadan boys passing the vernacular final examination has declined in three years from 346 to 194. This appears to be the direct result of the closing of a number of District Local Board schools during the last two years and the dismissal of the teachers. Boys studying in the higher standards, observing this, took themselves off rather than study for an examination which was not likely to lead to employment.

The Training College for secondary teachers in Bombay was put on a more satisfactory footing. The staff was strengthened and the college affiliated for the B. T. degree of the Bombay University.

(b) Other professional and technical institutions.

Type of institution.	1922.		1923.	
	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
Law colleges and schools . . . . .	15	5,356	13	5,662
Medical colleges and schools . . . . .	32	9,040	35	9,543
Engineering colleges and schools . . . . .	21	2,720	17	2,750
Agricultural colleges and schools . . . . .	14	967	18	1,001
Commercial colleges and schools . . . . .	139	7,511	126	8,667
Forest colleges . . . . .	3	186	2	175
Veterinary colleges . . . . .	3	408	3	328
Technical and industrial schools . . . . .	276	14,082	279	16,651
Schools of Art . . . . .	8	1,332	13	1,550
TOTAL . . . . .	511	41,602	506	45,727

Most of the institutions included in the foregoing statement do not fall under the control of the Education Department. The effects of financial stringency are evident even in this branch of education. The Agricultural College at Sabour was closed as was also the Institute of Commerce, Lahore. A scheme for higher instruction in mechanical and electrical engineering at the Bengal Engineering College was postponed for lack of funds. Even some of the successful industrial middle schools in the Punjab were closed by local bodies for the same reason. On the other hand good progress is reported with the agricultural teaching in the middle vernacular schools of the same province. Expenditure has been reduced and income improved so that almost all the five-acre farms under canal irrigation have now become self-supporting. The introduction of a similar scheme of agricultural teaching in Burma is under consideration. It has already been introduced in Bombay. In eight schools of this presidency a middle or higher primary course with an agricultural bias has been substituted for the ordinary curriculum. The teachers for the new course have been trained at Loni and Lyallpur. In Bombay, too, the Sydenham College of Commerce has been removed to a fine and spacious building so that it has been possible to raise the number of students by 90 to 338. The Bombay Government have decided also to raise the number of admissions to the Poona Engineering College from 60 to 100 and the accommodation, equipment and staff are being strengthened accordingly.

#### VIII. EDUCATION OF SPECIAL CLASSES.

The Chiefs' Colleges found it necessary during the year to take careful stock of their resources. Most successful appeals for endowments were launched by the Rajkumar Colleges at Raipur and Rajkot. Experiments with the Dalton Plan of education were made at the Aitchison College, Lahore, and in a more restricted form at Raipur. The Principals pronounced themselves satisfied on the whole with the results of these experiments though they considered that the use of the plan must be confined to certain forms and certain subjects of study. (a) Chief colleges.

In the revised tables complete information about European education is provided in the single table VII. This table shows a decrease of thirty-two in the number of schools but an increase of 787 in the number of scholars. (b) European schools.

An interesting innovation was the holding of an exhibition at Calcutta in February of the work of the European schools in Bengal. The educational value of the exhibition was great and it is proposed to make it an annual event.

The following figures show a satisfactory increase in the attendance of Muhammadans at school though the number of Muhammadan boys to reach the highest stage of education is still small. (c) Muhammadan Education

in comparison with the figures for other communities (see table IVa.)

	NO. OF MUHAMMADAN SCHOLARS.	
	1922.	1923.
Arts colleges . . . . .	5,424	5,715
Professional colleges . . . . .	1,544	1,505
Secondary and Primary Schools . . . . .	1,710,910	1,828,481
Special schools . . . . .	42,083	70,576
Unrecognised Institutions . . . . .	206,481	199,493
TOTAL . . . . .	1,966,442	2,105,770
Percentage to Population . . . . .	3.3	3.6

The backwardness of the Muhammadans in education is usually ascribed, and no doubt rightly, to the conservatism of the community and its distrust of purely secular education, but it is also largely due to the fact that the great majority of the Muhammadan population belongs to the small cultivator class. In the Punjab, for example, where Muhammadan education has made great strides during the last two years it is noticeable that the increased attendance is almost entirely at schools under public management; the Muhammadans have not like other communities been able to found many secular schools of their own. The education of Mappilas has been engaging the attention of the Madras Government. After the recent rebellion in Malabar a committee was appointed to enquire into the question of maintaining separate elementary schools for Mappilas. The committee made a variety of recommendations including the introduction of compulsory elementary education in taluks affected by the rebellion. The committee also recommended the employment of qualified Arabic teachers in training schools where Mappilas undergo training so that the Mappila pupil teacher may be properly instructed in the tenets of his own religion. The committee attribute a great deal of the Mappila's fanaticism to his utter ignorance of the real principles of Muhammadanism. The Government of Madras are experimenting with this suggestion.

That there is an awakening among the backward classes to their need for education is evident from many reports. In Bengal alone the number of pupils belonging to the depressed classes rose from 96,522 to 128,144—a notable increase for a single year. An example of such an awakening is furnished by the Meos of Nuh who petitioned the Governor of the Punjab that a special cess might be levied on their community for the purpose of maintaining a second-

(d) Education of backward classes.



ary school. This being impossible, the community raised a voluntary levy equal to 10 per cent. of the land revenue. Very few villages have failed to pay and there has been no complaint from the subscribers. With the help of the District Board "a Meo high school has now been fairly launched and the dream of every Meo leader for a generation has been realised."

But all communities are not thus able to help themselves and the Punjab Government addressed local bodies suggesting various measures for attracting members of the backward or depressed classes into school such as the provision of free school books and materials. The Central Provinces Government following the recommendations of a special committee which considered the subject have gone even further and in addition to the allotment of special scholarships are now granting to teachers of elementary schools a bonus of Rs. 3 for every child of a depressed class successfully prepared for the Primary Certificate examination.

It appears to be as yet doubtful whether the orders issued by several Governments, *e.g.*, Madras, Bombay and the Central Provinces that boys belonging to depressed classes should be freely admitted into public schools can be carried out with great success. In one school where this was attempted in Bombay the numbers fell from 280 to 41. On the other hand the attendance of Adi Dravida children in common schools has increased and some District Educational Councils in Madras have adopted the enlightened policy of giving enhanced grants to aided schools which admit such pupils.

## GENERAL EDUCATIONAL TABLES, 1922-23.

### INDEX.

	PAGE.
General Summary of Educational Institutions and Scholar. . . . .	24
General Summary of Expenditure on Education . . . . .	25
Explanations . . . . .	26
I. Classification of Educational Institutions . . . . .	27
II-A. Distribution of Scholars attending Educational Institutions for Males . . . . .	28
II-B. Distribution of Scholars attending Educational Institutions for Females . . . . .	30
III-A. Expenditure on Education for Males . . . . .	32
III-B. Expenditure on Education for Females . . . . .	35
IV-A. Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the General Educa- tion of Males . . . . .	38
IV-B. Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the General Edu- cation of Females . . . . .	39
V-A. Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the Vocational and Special Education of Males . . . . .	40
V-B. Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the Vocational and Special Education of Females . . . . .	41
VI. Teachers (Men and Women) . . . . .	42
VII. European Education . . . . .	43
VIII. Examination Results . . . . .	44

## General Summary of Educational Institutions and Scholars.

Area in square miles . . . . . 10,92,616 Population— Males . . . . . 12,69,17,953 Females . . . . . 12,01,85,934 TOTAL . . . . . 24,71,03,887		PERCENTAGE OF SCHOLARS TO TOTAL POPULATIONS.			
		Recognised Institutions.		All Institutions.	
		1923	1922	1923	1922
Males . . . . .	3·06	5·04	5·80	5·49	
Females . . . . .	1·14	1·12	1·21	1·18	
Total . . . . .	3·31	3·13	3·48	3·39	

	INSTITUTIONS.			SCHOLARS.			Per-centage of scholars in each class of institution.
	1923	1922	Increase or decrease.	1923	1922	Increase or decrease.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
<b>RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>							
<i>For Males.</i>							
Arts Colleges . . . . .	160	154	+6	51,577	46,651	+4,926	0·72
Professional Colleges . . . . .	52	60	—8	13,311	13,523	—212	0·19
High Schools . . . . .	2,082	2,038	+44	*593,527	559,750	+33,777	8·13
Middle Schools . . . . .	6,108	6,105	+3	630,646	578,437	+52,209	8·68
Primary Schools . . . . .	139,095	137,255	+1,840	5,812,306	5,537,410	+274,896	79·92
Special Schools . . . . .	5,447	3,897	+1,550	171,219	128,375	+42,844	2·36
TOTALS . . . . .	152,944	149,509	+3,435	7,272,686	6,864,146	+408,540	100
<i>For Females.</i>							
Arts Colleges . . . . .	14	16	—2	1,062	981	+81	0·12
Professional Colleges . . . . .	7	4	+3	(a)136	139	+47	0·02
High Schools . . . . .	230	208	+22	39,416	35,652	+3,764	4·35
Middle Schools . . . . .	624	626	—2	67,816	65,400	+2,416	7·48
Primary Schools . . . . .	22,920	22,634	+286	737,810	767,047	+20,763	36·93
Special Schools . . . . .	273	292	—19	9,999	9,794	+205	1·10
TOTALS . . . . .	24,068	23,780	+288	906,289	879,013	+27,276	100
<b>UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>							
<i>For Males</i> . . . . .	31,418	32,452	—1,034	560,353	587,946	—27,593	..
<i>For Females</i> . . . . .	2,242	2,368	—126	51,762	51,985	—223	..
TOTALS . . . . .	33,660	34,820	—1,160	612,115	639,931	—27,816	..
GRAND TOTALS . . . . .	210,672	208,109	+2,563	8,791,090	8,383,090	+408,000	..

NOTE.—There are also 13 Universities in British India which are not shown separately in this table.

\* Includes 945 scholars for Middle Schools in Baluchistan.

(a) Includes 33 scholars for Arts Colleges in Delhi.

Total Expenditure	1923		1922		Increase or decrease	Percentage of Expenditure from	Other sources	Govt. funds	Hoard funds	Fees	Other sources	Total cost per scholar
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.								
GRAND TOTALS	1,28,99,517	1,31,14,571	+10,91,916	46.2	46.2	21.1	11.4	22.3	8.0	3.14	5	21.7
Total	1,28,99,517	1,31,14,571	+10,91,916	46.2	46.2	21.1	11.4	22.3	8.0	3.14	5	21.7
Institutions for Females	3,51,215	3,38,412	+20,800	60.2	60.2	..	..	17.8	319	12	1	462.6
Arts Colleges	1,89,282	2,17,519	+28,237	82.0	82.0	..	..	6.5	314	5	5	379.5
Professional Colleges	1,11,137	38,41,421	+5,09,986	40.5	39.7	3.1	29.7	21.7	40	11	1	100.7
High Schools	28,11,923	26,84,036	+1,40,887	13.2	13.0	..	..	34.1	15	8	10	39.2
Middle Schools	70,64,907	75,65,717	+3,99,790	40.0	38.0	3.6	18.4	4	0	6	8	10.1
Primary Schools	10,64,723	10,88,463	+23,740	67.0	56.6	2.6	4.0	25.6	111	13	10	164.1
Special Schools	1,28,99,517	1,31,14,571	+10,91,916	46.2	46.2	21.1	11.4	22.3	8.0	3.14	5	21.7
GRAND TOTALS	11,90,07,381	11,40,47,671	+49,59,710	48.8	48.8	14.3	24.6	12.5	7	14	4	16.4
Total	11,90,07,381	11,40,47,671	+49,59,710	48.8	48.8	14.3	24.6	12.5	7	14	4	16.4
Institutions for Males	99,71,674	1,07,08,928	+7,37,249	44.9	44.9	0.4	38.7	16.0	92	12	1	208.8
Arts Colleges	59,37,590	57,58,992	-2,22,599	73.6	73.6	..	..	22.5	298	9	10	398.8
Professional Colleges	3,03,97,113	2,82,50,936	+21,46,177	32.2	32.2	2.5	50.1	15.2	16	12	7	48.1
High Schools	1,43,26,308	1,39,53,816	+3,71,487	35.9	35.9	22.2	27.2	14.7	8	1	3	22.8
Middle Schools	4,57,77,523	4,32,20,808	+25,56,715	54.3	54.3	20.6	9.9	9.2	4	4	5	7.1
Primary Schools	1,29,98,742	1,21,53,198	+8,44,944	71.0	57.7	6.3	17.0	63	14	1	1	25.1
Special Schools	11,90,07,381	11,40,47,671	+49,59,710	48.8	48.8	14.3	24.6	12.5	7	14	4	16.4
Total	98,42,751	93,35,518	+7,233	97.1	97.1	2.9	..	..	..	..	..	..
Direction and Inspection	98,42,751	93,35,518	+7,233	97.1	97.1	2.9	..	..	..	..	..	..
Universities	62,55,733	73,37,716	+10,81,983	58.2	42.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Miscellaneous	3,83,98,034	3,67,55,922	+16,42,732	45.4	11.9	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Total	5,39,97,138	5,34,29,156	+5,67,982	53.5	53.5	8.9	13.6	22.0	..	..	..	..
Total Expenditure	98,42,751	93,35,518	+7,233	97.1	97.1	2.9	..	..	..	..	..	..
Increase or decrease	1922	1923										
Govt. funds	8	8										
Board funds	6	6										
Fees	6	6										
Other sources	7	7										
Govt. funds	8	8										
Hoard funds	9	9										
Fees	10	10										
Other sources	11	11										
Other sources	11	11										
Total cost per scholar	12	12										

COST PER SCHOLAR TO

PERCENTAGE OF EXPENDITURE FROM

TOTAL EXPENDITURE

## EXPLANATIONS.

1. *School Year.*—In these tables the school year is assumed to coincide with the financial year, i. e., to extend from April 1st of one year to March 31st of the next, though in actual practice some institutions, e. g., European schools, may close in December and others, e. g., colleges, in May.

2. *Recognised Institutions* are those in which the course of study followed is that which is prescribed or recognised by the Department of Public Instruction or by a University or a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education constituted by law and which satisfy one or more of these authorities, as the case may be, that they attain to a reasonable standard of efficiency. They are open to inspection and their pupils are ordinarily eligible for admission to public examinations and tests held by the Department or the University or the Board.

3. *Unrecognised Institutions* are those which do not come under the above definition of recognised institutions. They are for the most part indigenous institutions for education of a religious character.

4. *Other sources* include income from endowments, subscriptions, contributions, etc.

5. *Classification.*—In tables IV-A and IV-B, Class I represents the lowest class in the school, whether called infant class, substandard A or Class I. Where the number of school classes exceeds 10, the additional classes should be entered in the spaces left blank below X and numbered for the purposes of this table XI and XII.

6. *Intermediate colleges and examinations.*—An “Intermediate college” means an institution preparing students for admission to the degree courses of a University or for entrance into vocational colleges. The Intermediate examination means an examination qualifying for admission to a course of studies for a degree.

7. *European scholars* are included in the general summary and General Tables II-A and B, IV-A and B, V-A and B, VIII and IX.

## I.—Classification of Educational Institutions.

	FOR MALES.					FOR FEMALES.						
	Government.	District Board.	Municipal Board.	Aided.	Un-aided.	Total.	Government.	District Board.	Municipal Board.	Aided.	Un-aided.	Total.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<b>RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>												
Universities . . . . .	..	..	..	13	..	13	..	..	..	..	..	..
Colleges :—												
Arts and Science* . . . . .	30	1	1	65	14	111	2	..	..	5	1	6
Law . . . . .	7	..	..	..	4	11	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medicine . . . . .	5	..	..	2	..	7	..	..	..	1	..	1
Education . . . . .	13	..	..	1	..	14	3	..	..	2	1	..
Engineering . . . . .	4	..	..	..	1	5	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agriculture . . . . .	5	..	..	..	..	6	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commerce . . . . .	2	..	..	2	1	5	..	..	..	..	..	..
Forestry . . . . .	2	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Science . . . . .	3	..	..	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..
Intermediate and 2nd grade Colleges.	16	..	1	35	11	63	3	..	..	4	2	9
<b>TOTALS .</b>	<b>87</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>226</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>24</b>
High Schools . . . . .	268	84	62	1,056	584	2,054	27	2	1	173	7	210
Middle English . . . . .	107	195	128	1,767	601	2,798	21	..	3	199	13	296
Schools Vernacular . . . . .	56	1,810	69	1,347	21	3,303	68	18	56	232	8	377
Primary Schools . . . . .	1,380	43,405	3,036	78,723	12,545	139,089	407	3,746	1,143	15,028	2,589	22,513
<b>TOTALS .</b>	<b>1,811</b>	<b>45,494</b>	<b>3,295</b>	<b>82,893</b>	<b>13,751</b>	<b>147,244</b>	<b>523</b>	<b>3,766</b>	<b>1,203</b>	<b>15,632</b>	<b>2,612</b>	<b>23,736</b>
Special Schools :—												
Art . . . . .	5	..	..	6	2	13	..	..	..	..	..	..
Law . . . . .	2	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medical . . . . .	19	..	..	1	4	24	1	..	..	2	..	3
Normal and Training . . . . .	371	326	13	68	4	782	50	2	5	53	2	142
Engineering . . . . .	8	..	..	3	..	12	..	..	..	..	..	..
Technical and Industrial . . . . .	55	21	15	109	10	210	3	..	..	62	4	69
Commercial . . . . .	4	..	..	31	79	114	..	..	..	7	..	7
Agricultural . . . . .	10	..	..	1	1	12	..	..	..	1	..	1
Laboratory . . . . .	6	..	..	1	..	7	..	..	..	..	..	..
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	2	..	..	22	2	26	..	..	..	3	..	3
Schools for Adults . . . . .	5	110	70	924	264	1,873	..	..	..	6	..	6
Other Schools . . . . .	58	7	50	1,741	516	2,372	1	..	..	36	3	40
<b>TOTALS .</b>	<b>545</b>	<b>464</b>	<b>148</b>	<b>2,907</b>	<b>1,383</b>	<b>5,447</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>200</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>271</b>
<b>TOTALS FOR RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>2,443</b>	<b>45,959</b>	<b>3,445</b>	<b>85,905</b>	<b>15,165</b>	<b>152,917</b>	<b>586</b>	<b>3,768</b>	<b>1,208</b>	<b>15,844</b>	<b>2,625</b>	<b>24,031</b>
UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.	..	18	8	43	31,349	31,418	..	..	..	24	2,218	2,242
<b>GRAND TOTALS, ALL INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>2,443</b>	<b>45,977</b>	<b>3,453</b>	<b>85,948</b>	<b>16,514</b>	<b>184,335</b>	<b>586</b>	<b>3,768</b>	<b>1,208</b>	<b>15,868</b>	<b>4,843</b>	<b>26,273</b>

N.B.—This table excludes statistics of European Education in the U. P., Assam and N.-W. F. Province.  
\* Includes 3 Oriental Colleges.

## II-A.—Distribution of Scholars attending

	GOVERNMENT.			DISTRICT BOARD.			MUNICIPAL BOARD.		
	Scholars on roll on March 31st	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<b>READING—</b>									
<b>IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>									
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION. (a).</b>									
Arts and Science (b) & (c) . . . . .	13,325	11,643	4,154	64	59	62	253	245	61
Law . . . . .	4,187	3,910	321	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medicine . . . . .	3,174	3,002	827	..	..	..	..	..	..
Education . . . . .	892	838	703	..	..	..	..	..	..
Engineering . . . . .	1,038	1,038	882	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agriculture . . . . .	612	566	476	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commerce . . . . .	389	347	64	..	..	..	..	..	..
Forestry . . . . .	175	170	120	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Science . . . . .	328	299	309	..	..	..	..	..	..
Intermediate and 2nd grade Colleges. . . . .	183	162	65	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>24,803</b>	<b>21,975</b>	<b>7,816</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>62</b>	<b>253</b>	<b>245</b>	<b>61</b>
<b>SCHOOL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION.</b>									
In High Schools . . . . .	37,175	74,968	11,397	24,411	20,796	1,029	22,055	18,950	677
.. Middle English Schools . . . . .	14,168	12,104	1,029	27,875	23,843	1,701	13,784	16,998	1,118
.. Vernacular Schools . . . . .	5,900	4,420	567	237,563	181,456	20,500	10,190	7,955	340
.. Primary Schools . . . . .	60,135	46,285	52	2,395,820	1,699,744	1,575	319,886	236,536	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>167,278</b>	<b>137,777</b>	<b>13,045</b>	<b>2,685,669</b>	<b>1,925,839</b>	<b>24,805</b>	<b>371,915</b>	<b>280,489</b>	<b>2,135</b>
In Art Schools . . . . .	1,387	1,080	118	..	..	..	..	..	..
.. Law . . . . .	75	60	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
.. Medical Schools . . . . .	4,820	4,456	1,467	..	..	..	..	..	..
.. Normal and Training Schools. . . . .	15,505	14,782	10,972	2,931	2,759	2,054	145	145	100
.. Engineering Schools . . . . .	1,065	958	602	..	..	..	..	..	..
.. Technical and Industrial Schools. . . . .	3,632	2,910	633	1,682	1,319	66	1,167	943	23
.. Commercial Schools . . . . .	818	731	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
.. Agricultural . . . . .	251	227	167	..	..	..	..	..	..
.. Reformatory . . . . .	1,194	1,121	968	..	..	..	..	..	..
.. Schools for Defectives . . . . .	60	47	14	..	..	..	..	..	..
.. Schools for Adults . . . . .	283	214	..	2,627	1,890	..	2,188	1,368	..
.. Other Schools . . . . .	4,147	3,176	574	245	193	48	1,443	1,051	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>33,237</b>	<b>29,762</b>	<b>15,515</b>	<b>7,485</b>	<b>6,161</b>	<b>2,168</b>	<b>4,943</b>	<b>3,505</b>	<b>123</b>
<b>Totals for recognised institutions.</b>	<b>224,818</b>	<b>189,514</b>	<b>36,376</b>	<b>2,693,218</b>	<b>1,932,059</b>	<b>27,035</b>	<b>377,111</b>	<b>284,189</b>	<b>2,319</b>
<b>IN UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	..	..	..	928	599	..	600	451	..
<b>Grand Total, all institutions.</b>	<b>224,918</b>	<b>189,514</b>	<b>36,376</b>	<b>2,694,146</b>	<b>1,932,658</b>	<b>27,035</b>	<b>377,711</b>	<b>284,640</b>	<b>2,319</b>

(a) See 428 reading more than one of the following subjects should be entered under only one head.

(b) Includes—36—scholars also reading Law.

(c) Includes—569—scholars in Oriental Colleges.

## Educational Institutions for Males.

AIDED.			UNAIDED.			Grand total of scholars on rolls.	Grand total of average attendance.	Grand total of residents in approved hostels.	Number females included in column 16.
Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.				
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
28,016	24,764	9,608	10,134	8,368	2,696	51,792	45,574	16,581	37
135	164	158	1,215	1,039	313	5,587	5,113	792	..
996	961	432	..	..	..	4,170	3,963	1,259	..
92	82	21	..	..	..	984	920	729	..
326	..	..	.. 68	.. 64	.. 38	1,432	1,102	870	..
.. 285	.. 250	.. 67	.. 110	.. 94	.. 66	612	566	416	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	784	691	197	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	175	170	120	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	328	292	309	..
.. 40	.. 35	.. 8	.. 34	.. 23	.. 1	257	225	74	..
29,940	26,256	10,294	11,561	10,088	3,114	66,121	58,623	21,347	50
327,019	273,632	91,905	130,689	100,112	8,755	591,349	483,459	50,763	5,46
168,047	133,431	11,556	46,347	35,072	2,070	276,221	221,448	17,474	5,15
100,519	96,982	3,867	1,298	1,030	115	355,370	291,843	25,389	31,20
2,711,826	2,155,575	10,037	324,639	253,536	..	5,812,306	4,891,679	11,664	462,27
3,307,411	2,659,623	57,365	502,973	389,750	7,940	7,036,246	5,393,428	105,290	504,16
137	99	..	26	21	..	1,550	1,200	118	1
.. 81	.. 62	..	.. 205	.. 185	.. 56	75	60	..	..
2,691	2,650	1,443	51	55	46	5,106	4,703	1,523	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	21,323	20,391	14,615	..
53	43	(a)13	200	172	..	1,318	1,173	(b)615	..
6,340	5,124	1,382	481	380	7	13,302	10,676	2,111	..
2,567	2,366	108	4,138	2,741	19	7,523	5,838	127	..
63	50	..	..	..	..	314	277	167	..
16	13	.. 16	..	..	..	1,210	1,134	984	..
615	510	391	.. 16	.. 14	..	691	671	405	..
20,622	16,030	..	20,048	16,270	..	45,768	35,770	..	..
53,837	42,479	1,100	13,467	10,386	405	78,139	57,285	2,127	1,01
87,022	69,426	4,453	38,632	30,224	533	171,319	139,078	22,792	2,01
3,424,373	2,755,303	72,112	553,166	430,062	11,587	7,272,680	5,694,129	149,429	506,6
2,863	2,448	..	555,982	303,435	807	560,353	311,933	807	32,97
3,427,236	2,757,753	72,112	1,109,128	738,497	12,394	7,833,039	5,903,062	150,236	539,4

(a) Excludes figures for Bihar and Orissa which are included under " Other Schools "

(b) Excludes figures for Aided Institutions in Bihar and Orissa which are included under " Other Schools "



## II-B.—Distribution of Scholars attending

	GOVERNMENT.			DISTRICT BOARD.			MUNICIPAL BOARD.		
	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<b>READING—</b>									
<b>I. IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>									
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION. (a).</b>									
Arts and Science (b) . . . . .	375	301	193	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medicine . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Education . . . . .	46	48	20	..	..	..	..	..	..
Intermediate and 2nd grade Colleges. . . . .	10	10	4	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>431</b>	<b>356</b>	<b>217</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>
<b>SCHOOLS AND SPECIAL EDUCATION.</b>									
In High Schools . . . . .	5,582	4,547	732	287	251	..	174	189	..
„ Middle Schools. { English . . . . .	2,722	1,981	93	..	..	..	809	571	..
„ „ Vernacular . . . . .	6,545	4,501	113	1,060	853	56	6,723	5,097	7
„ „ Primary Schools . . . . .	25,426	16,849	8	168,153	121,912	19	94,360	64,468	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>40,275</b>	<b>27,828</b>	<b>846</b>	<b>169,500</b>	<b>123,016</b>	<b>75</b>	<b>102,066</b>	<b>70,325</b>	<b>7</b>
In Medical Schools . . . . .	57	56	54	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ Normal and Training Schools. . . . .	1,750	1,685	1,032	15	15	11	25	21	..
„ „ Technical and Industrial Schools. . . . .	59	55	13	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ „ Commercial Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ „ Agricultural Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ „ Schools for defectives . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ „ Schools for Adults . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ „ Other Schools . . . . .	57	39	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>1,923</b>	<b>1,835</b>	<b>1,099</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>..</b>
<b>Total for recognised institutions.</b>	<b>42,629</b>	<b>30,019</b>	<b>2,262</b>	<b>169,515</b>	<b>123,031</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>102,091</b>	<b>70,346</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>II. UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>									
<b>Grand Totals, all institutions.</b>	<b>42,629</b>	<b>30,019</b>	<b>2,262</b>	<b>169,515</b>	<b>123,031</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>102,091</b>	<b>70,346</b>	<b>7</b>

(a) Scholars reading more than one of the following subjects should be entered under only one head.

(b) Includes *not* scholars in Oriental Colleges.

## Educational Institutions for Females.

AIDED.			UNAIDED.			Grand total of scholars on rolls.	Grand total of average attendance.	Grand total of residents in approved hostels.	Number of males included in column 18.
Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.				
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
702	614	428	24	23	9	1,101	938	680	..
54	60	54	..	..	..	54	60	54	..
48	47	39	5	5	..	99	97	59	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	10	10	4	..
804	721	521	29	28	9	1,264	1,105	747	..
32,316	28,067	10,032	1,041	896	354	39,400	33,950	11,128	4,217
23,665	19,589	7,151	759	634	168	27,955	22,725	7,412	3,359
25,339	21,356	2,628	194	140	..	39,861	31,947	2,804	4,315
445,234	345,898	8,040	54,637	41,660	154	787,810	500,787	8,221	29,597
526,554	414,910	27,851	56,631	43,330	686	895,026	679,409	29,565	41,473
156	155	151	..	..	..	213	211	205	..
2,267	1,974	1,593	17	17	17	4,074	3,712	2,653	6
2,598	2,117	938	92	87	23	2,749	2,259	974	16
360	185	5	..	..	..	360	185	5	..
75	64	..	..	..	..	75	64	..	..
180	163	130	..	..	..	180	163	130	72
573	289	15	..	..	..	573	289	15	..
1,674	1,388	133	44	34	..	1,775	1,461	133	106
7,883	6,335	2,965	153	138	40	9,990	8,344	4,115	20
535,241	421,966	31,337	56,813	43,496	735	900,289	652,853	34,427	41,675
2,222	1,823	..	49,540	7,253	70	51,762	9,076	70	6,195
537,463	423,789	31,337	106,353	50,749	805	953,051	697,934	34,497	47,873

**III-A.—Expenditure on Education for Madras.**

Expenditure on Buildings includes, Rs. 52,25,351 spent by the Public Works Department on educational buildings.

“Miscellaneous” includes the following main items:—

Scholarships, Hostel charges and other contingent charges.

	GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.					DISTRICT BOARD AND MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.						
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTAL.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>												
Universities (a) . . . . .	10,52,652	..	..	12,22,719	3,86,259	26,61,630	..	..	..	..	..	..
Arts Colleges . . . . .	28,53,178	..	2,580	8,96,754	32,960	37,86,472	7,848	..	111	13,212	13,690	34,861
Professional Colleges:—												
Law . . . . .	41,940	..	..	3,16,870	53	3,58,872	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medicine . . . . .	12,59,004	..	..	5,11,164	200	17,71,058	..	..	..	..	..	..
Education . . . . .	7,70,929	279	..	117	14,890	7,95,205	..	..	..	..	..	..
Engineering . . . . .	7,70,569	..	..	1,12,523	1,51,590	10,34,682	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agriculture . . . . .	3,23,993	..	..	26,331	551	3,50,875	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commerce . . . . .	37,378	..	..	67,229	..	94,607	..	..	..	..	..	..
Forestry . . . . .	2,88,150	..	..	..	..	2,88,150	..	..	..	..	..	..
Royal Institute of Science . . . . .	1,59,117	..	..	..	966	1,60,083	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Science . . . . .	3,58,808	..	..	16,607	..	3,75,505	..	..	..	..	..	..
Intermediate Colleges . . . . .	5,92,792	..	..	1,99,453	6,204	7,98,359	4,000	..	2,244	5,381	..	11,625
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>85,19,209</b>	<b>279</b>	<b>2,580</b>	<b>38,50,767</b>	<b>5,93,663</b>	<b>1,24,74,498</b>	<b>11,848</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>2,355</b>	<b>18,593</b>	<b>13,690</b>	<b>46,486</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>												
<i>General.</i>												
High Schools . . . . .	44,85,485	1,370	24,775	22,51,578	27,054	67,90,171	3,06,813	3,03,789	2,14,402	10,93,770	35,119	20,43,893
Middle Schools:—												
English . . . . .	6,88,123	3,100	..	2,21,891	1,260	9,14,374	4,28,010	2,97,885	3,50,097	5,31,598	17,312	16,24,872
Vernacular . . . . .	1,67,807	304	157	4,599	3	1,72,870	22,55,140	13,05,216	1,46,165	4,37,786	18,428	41,62,735
Primary Schools . . . . .	7,64,400	13,836	5,090	22,508	3,852	8,09,596	1,98,23,130	55,34,181	32,19,598	9,53,356	1,56,154	2,96,86,428
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>61,05,815</b>	<b>18,519</b>	<b>29,932</b>	<b>25,00,576</b>	<b>32,160</b>	<b>86,87,011</b>	<b>2,20,03,102</b>	<b>74,41,071</b>	<b>39,30,262</b>	<b>30,16,480</b>	<b>2,27,013</b>	<b>3,75,17,928</b>
<i>Special.</i>												
Art Schools . . . . .	4,07,807	3,050	715	13,986	15,115	4,40,763	..	..	..	..	..	..
Law Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	5,432	..	5,432	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medical Schools . . . . .	12,43,897	3,540	549	1,45,570	10,115	14,09,680	..	..	..	..	..	..
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	23,79,116	78,498	21,204	12,030	11,602	35,03,350	4,94,345	1,76,789	17,974	8	..	6,89,126
Engineering Schools . . . . .	5,14,913	..	..	59,903	6,845	6,72,391	5,376	..	8,636	333	..	14,345
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	9,73,693	14,326	15	16,098	1,57,463	11,61,595	65,120	75,093	36,927	9,853	43,955	2,30,858
Commercial Schools . . . . .	41,861	..	..	38,372	1,853	82,086	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	1,09,523	216	..	2,483	466	1,12,688	..	..	..	..	..	..
Reformatory Schools . . . . .	2,98,182	..	..	18,156	..	3,16,338	..	..	..	..	..	..
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	23,013	..	..	37	1,452	24,502	..	..	..	..	..	..
Schools for Adults . . . . .	2,578	..	..	..	..	2,578	7,386	946	1,19,305	1,410	7,150	1,36,212
Other Schools . . . . .	4,37,366	5,293	2,500	21,321	9,803	4,76,283	13,266	4,314	7,281	1,461	2,099	28,321
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>74,31,767</b>	<b>1,04,932</b>	<b>24,983</b>	<b>3,07,132</b>	<b>2,38,870</b>	<b>81,07,984</b>	<b>5,84,493</b>	<b>2,57,062</b>	<b>1,90,123</b>	<b>13,071</b>	<b>54,113</b>	<b>10,98,862</b>
<b>Grand Totals</b>	<b>2,20,55,791</b>	<b>1,23,730</b>	<b>57,495</b>	<b>61,67,476</b>	<b>8,64,792</b>	<b>2,92,69,193</b>	<b>2,34,90,443</b>	<b>76,98,133</b>	<b>41,22,740</b>	<b>30,48,144</b>	<b>2,04,816</b>	<b>3,86,63,276</b>

N.B.—This table excludes Statistics of European Education in the U. P., Assam and N. W. F. Province.

(a) Figures under cols. 1 to 21 against this head exclude those for Madras as that Province has not furnished any details for these columns.

### III-A.—Expenditure on Education for Males—contd.

	AIDED INSTITUTIONS.					RECOGNISED UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS.			
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.
	13	14	15	16	17	18	10	20	21
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTER-MEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>									
Universities (a)	12,53,765		1,400	11,99,218	7,49,948	32,04,331			
Arts Colleges	11,50,446	16,250	21,869	19,29,017	11,75,043	42,92,625	7,20,494	1,79,082	8,99,576
Professional Colleges									
Law							1,01,083		1,01,083
Medicine	27,500		1,375	75,319	21,896	1,28,090			
Education	17,736					17,736			
Engineering							17,871	9,157	27,028
Agriculture									
Commerce	10,527			7,939	8,294	26,760	2,676	7,186	9,862
Forestry									
Royal Institute of Science									
Veterinary Science									
Intermediate Colleges	1,97,931		600	3,55,827	2,29,071	7,83,429	44,587	1,00,107	1,44,694
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>26,57,905</b>	<b>16,250</b>	<b>25,244</b>	<b>35,67,320</b>	<b>21,84,252</b>	<b>84,50,971</b>	<b>8,86,711</b>	<b>2,95,532</b>	<b>11, 82,243</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>									
<i>General.</i>									
High Schools	44,51,164	30,025	1,31,992	80,61,071	32,60,122	1,59,43,374	31,02,653	10,64,480	41,67,142
Middle Schools—									
English	14,89,876	2,27,547	58,102	21,34,439	15,56,421	54,66,385	4,33,897	4,05,682	8,39,579
Vernacular	73,759	5,68,410	2,07,579	1,01,703	76,406	10,28,057	4,051	11,591	15,642
Primary Schools	42,71,191	29,46,601	5,67,232	31,11,153	36,26,418	1,44,22,595	4,15,717	4,11,858	8,27,575
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>1,02,85,900</b>	<b>36,81,783</b>	<b>6,84,905</b>	<b>1,34,08,366</b>	<b>85,19,367</b>	<b>3,68,60,411</b>	<b>39,56,318</b>	<b>18,03,620</b>	<b>58,49,938</b>
<i>Special</i>									
Art Schools	22,440	420	750	1,793	11,100	36,503	240	1,872	2,112
Law Schools									
Medical Schools		550	550	1,812		2,012	10,712	4,385	15,097
Normal and Training Schools	2,80,337	213	148	3,205	1,10,427	4,03,330	1,328	4,933	6,261
Engineering Schools	3,500	750							1,925
Technical and Industrial Schools	4,31,227	12,202	34,501	1,053	1,173	6,576	15,929	40,001	56,929
Commercial Schools	13,950	3,081	96	54,376	30,700	1,03,112	1,10,285	9,895	1,20,180
Agricultural Schools	600			522	6,946	8,068		60	60
Reformatory Schools	6,240				3,666	9,908			
Schools for Detentives	40,327	75	16,130	3,284	47,462	1,10,258		3,719	3,719
Schools for Adults	45,351	10,390	6,178	11,570	32,232	1,04,721	2,616	9,668	12,284
Other Schools	3,52,291	50,055	21,768	1,43,758	3,87,540	9,59,412	40,908	2,26,063	2,67,591
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>12,14,263</b>	<b>78,636</b>	<b>79,221</b>	<b>3,14,914</b>	<b>16,19,313</b>	<b>33,06,347</b>	<b>1,83,543</b>	<b>3,01,306</b>	<b>4,85,249</b>
<b>Grand Totals</b>	<b>1,41,58,158</b>	<b>37,76,669</b>	<b>10,69,370</b>	<b>1,72,90,680</b>	<b>1,23,22,932</b>	<b>4,86,17,729</b>	<b>50,26,972</b>	<b>24,90,458</b>	<b>75,17,430</b>

## III-A.—Expenditure on Education for Males—concl'd.

	TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM					
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	GRAND TOTALS.
	22	23	24	25	26	27
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Direction . . . . .	13,65,093					13,65,093
Inspection . . . . .	70,38,067	2,00,100	42,491		3,552	72,84,300
Buildings, etc. . . . .	93,65,379	23,23,837	4,61,010	3,71,362	36,57,493	1,61,79,081
Miscellaneous . . . . .	50,97,677	12,77,484	2,44,437	35,26,009	40,15,789	1,41,61,396
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>2,28,66,216</b>	<b>38,01,511</b>	<b>7,47,938</b>	<b>33,97,371</b>	<b>76,76,834</b>	<b>3,89,89,870</b>
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>						
Universities (a) . . . . .	29,91,807		1,400	26,78,808	11,85,628	62,55,785
Arts Colleges . . . . .	40,33,306	16,250	24,569	35,59,477	13,78,941	90,12,534
Professional Colleges:—						
Law . . . . .	41,949			4,17,952	53	4,59,955
Medicine . . . . .	12,87,184		1,375	5,36,483	22,098	18,97,148
Education . . . . .	7,97,665	279		117	14,880	8,12,941
Engineering . . . . .	7,79,569			1,30,394	1,60,747	10,61,710
Agriculture . . . . .	3,23,993			26,331	551	3,50,875
Commerce . . . . .	47,905			67,344	15,480	1,31,229
Forestry . . . . .	2,88,150					2,88,150
Royal Institution of Science . . . . .	1,59,117				966	1,60,083
Veterinary Science . . . . .	3,58,898			16,607		3,75,505
Intermediate Colleges . . . . .	7,94,633		2,844	6,05,248	3,35,382	17,38,107
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>1,12,95,276</b>	<b>16,529</b>	<b>30,179</b>	<b>80,87,262</b>	<b>31,14,724</b>	<b>2,25,43,970</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>						
<i>General.</i>						
High Schools . . . . .	93,34,182	3,44,093	3,71,169	1,45,09,072	43,86,064	2,89,44,580
Middle Schools—						
English . . . . .	26,06,009	5,28,532	4,08,199	33,21,795	19,80,875	88,45,210
Vernacular . . . . .	24,96,706	18,74,180	3,53,901	5,48,139	1,06,428	53,79,304
Primary Schools . . . . .	2,48,58,730	83,94,618	37,91,830	45,02,734	41,98,282	4,57,46,194
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>3,92,95,627</b>	<b>1,11,41,373</b>	<b>49,25,099</b>	<b>2,28,81,740</b>	<b>1,06,71,449</b>	<b>8,89,15,288</b>
<i>Special.</i>						
Art Schools . . . . .	4,30,337	3,470	1,405	16,019	28,087	4,79,378
Law Schools . . . . .				5,432		5,432
Medical Schools . . . . .	12,43,897	4,099	1,099	1,58,094	20,500	14,27,689
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	41,82,798	2,55,510	39,326	17,471	1,26,962	46,02,967
Engineering Schools . . . . .	3,23,519	750	8,736	54,214	8,018	5,95,237
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	14,70,940	1,01,531	71,443	1,21,605	12,14,776	29,79,395
Commercial Schools . . . . .	55,811	3,981	96	2,16,869	57,248	3,34,005
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	1,10,123	216		3,005	7,472	1,20,816
Reformatory Schools . . . . .	3,04,422				21,822	3,26,244
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	72,340	75	18,130	3,301	52,633	1,44,179
Schools for Adults . . . . .	55,313	11,336	1,24,483	15,602	49,059	2,55,793
Other Schools . . . . .	8,01,923	59,682	31,549	2,07,448	6,27,925	17,27,607
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>92,30,523</b>	<b>4,40,630</b>	<b>2,94,327</b>	<b>8,19,060</b>	<b>22,13,602</b>	<b>1,29,93,142</b>
<b>Grand Totals</b>	<b>8,26,87,642</b>	<b>1,54,09,043</b>	<b>59,97,543</b>	<b>3,56,85,433</b>	<b>2,36,76,609</b>	<b>16,91,47,270</b>

## GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.

## DISTRICT BOARD AND MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>												
Arts Colleges	1,24,444	..	..	14,367	21	1,38,832	..	..	..	..	..	..
Professional Colleges:												
Medicine	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Education	23,731	..	..	320	..	24,041	..	..	..	..	..	..
Intermediate Colleges	22,120	..	..	1,629	..	23,849	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>1,70,285</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>16,216</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>1,86,522</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>												
<i>General.</i>												
High Schools	6,40,666	..	..	80,001	4,143	7,24,810	1,920	28,034	17,079	1,824	1,780	62,117
Middle Schools—												
English	1,77,607	..	..	10,379	337	1,88,323	11,083	..	24,025	1,419	..	36,527
Vernacular	1,48,271	..	..	1,163	33	1,44,457	40,883	19,809	1,19,536	2,795	239	1,83,312
Primary Schools	4,16,850	294	24	2,571	1,209	4,50,948	16,82,236	7,89,270	14,33,470	30,802	34,349	39,70,127
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>11,08,394</b>	<b>294</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>94,104</b>	<b>5,722</b>	<b>15,08,538</b>	<b>17,36,122</b>	<b>8,37,713</b>	<b>15,95,080</b>	<b>36,840</b>	<b>36,348</b>	<b>42,42,083</b>
<i>Special.</i>												
Medical Schools	35,724	..	..	..	..	35,724	..	..	..	..	..	..
Normal and Training Schools.	6,12,705	10,324	8,035	120	4,915	6,66,099	7,075	842	3,210	..	..	11,127
Technical and Industrial Schools	14,002	..	..	..	191	14,253	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commercial Schools	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agricultural Schools	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Schools for Defectives	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Schools for Adults	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Other Schools	10,165	..	..	..	..	10,165	..	250	..	..	23	273
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>7,02,656</b>	<b>10,324</b>	<b>8,035</b>	<b>120</b>	<b>5,106</b>	<b>7,26,241</b>	<b>7,075</b>	<b>1,092</b>	<b>3,210</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>23</b>	<b>11,400</b>
<b>Grand Totals for Females.</b>	<b>22,81,335</b>	<b>10,618</b>	<b>8,059</b>	<b>1,10,440</b>	<b>10,849</b>	<b>24,21,301</b>	<b>17,43,197</b>	<b>8,38,805</b>	<b>15,98,270</b>	<b>36,840</b>	<b>36,371</b>	<b>42,53,483</b>
<b>Grand Totals for Males</b>	<b>2,20,55,791</b>	<b>1,23,730</b>	<b>57,495</b>	<b>61,67,475</b>	<b>8,64,702</b>	<b>2,92,69,193</b>	<b>2,34,99,443</b>	<b>76,98,133</b>	<b>41,22,740</b>	<b>30,48,144</b>	<b>2,94,816</b>	<b>3,86,63,276</b>
<b>Grand Totals for all</b>	<b>2,43,37,126</b>	<b>1,34,348</b>	<b>65,554</b>	<b>62,77,915</b>	<b>9,75,551</b>	<b>3,16,90,494</b>	<b>2,52,42,640</b>	<b>85,36,938</b>	<b>57,21,010</b>	<b>30,84,984</b>	<b>3,31,187</b>	<b>4,29,16,759</b>

N.B.—This table excludes Statistics of European Education in U. P., Assam and N-W. F. Province.

### III-B.—Expenditure on Education for Females—contd.

	AIDED INSTITUTIONS.					RECOGNISED UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS.			
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.
	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTER-MEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>									
Arts Colleges . . . . .	47,749	..	..	21,329	72,994	1,42,072	2,904	5,346	6,250
Professional Colleges . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medicine . . . . .	1,17,270	..	..	13,970	..	1,31,240	..	..	..
Education . . . . .	24,323	..	..	4,927	3,801	38,101	900	..	900
Intermediate Colleges . . . . .	41,666	..	..	12,694	16,311	69,671	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>2,21,058</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>52,920</b>	<b>92,106</b>	<b>3,76,084</b>	<b>3,804</b>	<b>5,346</b>	<b>9,150</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>									
<i>General.</i>									
High Schools . . . . .	11,07,006	2,349	72,016	10,22,950	8,04,837	30,09,158	32,915	48,374	81,289
Middle Schools—									
English . . . . .	5,77,462	3,633	17,752	3,00,709	6,60,235	15,68,791	4,266	33,685	37,951
Vernacular . . . . .	1,04,404	62,349	1,02,600	22,951	1,98,897	4,91,101	870	2,020	2,890
Primary School . . . . .	10,45,946	5,49,460	2,48,212	2,44,401	13,21,768	34,09,767	9,905	1,05,784	1,15,689
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>29,24,818</b>	<b>6,17,781</b>	<b>4,40,480</b>	<b>15,91,011</b>	<b>29,94,727</b>	<b>85,68,817</b>	<b>47,956</b>	<b>1,80,963</b>	<b>2,37,819</b>
<i>Special.</i>									
Medical Schools . . . . .	25,261	550	..	11,230	46,963	84,024	..	..	..
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	2,79,037	893	7,218	26,723	1,51,046	4,63,925	273	4,870	5,143
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	56,101	3,916	1,500	7,164	1,47,958	2,16,630	229	644	873
Commercial Schools . . . . .	7,826	..	2,937	12,682	1,147	24,592	..	..	..
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	300	..	..	..	..	300	..	..	..
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	18,482	..	..	..	16,096	34,578	..	..	..
Schools for Adults . . . . .	6,616	..	1,423	3,747	14,016	25,802	..	..	..
Other Schools . . . . .	15,104	38	1,363	3,655	31,308	51,558	410	602	1,012
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>4,08,817</b>	<b>5,397</b>	<b>14,439</b>	<b>64,211</b>	<b>4,08,564</b>	<b>9,01,418</b>	<b>912</b>	<b>6,116</b>	<b>7,028</b>
<b>Grand Totals for Females</b>	<b>35,64,693</b>	<b>6,23,178</b>	<b>4,54,919</b>	<b>17,08,142</b>	<b>34,95,387</b>	<b>98,46,319</b>	<b>52,672</b>	<b>2,01,325</b>	<b>2,59,997</b>
<b>Grand Totals for Males</b>	<b>1,41,58,158</b>	<b>37,76,060</b>	<b>10,69,370</b>	<b>1,72,90,600</b>	<b>1,23,22,932</b>	<b>4,86,17,729</b>	<b>50,26,972</b>	<b>24,90,458</b>	<b>75,17,430</b>
<b>Grand Totals for all</b>	<b>1,77,22,851</b>	<b>43,99,847</b>	<b>15,24,289</b>	<b>1,89,98,742</b>	<b>1,58,18,319</b>	<b>5,84,64,048</b>	<b>50,70,644</b>	<b>26,01,783</b>	<b>77,71,427</b>

III-B.—Expenditure on Education for Females—*concl'd.*

	TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM					
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	GRAND TOTALS.
	22	23	24	25	26	27
In-pection	6,27,703	9,840	15,794	..	7	6,53,344
Buildings, etc.	15,05,916	59,682	47,309	76,826	9,91,714	26,81,447
Miscellaneous	12,54,630	50,225	40,454	16,80,137	18,94,571	49,20,020
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>33,88,249</b>	<b>1,19,750</b>	<b>1,03,557</b>	<b>17,50,963</b>	<b>28,86,292</b>	<b>82,54,811</b>
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>						
Arts Colleges	1,74,193	..	..	38,600	76,361	2,89,154
Professional Colleges:						
Medicine	1,17,270	..	..	13,970	..	1,31,240
Education	48,094	..	..	6,147	3,601	58,042
Intermediate Colleges	63,786	..	..	14,223	15,311	93,320
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>4,03,343</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>72,940</b>	<b>95,473</b>	<b>5,71,756</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>						
<i>General.</i>						
High Schools	18,39,692	80,983	89,995	11,37,690	8,59,114	39,57,374
Middle Schools—						
English	7,66,152	3,633	41,777	3,16,773	7,03,257	18,31,592
Vernacular	2,88,558	82,158	2,22,086	27,769	2,01,189	8,21,760
Primary Schools	31,75,922	13,39,014	16,81,705	2,87,679	14,63,100	79,46,531
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>60,69,324</b>	<b>14,55,788</b>	<b>20,35,564</b>	<b>17,69,911</b>	<b>32,26,660</b>	<b>1,45,57,257</b>
<i>Special.</i>						
Medical Schools	60,985	550	..	11,220	46,983	1,19,748
Normal and Training Schools	9,28,817	12,059	18,461	26,126	1,66,831	11,46,294
Technical and Industrial Schools	76,163	3,916	1,500	7,393	1,48,793	2,31,765
Commercial Schools	7,826	..	2,937	12,682	1,147	24,592
Agricultural Schools	300	..	..	..	..	300
Schools for Defectives	18,482	..	..	..	16,096	34,578
Schools for Adults	6,616	..	1,423	3,747	14,016	25,802
Other Schools	25,359	288	1,363	4,065	31,923	68,008
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>11,18,548</b>	<b>16,813</b>	<b>25,684</b>	<b>65,243</b>	<b>4,19,799</b>	<b>16,46,087</b>
<b>Grand Totals for Females</b>	<b>1,09,79,474</b>	<b>15,92,351</b>	<b>21,64,805</b>	<b>36,65,057</b>	<b>66,28,224</b>	<b>2,50,29,911</b>
<b>Grand Totals for Males</b>	<b>8,26,87,642</b>	<b>1,54,00,643</b>	<b>59,97,543</b>	<b>3,50,85,433</b>	<b>2,36,76,660</b>	<b>16,84,47,270</b>
<b>Grand Totals for all</b>	<b>9,36,67,116</b>	<b>1,69,92,994</b>	<b>81,62,348</b>	<b>3,93,50,490</b>	<b>3,98,04,883</b>	<b>18,84,77,181</b>



## IV-A.—Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the General Education of Males

Race or Creed.	European and Anglo-Indians.	Indian Christians.	HINDUS.			Buddhists.	Parsis.	Sikhs.	Others.	Total.
			Higher castes.	* De-pressed classes.	Muham-madans.					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
TOTAL POPULATION †.	148,584	1,409,947	68,393,596	14,174,683	30,943,350	5,672,566	45,950	1,343,372	4,063,173	126,917,954
<i>School Education.</i>										
Primary	4,808	97,872	1,938,648	305,586	883,098	134,073	1,417	31,474	56,068	3,452,046
I	2,466	35,493	697,710	87,188	274,870	65,646	895	13,237	16,813	1,184,318
II	2,515	27,623	523,854	59,930	185,256	12,286	830	10,140	19,964	833,303
III	2,429	23,554	392,124	34,156	102,567	21,660	837	8,707	7,268	593,301
IV	1,527	10,862	217,311	12,566	45,410	941	431	5,404	3,951	298,403
† Middle	1,740	8,384	144,222	5,415	34,958	4,924	951	4,811	1,193	205,648
V	1,627	6,271	111,229	3,738	24,771	7,744	1,057	3,892	784	161,113
VI	1,300	4,323	85,033	1,874	10,260	179	710	3,229	440	113,357
† High	781	3,122	57,815	1,004	10,480	113	810	1,960	232	76,317
VII	555	2,117	48,178	794	8,431	147	630	1,476	141	62,469
VIII	296	1,980	38,267	454	4,919	91	553	11	81	46,043
IX	39	263	8,515	60	1,260	..	596	8	40	10,781
TOTALS	20,083	221,219	4,252,906	512,664	1,591,380	247,806	9,717	34,349	97,975	7,038,059
<i>University and Intermediate Education.</i>										
Intermediate classes.	86	653	12,813	165	1,890	161	275	270	114	16,427
1st year	61	446	10,694	112	1,627	83	163	223	63	13,474
2nd year	41	253	5,839	61	886	61	54	87	16	7,298
Degree classes	41	308	6,737	41	1,015	95	72	119	14	8,442
3rd year	5	31	1,211	3	155	2	14	14	2	1,437
4th year	7	16	1,036	..	118	4	12	16	2	1,211
Post-graduate	..	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	..	5
5th year	..	..	259	..	16	..	..	..	..	258
6th year	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
7th year	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Research Students—	..	2	..	..	..	..	1	..	..	..
TOTALS	241	1,711	(a) 38,996	332	5,707	406	591	729	211	‡ 48,974 (a) & (b)
No. of scholars in recognised institutions.	20,324	222,930	4,291,902	513,046	1,597,087	248,212	10,308	85,078	93,166	7,087,073
No. of scholars in unrecognised institutions.	20	5,170	160,420	14,682	166,626	206,933	196	4,640	1,666	560,353
GRAND TOTALS	20,344	228,100	(a) 4,452,322	527,728	1,763,713	455,145	10,504	89,718	94,832	(a) & (b) 7,647,426

\* See footnote on page 41.

† Please draw two broad lines across the table indicating the stages where the High and Middle Departments begin. (These line could not be drawn as there is no uniformity in the different provinces as to the stages where the High and Middle Department begin.)

(a) Includes 380 and 22 scholar- in the U. P. and Assam respectively reading in Oriental colleges.

(b) Excludes 158 scholars in the Punjab reading in Oriental college.

‡ Excludes 2,314 and 403 scholars reading in school stages in colleges in U. P. and Bangalore respectively.

§ Excludes 64 scholars reading purely classical languages.

¶ Details exclude figures for Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara, Coorg and Bangalore, and also 21,453 persons not enumerated by religio in Burma.

## IV-B.—Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the General Education of Females.

Race or Creed.	Euro- peans and Anglo- In- dians.	Indian Chris- tians.	HINDUS.		Muham- madans.	Bud- dhists.	Parsis.	Sikhs.	Others.	Total.	
			Higher castes.	*De- pressed classes.							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
<b>TOTAL POPULATION†</b>	88,979	1,357,150	85,347,066	13,622,979	28,242,922	5,815,386	42,279	1,019,979	4,064,010	120,155,954	
<i>School Education.</i>											
<b>Primary</b>	<b>Classes</b>										
	I	7,884	24,040	292,544	16,624	163,654	20,388	1,322	5,597	1,625	533,878
	II	2,813	9,748	84,748	4,670	42,159	12,183	831	1,817	511	159,480
	III	2,319	6,969	54,968	2,423	20,453	1,701	847	1,262	400	91,562
	IV	2,645	6,062	31,773	1,376	7,156	2,740	721	913	275	53,661
	V	1,537	5,158	14,333	560	2,440	174	380	554	133	25,269
† Middle	VI	1,862	3,485	6,148	310	725	181	528	137	94	13,410
	VII	1,758	2,430	3,321	97	291	202	357	79	72	8,607
	VIII	937	1,550	1,629	37	154	26	252	73	39	4,597
† High	IX	517	794	642	5	27	79	171	12	24	2,271
	X	406	530	529	..	23	40	158	10	24	1,720
	..	148	315	200	..	15	..	78	..	16	665
	..	8	64	162	..	4	..	58	..	6	302
<b>TOTALS</b>		22,774	61,145	490,987	26,104	237,101	37,715	5,703	10,474	3,419	695,422
<i>University and Intermediate Education.</i>											
Intermediate	1st year	37	113	121	..	2	..	1	2	1	277
classes.	2nd year	25	101	95	1	2	..	1	5	..	230
Degree classes	3rd year	14	60	46	..	..	..	..	..	..	129
	4th year	11	38	34	..	3	..	..	..	..	86
	5th year	..	1	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	2
Post-graduate	6th year	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
classes.	7th year	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Research Students—		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b>		87	313	296	1	8	..	2	7	1	475
No. of scholars in recognised institutions.		22,861	61,458	491,283	26,105	2,37,109	37,715	5,705	10,481	3,420	696,137
No. of scholars in unrecognised institutions.		..	493	13,305	626	32,667	3,043	129	1,247	52	51,762
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>		22,861	61,951	504,588	26,731	2,69,776	40,758	5,834	11,728	3,472	747,909

\* See footnote on page 41.

† Vide footnote on previous page.

‡ Excludes 57, 33 and 306 scholars reading in school stages in colleges in the United Provinces, the Punjab and Bangalore respectively.

§ Details exclude figures for Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara, Coorg and Bangalore as also 21,640 persons not enumerated by religion in Burma.

### V-A.—Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the Vocational and Special Education of Males.

	Euro- peans and Anglo- In- dians.	Indian Chris- tians.	HINDUS.		Muham- madans.	Bud- dhists.	Paras.	Sikhs.	Others.	TOTAL.
			Higher castes.	*De- pressed classes.						
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
<i>Schools.</i>										
Arts Schools . . . . .	23	64	1,100	18	295	8	18	19	16	1,550
Law Schools . . . . .	..	..	61	..	14	..	..	..	..	75
Medical Schools . . . . .	54	273	3,826	16	645	89	2	196	5	5,106
Normal and Training Schools	1	2,131	12,975	761	4,001	835	..	246	373	21,323
Engineering and Surveying Schools.	20	31	976	36	137	43	2	23	50	1,819
Technical and Industrial Schools.	456	1,587	5,299	911	3,111	80	90	217	142	(a)13,302
Commercial Schools . . . . .	355	501	5,296	16	444	319	272	18	61	(b)7,523
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	1	43	212	6	51	..	..	3	1	314
Reformatory Schools . . . . .	2	36	600	60	383	90	..	1	18	1,210
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	22	232	317	9	55	12	9	28	7	691
Schools for Adults . . . . .	..	475	11,798	5,345	25,770	307	6	1,374	693	45,768
Other Schools . . . . .	10	334	29,893	1,072	34,779	6,688	66	12	285	73,139
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>944</b>	<b>6,707</b>	<b>72,353</b>	<b>8,270</b>	<b>69,675</b>	<b>8,471</b>	<b>465</b>	<b>2,133</b>	<b>1,651</b>	(c)171,319
<i>Colleges.</i>										
Law . . . . .	6	68	4,718	20	601	5	47	45	77	5,587
Medicine . . . . .	58	194	3,169	32	411	17	171	112	6	4,170
Education . . . . .	25	21	717	10	182	1	..	27	1	934
Engineering . . . . .	84	33	894	1	51	..	40	3	..	(d)1,432
Agriculture . . . . .	..	29	418	..	93	17	3	50	2	612
Commerce . . . . .	4	27	631	1	47	2	65	4	3	734
Forestry . . . . .	6	12	126	..	22	1	..	8	..	175
Veterinary Science . . . . .	4	23	179	..	94	5	..	23	..	328
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>187</b>	<b>407</b>	<b>10,852</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>1,501</b>	<b>48</b>	<b>326</b>	<b>272</b>	<b>89</b>	(d)14,072
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>1,131</b>	<b>6,114</b>	<b>83,205</b>	<b>8,334</b>	<b>71,176</b>	<b>8,519</b>	<b>791</b>	<b>2,405</b>	<b>1,740</b>	135,391 (c)&(d)

\* See footnote on page 41.

(a) Detailed information of 1,409 Scholars in the U. P. not available.

(b) Detailed information of 241 Scholars in the U. P. not available.

(c) Detailed information of 1,650 Scholars in the U. P. not available.

(d) Detailed information of 326 Scholars in the U. P. not available.

### V-B.—Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the Vocational and Special Education of Females.

	Euro- peans and Anglo- In- dians.	Indian Chris- tians.	HINDUS.		Muham- madans.	Bud- dhists.	Parsis.	Sikhs.	Others.	TOTALS.
			Higher castes.	*De- pressed classes.						
			1	2						
<i>Schools.</i>										
Medical Schools . . . . .	9	165	14	..	14	..	..	11	..	213
Normal and Training Schools	229	1,873	1,298	47	277	202	50	60	38	4,074
Technical and Industrial Schools.	53	1,974	508	37	31	37	..	..	2	2,749(a)
Commercial Schools . . . . .	228	126	..	..	..	..	..	..	6	360
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	..	73	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	75
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	..	139	31	6	1	2	1	..	..	180
Schools for Adults . . . . .	..	2	457	..	36	..	77	..	1	573
Other Schools . . . . .	14	276	887	41	542	..	12	..	3	1,775
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>533</b>	<b>4,628</b>	<b>3,195</b>	<b>131</b>	<b>901</b>	<b>241</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>52</b>	<b>9,999(a)</b>
<i>Colleges.</i>										
Medicine . . . . .	..	10	30	..	4	..	..	9	1	54
Education . . . . .	62	21	16	..	..	..	..	..	..	99
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>62</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>46</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>9</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>153</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>595</b>	<b>4,659</b>	<b>3,241</b>	<b>131</b>	<b>905</b>	<b>241</b>	<b>140</b>	<b>80</b>	<b>53</b>	<b>10,152(a)</b>

*F. E.*—The following are included under the heading "Depressed classes"—

Aboriginals, Hill tribes, Criminal tribes, untouchables, Jungle tribes and other backward races

(a) Detailed information of 107 scholars in the U. P. not available.

## VI.—Teachers (Men and Women).

CLASS OF INSTITUTIONS.	TRAINED TEACHERS WITH THE FOLLOWING EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS.					UNTRAINED TEACHERS.				Total Trained Teachers.	Total untrained teachers.	Grand totals of Teachers.
	A Degree	Passed Matric. or School final.	Passed Middle School.	Passed Primary School.	Lower qualifications.	Possessing a degree.		Possessing no degree.				
						Certificated.	Uncertificated.	Certificated.	Uncertificated.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
<i>Primary Schools.</i>												
Government	2	349	1,027	915	33	..	5	344	972	2,326	1,321	3,647
Local Board and Municipal.	..	347	31,751	33,288	337	281	31	6,962	32,636	65,723	39,910	105,633
Aided	17	997	16,286	16,483	1,564	86	82	33,398	60,835	35,347	94,401	129,748
Unaided	..	32	888	930	56	..	3	4,445	10,100	1,906	14,548	16,454
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>1,725</b>	<b>49,952</b>	<b>51,616</b>	<b>1,990</b>	<b>367</b>	<b>121</b>	<b>45,149</b>	<b>104,543</b>	<b>105,302</b>	<b>150,180</b>	<b>255,482</b>
<i>Middle Schools.</i>												
Government	43	470	494	83	22	9	45	88	395	1,112	537	1,649
Local Board and Municipal.	134	746	8,524	674	113	71	72	761	2,200	10,191	3,104	13,295
Aided	156	1,244	3,747	853	582	164	286	4,555	5,603	6,592	10,608	17,200
Unaided	20	78	714	80	14	59	55	1,326	973	904	2,413	3,317
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>353</b>	<b>2,536</b>	<b>13,479</b>	<b>1,690</b>	<b>741</b>	<b>303</b>	<b>458</b>	<b>6,730</b>	<b>9,171</b>	<b>18,799</b>	<b>16,662</b>	<b>35,461</b>
<i>High Schools.</i>												
Government	1,453	1,063	606	23	123	292	383	453	879	3,273	2,007	5,280
Local Board and Municipal.	453	728	233	40	231	141	125	200	420	1,667	856	2,543
Aided	1,824	2,519	2,056	272	592	1,448	1,926	2,871	4,668	7,263	10,913	18,176
Unaided	120	96	546	28	5	1,213	891	2,856	1,843	795	6,603	7,398
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>3,852</b>	<b>4,411</b>	<b>3,441</b>	<b>363</b>	<b>951</b>	<b>3,064</b>	<b>3,325</b>	<b>6,180</b>	<b>7,810</b>	<b>13,018</b>	<b>20,379</b>	<b>33,397</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>	<b>4,224</b>	<b>8,672</b>	<b>66,872</b>	<b>(a) 53,665</b>	<b>3,682</b>	<b>3,734</b>	<b>3,904</b>	<b>(b) 58,046</b>	<b>(c) 121,506</b>	<b>(a) 137,115</b>	<b>(d) 187,190</b>	<b>(c) 324,305</b>

(a) Excludes 4 teachers in Primary Unaided Schools in Bangalore.  
 (b) Excludes 13 teachers in Primary Unaided Schools in Bangalore.  
 (c) Excludes 18 teachers in Primary Unaided Schools in Bangalore.  
 (d) Excludes 31 teachers in Primary Unaided Schools in Bangalore.  
 (e) Excludes 35 teachers in Primary Unaided Schools in Bangalore.

## VII.—European Education.

Total European population	Male . 146,966		Percentage to European population of those at school.								
	Female . 86,139	TOTAL . 233,105	Males. 16-55	Females. 26-81	Total. 20-34						
Institutions	Scholars on roll on March 1st.	Average daily attendance.	Number of females in institutions for males and vice versa.	TEACHERS.		EXPENDITURE FROM				Total expenditure.	
				Trained.	Un-trained.	Govt. funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.		
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
<i>Institutions for Males.</i>											
Arts Colleges . . . . .	1	452	426	..	18	4	19,300	..	14,297	19,304	52,901
Training Colleges . . . . .	1	22	16	..	1	1	14,746	..	..	9,458	24,204
High Schools . . . . .	73	13,820	12,481	746	499	369	10,99,104	3,717	9,60,546	5,25,176	25,88,543
Middle Schools . . . . .	43	4,208	3,567	1,206	152	131	1,82,814	1,221	1,33,384	1,32,834	4,50,253
Primary Schools . . . . .	47	3,051	2,588	1,033	104	67	87,243	2,012	65,252	88,832	2,44,239
Training Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,845	..	..	..	1,845
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	3	446	363	..	4	14	46,067	..	16,072	1,062	63,201
Commercial Schools . . . . .	1	22	22	..	..	1	..	..	..	..	..
Other Schools . . . . .	1	11	10	5	..	4	15,633	..	997	1,467	18,097
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>170</b>	<b>22,032</b>	<b>19,473</b>	<b>2,990</b>	<b>778</b>	<b>591</b>	<b>14,66,752</b>	<b>7,850</b>	<b>11,90,548</b>	<b>7,78,133</b>	<b>34,43,283</b>
<i>Institutions for Females.</i>											
Arts Colleges . . . . .	1	317	280	..	14	4	12,711	..	10,032	5,987	29,630
Training Colleges . . . . .	2	51	52	..	6	1	26,397	..	3,492	3,561	33,600
High Schools . . . . .	101	15,627	14,423	2,557	696	533	9,62,321	50,961	8,57,354	2,89,005	21,59,641
Middle Schools . . . . .	65	6,085	5,069	1,754	256	174	2,91,328	2,709	1,79,579	2,69,226	7,32,842
Primary Schools . . . . .	58	2,887	2,350	963	100	86	98,331	1,466	63,934	89,419	2,53,150
Training Schools . . . . .	9	149	124	..	26	7	43,280	..	15,306	12,570	71,156
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commercial Schools . . . . .	5	245	158	..	5	13	3,620	2,937	6,574	2,238	15,369
Other Schools . . . . .	1	14	14	..	..	1	12,008	..	128	3,826	15,067
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>242</b>	<b>25,375</b>	<b>22,470</b>	<b>5,274</b>	<b>1,103</b>	<b>819</b>	<b>14,49,991</b>	<b>58,073</b>	<b>11,37,299</b>	<b>6,66,072</b>	<b>38,11,436</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR INSTITUTIONS</b>	<b>412</b>	<b>47,407</b>	<b>41,943</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>1,881</b>	<b>1,410</b>	<b>29,16,743</b>	<b>65,923</b>	<b>23,27,847</b>	<b>14,44,205</b>	<b>67,54,718</b>
Expenditure on Buildings includes Rs. 1,79,142 spent by the Public Works Department.			Inspection . . . . .			1,26,715		..		1,26,715	
"Miscellaneous" includes the following main items:—			Buildings, etc. . . . .			5,41,252		2,06,647		7,34,476	
Hostel charges, scholarships and other contingent charges.			Miscellaneous . . . . .			11,82,503		5,368		23,10,422	
			<b>TOTALS</b>			<b>18,50,470</b>		<b>5,368</b>		<b>25,17,060</b>	
			<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>			<b>47,67,213</b>		<b>71,291</b>		<b>48,44,916</b>	
										<b>38,20,971</b>	
										<b>1,35,04,391</b>	

## VIII.—Examination Results.

Examinations.	MALES.						FEMALES.					
	NUMBER OF EXAMINEES.			NUMBER PASSED.			NUMBER OF EXAMINEES.			NUMBER PASSED.		
	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		
<b>DEGREE EXAMINATIONS.</b> <i>Arts and Science.</i>												
D. Litt. . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Ph. D. . . . .	..	7	7	..	4	4	..	..	..	..	..	
D. Sc. . . . .	..	6	6	..	5	5	..	..	..	..	..	
M. A. . . . .	859	315	1,174	626	172	798	13	10	23	9	6	
M. Sc. . . . .	220	18	238	157	9	166	1	..	1	1	..	
B. A. (Honours) . . . .	1,040	128	1,168	738	75	811	38	9	47	31	6	
B. Sc. (Honours) . . . .	276	32	308	135	17	152	..	..	..	..	..	
B. A. (Pass) . . . . .	4,706	4,477	9,183	2,917	1,770	4,687	70	74	144	58	42	
B. Sc. (Pass) . . . . .	1,014	102	1,116	702	60	762	5	..	5	3	..	
<i>Law.</i>												
Master of Law . . . . .	..	34	34	..	12	12	..	..	..	..	..	
Bachelor of Law . . . . .	3,060	285	3,345	1,715	180	1,895	..	..	..	..	..	
<i>Medicine.</i>												
M. D. . . . .	5	..	5	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	
M. B., B. S. . . . .	611	24	635	361	8	369	21	..	21	12	..	
L. M. S. (Bombay) . . . .	..	19	19	..	10	10	..	..	..	..	..	
M. C. P. & S. (Bombay) . . .	1	2	3	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	
M. S. F. M. (Calcutta) . . .	24	..	24	9	..	9	..	..	..	..	..	
M. S. . . . .	3	..	3	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	
M. Obstetrics . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
B. Hyg. . . . .	7	..	7	2	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	
D. P. H. . . . .	1	15	16	..	6	6	..	..	..	..	..	
B. Sc. (Sanitary) . . . . .	8	..	8	6	..	6	..	..	..	..	..	
D. T. M. (Calcutta) . . . . .	15	19	34	11	8	19	..	..	..	..	..	
<i>Engineering.</i>												
Bachelor of C. E. . . . .	147	..	147	98	..	98	..	..	..	..	..	
Bachelor of M. E. . . . .	57	..	57	32	..	32	..	..	..	..	..	
<i>Education.</i>												
B. E., B. T. & L. T. . . . .	469	265	734	417	182	599	47	6	53	42	3	
<i>Commerce.</i>												
Bachelor of Commerce . . . . .	92	..	92	60	..	60	..	..	..	..	..	
<i>Agriculture.</i>												
Master of Agriculture . . . . .	..	1	1	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	
Bachelor of Agriculture . . . . .	85	3	88	67	3	70	..	..	..	..	..	

\* i.e., appearing from a recognised institution.

## VIII.—Examination Results—contd.

Examinations.	MALES.						FEMALES.					
	NUMBER OF EXAMINEES.			NUMBER PASSED.			NUMBER OF EXAMINERS.			NUMBER PASSED.		
	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<b>INTERMEDIATE EXAMINATIONS.</b>												
Intermediate in Arts	7,146	7,733	14,881	4,022	2,566	6,588	226	236	462	148	100	248
Intermediate in Science.	4,756	315	5,071	3,034	176	3,210	31	6	37	19	3	22
Licentiate of Civil Engineering	24	..	24	17	..	17	..	..	..	..	..	..
Licence, Diploma or Certificate in Teaching.	414	158	572	336	86	422	51	3	54	35	2	37
Intermediate or Diploma in Commerce.	286	8	294	152	2	154	1	..	1	1	..	1
Licentiate of Agriculture	45	..	45	40	..	40	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Examinations.	215	..	215	164	..	164	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.</b>												
<i>(a) On completion of High school course.</i>												
Matriculation . . . . .	34,497	2,210	36,707	23,586	1,115	24,701	416	56	472	294	37	331
School Final etc. . . . .	20,277	731	21,008	15,344	435	15,779	358	4	362	291	3	294
European High School	344	5	349	219	1	220	286	1	287	199	..	199
Cambridge Senior . . . . .	333	66	399	194	7	201	209	7	216	103	3	106
<i>(b) On completion of Middle School course.</i>												
Cambridge Junior . . . . .	524	1	525	369	1	370	341	..	341	192	..	192
European Middle . . . . .	537	..	537	284	..	284	415	..	415	279	..	279
Anglo-Vernacular Middle . . . . .	50,088	253	50,341	39,637	157	39,794	1,876	14	1,890	1,417	8	1,425
Vernacular Middle . . . . .	28,260	3,669	31,929	17,063	1,552	18,615	1,036	411	1,447	604	208	812
Vernacular High examination in Burma	59	137	196	49	59	108	28	9	37	28	4	32
<i>(c) On completion of Primary course.</i>												
Upper Primary . . . . .	147,488	517	148,005	107,709	382	108,091	7,832	92	7,924	5,699	71	5,770
Lower Primary . . . . .	285,470	859	286,329	152,926	603	153,529	20,452	74	20,526	14,617	50	14,667
<i>(d) On completion of Vocational course.</i>												
For teacher's certificates.	837	100	937	673	49	722	163	7	170	157	4	161
Vernacular, Higher	6,868	837	7,505	4,539	447	4,986	1,218	47	1,265	834	28	862
Vernacular, Lower	7,986	3,526	11,522	6,136	1,618	7,754	430	36	466	318	20	338
At Art Schools . . . . .	951	38	989	551	17	568	..	..	..	..	..	..
At Law Schools . . . . .	9	158	167	9	69	78	..	..	..	..	..	..
At Medical Schools . . . . .	969	32	1,001	580	16	596	42	..	42	19	..	19
At Engineering Schools . . . . .	574	..	574	400	..	400	..	..	..	..	..	..
At Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	1,480	4,406	5,886	1,201	1,911	3,112	31	746	777	21	427	448
At Commercial Schools . . . . .	2,872	9,044	11,916	1,378	4,050	5,428	35	100	135	11	44	55
At Agricultural Schools . . . . .	53	..	53	41	..	41	..	..	..	..	..	..
At other Schools . . . . .	6,268	760	7,028	4,153	403	4,551	1,165	15	1,180	919	8	927

\* i.e., appearing from a recognised institution.



**BUREAU OF EDUCATION,  
INDIA.**

---

**EDUCATION IN INDIA  
IN  
1923-24.**



**CALCUTTA: GOVERNMENT OF INDIA  
CENTRAL PUBLICATION BRANCH  
1926**

**Government of India Publications are obtainable from  
the Government of India Central Publication Branch,  
8, Hastings Street, Calcutta, and from the following Agents:—**

**EUROPE.**

**OFFICE OF THE HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR INDIA,  
42, GROSVENOR GARDENS, LONDON, S.W. 1.  
And at all Booksellers.**

**INDIA AND CEYLON.**

**Provincial Book Depôts :**

**MADRAS:—**Office of the Superintendent, Government Press, Mount Road, Madras.  
**BOMBAY:—**Office of the Superintendent of Government Printing and Stationery, Poona.  
**SIND:—**Library attached to the Office of the Commissioner in Sind, Karachi.  
**BENGAL:—**Office of the Bengal Secretariat Book Depôt, Writers' Buildings, Room No. 1, Ground Floor, Calcutta.  
**UNITED PROVINCES OF AGRA AND OUDH:—**Office of the Superintendent of Government Press, United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, Allahabad.  
**PUNJAB:—**Office of the Superintendent Government Printing, Punjab, Lahore.  
**BURMA:—**Office of the Superintendent, Government Printing, Burma, Rangoon.  
**CENTRAL PROVINCES AND BERRAR:—**Office of the Central Provinces Secretariat, Nagpur.  
**ASSAM:—**Office of the Superintendent, Assam Secretariat Press.  
**BIHAR AND ORISSA:—**Office of the Superintendent, Government Printing, Bihar and Orissa, P. O. Guizarbagh, Patna.  
**COORG:—**Office of the Chief Commissioner of Coorg, Bangalore.  
**NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE:—**Office of the Manager, Government Printing and Stationery, Peshawar.

Thacker, Spink & Co., Calcutta and Simla.  
W. Newman & Co., Ltd., Calcutta.  
R. Cambray & Co., Calcutta.  
S. K. Lahiri & Co., Calcutta.  
The Indian School Supply Depôt, 309, Bow Bazar Street, Calcutta, and 226, Nawabpur, Dacca.  
Butterworth & Co. (India), Ltd., Calcutta.  
Rai M. C. Sarcar Bahadur & Sons, 90/2A, Harrison Road, Calcutta.  
The Weldon Library, 17, Park Street, Calcutta.  
Standard Literature Company, Limited, Calcutta.  
Association Press, Calcutta.  
Chukerverty, Chatterjee & Co., Ltd., 13, College Square, Calcutta.  
The Book Company, Calcutta.  
Higginbotham & Co., Madras.  
V. Kalyanasrama Iyer & Co., Madras.  
P. R. Rama Iyer & Co., Madras.  
Rochouse and Sons, Madras.  
Bright & Co., Trivandrum.  
V. S. Swaminathan, Bookseller, West Tower Street, Madras.  
Thacker & Co., Ltd., Bombay.  
D. B. Taraporevala, Sons & Co., Bombay.  
Sunder Pandurang, Bombay.  
Ram Chandra Govind & Sons, Kalbadevi, Bombay.  
N. M. Tripathi & Co., Booksellers, Princess Street, Kalbadevi Road, Bombay.  
Proprietor, New Kitabkhana, Poona.  
The Manager, Oriental Book Supplying Agency, 15, Shukrawar, Poona City.  
R. S. Gondhalekar's Book Depôt, Publisher and Bookseller, Budhwar Chawk, Poona City.  
Managing Director, Co-operative Bookstall, Booksellers and Publishers, Poona City.  
The Standard Bookstall, Karachi, Rawalpindi, Murree, Lahore, Peshawar and Quetta.  
Karsandas Narandas & Sons, Surat.  
Mangaldas & Sons, Booksellers and Publishers, Bhaga Talao, Surat.  
A. H. Wheeler & Co., Allahabad, Calcutta and Bombay.

N. B. Mathur, Supdt., Nazir Kanun Haid Press, Allahabad.  
The North India Christian Tract and Book Society, 18, Clive Road, Allahabad.  
Ram Dayal Agarwala, 184, Katra, Allahabad.  
Manager, Newal Kishore Press, Lucknow.  
The Upper India Publishing House, Ltd., 41, Aminabad Park, Lucknow.  
Munshi Seeta Ram, Managing Proprietor, Indian Army Book Depôt, Jubi, Cawnpore.  
Rai Sahib M. Gulab Singh & Sons, Muddi-Am Press, Lahore and Allahabad.  
Rama Krishna & Sons, Booksellers, Anarkali, Lahore.  
Puri Brothers, Booksellers and Publishers, Katcheri Road, Lahore.  
The Tilak School Bookshop, Lahore.  
Manager of the Imperial Book Depôt, 63, Chandney Chowk Street, Delhi.  
Oxford Book and Stationery Company, Delhi.  
Supdt., American Baptist Mission Press, Rangoon.  
Proprietor, Rangoon Times Press, Rangoon.  
The Modern Publishing House, Ltd., 30, Phayre Street, Rangoon.  
The International Buddhist Book Depôt, Post Box No. 971, Rangoon.  
Burma Book Club, Ltd., Rangoon.  
Manager, the "Hitavada," Nagpur.  
S. C. Talukdar, Proprietor, Students & Co., Cooch Behar.  
Times of Ceylon Co., Ltd.  
The Manager, Ceylon Observer, Colombo.  
The Manager, The Indian Book Shop, Benares City.  
B. C. Basak, Esq., Proprietor, Albert Library, Dacca.  
The Srivilliputtur Co-operative Trading Union Ltd., Srivilliputtur (Satur S. I. R.).  
Banwari Lal, Esq., Pakariya Street, Pilibhit, United Provinces.  
The Standard Book Depôt Lahore, Lucknow, Nainital, Mussoorie, Dathousie, and Ambala Cantonment.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS.

PREFACE.	PAGE.
I. General . . . . .	1
II. Administration and Control . . . . .	10
III. University Education . . . . .	11
IV. Intermediate Education . . . . .	19
V. Secondary Education . . . . .	20
VI. Primary Education . . . . .	25
VII. Female Education . . . . .	34
VIII. Training of Teachers . . . . .	37
IX. Other Professional and Technical Education . . . . .	40
X. Education of Special Classes :—	
(i) Chiefs' Colleges and the Education of Chiefs and Nobles . . . . .	44
(ii) European Education . . . . .	44
(iii) Education of Muhammadans . . . . .	46
(iv) Reformatory Schools . . . . .	50
<b>APPENDIX—</b>	
General Educational Tables, 1923-24 . . . . .	51

## PREFACE.

This report deals with education and educational statistics in India for the year 1923-24. Dealing as it does with education throughout the whole of British India and based in the main as it is upon the reports of provincial Directors of Public Instruction I have of necessity quoted freely and culled largely from their reports and wish here to acknowledge this fact. The form of tables of last year has been generally retained, but a new table has been inserted giving figures for the actual and for the percentage distribution of pupils throughout the various stages of education, primary, secondary, collegiate, etc., in the different provinces of India. More detailed reference has also been made to the problem of wastage in primary education due to the large number of children who in the primary stages do not receive annual promotion to a higher class.

I have changed the name of this report from 'Indian Education' to 'Education in India.' This title appears to be somewhat more appropriate in view of the fact that the former title might lead to the presumption that there is a uniform policy of education throughout all India. The problems of education in this vast continent are so many and so varied that they cannot, except on the very broadest lines, be treated uniformly; moreover the Indian constitution which makes education with minor exceptions a provincial subject, allows full play for the development of different educational policies in different provinces.

R. LITTLEHAILES,  
*Offg. Educational Commissioner*  
*with the Government of India.*

SIMLA,  
21st October 1925.

# EDUCATION IN INDIA

IN

1923-24.

## I. GENERAL.

The marked recovery from the effects of the non-cooperation movement on attendance at schools and colleges in British India remarked upon in the report for 1922-23 has continued to such an extent that the effect of the movement on attendance in schools may be considered now as negligible.

### *Institutions and scholars.*

Type of Institutions.	Institutions.		Scholars.	
	1923.	1924.	1923.	1924.
Arts colleges . . . . .	174	170	52,639	57,360
Professional colleges . . . . .	59	67	13,497	14,913
High schools . . . . .	2,312	2,424	632,943	678,394
Middle schools . . . . .	6,732	6,980	698,462	750,358
Primary schools . . . . .	162,015	168,013	6,600,116	6,955,634
Special schools . . . . .	5,720	6,617	181,318	217,344
Unrecognised institutions . . . . .	33,660	34,860	612,115	642,651
<b>TOTAL .</b>	<b>210,672</b>	<b>219,131</b>	<b>8,791,090</b>	<b>9,316,654</b>

From the above table it will be noticed that the number of arts colleges has decreased by four but that there has been an increase under every other class of institution including institutions that are unrecognised. There has been a marked increase in the number of students and pupils in attendance.

The total number of institutions has increased in all provinces except Burma and in all minor administrations except Coorg and Bangalore. The decrease in Burma is mainly in lower primary

schools. The decline in pupils under instruction which was a marked feature of recent annual reports has, now, it is reported, been definitely arrested in Burma. Unrecognised institutions have increased on the whole, the increase being largest in Madras and in the Punjab where intensive efforts are being made to extend primary education. There has been a decrease in unrecognised institutions in Bombay, in Burma, and in Bihar and Orissa, although these decreases are, except in Burma, more than counterbalanced by an increase in the number of recognised institutions.

**Pupils.**

The number of pupils reading in recognised institutions has shown a marked increase throughout the whole of India. The number reading in unrecognised institutions has, however, diminished, largely in Burma and Bombay and to a smaller extent in the Central Provinces. On the whole there has been an increase in the number of scholars reading in all institutions throughout India except in Burma and in the Civil and Military station of Bangalore.

Excluding the minor administrations of Bangalore and Coorg the percentage of total scholars to population is largest in Bombay being 5.21 per cent., Madras coming second with 4.9 per cent. The percentage increase has been largest in Madras namely from 4.3 per cent. in 1923 to 4.9 per cent. in 1924. Among the larger provinces the greatest leeway has to be made up in the United Provinces and in the Central Provinces and Berar where the percentage of total scholars to population is only 2.53.

**Expenditure.**

Expenditure has increased by 87 lakhs of rupees the largest increase being in Madras which shows that 24 lakhs more were spent in the year under review than in the previous year. The Punjab shows a decreased expenditure of nearly five lakhs of rupees while smaller decreases are shown in the North West Frontier Province, Delhi, Assam and Coorg. The heavy hand of retrenchment was not lifted during the year from these administrations.

**Policies.**

The year under review takes us just beyond the close of the first triennium under the Reforms scheme under which education with minor exceptions is a provincial transferred subject administered by Governors acting with their Ministers of Education. It is observed that the influence of Legislative Councils in determining educational policy is becoming more and more marked year by year. This point will be touched upon more fully in the body of this review.

## (i) Number of Institutions.

Province.	RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.*			UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.			TOTAL OF INSTITUTIONS.*		
	1924.	1923.	Increase or Decrease.	1924.	1923.	Increase or Decrease.	1924.	1923.	Increase or Decrease.
Madras . . . . .	41,642	38,938	+2,704	3,222	2,308	+914	44,864	41,246	+3,618
Bombay . . . . .	13,512	13,269	+243	1,542	1,692	-150	15,054	14,961	+93
Bengal . . . . .	54,647	52,864	+1,783	1,352	1,208	+54	56,009	54,162	+1,837
United Provinces . . . . .	19,452	18,873	+579	2,911	2,875	+36	22,363	21,748	+615
Punjab . . . . .	9,721	8,699	+1,022	4,523	4,096	+427	14,244	12,795	+1,449
Burma . . . . .	6,288	6,684	-396	18,351	18,472	-121	24,639	25,156	-517
Bihar and Orissa . . . . .	27,808	26,063	+1,745	1,699	1,762	-63	29,507	28,425	+1,082
Central Provinces and Berar . . . . .	4,917	4,889	+28	235	100	+135	5,152	5,079	+73
Assam . . . . .	4,948	4,805	+143	262	251	+11	5,210	5,056	+154
North-West Frontier Province . . . . .	662	667	-5	325	288	+37	987	955	+32
Coorg . . . . .	110	110	..	11	16	-5	121	126	-5
Delhi . . . . .	204	190	+14	84	84	..	288	274	+14
Ajmer-Merwara . . . . .	184	180	+4	126	113	+13	310	293	+17
Baluchistan . . . . .	86	84	+2	193	192	+1	279	276	+3
Bangalore . . . . .	95	97	-2	19	23	-4	114	120	-6
INDIA . . . . .	184,271	177,012	+7,259	34,860	33,660	+1,200	219,131	210,672	+8,459

\* In addition, there are 18 Universities which are not included in this table, and consequently University teaching classes are also not shown.

## (ii) Number of Scholars.

Province.	IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.			IN UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.			IN ALL INSTITUTIONS.			PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL SCHOLARS TO POPULATION.	
	1924.	1923.	Increase or Decrease.	1924.	1923.	Increase or Decrease.	1924.	1923.	Increase or Decrease.	1924.	1923.
Madras . . . . .	1,980,606	1,847,833	+182,772	89,938	87,284	+2,659	2,070,588	1,915,117	+155,471	4.9	4.3
Bombay . . . . .	947,051	911,662	+35,389	58,749	62,108	-3,359	1,005,800	978,760	+27,040	5.21	5.05
Bengal . . . . .	2,000,827	1,900,225	+108,602	47,235	44,704	+2,531	2,057,062	1,950,929	+106,133	4.40	4.18
United Provinces . . . . .	1,082,012	1,016,842	+65,170	68,750	64,109	+4,641	1,150,762	1,080,951	+69,811	2.53	2.33
Punjab . . . . .	755,806	692,771	+63,035	54,100	84,207	+1,893	841,006	776,978	+64,028	4.07	3.75
Burma . . . . .	345,741	344,690	+1,051	210,218	214,162	-3,944	555,959	558,852	-2,893	4.20	4.23
Bihar and Orissa . . . . .	866,191	804,036	+62,155	41,583	30,990	+1,593	907,780	844,026	+63,754	2.66	2.48
Central Provinces and Berar . . . . .	345,447	332,130	+13,317	7,693	7,920	-227	353,140	340,050	+13,090	2.53	2.44
Assam . . . . .	237,353	221,882	+15,471	9,473	7,894	+1,579	246,823	229,776	+17,050	3.2	3.02
North-West Frontier Province . . . . .	50,190	50,158	+32	7,707	6,245	+1,462	57,897	56,403	+1,494	2.6	2.5
Coorg . . . . .	8,405	8,155	+250	368	299	+69	8,773	8,454	+319	5.35	5.16
Delhi . . . . .	17,750	15,948	+1,802	5,971	4,620	+1,351	23,721	20,563	+3,158	4.8	4.2
Ajmer-Merwara . . . . .	11,123	10,620	+503	5,097	5,033	+64	16,223	15,653	+570	3.3	3.18
Baluchistan . . . . .	4,989	4,559	+430	2,336	2,621	+215	7,825	7,180	+645	1.9	1.71
Bangalore . . . . .	11,510	11,479	+31	882	919	-37	12,392	12,398	-6	10.5	10.5
INDIA . . . . .	8,674,003	8,178,975	+495,028	642,651	612,115	+30,536	9,316,651	8,791,090	+525,564	3.77	3.48

N.B.—Scholars in teaching Universities and other University classes are included in this table.



(iii) *Distribution of Scholars in Recognised Institutions.*

Provinces.	NUMBER OF SCHOLARS IN INSTITUTIONS FOR MALES, 1924.							NUMBER OF SCHOLARS IN INSTITUTIONS FOR FEMALES, 1924.						
	Arts Colleges.*	Professional Colleges.*	High Schools.	Middle Schools.	Primary Schools.	Special Schools.	TOTAL.	Arts Colleges.*	Professional Colleges.*	High Schools.	Middle Schools.	Primary Schools.	Special Schools.	TOTAL.
Madras . . .	9,177	2,279	130,109	23,600	1,580,197	18,122	1,768,484	390	34	10,953	6,298	101,495	2,951	212,121
Bombay . . .	5,896	2,712	54,238	18,593	723,424	17,142	821,995	..	..	8,489	2,801	111,797	1,969	125,056
Bengal . . .	22,641	5,018	210,743	126,251	1,256,209	80,917	1,702,679	248	27	7,625	7,562	290,193	1,493	307,146
United Provinces	4,956	2,248	52,781	54,682	886,202	14,261	1,015,130	50	..	3,638	15,069	47,579	501	66,832
Punjab . . .	5,527	1,641	95,811	188,885	351,446	46,983	690,243	95	30	2,448	11,579	50,426	984	65,588
Burma . . .	871	155	28,543	108,387	150,276	10,270	298,602	..	..	5,744	13,943	27,013	539	47,239
Bihar and Orissa	2,800	534	30,048	39,002	716,331	13,596	801,111	8	..	753	3,111	60,308	900	65,080
Central Provinces and Berar.	1,022	344	3,861	69,560	243,528	2,438	320,806	..	..	152	4,292	19,635	260	24,639
Assam . . .	1,027	83	12,809	24,797	180,517	3,048	222,041	..	..	643	3,055	11,525	46	15,272
North-West Frontier Province.	308	21	7,709	12,876	24,058	63	45,035	..	..	..	1,298	3,857	..	5,155
Coorg . . .	..	..	761	..	6,750	..	7,511	..	..	147	..	747	..	894
Delhi . . .	818	..	3,552	3,724	6,847	209	15,180	..	931	497	1,213	740	27	2,570
Ajmer-Merwara	101	..	2,291	623	6,633	172	9,820	..	..	211	619	459	7	1,806
Baluchistan . . .	..	..	1,302	1,051	1,807	9	4,169	..	..	..	623	107	..	820
Bangalore . . .	77	..	1,320	921	4,302	85	7,205	311	..	871	959	2,066	107	4,805
INDIA . . .	55,051	15,935	636,178	677,942	6,137,587	207,280	7,729,953	1,102	184	42,216	72,416	818,047	10,984	944,050

\* Includes scholars in teaching Universities.

† Includes 35 scholars in arts &amp; science classes.

C7

## (iv) Expenditure on Education.

Province.	TOTAL EXPENDITURE.			PERCENTAGE OF EXPEN- DITURE FROM				AVERAGE ANNUAL COST PER SCHOLAR				
	1924.	1923.	Increase of Decrease.	Govt. Funds.	Board Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources	to Govt. Funds.	to Board Funds.	to Fees.	to Other Sources.	Total cost.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.					Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Madras . . . .	3,70,00,501	3,45,77,486	+24,23,015	45.17	10.19	21.36	22.48	8 7 0	2 0 10	3 15 10	4 3 2	18 10 10
Bombay . . . .	3,28,03,286	3,11,80,382	+16,22,904	57.8	14.1	16.5	11.6	21 0 0	5 0 0	6 0 0	4 0 0	36 0 0
Bengal . . . .	3,44,48,307	3,31,42,296	+13,06,011	37.7	5.3	40.7	16.3	6 5 2	0 14 3	6 13 0	2 11 6	16 11 11
United Provinces . .	3,01,50,957	2,91,44,794	+10,06,163	53.92	13.34	12.02	19.82	16 0 5	3 11 6	3 9 7	5 8 4	27 13 10
Punjab . . . .	2,15,53,875	2,20,33,296	-4,84,421	52.50	14.16	20.49	12.85	14 15 7	4 0 8	5 13 5	3 10 7	28 8 3
Burma . . . .	1,35,41,419	1,16,50,220	+18,91,199	47.32	17.41	20.98	14.29	11 8 5	4 3 10	5 1 9	3 7 8	24 5 8
Bihar and Orissa . .	1,20,78,129	1,11,03,490	+9,69,639	38.00	23.13	21.37	16.81	3 0 0	2 11 6	2 11 1	1 11 11	10 2 6
Central Provinces and Berar.	83,35,773	85,81,000	+2,52,773	60.01	22.10	9.74	8.15	11 7 10	4 1 1	1 14 0	1 8 2	18 15 1
Assam . . . .	37,23,147	37,96,457	-73,310	60.1	12.9	17.1	9.9	9 6 5	2 0 0	2 11 2	1 8 0	15 9 7
North-West Frontier Province.	16,60,159	18,06,414	-1,46,255	63.0	12.2	9.8	15.0	21 10 4	4 2 11	3 5 6	5 2 5	34 5 2
Coorg . . . .	1,84,290	1,93,420	-9,124	50.35	23.32	22.12	4.21	12 5 8	5 11 6	5 6 8	1 0 6	24 3 4
Delhi . . . .	14,57,353	15,79,670	-1,22,317	50.0	9.3	13.8	26.9	32 2 5	8 12 1	12 5 0	14 10 8	68 1 1
Ajmer-Merwara . . .	5,65,012	5,36,890	+28,722	42.02	7.6	19.20	31.04	21 6 4	3 14 5	9 12 10	15 12 10	50 14 5
Baluchistan . . . .	3,35,481	3,14,395	+21,086	59.84	14.44	14.29	11.43	40 4 0	9 11 0	9 10 0	7 11 0	67 4 0
Bangalore . . . .	7,77,896	7,55,821	+21,070	38.6	4.1	30.9	26.4	24 4 0	2 9 1	19 6 8	16 8 8	62 12 5
<b>INDIA . . . .</b>	<b>19,91,11,191</b>	<b>19,04,04,086</b>	<b>+87,07,155</b>	<b>48.9</b>	<b>12.9</b>	<b>21.8</b>	<b>16.4</b>	<b>10 7 5</b>	<b>2 12 1</b>	<b>4 10 5</b>	<b>3 8 0</b>	<b>21 5 6</b>

The table on the adjoining page showing for each province and administration the number and percentage distribution of scholars under instruction in arts colleges, in each section of schools for general education (high, middle and primary), in technical and other special schools, in professional colleges and in unrecognised institutions has been drawn up for the first time this year. It was prepared with an eye to a consideration of the question of unemployment among graduates with the object of ascertaining *inter alia* how far each province has statistically an excessively large number of students in the higher classes especially in the university classes compared with the number of pupils in the lower classes, of ascertaining in fact how top heavy the educational system of any province might have become. The number of pupils being educated in a professional or technical institution may also be compared in the different provinces and administrations by the aid of this table, which does not however show what facilities exist for professional and technical education and whether full advantage is being taken of the existing provision in each province.

Statistical  
distribution  
of scholars.

It will be observed that, excluding Delhi the conditions in which are exceptional, Bengal has a larger number of students reading in colleges, both arts and professional, than has any other province or administration in India as compared with the numbers reading in schools. Another outstanding feature is the large number of unrecognised institutions in Burma and in Baluchistan. The case of Burma is peculiar owing to the system of monastic education which obtains there; most of the schools in which a monastic education is given are shown under unrecognised institutions. The large figure for Baluchistan is partly accounted for by the fact that it is only within recent years that the oriental system of education has been supplemented by occidental methods; time is needed to bring the teachers and managers of indigenous schools to accept modern western ideas of education. The Punjab leads the way in the percentage distribution of its scholars reading in technical and other special schools; the large majority are reading in schools for adults.

Of the nine major provinces, five have eleven classes in their system for general school education, three have twelve classes and one has ten classes. In three provinces the primary section has four classes, in four provinces it has five, while in the other two it has six classes; in two provinces the middle sections have two classes, in four provinces they have three classes while in three provinces they have four sections, while the high school sections have two, three or four classes, the numbers varying in the different provinces. These facts must be borne in mind in endeavouring to draw conclusions from comparisons between province and province of the percentage number of pupils reading in the various sections, high, middle or primary, of a school for general education. The table gives, however, a general idea of the distribution of pupils although a comparison of the percentage figures, as they stand,

cannot be used, especially in the various sections of schools for general education, for purposes of strict statistical analysis without weighing these figures against the number of classes in each section.

One fact, however, stands out prominently, it is that in the United Provinces the number of university students reading in arts and professional colleges nearly approaches the number of pupils reading in the high school classes (88 to 114), a remarkable educational phenomenon, even allowing for the fact that the high sections of the schools have only two classes. It is in part explained by the presence in the United Provinces, at Aligarh and Benares, of the only two all-India denominational universities, in addition to the affiliating university of Allahabad, and the residential university of Lucknow

## NUMBER OF SCHOLARS UNDER INSTRUCTION IN

## PERCENTAGE OF SCHOLARS UNDER INSTRUCTION IN

PROVINCE.	(a) Arts Colleges.*	Schools for General Education.			Technical and other Special Schools.	Profes- sional Colleges.*	Un- recognised Insti- tutions.	TOTAL.	(a) Arts Col- leges.*	Schools for General Education.			Tech- nical and other Special Schools.	Profes- sional Col- leges.*	Un- recog- nised Insti- tutions.
		High classes.	Middle classes.	Primary classes.						High classes.	Middle classes.	Primary classes.			
Madras . . . . .	(VI) 9,177	(III) 42,433	(III) 79,933	(V) 1,616,540	18,122	2,270	87,703	1,856,277	0.40	2.20	4.31	87.00	0.00	0.12	4.73
Bombay . . . . .	(VII) 6,896	(III) 30,852	(III) 100,043	(V) 665,350	17,142	2,712	51,079	873,073	0.68	3.53	11.48	78.21	1.03	0.31	5.05
Bengal . . . . .	(VI) 22,641	(IV) 98,445	(II) 82,973	(V) 1,411,985	80,917	5,916	40,347	1,743,026	1.30	5.05	4.77	80.90	4.64	0.34	2.31
United Provinces . . . . .	(II) 7,182	(II) 12,340	(IV) 77,214	(V) 901,755	14,261	2,248	60,048	1,081,056†	0.07	1.14	7.14	83.41	1.32	0.21	5.11
Punjab . . . . .	(VI) 6,527‡	(II) 32,255	(II) 103,503	(IV) 510,384	46,033	1,641	58,504	748,747	0.74	2.08	13.86	68.35	6.28	0.22	7.57
Burma‡ . . . . .	(VI) 871	(III) 3,922	(III) 25,183	(IV) 268,101	10,270	156	207,646	506,160	0.17	0.77	1.08	50.90	2.03	0.00	41.03
Bihar and Orissa . . . . .	(VII) 2,600	(IV) 17,019	(II) 18,503	(VI) 748,856	13,596	534	39,430	840,641	0.31	2.03	2.20	89.01	1.62	0.06	4.69
Central Provinces and Bihar . . . . .	(VI) 1,022	(III) 3,861	(IV) 24,894	(V) 248,254	2,433	344	7,110	327,927	0.31	1.18	7.50	87.90	0.74	0.11	21.7
Assam . . . . .	(VI) 1,027§	(IV) 6,309	(III) 11,346	(IV) 200,179	3,048	83	9,205	231,280	0.44	2.77	4.01	86.55	1.32	0.08	3.98
North-West Frontier Province . . . . .	(IV) 309	(II) 1,173	(II) 7,503	(IV) 35,664	63	21	7,120	52,164	0.59	2.25	14.39	68.94	0.12	0.04	13.87
Coorg . . . . .	(III) 233	(III) 687	(V) 6,591	(V)	...	...	388	7,879	...	2.00	8.72	88.65	...	...	4.67
Delhi . . . . .	(VI) 848	(II) 1,281	(IV) 3,082	(IV) 8,700	200	...	4,052	20,132	4.21	6.96	15.16	48.63	1.04	...	24.60
Ajmer-Merwara . . . . .	(IV) 101	(II) 218	(IV) 1,628	(VI) 7,701	172	...	3,083	13,813	0.73	1.58	11.79	55.75	1.24	...	28.01
Baluchistan . . . . .	(II) 170	(II) 803	(IV) 3,128	(IV)	0	...	2,836	7,005	...	2.56	11.48	45.37	0.13	...	40.48
Bangalore . . . . .	(II) 77	(III) 185	(III) 958	(V) 5,000	85	...	777	7,982	0.06	6.08	12.00	70.16	1.07	...	9.73
INDIA . . . . .	37,277	241,264	538,220	6,669,028	207,260	15,935	585,235	8,315,067†	0.69	2.90	6.47	80.22	2.40	0.10	7.04

NOTE.—The Roman figures (within brackets) indicate the number of classes in the States or departments concerned.

(a) Intermediate, degree, post-graduate and research classes in Arts and Science (including Oriental studies).

\* Includes scholars in University classes.

† Excludes 131 scholars in Schools for General Education whose class distribution is not available.

‡ N. B.—The case of Burma is peculiar owing to the vast system of Monastic education which obtains there. Most of the monastic schools are shown under "Unrecognised Institutions".

§ Includes 157 scholars in the Oriental College, Lahore.

¶ Includes 19 scholars in an Oriental College.

|| Excludes 19 scholars in an Oriental College in Assam who are shown under Arts Colleges.

35  
17

## II. ADMINISTRATION AND CONTROL.

Local Bodies  
and other  
Agencies.

In Assam the great majority of the boards were oppressed by the extent of their responsibilities, which they seek to lessen rather than to increase. Their small annual increase of income does not suffice to enable them to meet all their responsibilities. It is quite beyond them to develop their schools to take over privately managed schools and to open new schools so as to meet the increasing demand for education. In the same province rules under the Municipal Act were framed and issued so that the Departmental inspectors of schools are now in the position of being advisers to local bodies. School committees have been unwilling to help themselves financially by increasing the rates of fees levied. In the Punjab the funds released by the provincialisation of certain high schools together with Government grants have not been entirely devoted, as was intended, to the expansion of vernacular education. Uneconomical small schools have been closed but this closing has not been accompanied by the opening of schools in other localities where they are needed. Municipalities have followed a similar course. In Burma the two secondary school boards assumed responsibility for conducting public school examinations and are consulted on all matters affecting the schools. In the Central Provinces four District Councils were vested with the power of inspection of their schools as an experimental measure, the Government Deputy Inspectors with their staffs being transferred to the service of the Councils subsidies being granted to cover the cost of the salaries of the Deputy Inspectors and their establishments. The High School Education Act was put into operation in August and the High School Board was constituted shortly afterwards. It is noticeable that missionary societies, once in the forefront of education, are not extending their activities in the same degree as formerly. This is largely due to restriction of funds from abroad due to financial stress which has reduced the resources of the parent societies. In Bihar and Orissa the Lutheran Mission in Chota Nagpur has had to close 46 primary schools owing to a falling off in the funds which the Mission receives from America. The various Christian Missions in Bengal are reported to have rendered valuable service in the promotion and advancement of education, especially that of girls and of backward classes.

Inspection.

In Assam some sanctioned educational posts were held in abeyance with the result that there was difficulty in carrying on the work of inspection. The Director considers that very early opportunity should be taken to post officers to the vacant appointments. In Bihar and Orissa the strain of work in the offices of the Inspectors and District Inspectors remained great. In the North-West Frontier Province the difficulty of carrying out the work of inspection with a small staff has been accentuated. In Madras with effect from April 1923 Coorg and Bangalore were separated educationally from the Presidency of Madras, the Director of Public Instruction in Madras being no longer required to act as Educational Adviser to the Commissioner of Coorg. The Women's inspection branch

was strengthened during the year. In Burma the transfer of control of vernacular education to local bodies affected the work and position of inspecting officers of all grades. Inspectors of Circles in the same province and their headquarters were changed in accordance with the redistribution of Commissioners' Divisions. In the Punjab an important factor in the correlation of effort in the department was an Inspectors' Conference which was held in April 1923. The Inspectors' Conference was supplemented by divisional conferences held subsequently. Considerable additional powers were delegated to divisional inspectors as well as to heads of colleges with a view of decentralisation with a resultant limitation of references to headquarters. In the same province there is a general complaint by inspectors of the insufficiency of the allotment for travelling allowance rendering the valuable experience of inspecting officers unable to be used to its fullest extent.

In Burma the Director of Public Instruction was for two months made Secretary to Government in the Educational Department. For a month and a half he was made Deputy Secretary after which the experiment was abandoned.

Economy was practised in Assam, the Punjab and Madras by holding posts in abeyance or by not filling vacated posts. Bengal reports the abolition of a number of posts, in consonance with their scheme for retrenchment of educational expenditure. In Bombay retrenchment chiefly in training institutions was a noticeable feature of the year.

### III. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

There was a large increase in enrolment in the University classes which has resulted in excessive pressure on the existing accommodation. The University has established a training college for teachers and awarded for the first time degrees in teaching.

In this University 300 out of a total of 900 students belong to the Law Faculty—an indication of the overwhelming preponderance of students studying law, the profession which is most favoured by University students in this country. The teaching staff of the University was strengthened by appointments for the study of Physics, Commerce, Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian. The two principal vernaculars in the United Provinces, namely Urdu and Hindi, have been recognised as independent subjects of study in the Degree courses of the University. The two platoons sanctioned for the Allahabad Detachment of the University Training Corps did good work during the season. The Vice Chancellor notices two disturbing elements in the life of the University, (i) the complicated constitution which keeps the minds of the teachers so engaged in the technicalities of meetings of University bodies that they have insufficient time left for their primary duties of teaching; and (ii) the absence of a permanent endowment which exposes the University to the danger of being obliged to curtail its activities as the result of an adverse vote in the Legislative Council. With

effect from August 1923—the date of the establishment of the Nagpur University—the educational institutions of the Central Provinces and Berar severed their long connection with the Allahabad University.

**Benares  
Hindu  
University.**

In Benares a Bachelor of Science degree in Mining and Metallurgy and an M.A. degree in Ancient Indian History and Culture were instituted, civics was introduced as an optional subject for the Intermediate examination, the Ayurvedic Department was strengthened by additional staff, a Law College was started and a University Training Corps composed of two platoons was enrolled, its recruits receiving regular training.

**Bombay  
University.**

In Bombay owing to the feeling that that Presidency was not progressing as rapidly as some of the other provinces in India in the matter of University education Government had under consideration the appointment of a committee of influential educationists to take stock of the situation and to suggest reforms in the constitution and functions of the University. During the year the courses in Science, Medicine and Engineering were thoroughly revised, the courses in medicine being considered with a view to bring them, consistently with Indian conditions, into line with the requirements of the General Medical Council of Great Britain. The Intermediate Science examination has now been made the entrance test for the Engineering and Medical colleges so that these colleges are no longer required to teach pure science, provision for this work being made entirely in the Arts colleges. The length of the Engineering course has been increased from four to five years, namely, two years in an Arts college for the Intermediate Science course and three years in an Engineering college. A revised scheme of post graduate study, whereby the University undertakes the organisation of post graduate work in Bombay in certain subjects, was under consideration during the year and finally approved by the Senate of the University. The Sydenham College of Commerce and Economics is most popular. The number of students for admission being nearly four times the number of seats available. The Principal reports that most of the graduates from the College have obtained good positions in banks and commercial firms and in the Income Tax Department, and that some of them are holding responsible positions, for example, as agents of branches of the Imperial Bank of India. A degree of Master of Commerce has recently been instituted by the University and this will give a stimulus to post-graduate study and research in commerce and economics. The staff of the Royal Institute of Science has been strengthened so that the Institute has now an adequate staff based on the requirements of research and not on those of mere teaching. The Institute is well on its way to fulfil the purpose for which it was founded. All colleges in Bombay show an increase in the numbers on the roll. The rate of increase is considerably higher than the rate in the other classes of educational institutions in the Presidency. The difficulties of developing the tutorial system in view of the



large classes in most of the colleges are emphasised by college principals. Bombay reports that the influence of violent political agitation is losing its effect and that the students are settling down to the more sober conditions of pre-war days. While discipline is reported to be satisfactory one well-known educationist and politician writes that it will take some time for the old atmosphere of hard study and hard play to be re-established. There is still too much wasting of time on trifles or on profitless discussions, but public opinion is reasserting itself and it is beginning to be recognised that the proper duty of students in colleges is the acquisition of sound knowledge and the development of character.

The long deferred reconstitution of the Calcutta University on the basis of the recommendations made by the Sadler Commission is still receiving the attention of the Government of Bengal. It was not found possible during the period under review to legislate, considerable divergence of view existing between Government and the authorities of the University. A resolution was moved and carried unanimously in the Assam Legislative Council—Assam has no university of its own, its students proceed mostly to the Calcutta University—in favour of action to secure the adequate representation of the province on the Councils of the University. Apart from the larger issues raised by the proposed legislation concerning the University of Calcutta the Government of Assam have been in correspondence with the Government of Bengal in regard to a revival of the regulations for the Matriculation examination of this University with the object of giving a more prominent place to vernaculars and to practical work in secondary education. A policy which enables a university located in one province strongly to influence the trend of events in secondary education in another province is open to many and obvious objections; it may also prove indirectly advantageous to the smaller province in some respects.

There is nothing of importance reported from Dacca. It is observed, however, that a number of Assam students proceed to Dacca for advanced study and that they are warm in their appreciation of the methods of this University and of the stimulus which study at Dacca receives from the close association of the students with the teachers of their subjects.

Government established a permanent advisory committee consisting of seventeen members to act as an advisory body to them in their higher educational policy. The main duties of the Committee may be summarised as follows:—to co-ordinate the work of the two universities of Bengal; namely Calcutta and Dacca; to see that all unnecessary duplication in the work of the universities is avoided; and to ensure that all available resources are distributed between the two universities in some equitable ratio. The Committee held its first meeting towards the end of the year. In some colleges the rates of fees have been enhanced and in others, the question of their enhancement is under consideration. The cost of education has greatly increased in recent years and fees cannot remain stationary in Government colleges without depressing the

financial condition of the non-Government colleges which depend largely on fees, and which cannot easily charge a higher rate than is charged in Government colleges.

The belief in Bengal tends to increase that literary education has no market value. Weight is not attached to the cultural value of a University education by a large majority of parents and students and the reaction against a literary education is throwing large numbers into the Science courses. The prevailing dissatisfaction with literary studies is really, though disguised as a demand for science, an expression of dissatisfaction with the existing university system. It is a demand for good schools for the transformation of the colleges, especially in the Intermediate stage, into places of sound education, and for the modification of the educational system in the light of ascertained needs and existing realities. The Province of Assam reports that it cannot provide employment for all persons who take up a university course of study and that the situation grows more serious every year; one officer mentions that a graduate will accept an officiating post as teacher in a village primary school on Rs. 12 per month. Matriculates, Intermediate passed men and graduates seek employment in vain; they remain unemployed and create discontent with the educational scheme which has brought them to their present position. A Committee has been appointed in Bengal to advise on this matter of unemployment among the educated classes; the purely utilitarian outlook on a university education that is so prevalent, and the standards set up as university standards are two cardinal points that would appear to require review.

Delhi  
University.

The Delhi University Act came into force on the 1st May 1922 and the constitution of the University was completed during the year under review. It started functioning with two Faculties—a Faculty of Arts and a Faculty of Science—and with three recognised colleges which were all aided institutions. The year under report was one of continuous development. The University passed a statute providing for the institution of a Faculty of Law and took charge of the science teaching of the degree classes appointing readers in Physics and in Chemistry. It approved of three new institutions for recognition as intermediate colleges and started a university library. The total number of students rose from 800 to 860. Government's approval was obtained to the establishment of a University Training Corps. The Headquarters of the University were located in a rented building. The University received a grant from Central Revenues but the financial support given to it by the public was not very encouraging.

Lucknow  
University.

More than one-fourth of the total number (943) of students belonged to the Faculty of Law while more than one-fifth were reading medicine. A Committee to consider the question of research work in indigenous drugs was appointed and the scheme prepared by the Committee has been referred to the Faculties of Science and Medicine. The teaching staff was strengthened by the appointment of a Lecturer in Political Science.

While the new Madras University Act came into force in May 1923, the Senate, the Academic Council, the Council of Affiliated colleges and the Syndicate under the new Act began to function only in March 1924, the intervening period being used in forming these university bodies. Several new affiliations of colleges were granted by the University during the year and a new medical college was opened at Vizagapatam. The printing of the University Tamil Lexicon, a work which has been in preparation for some years, was taken up during the year. Vacation lectures for the benefit of teachers in schools and colleges were delivered during the Christmas holidays. The University Training Corps continued to maintain its popularity among the students of the University. The Corps was enlarged from a company to a battalion and organised in eight companies, six stationed in Madras and two in Trichinopoly. It has achieved marked success in the short period, about two years, of its life.

On the Nagpur University Act coming into operation (it received the assent of the Governor General in Council on the 6th June and was brought into force on the 4th August 1923), the Allahabad University ceased to have jurisdiction in the Central Provinces. The machinery of the Act was put in motion; a Court, permanent councils, faculties and boards were constituted and by March 1924 the University began to function in accordance with the permanent provisions of the Act. For the Degree and Post-graduate examinations of 1924 the question papers and examiners of the Allahabad University were utilised, continuity being thereby maintained. Similarly the Intermediate examinations were conducted on behalf of the University by the Board of High School and Intermediate Education of the United Provinces. There was considerable activity in the way of selecting sites and preparing plans and estimates for both college and University buildings, while changes and additions were made to college staffs.

A non-official honorary Vice Chancellor has replaced an official whole-time Vice Chancellor at Patna. The question of developing the teaching of arts and science in the vicinity of the Patna College as an alternative to a scheme for establishing a central university near Phulwari engaged the attention of Government; no decision, however, was reached thereon. It was decided that in the Matriculation examination in subjects other than English and Mathematics, the medium of instruction might be the vernacular of the candidate. A Faculty of Engineering was created; the period of study for the course for the B.L. degree was reduced from three to two years and a donation for the endowment of a readership in Natural Science is reported. A company of the University Training Corps was enrolled during the year, the number of applicants for enrolment largely outnumbering the number ultimately enlisted. In some of the colleges in Bihar and Orissa inadequacy of accommodation and a slightly increased cost of apparatus as compared with pre-war rates are recorded.

Punjab  
University.

The total enrolment in Arts colleges affiliated to the Punjab University increased considerably, by 14 per cent. The University is reported to be feeling the pressure caused by the large increase in the number of examination candidates and becoming more and more on the major side of its activities an examining body. In some of the Lahore colleges the number of students in the Intermediate classes is extraordinarily large, the number in one college during the year under review being between 700 and 800. It is open to doubt whether it is possible with these large classes to secure that close individual touch between students and the senior members of the staff which is so desirable, if any permanent impress is to be made upon the students. Intermediate colleges have been established at suitable centres in the mufassil partly with a view to relieve congestion in Lahore; comprising two pre-Matriculation classes and two Intermediate classes, their enrolment has justified their establishment. The attempt of the University to provide an alternative to the Matriculation Examination by the introduction of a School Leaving Certificate examination has been only partially successful. More than 10,000 candidates appeared for the Matriculation Examination as compared with less than 1400 for the School Leaving Certificate examination. On the teaching side of its functions the University has embarked on a new venture in the opening of its first science laboratory—that of Chemistry.

Rangoon  
University.

A proposal was made during the year in the Legislative Council to amend the Rangoon University Act of 1920 by the introduction of a University Amendment Bill. The Bill was referred to a Select Committee whose deliberations produced a bill which subsequently proved acceptable to the Legislative Council. Under the University Amendment Bill more representatives of the Legislative Council will join the University Council and although control of essentially academic matters is still vested in the Senate, the functions of the Council will be materially enlarged. During the year the creation of three new professorships was sanctioned, one in Geology and Geography, a second in Economics and a third in Anatomy and Physiology. The Agricultural College at Mandalay applied for recognition as a constituent college of the University and the university committee appointed to consider the request and the desirability of instituting a degree of Bachelor of Science in Agriculture recommended that the University should approve the application of the Agricultural College for recognition subject to certain conditions. The number of Burmese students which had been disproportionately small increased from 200 to 400. In this University as in several others in India students are preferring to take a course in science rather than a course in arts.

Statistics of  
Universities.

Some general statistics of the Universities in India are given in the following table:—

Statistics of Universities in India.

University.	Type.	Date of Foundation.	Faculties.	ANNUAL STATISTICS.			REMARKS.	
				Year.	Number of Teaching Staff.	Number of Students.		Number of Graduates in Arts and Science.
1. Calcutta	Affiliating	1857	A., Sc., L., Eng., M.	1923-24	1,314	23,010	2,859	Also undertakes teaching in certain subjects.
2. Bombay	Affiliating	1857	A., Sc., L., M.	1923-24	538	11,214	870	.....
3. Madras	Affiliating and Teaching.	1857 and 1923	A., Sc., Ed., Ag., L., Eng., M.	1923-24	1,102	15,411	1,844	.....
4. Punjab	Affiliating	1882	A., Sc., O., Ag., Com., L., M.	1924	89	22,433	1,384	Also undertakes teaching work. The teaching staff of affiliated institutions is not included.
5. Allahabad	Affiliating and Teaching.	1887 and 1921	A., Sc., Ec., Com., L.	1923-24	245	2,373	988	The teaching side comprises 80 teachers and 1,005 students.
6. Benares Hindu	Teaching	1916	A., Sc., O., L., Th.	1923-24	156	1,887	181	15 graduates in Oriental Learning and Theology are excluded.
7. Mysore*	Teaching	1916	A., Sc., Eng. and Tech., M.	1925-26	141	1,460	230	.....
8. Patna	Affiliating	1917	A., Sc., Ed., L., Eng., M.	1925	229	2,847	301	.....
9. Osmania*	Teaching	1918	A., L., Th.	1923-24	37	530	52	Faculty of Arts includes science. 2 graduates in Theology are excluded.
10. Aligarh Muslim	Teaching	1920	A., Sc., Ed., O., L., Th.	1923-24	42	882	180	There are no Faculties but Departments of Studies in various subjects (18 in number).

\* Outside British India and incorporated by legislation in an Indian State.

Statistics of Universities in India—contd.

University.	Type.	Date of Foundation.	Faculties.	ANNUAL STATISTICS.			REMARKS.	
				Year.	Number of Teaching Staff.	Number of Students.		Number of Graduates in Arts and Science.
11. Rangoon .	Teaching	1920	A., So., Ed., L., Eng., M.	{ 1923-24 1924-25	105 121	803 1,301	71 62	There are no Faculties but Boards of Studies in 8 subjects. .....
12. Lucknow .	Teaching	1920	A., So., Com., L., M.	1925-26	104	1,197	125	
13. Dacca .	Teaching	1921	A., So., L. . .	1923-24	86	1,311	310	B. Com. and B. T. Degrees are included in the number of Graduates. Also 121 students of the Dacca Medical School, who attended classes in Physics and Chemistry at the University, are included in the returns.
14. Delhi .	Teaching	1922	A., So., L. . .	1924-25	70	1,224	147	Only 5 teachers belong to the University and the rest belong to the staff of the Constituent Colleges.
15. Nagpur .	Affiliating	1923	A., So., Ed., Ag., L. .	1923-24	70	1,017	(No examination in 1923-24.)	Also undertakes teaching in Law.

ABBREVIATIONS.—A.=Arts; Sc.=Science; O.=Oriental Learning; Ec.=Economics; Ed.=Education; Ag.=Agriculture; Com.=Commerce; L.=Law; Eng.=Engineering; M.=Medicine; Th.=Theology; Tech.=Technology.

N.B.—The teaching of the "affiliating" Universities is carried on by the staffs of their Constituent Colleges, but generally the Universities themselves provide instruction in certain branches of higher education as required by the Universities Act of 1904.

## IV. INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.

The Calcutta University Commission argued in 1919 that the right development of University work demand a reorganisation of higher secondary education and that for this purpose it was necessary that the work done in the intermediate classes of the University should be transferred to institutions of a new type which should be called intermediate colleges. In consonance with this recommendation some of the University Acts, passed after the publication of the Commission's Report, provide for an immediate or ultimate separation of the intermediate classes from the degree classes. The Madras University Act, 1923, for instance which was introduced on the 1st May of that year, lays down that students shall not be eligible for admission to a course of study for a degree unless they have passed the Intermediate Examination in Arts and Science of Madras and that if the local Government is satisfied that other adequate arrangements have been made for the supervision and control of institutions preparing candidates for the entrance examination to the University, the local Government may by notification direct that the Madras University shall cease to exercise any control over the recognition of such institutions. There is however no indication as yet that any steps have been initiated with the object of separating Intermediate classes from University control. The Dacca University Act has disassociated the Dacca University from intermediate education and a Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education controls such education within the territorial limits of the University. Similarly, the Allahabad, Aligarh Muslim and Lucknow University Acts confine the activities of these Universities to post-Intermediate instruction. There are two Boards of Intermediate and Secondary Education in the United Provinces one operating within the jurisdictions of the Allahabad and Lucknow Universities, the other operating within the territorial limits of the Aligarh Muslim University. The intermediate classes under the control of the former are still mostly housed in the same buildings as the degree classes of the Allahabad University and a report comes from the United Provinces that the future of the intermediate classes in degree colleges is still under discussion, that it seems probable that financial considerations will prove decisive and that it will not be possible for some years to come to relieve degree colleges of these classes and to separate intermediate education from a university course of studies. Intermediate colleges in the United Provinces comprise ten classes and are found difficult to manage. It is proposed to take the opportunity, where possible, to organise the lower classes as separate junior schools. The Intermediate College of the Aligarh Muslim University has already given a lead in this direction. It has four classes corresponding to the two highest of the ordinary high school classes and two intermediate classes. There is yet another University Act, *viz.* The Delhi University Act, which restricts the control of the Delhi University over intermediate education to a period of five years and to such further period as the Governor General in Council may direct. This period of five years is still current.

The Calcutta, Bombay, Punjab, Benares, Hindu, Patna, Rangoon and Nagpur Universities still control their intermediate classes. It was not found possible during the period under review to legislate in Bengal in order to provide for the separation of intermediate education from post-intermediate instruction on the basis of the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission. Intermediate education in the Punjab, though still continuing to form a part of University instruction, is being gradually separated from post-intermediate instruction partly to relieve the congestion of students at Lahore. Intermediate colleges are accordingly being established at suitable centres in the mufassil. The Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education of Dacca have added elementary economics to their list of Intermediate subjects and have instituted an oral test in English.

## V. SECONDARY EDUCATION.

General.

Except in Bengal where there was a further decline due to the extinction of middle vernacular schools for boys there was a general increase in the total number of secondary schools, high schools, English middle schools and Vernacular middle schools throughout India. The slight decrease in the number of Government and aided vernacular middle schools was much more than counterbalanced by the considerable increase in this class of school under the management of district boards and municipalities, especially the former. The number of boys reading in secondary schools has also shown a considerable all round increase. The amount spent on secondary education has also increased on the whole although slight decreases are shown in the expenditure by district boards and municipalities and from private sources on high schools and middle English schools. Local bodies have, however, increased their expenditure very considerably on vernacular middle schools. Bengal put forward a plea for additional funds for the wide extension of the grant-in-aid system as applied to secondary schools. In this province an exceptionally large number of high and middle schools is unaided.

Boards and  
Examina-  
tions.

In the Central Provinces the High School Education Act was brought into operation and a High School Board constituted. This board, composed of 31 members—a very large number for a Board with executive powers—is of a representative character and has provided an opportunity of bringing public opinion to bear in an increased measure on the problem of secondary education. On the other hand, accepting a policy which goes in a different direction, regulations were sanctioned during the year in Bihar and Orissa for the transfer of the management of the school leaving certificate and matriculation examinations to a University Examination Delegacy for secondary schools; while in Bombay the school leaving certificate examination was held for the last time in March 1924 by the Joint Examination Board. This Board was originally constituted with the main object of conducting the school leaving certificate examination. It has not altogether fulfilled the hopes



which had been entertained when it was first instituted with the result that the Government of Bombay have decided that they will accept the Matriculation examination of the University as a qualification for Government service and agreed to the conduct of that examination being resumed by the University. It is accepted in Bombay that the standard of education not only in the University but also in the secondary schools depends on the standard of the Matriculation; the dominating influence in higher education in Bombay is thus to be the University which frames the Matriculation syllabus and conducts the Matriculation examination. In the North-West Frontier Province the chief event in secondary education was the revival of the Anglo-Vernacular Middle Standard examination. The restoration of this test was welcomed and it is hoped thereby to improve the general efficiency of education in that province. From Assam, which is the only province in India without a university of its own (excluding the North-West Frontier Province) comes the complaint that the Matriculation examination of the Calcutta University, which examination is taken by high school students of Assam at the end of their school course, is of much too low a standard. It prevents schools aiming at a higher standard which they can easily achieve and attracts to university courses and to professional or clerical pursuits boys who have not the proper aptitude for study. The question of the relative responsibilities of a Government and of a university for the higher education of boys does not yet in actual practice seem to have been satisfactorily solved throughout all India.

From the Central Provinces and from Burma we find traces of the after-math of the non-co-operation movement which resulted in the establishment of many "national" schools. The Central Provinces report generally the collapse of national schools and the existence of unrecognised private cramming institutions, which prepare candidates for the Punjab and Calcutta University Matriculation examination. The enrolment in high schools would have shown a much larger increase but for these cramming institutions. In Burma reconciliation was affected between the Council of National Education and the school system existing in that province and by the consequent relaxation of the school boycott. Under the terms of agreement the Council of National Education secured independence of control and freedom to choose its own curriculum and text books. The reconciliation was not quite complete since conflict existed in some areas between the supporters of the national movement who favoured receipt of grants-in-aid from Government and those who did not with the result that there was much overlapping of educational facilities.

The number of trained teachers of requisite qualifications does not equal the demand. The Central Provinces report that one of the main needs of aided schools in the Province is the recruitment of trained teachers of the requisite qualifications. Managers are not always prepared to pay adequate salaries for trained teachers. In general there are many complaints of inadequacy of

National and  
Unrecognised  
Schools.

Staff, Provi-  
dent Funds  
and Endow-  
ments.

pay, insecurity of tenure of office, delay in the payment of salaries and too frequent changes of staff, all of which conduce to inefficient work. Several governments have done something to improve matters by the establishment of aided provident fund schemes. The United Provinces have introduced a Provident fund scheme while Bengal is considering such a scheme.

The finances of aided schools are frequently inadequate, Permanent endowments are greatly needed if schools are to be run efficiently, for without endowments a sufficient income is not assured to meet the recurring expenditure of secondary schools, suitable teachers cannot be recruited and retained unless additional funds are forthcoming from endowments, from Government (and this will generally involve additional taxation) or from an increase in the rates of fees. Endowments have, it is true, been generous in some parts of the country but if aided education is to flourish endowments should be much more general and much more generous. In the Central Provinces fees have been raised with no effect on enrolment. In some parts of the country the increase in the rates of fees does not appear to have been effected proportionately to the increase in the general cost of living.

Experiments have been tried with a view to imparting instruction up to the Matriculation standard through the medium of the vernacular. From Bengal, however, we find it reported that the unpopularity of a purely vernacular education chiefly accounts for a large decrease in middle vernacular schools in that province. In the Central Provinces the vernacular was introduced as the medium of instruction in several high schools under public management but schools which maintained two or more sections in the high school classes were permitted to impart instruction through the medium of English in one section if there was a substantial demand for that medium while aided schools were allowed a free hand in the choice of the medium of instruction. During the year two schools which had introduced the vernacular as the medium of instruction in the previous year abandoned it and reverted to English. The attitude of the general public towards this question was anything but uniform and it has further complicated problems of administration, especially in the areas where there are two main vernaculars. In Bihar and Orissa Government issued orders on the report of a committee appointed to consider primary and secondary education which resulted in a modification of the University Regulations to the effect that in the Matriculation examination, in subjects other than English and mathematics, the medium of examination after the year 1928 may be the vernacular offered by the candidate for composition. That Government decided to try the experiment of teaching one section of some high schools which had duplicate sections through the medium of English as at present, and the other through the medium of the vernacular spoken by the largest number of pupils. Experiments are also to be made to see how far it is possible for one teacher to give instruction to a class through the medium of two vernaculars at the same time, for example Hindi and Urdu or Bengali and Oriya. The

problem of the medium of instruction in secondary schools in India is one upon which experiments are being freely made and which will be solved satisfactorily only by the recognition of the facts that the educated man in India should be bilingual, and that the local culture should not be obliterated which it would be if free expression were given to the view that English should be used as the sole medium for interchange of thought. There persists, however, a large demand for instruction both in and through the medium of English all over the country. From the North-West Frontier Province comes the statement that practically all schools that teach English are full to overflowing, a demand for the establishment of this class of school having shown itself in widely distant places. The Central Provinces report a demand for English instruction coupled with the fostering of the idea that vernacular middle schools should be regarded equally with Anglo vernacular middle schools as preparing boys for high schools; as a result a considerable demand has arisen in some parts for the teaching of English in Vernacular Middle schools maintained by local bodies. A similar report comes from the United Provinces. From Bombay we hear that secondary education is spreading with considerable rapidity, but that this extension of secondary schools with a growing desire for English education appears to have resulted in a lowering of the standard in that province; parents of very moderate means are no longer satisfied with a purely vernacular education for their children and have a mistaken belief that if they acquire some knowledge of English their future is assured. The general effect of this tendency is disquieting to the Bombay authorities. The demand for English instruction exists even through a sufficient supply of suitable teachers is not available; nor are funds sufficient to employ them.

The Dalton Plan has been introduced in the United Provinces Methods. and also in Assam with satisfactory results. There appears to be a growing tendency to foster such extra-school activities as Education Societies, co-operative societies, first aid lecturing and scouting. Lectures on first aid and hygiene have been either continued or revived while classes held under the auspices of the St. John's Ambulance Association have been successful. Special classes for teachers in nature study and in physical training have been held in Bombay. Such classes intended to extend the knowledge, to widen the experience or to refresh the memory of teachers are invaluable.

A scheme for training drawing masters as vocational instructors Vocational Training. in engraving, wood work, etc., was given effect to in Madras, Bengal regrets that the general demand for giving a bias in a less literary direction to the school curriculum has not increased the popularity of the classes formed to comply with this demand. So long as they compete with an easy Matriculation and do not lead to the University little change in the present state of affairs can be expected. The Dacca Vocational Education Committee submitted its report which is under consideration. The report

makes it clear that vocational education cannot be cheap and that it is a waste of money and labour to prepare students for vocations that do not exist or that are already over-stocked. It disabuses the amateur educationist who would introduce vocational education into high schools as any thing but a part of the general educational process, and throws doubt on the belief of the Sadler Commission that at the intermediate stage vocational education can be so combined with general education as to produce a worker competent to earn his living with the vocational training which he has undergone at the close of that stage. In the Central Provinces a reslution was issued on the report of the Vocational Education Committee. One of the points emphasised in the reslution was that in order to effect a closer co-ordination between technical education and other branches of education, all forms of education should be brought under the control of one Minister (the Minister of Education), and that, in respect of technical education, the Minister should be assisted by a consultative committee consisting of the Director of Industries, the Director of Public Instruction, the Director of Agriculture and two others nominated by the Local Government. As a result a consultative committee was subsequently constituted to advise the Minister of Education in regard to technical education.

#### Music.

The subject of Indian music is occupying the increasing, attention of schools, both Indian and European, and the Gayan Samaj of Poona is trying to introduce some form of notation, and generally to systematise the teaching of music in schools.

#### Religious Instruction, Moral Instruction and Discipline.

Religious instruction is given in schools in many parts of India and discipline is generally satisfactory. It is noted, however, that the discipline and restraint to which boys are subjected while living in hostels is one of the reasons for their unpopularity in Bombay. The Indian boy prefers the free life of the bazar hotel. Community hostels are reported to be successful in Bombay. The Punjab, on the other hand, remarks that the suggestion that communities should co-operate in efforts to economise by building separate hostels, instead of separate schools, has not met with the measure of success which was hoped for. In some parts direct moral teaching has fallen into disuse as being uninteresting and of little value. Other activities aiming at indirect moral teaching, of which scouting is one of the most prominent, are being developed.

#### Medical Inspection.

The medical inspection of pupils has been receiving some attention. In the United Provinces revised rules have been brought into force and a tendency to demand that medical attendance and medicine during illness shall be free is observable—a demand which cannot be justified. In Assam there is a demand for the replacement of the present system of unremunerated examination by the officers of the Medical Department which is very limited in its scope by a system similar to that adopted in Great Britain. The financial effect of the adoption of such a system would be very large and at the present time possibly beyond the reach of most provincial governments. A scheme

which divides the cost of medical inspection between the Government, the management of the school and the pupils has been satisfactorily worked out in some parts.

Although several new buildings for schools have been constructed and extensions made, very much yet remains to be done. Many schools are unsatisfactorily housed and more hostel accommodation is necessary in many places.

Buildings.

There has been a general extension of the Boy Scout Movement in nearly every province in India, the movement gaining ground in vernacular as well as in English schools. It has enlisted considerable public sympathy and is beginning to acquire an influence in school life. School masters are united in the praise of the good influence of scouting on scouts and their fellows. The chief difficulty at present is an insufficient supply of qualified scoutmasters. The Girl Guides Movement, which at first interested only European schools, has of late years made considerable progress in schools for Indian girls, especially in Bombay. Public opinion favours the association, the Indian public in particular showing in Madras great interest in starting new centres and in having Indian officers trained. The movement is arousing considerable interest among teachers as well as pupils. The lack of suitable officers tends however to handicap expansion but an increasing number of officers are being taught their work at training schools and in camps.

Boy Scouts and Girl Guides.

Many provinces report that their systems of physical education are not altogether satisfactory or not so fruitful of results as might be wished. The utility of well organised games as also of drill as an important factor in education has yet to be realised by the majority of school authorities. Madras reports the deputation for training in the Young Men's Christian Association School of Physical Education of a special officer with a view to his being appointed after training as Assistant Physical Director in order to ensure more effective coordination and supervision in physical education throughout the province. Burma reports that proposals are under consideration for the appointment of a special officer to advise on physical training. Bengal reports that a six weeks training course for drill and gymnastic teachers was held in Calcutta. The United Provinces report that an athletic league was successfully started in Lucknow. Burma reports that the services of a half-time Physical Director were obtained from the Young Men's Christian Association. Bihar and Orissa, report a short course for drill masters and for students in training schools. The Punjab also reports that steps have been taken to get younger assistant district inspectors trained at a summer school of physical training, but that lack of funds has restricted expenditure in carrying out their policy to have competent supervisors in each district.

Physical Education.

## VI. PRIMARY EDUCATION.

The number of primary schools shows an increase under all classes of management, the total increase being 5,335 schools for

Numerical.

boys and 663 for girls bringing the number of primary schools for boys up to 144,430 and for girls up to 23,583—a total increase of 6,000 primary schools, denoting very satisfactory progress. This increase is, however, not shared by the North-West Frontier Province, the Punjab and Burma. The local bodies in the Punjab have been encouraged, in view of financial stringency, to consolidate the position so far gained by filling existing schools rather than to increase their commitments by starting new schools. The number of pupils also shows a considerable increase, namely, of more than 3½ lakhs of pupils in primary schools for boys and girls combined. The Bengal report observes that of the total male Hindu population 5.5 per cent. and of the Mohammedan population 5.07 per cent. were in primary schools—the two main communities of the province taking almost equal advantage of the opportunities offered for primary education. It may be observed *en passant* that the term “elementary education” is used in Bombay for education imparted in infant classes and vernacular standards I to IV inclusive and that in that presidency the term primary education includes education given wholly through the vernacular in all vernacular standards up to and including standard VII. The statistics are to be read in the light of this remark.

Expenditure has also increased by nearly 28 lakhs of Rupees, the increase being slightly less than that noted in last year's review in the case of primary schools for boys, but considerably more in primary schools for girls. The percentage of expenditure from Government funds and from “other sources” has increased while the percentage of expenditure from Board funds shows a decrease. The total cost per scholar has decreased by eight pies being now Rs. 7-13-3 per head in schools for boys. It has, however, increased by five annas per head in primary schools for girls being now Rs. 10-6-5 per head. A girl's education is one-third more expensive than the education of a boy.

Large subsidies were contributed during the year to local bodies in most provinces for payment of grants of various kind in aid of primary education, the subsidies being in many cases larger than those granted in the previous year. Bihar and Orissa report the division of district boards into three classes for the purpose of payments of grants, the classification being made in accordance with the assessed income per thousand of population. The United Provinces report that proposals for a three years' contract with the district boards were worked out, the savings that accrue to the boards from the recurring allotments being transferred to an education fund to be utilised on non-recurring charges. In the North-West Frontier Province the attention of the district boards was drawn to their tendency to economise in their expenditure by curtailing educational facilities. It was pointed out to them that further economy at the expense of the educational budget was not permissible. This reminded the district boards of their responsibilities and produced a salutary result, savings in recurring charges being earmarked for non-

recurring educational expenditure, such as the provision of new or the improvement of old buildings.

Madras reports that sanction was accorded to the levy of the education cess in the areas under the jurisdiction of fifteen taluk boards and six municipal councils and that at the end of the year there were seventy taluk boards and sixteen municipalities levying the cess. Six municipalities introduced compulsion during the year in addition to the seven that had introduced it in the previous year. Bihar reports that compulsion is in force in only one municipality, Ranchi, and that compulsion is really beginning to be effective, a sub-inspector of schools having been placed in charge of the municipal area, the municipality itself having appointed a second attendance officer. The Central Provinces report that compulsory primary education was introduced in five villages and in one municipality and that a scheme for the application of compulsion in six other villages was sanctioned during the year. While progress in the actual introduction of compulsion has hitherto been slow there are signs abroad of healthy activity, especially in some of the larger municipalities. The Government of the Central Provinces realise that compulsion on a large scale is at present a counsel of perfection and that in the cautious application of the compulsory principle they see the best hope of achieving general literacy. They opine that compulsion should be applied in the first place in municipal areas, and in those places in rural areas where its application will be attended with least difficulty. They deprecate the adoption of measures like the double shift system which, while it might facilitate the introduction of compulsion, would certainly lead to a deterioration in the standard of primary education, especially since the primary course is reduced from five to four years. Government were anxious to facilitate the introduction of compulsion by amending their Primary Education Act; their efforts in this direction were however rendered abortive by the action of the Legislative Council in throwing out without discussion and for political reasons the amending bill. In the United Provinces there has been much progress by municipal boards since the introduction of compulsory primary education for boys in their municipalities. Several local bodies in that Province introduced compulsion on the terms offered by Government, namely, Government undertook to pay two-thirds of the extra cost involved including the cost of remitting fees, and also the total cost of bringing the minimum pay of the teachers employed in boys' vernacular schools up to the standard of pay prescribed for district board teachers, provided that the total contribution made by Government to the municipal board did not exceed 60 per cent. of the total cost of primary education for boys in the municipality. The progress reports received from the inspecting officers show that the administration of schools in municipalities which have introduced compulsion has considerably improved, that their staff and equipment are adequate, and that the boards have generally complied with the regulations on the subject. Enrolment

General poli-  
cies, Educa-  
tion Acts,  
Compulsion  
and Local  
Bodies.

has increased and the boards concerned showed a willingness to act on the advice of the inspecting staff when minor defects were brought to their notice. In the Punjab compulsory education was enforced at the close of the year in 14 municipalities and 156 rural school areas, its adoption being accompanied by very gratifying results. The cost of compulsion has not proved so great as was at first anticipated. Government undertook in the case of municipalities to contribute, in addition to existing grants, half of the additional cost involved subject to a maximum of Rs. 5 per annum per head of additional attendance and in the case of district boards to contribute to the increased cost in accordance with the grade at which the board is rated. The results achieved show that compulsion is the surest and most economical method of advancing literacy in the Province. Bengal regrets that district boards and municipalities are not showing a desire to accept the Government's promise to contribute one-half of the recurring and capital expenditure required for starting central primary schools. The Director regrets that it is not generally recognised that Bengal cannot get universal literacy without the expenditure of a large sum of money and that this money must come out of the pockets of the people. When this is universally recognised, both by members of the Legislative Council and by members of district boards and municipalities there will be some hope of advance. It is reported that the condition of primary schools in Calcutta continues to be unsatisfactory and that nothing but a dominant and overmastering resolution on the part of the whole literate and well-to-do classes that illiteracy must and shall end within a reasonable time in the second city of the Empire accompanied by its necessary concomitant, a willing and ungrudging assumption of the financial burden involved, can ever solve the problem of primary education in Calcutta. That Province further remarks that there is a consensus of opinion that the measures desirable to wipe out the serious defects of the present system of primary education are:—an increase in the pay of teachers; the appointment of a larger number of trained teachers in existing primary schools; the restoration of the public examination; and the introduction, wherever possible, of free primary education.

Mainly owing to the complexity of the rules which were framed under the Primary Education Act and the need for careful scrutiny of these rules by Government, Bombay could not bring the Primary Education Act into operation during the year. Draft rules were, however, published and local bodies consulted. The rules were published in October but it was considered undesirable to transfer the management of primary education to local bodies just prior to the holding of elections under which the personnel of the bodies would probably be changed under the New Local Boards Act. A primary education bill was circulated for opinion in Assam. It was recognised by almost all local bodies that compulsion, if it were to be introduced, could be introduced only gradually and with circumspection and that direct taxation



would be an exceedingly unpopular measure. With the dissolution of the Legislative Council the bill lapsed. The work of district school boards in Burma was watched with the greatest anxiety. These boards were handicapped by the absence of administrative traditions and precedents, and of regulations to guide them, as also by their own reluctance to use the advice of the inspectors and deputy inspectors. Towards these boards the inspecting staff, with very few exceptions, understood their new position and discharged their new duties, which were purely advisory, satisfactorily. An experimental year of practically unchecked control allowed the local education authorities to make instructive, if at times unsuccessful, experiments in the methods of disbursing teachers' salaries. It also taught most of them that without the help of the Inspectorate they cannot carry out their duties satisfactorily. All school boards learnt the important financial lesson that one must cut one's coat according to one's cloth. The defects recorded on their working are mainly, delay in the despatch of business, reluctance to delegate necessary powers to their chairman, the exceeding of statutory powers in executive action, unsuitable methods of disbursing teachers salaries and failure to make full use of their power of co-option. Their work is nevertheless generally commended. Most of them undertook their new duties with real keenness, steadily mastering details and acquiring a sense of responsibility. Considering the difficulties confronting them they carried out their first year's work with remarkable success. The Central Provinces regret that comparatively few local bodies responded to an invitation to attend a conference, opened by the Minister of Education and held in an endeavour to foster co-operation between the department and local bodies, the subjects of discussion including several in which the chairmen of district councils and municipalities were closely interested.

Considerable assistance has been given in some provinces by the Co-operative Department, assistance of the greatest value both in the encouragement of compulsory education for boys and in popularising schools for adults. In the Punjab that Department has induced the members of a co-operative society to form compulsory education groups, the members agreeing to send their children to school for definite periods and making themselves liable to the penalty of a fine if they do not conform to the rules of the society regarding compulsion. A number of thrift societies has also been formed among village teachers—a measure which makes for stability and contentment—in the Lahore Division of the Punjab. From the Patna Division of Bihar and Orissa it is reported that it is still difficult to secure managing committees for primary schools but that in a few cases co-operative banks are successfully managing such schools.

The Central Provinces report the inauguration of an important experiment in the direction of enlarging the control of district councils over that branch of education with which they are

concerned. The power of inspecting their own schools was handed over to some district councils, some Government inspecting officers being transferred to their service. Bombay refers to the difficult problem of the future of the inspecting staff. Primary schools of district local boards are at present managed generally and inspected by officers of the Education Department. Under the Bombay Primary Education Act, they will be managed and supervised by officers of the district local boards, Government retaining a small inspecting staff to ensure that a satisfactory standard of instruction is maintained and to advise on educational questions. The amount of power of action and control which should remain centralised in a Government which provides large funds, and the amount which can be devolved or delegated to local agencies depend very largely upon the experience and ability of the body to which power is delegated; the extent to which Government can withdraw from inspection of schools is a matter which can give rise to considerable discussion. It is a complex of many factors of which immediate educational efficiency is but one.

Duration of  
School life.

Bihar and Orissa report that the duration of the primary school course has been shortened from six years to five years. Several provincial reports refer to the concentration of children in the lower classes of schools and to the wastage in educational effort. More than one-half of the pupils reading in the primary classes are concentrated in class I. Apart from a consideration of teaching staff and of educational policy, economic and social causes combine to retard the progress of literacy especially among the backward and agricultural classes of the people. They cannot afford to keep their children long at school as they are required to assist their parents in household work at home or in outdoor work in the fields or in factories, while education, especially higher education, was—and still is—in places, considered either by custom or by tradition to be the monopoly of certain sections of the community. The result is that most children attending school never reach the stage of 'literate' and many who aspire to comparative literacy relapse into illiteracy very soon after they leave school. In this matter it is the parent who has to be educated; he has still to realise that the permanent advantage to his child of becoming literate is greater than his immediate economic value in tending cattle. The immensity of wastage in educational effect is seen when reference is made to a simple method of calculating educational efficiency—a method which measures the *effective* duration of school life and not merely the actual duration of school life. It is of little use in the task of breaking down the widespread illiteracy of the country if a boy remains at school for four years spending his whole time in the same class, even though his actual duration of school life is four years. If, however, the same boy, still spending four years at school, spends only one year in each of the standards I, II, III and IV he has at the end of four years reached a stage of comparative literacy and is of advantage to himself and to the state. In the former

case the effective duration of school life is only one year, in the latter case the effective duration is four years, though in both cases the actual duration of school life is four years. The true measure of educational efficiency is the effective duration of school life and not the actual duration of school life. The statistical calculation of a figure which measures educational efficiency and which is based upon the effective duration of school life is beyond the scope of this review. It is sufficient, however, to state in general terms that the greater is the wastage the less is the effective duration of school life, the less is the educational efficiency and the less is the trust we are able to put in educational policies which result in great wastage. A measure of the wastage, which diminishes educational efficiency, is obtained by comparing the number of pupils reading in any standard, say the 3rd standard, with the number of pupils who read in the immediately junior standard, say the second standard, in the previous year. A perusal of the following table will show that out of nearly  $3\frac{1}{2}$  million pupils reading in class I last year a number less than  $1\frac{1}{4}$  million, or only about one out of every three pupils, is reading in class II in the year under review. Out of nearly twelve lakhs of pupils reading in class II last year less than nine lakhs are reading in class III in the year under review, that is about 3 out of every 4 pupils, while out of  $8\frac{1}{3}$  lakhs in class III in the previous year just a little over six lakhs are reading in class IV in the year under review, again about 3 out of every 4 pupils. The wastage in educational effort—consisting of deaths, of non-promoted pupils and of pupils who leave school—is immense and most educationists are of opinion that there is no solution to this problem of wastage in educational effort in India but compulsion. The total wastage of educational effect and its concurrent dissipation of educational funds in the primary classes is about fifty per cent. of the total energy put forth.

	Year 1922-23.	Year 1923-24.	Wastage.
Class I . . . . .	3,453,046	3,685,792	..
Class II . . . . .	1,184,318	1,218,758	2,234,288
Class III . . . . .	833,303	874,760	309,558
Class IV . . . . .	593,301	619,760	213,543
TOTAL . . . . .	6,063,968	6,400,070	...
Class V . . . . .	298,403	333,702	259,599

Several provinces have their curricula under revision. The Punjab reports the appointment of a committee to consider and report on vernacular courses with a view to their simplification Curricula.

and general improvement. This province emphasises that the subject matter taught and the methods of instruction pursued should be such as to bring the work of a primary school into the closest relation to the life and experience of the pupils, that the acquisition of suitable knowledge and the attainment of literacy should be the main objectives of the course, and that the syllabuses should be framed with due regard to the limited capacity of the teacher and to the time at his disposal for the work with which he is entrusted. It considers that simplification should be attained by reduction of "subjects" to the three R's and physical training. Steps have been taken whereby the examination of the boys in the fourth class is conducted by the district inspecting staff, the character of the test being one which will ascertain the extent to which literacy has been acquired. Bengal reports that geometry has been excluded and that the introduction of English as an optional subject has proved to be generally popular. Bombay reports experimental work done in an aided missionary school on the project method, each standard being given a definite piece of work to perform during the year, the code studies being grouped around this piece of work.

The shift system.

It is interesting to note that the shift system by which the school is held in two sessions, part of the pupils attending in the morning session and the remainder in the afternoon session, though tried in Bombay with the object of minimising the problems of the one-master school has not yet been very successful; the villagers do not favour it partly because they fear that their children are not receiving sufficient schooling, and partly because the children are off the hands of the parents for too short a period. As observed above the Central Provinces deprecate the adoption of the shift system.

Vocational training.

Extremely few educationists would support the introduction of definite vocational training into primary schools though none would fail to support a local or pre-vocational bias being given, so far as this is possible, to the instruction imparted. Most provinces recognise that the chief aim of primary instruction is to break down the illiteracy of the people. Bombay reports a bifurcation of studies from vernacular standard V upwards, the experiment being tried in a few schools. The object is to give village boys a form of instruction which will be useful to them in their life as agriculturists. The course, however, is prevocational rather than vocational. The results so far attained have been promising. It will however take time before the value of the training can be accurately assessed. The United Provinces report an experiment in combining with education a training in agriculture, a farm of 250 bighas being attached to the school. The Mission which conducts this school has determined to educate the children in a way that will not alienate them from the land, that will help them to improve agriculture on their small holdings and will enable them to raise the standard of living in their homes by their own efforts. It aims at imparting a sound elementary education in the vernacular combined with instruction in

farming, carpentry, basket weaving and blacksmithy and also at giving instruction in the auxiliary industries in order to enable the scholars to repair their own implements, furniture and houses. The progress of the experiment is being watched with interest.

A demand for the restoration of a public examination at the close of the vernacular school course continues in Assam while Burma reports that promotion examinations are no longer to be made by departmental inspecting officers but by managers of schools who are prepared to accept this responsibility. Examinations.

An increase in the number of trained teachers employed is reported from several provinces. It has been generally recognised that extension of education requires additional teachers and that training facilities have to be increased with the object of increasing the number of trained teachers *pari passu* with an increase in the number of schools and of pupils receiving elementary education. The Punjab, however, calls attention to the great care that is necessary to discriminate between teachers who take up teaching as their life profession and are likely to prove of real use and a permanent asset in educational work and those who desire to teach only temporarily as an alternative to unemployment. This problem is a common one in all classes of institutions and in all countries of the world. A question which is always with us and which is always arousing a greater or lesser degree of controversy is the pay of teachers. Their pay has been revised and increased, in places. The cost involved in even a small increase is however so immense—the number of teachers in primary schools alone exceeds a quarter of a million—that many provinces are not financially in a position seriously to consider the ways and means of raising pay to the extent necessary for increasing largely the supply of contented efficient trained teachers. Bombay reports that the scales now sanctioned in that province appear more favourable than those in force in other provinces and in the neighbouring Indian states. Several Inspectors of schools complain that the grant of time scales of pay to primary school teachers has resulted in a falling off in efficiency, there being now less incentive to good work than formerly when the pay was fixed with reference to the responsibility of the post and when promotion was made by selection. *Minima* and *Maxima* have been laid down in Bombay on the one hand to safeguard the interests of the teachers and on the other hand to guard against possible extravagance, the pay of teachers recruited after the Primary Education Act comes into operation being fixed in Bombay not by Government but by the local authorities. Staff.

Burma reports that very little money was spent by local authorities on vernacular school buildings and that the need for them is pressing in Rangoon. In country districts, it is not so urgent because school buildings can be cheaply provided if villagers are keen on their schools and will help in their construction. The provision of buildings does much to render schools stable and to ensure that they will open to all classes of the community alike. Buildings.

Medical  
inspection.

Medical inspection of children is more common in secondary schools and colleges than in primary schools. The United Provinces report however that experiments made in primary schools in three districts show that the services of the District Medical Officers of Health can be utilised to great advantage by boards for the medical inspection of schools. A systematic medical examination of scholars was conducted. Special attention was paid to their health, to the sanitary condition of the schools and boarding houses and to the water supply, lectures on personal hygiene and on the most common diseases prevalent among children were delivered and teachers and students were informed of the modes of the spread and prevention of the principal epidemic diseases prevailing in the district. The chief common diseases noted among the school children inspected were chronic malaria, enlargement of the spleen, trachoma and ringworm.

Adult edu-  
cation.

Very little is reported regarding adult education. The Punjab reports, however, that the number of adult schools has more than doubled during the year. It points out that adult education acts as a stimulus to the education of children, it being often found that where there is a successful adult school the attendance in schools for boys and girls automatically increases.

## VII. FEMALE EDUCATION.

Numerical  
and co-  
education.

The total number of recognised institutions for girls rose considerably and stood at 24,777 at the end of the year. The enrolment showed a corresponding increase to 944,050. If unrecognised institutions are included, the figures for institutions and scholars stood at 27,440 and 1,001,466 respectively, this being the first year during which the number of scholars attending educational institutions for girls exceeded one million. A perusal of Table IV-B, an extract from which is placed below, shows, however, that more than one-half of the total number of scholars are reading in the lowest class of the schools and that very few pupils proceed to the high school classes. Out of 533,878 pupils reading in the lowest class in the previous year only 161,228 are found to be reading in class II during the year under review. The wastage in money and in educational effort through non-promotions or through girls leaving school before they have begun to receive any education of measurable value is enormous. Schools should do more than fulfil the functions of a crèche.

### Enrolment in the first four primary classes, 1924.

Classes.	Number.
I . . . . .	572,069
II . . . . .	161,228
III . . . . .	87,285
IV . . . . .	52,682
	<hr/>
TOTAL . . . . .	873,234
	<hr/>
V . . . . .	26,191

The foregoing statistics do not take into account the number of girls reading in schools for boys or the number of boys reading in schools for girls, who are distributed according to the following table. This table, read in conjunction with the above statistics, indicates the large extent to which co-education of girls and boys prevails in India; more than half a million girls out of a total number of a little over one and a half million girls under instruction are receiving their education in institutions along with boys.

Type of Institution.	No. of boys in Girls' schools.	No. of girls in Boys' schools.	Net additional number of girls.
Colleges . . . . .	..	606	606
Secondary schools . . . . .	12,20	44,054	31,334
Primary schools . . . . .	29,549	476,316	446,767
Special schools . . . . .	281	2,271	1,990
Unrecognised schools . . . . .	5,255	32,152	26,897
<b>TOTAL . . . . .</b>	<b>47,805</b>	<b>553,399</b>	<b>507,594</b>

The North-West Frontier Province reports a regrettable falling off in the number of pupils receiving secondary education, while the Punjab reports that the increase in the number of scholars would have been greater but for the fact that the effect of the outbreak of plague on the enrolment in Girls schools was even more serious than it was in the case of Boys schools. It was responsible for the temporary closing of institutions in some of the infected areas.

Except in technical and industrial schools there was an **Expenditure.** allround increase in expenditure in all classes of schools for girls. The increase in expenditure was also general from all sources except from the funds of local boards. In the United Provinces the grants by Government to district boards for vernacular education have been increased and the amount to be spent by district boards on female education has now been fixed at a higher level than in previous years. The decrease in expenditure by local boards will thus probably be arrested in some parts of India. Bengal reports that European missions which have rendered valuable services in connection with the expansion of primary education of Indian girls, particularly of the backward communities, are hampered by lack of adequate funds. Retrenchment is reported from the Punjab and from Assam. In the former province some municipalities made drastic reductions in the salaries of mistresses while other municipalities closed some of their

girls schools. In Assam as a measure of economy the post of Inspectress of Schools was held in abeyance on the retirement of the permanent incumbent.

General.

In the Central Provinces a conference of representatives of local bodies arrived at the conclusion that while the attendance of girls in boys schools should be encouraged the present system, under which separate schools are provided for girls, should be continued. In Burma a rule, which has been nominally in force since 1919 prohibiting co-education in Anglo-vernacular schools above the age of 12 was abolished during the year, the matter being now left to the discretion of the managers of schools. In Bihar and Orissa the number of girls reading in boys schools has diminished considerably probably due to the withdrawal of the capitation grant which was formerly given to teachers in boys schools on account of the attendance of girls in these schools. In Bengal the methods in vogue for imparting education to zenana women by house to house visitation and by instruction at central gatherings have been condemned. It was decided to reform the system of zenana education on lines which borrow certain features from the Parents' National Union scheme which has achieved signal results in England. The main object of the new scheme is to institute a correspondence system of instruction from a select-centre supplemented by a certain amount of visiting. The experimental centre will be at Dacca.

Madras reports that the Lady Willingdon Training College for Women commenced working as a separate college and that an aided training college under Mission management was also opened. The United Provinces report that the Isabella Thoburn College moved into its new and spacious building near the Lucknow University while the Punjab reports the opening of a science laboratory at the Government Intermediate College for Women at Lahore. The Government Girls High School, Lucknow, which has not been able to compete with the Muslim and Hindu High Schools was closed during the year and its buildings were made over to the Muslim Girls High School. It is reported that the change has been conducive to the comfort and happiness of the pupils and the staff and has led to an improvement in the enrolment of both boarders and day scholars. The drawback of distance which was so serious before has been overcome by the gift of two motor buses and the bait of a daily drive appears to have made the attendance in the preparatory section more regular.

The general policy of provincial governments in the matter of control of primary schools for girls is far from uniform. Bengal reports that model primary schools were deprovincialised at the close of the year and that in future they will be conducted by local committees as aided institutions. On the other hand the Central Provinces report that an allotment made for the improvement and extension of girls education was in part devoted to the provincialisation of a few aided primary schools.



One of the main problems of female education in India is **Teachers.** the supply of a sufficient number of trained and qualified women teachers. The Central Provinces report the employment of men in place of women while the North-West Frontier Province rejoices in the opening of additional training classes. The United Provinces complain of the insufficiency of teachers even in urban areas and report that women teachers are more unwilling to live in rural areas than in towns with the result that the staffing of rural areas with women teachers is scarcely practicable in the present stage of female educational development in India. Bihar and Orissa on the other hand while pointing out that Hindu teachers have no difficulty in obtaining employment state that the demand for trained Mohammedan teachers is so very limited on account of the reluctance of Mohammedans to educate their daughters in schools that there are a few trained Mohammedan teachers not able to obtain suitable employment. A reorganisation of normal schools with a view to provide more adequate facilities for the practical training of student-teachers is reported from the Punjab.

The Punjab reports a reconstruction of the Women Inspectorate **Inspection.** and an increase in the number of Assistant Inspectresses, while Burma reports a reorganisation of the Women's Educational Services involving additional inspectresses, deputy inspectresses and teaching posts.

### VIII. TRAINING OF TEACHERS.

The total number of teachers employed in secondary and primary **Numerical** schools in India was 340,532 of whom 149,814 or 43 per cent. were trained, the corresponding figures of last year being 324,305 and 137,115 and 42 respectively. It is satisfactory to observe not only that the actual number of teachers has increased considerably but that the percentage of trained teachers has also increased.

The following statement gives the number of teachers under training during each of the last two years.

Type of institution.	For men.		For women.		TOTAL.	
	1923.	1924.	1923.	1924.	1923.	1924.
In Training Colleges	984	991	69	91	1,083	1,082
In Normal and Training Schools	21,321	21,332	4,074	4,119	25,397	25,531
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>22,307</b>	<b>22,323</b>	<b>4,173</b>	<b>4,290</b>	<b>26,480</b>	<b>26,613</b>

It will be observed that there has been a slight increase in the number of women under training but that the number of men **under** training is practically constant.

A reference to table I of the year under review and to the corresponding table of last year will indicate that while there has been a slight increase in the number of normal and training schools for women (from 142 to 151) there has been a reduction from 782 to 647 in the number of normal and training schools for men.

and financial

In some provinces a policy of amalgamation of training schools was followed, mainly with the object of retrenchment in expenditure. Such retrenchment has not, however, had an altogether adverse effect, for we notice that while in Madras the number of schools was reduced from 68 to 64 yet their total strength increased from 4,704 to 6,148. In Bengal the hostile attitude of the Bengal Retrenchment Committee towards the principle of training itself proved a blessing in disguise. The Government of Bengal is reported to have reacted so strongly against the conclusions of the Committee that it decided to build eight new guru training schools and to proceed with the long delayed scheme for a new Training College for secondary teachers. Budget provision for a start with these schemes was made by the Council. The projects for new normal schools did not materialise owing to financial stringency. In the Punjab there has been a substantial decrease in expenditure notwithstanding an increase in the number of teachers under training. In Bombay a scheme to provide trained teachers according to the need of each district was worked out with a view to equalise the distribution of such teachers. In the United Provinces the number of normal schools remained constant but the number of training classes fell considerably. The qualifications and training requisite for teachers in primary schools is under consideration in connection with the expansion of vernacular education. In the Punjab there has been a marked increase in the number of agriculturist candidates in the vernacular training institutions. Retrenchment has, however, had an adverse effect in the Central Provinces where the posts of Director of Manual Training and Lecturer in Primary school methods remained in abeyance. In Assam where the scheme for a training college at Sylhet was held over for want of funds and in the North West Frontier Province where the number of stipends available at the Government Training College and Normal school was reduced as a measure of economy.

higher  
training.

The Muslim University at Aligarh opened a training college during the year and granted degrees in teaching and a certificate. In Bombay the secondary training college is now affiliated to the University and trains teachers for schools under every class of management. It was formerly an institution for training teachers for Government institutions only. A large number of Indians applied unsuccessfully for admission to the training class of the Burma University College Department of Education. Difficulty is experienced in finding employment for Indians who have passed out of it, for an Indian schoolmaster does not readily adapt himself to conditions in Burmese Anglo-Vernacular schools. It is a matter of great regret that no Burmese men joined the class.

With a view to encouraging the recruitment of non-Brahmin teachers the Government of Bombay laid down that fifty per cent.

Admissions  
on a com-  
munal basis.

of admissions to Primary Training Institutions in the Marathi and Kanarese districts should be reserved for those classes of the community which relatively are neither advanced nor backward educationally, namely the agricultural and artisan classes, and ten per cent. for the backward castes, the remainder being available for open competition.

The Government of Bihar and Orissa accepted generally the view that Middle Vernacular trained teachers should be paid not less than Rs. 12 a month and that Upper Primary trained men should receive a minimum salary of Rs. 9 a month. These amounts should be raised by Rs. 2 in municipal areas and by a further Rs. 3 in free schools. Pay.

Organisation, curricula and methods of training are continuously under review in most parts of India, and experiments are reported from some provinces. The United Provinces report that the curriculum for the vernacular teachers' certificate was revised and improved in accordance with the recommendations of a committee which considered the training of teachers. In the North-West Frontier Province a revised curriculum was introduced for the training of primary school teachers. The conditions for the award of special certificates to untrained teachers were made more stringent and the number of such certificates has been limited. In Bihar and Orissa a committee was appointed to advise as to the system of training to be adopted in elementary training schools. The lack of a demonstration school under the control of the Patna Training College handicapped the organisation of the practical work. The Cuttack Training College also experienced difficulty in satisfactorily arranging for practical work. In the Punjab a one-year course has been substituted for a two year Junior Anglo-Vernacular course in certain institutions with some measure of success. Experiments at Moga conducted by Mr. W. J. McGee in training rural teachers by the "Project Method" are reported to be very successful. In Assam the normal and training schools suffer from the lack of suitable text books in Assamese. The abolition of the Middle Vernacular School Leaving Certificate examination has had the effect of lowering the educational qualifications of students under training in normal schools. A new development has been the employment of Matriculates in village schools and the question of their training is engaging attention. As an experimental measure a number of Matriculates were admitted without stipends in the normal schools. A variation of the Dalton Plan is being tried in two of the practising schools attached to the Jorhat Normal School. Bengal reports that at the David Hare Training College, a course of lectures on Hygiene was organised by the Bengal Social Service League for the benefit of the students under training. In five normal schools in the Punjab scout troops were organised amongst the prospective primary and middle school teachers. Organisation,  
curricula  
and methods  
of training.

Bengal reports that most of the collegiate trained women teachers proceed upcountry where higher salaries are offered to Women  
teachers.

them. This is not universally the case. Women usually prefer to teach either in the immediate neighbourhood of their own homes or in the larger cities where the amenities of life for an educated woman are usually greater than they are in upcountry stations. In the Marathi districts of Bombay the facilities for the training of women teachers are excessive rather than inadequate. It is suggested that the reason for the comparatively large number of women who are prepared to undergo training may be that they command a higher value in the matrimonial market partly because their earnings are a welcome addition to their husband's income and partly because they are better educated. There is no doubt however but that the spirit of emancipation and independence which is fast growing among women in India tends to make them take to teaching as an obvious means of earning their own livelihood.

In the Punjab the Government normal schools at Gujranwala and Sialkot for women teachers were closed and instead a junior training class was attached to the Lyallpur High School. The North-West Frontier Province notes that a senior vernacular training class for women was opened by the C. M. S. at Peshawar and that there is a proposal to open a similar class in connection with the Arya Kanya Pathshala, Dera Ismail Khan. Burma reports that the Anglo-Vernacular kindergarten training course for girls and women became increasingly popular. In the United Provinces the position of the training classes for women teachers in European schools was considered and new regulations framed. A three years' course has now been added which will include a training course and additional study in preparation for the Cambridge Higher Certificate Examination.

Special classes.

The Chelmsford Training College for Europeans was transferred to Ghora Gali from Sanawar and a new syllabus for the class was drawn up. Burma reports that the two Monastic training classes at Mandalay and Moulmein continued their work successfully, but that the consensus of opinion in Burmah is unfavourable to the attempt to combine the monastic and the teaching vocations. It is believed that young *upazins* have been attracted to these classes mainly by the provision of English teaching. The Punjab reports that the training classes for demobilised soldiers were continued at Gujarkhan and Rohtak.

## IX. OTHER PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

The following table gives statistics regarding institutions for professional and technical education. The total number of institutions has increased by ten per cent. and the total number of pupils by nearly six per cent. A regrettable decrease is noticed however in the number of pupils reading in medical schools and colleges.

A fall has also taken place in the numbers reading in Forest and in Veterinary Colleges.

Type of institution.	1923.		1924.	
	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
Law colleges and schools . . . . .	13	5,662	13	7,351
Medical colleges and schools . . . . .	35	9,543	34	8,936
Engineering colleges and schools . . . . .	17	2,750	18	2,730
Agricultural colleges and schools . . . . .	18	1,001	20	999
Commercial colleges and schools . . . . .	126	8,667	141	8,958
Forest colleges . . . . .	2	175	2	169
Veterinary colleges . . . . .	3	328	3	292
Technical and industrial schools . . . . .	279	16,051	316	17,260
Schools of Art . . . . .	13	1,550	9	1,711
<b>TOTAL</b> . . . . .	<b>506</b>	<b>45,727</b>	<b>556</b>	<b>43,406</b>

Many of these institutions are not under the control or supervision of the provincial Educational Departments and the reports of Directors of Public Instruction do not contain full information on their activities. The following notes are however culled from the provincial reports on Education:—

Bihar and Orissa report the reorganisation of the staff of the Patna Law College and a large increase in the enrolment in the law classes. Law.

Punjab reports that great difficulty is experienced in providing sufficient clinical material for the practical training of medical students at Lahore especially in midwifery and gynaecology in spite of the fact that the Madras Government has reserved 720 cases for Punjab students. To meet the difficulty it has been suggested that the number of new admissions be limited to 60. At the Medical School, Amritsar, a new block was constructed for the Chemistry and Physics Laboratory and a dark room was added for the teaching of practical ophthalmology, otology and laryngology. The demand for lady doctors is still in excess of the supply—a remark which applies to the whole of India. Medical.

Bombay reports that plans have been prepared for the extension of the Poona Engineering College workshops and physical and electrical engineering laboratories and that an increase in the number of admissions to the college is under consideration. Engineering

At the Bengal Engineering College, Sibpur visiting lectures were delivered on irrigation and sanitary and structural engineer-

ing and the construction of the new barrack for Anglo-Indian students and the installation of the sewerage system were in process of completion. At the Absanullah School of Engineering, Dacca, proposals for the permanent duplication of the Upper subordinate classes to meet the demand for this kind of training were under consideration and the rate of tuition fees for the Upper and Lower Subordinate Departments was raised. The construction of a permanent building for the Mainamati Survey School has been approved. It is proposed to revive the original scheme of training eight passed students annually in mine-surveying in the coalfields. In the civil engineering department of the Thompson Civil Engineering College, Roorkee, United Provinces, the special courses in Railways, roads and tunnels have been abandoned while the course of civil engineering design has been extended and developed on scientific lines. The Punjab reports that there were 360 candidates for admission to the Government School of Engineering, Rasul, of whom only 50 could be admitted and that the new Maclagan Engineering College, Moghulpure, started work with 118 students, about 600 applications for admission having been received. Bihar and Orissa report that the Orissa School of Engineering was opened and that preparations for the opening of the Bihar College of Engineering were almost completed. The latter college is in process of being affiliated to the Patna University and will serve as a recruiting ground for the Indian Service of Engineers, Indian Branch. Admission to the Nagpur Engineering School is gradually being restricted to residents of the Central Provinces and Berar even then, there were at the last Entrance Examination 82 candidates for 35 vacancies.

Commerce.

A small informal conference with a few representatives of commercial interests in Bombay was held regarding secondary commercial education; it is proposed to institute a special examination open to students who have attended a school recognised for the purpose at a stage corresponding to the Matriculation. The popularity of the Sydenham College of Commerce, Bombay, continues; only one-fourth of the applicants were able to be admitted. Proposals are under consideration to utilise it for the training of Railway traffic officers. The usual examination for the certificate granted by the Accountancy Diploma Board—a certificate that is accepted as a qualification for auditors throughout India—was held at Allahabad, Bombay, Calcutta, Madras and Rangoon. Fifty-five out of 242 candidates were successful, none of whom sat at Calcutta. The committee appointed by the Government of Bengal to draw up a scheme for instituting a separate examination in Accountancy in Bengal under the control of the Government Commercial Institute submitted a report which is under consideration. The question of the deprovincialisation of this Institute, a recommendation of the Retrenchment Committee, was also examined but no decision was reached. In place of the Government Institute of Commerce which is now closed a post Matriculation course in Commercial subjects was opened at the Central Model School, Lahore. Rangoon is well supplied with commercial schools but Burmah reports that adver-

tisements published with a view to attract students were not always strictly accurate.

At the Agricultural College, Lyallpur, the tutorial system was introduced, and a pasteurising plant has been installed in the college dairy. It is gratifying to note that inquiries from private farmers and from firms for the services of graduates in Agriculture are increasing. The number of middle schools in the Punjab teaching agriculture shows an increase from 43 to 60 an increase which is attributed to the present policy of the Punjab Government. The main features of that policy are—payment by Government of the teachers' allowance of Rs. 10 per mensem in board middle schools, permission to have small school gardens instead of three acre farms, contribution by Government of Rs. 100 per annum towards the cost of a three-acre farm and of Rs. 30 per annum towards that of a school garden, as well as an initial grant of Rs. 300 for each garden. The teaching of agriculture in high school centres is improving, but some doubt is cast on its practical value.

The new buildings at Matunga of the V. J. Technical Institute Bombay were opened; the cost was Rs. seventeen lakhs towards which Government gave a grant of Rs. 6·80 lakhs. The whole of the dismantling of the plant at Byculla and its re-erection at Matunga was done by the staff and students, a very creditable performance. The great weakness of nearly all technical schools in Bombay is reported to be the pooriness of the staff due largely to the low salaries offered. In order to remove defects in the teaching of industrial subjects a training class for teachers in the Punjab was suggested. In Madras a scheme for the training of higher elementary grade teachers in modern methods of weaving was sanctioned during the year. In the Government Technical Institute, Insein, (Burma) a revised scheme for training stipendiary apprentices in workshops was introduced, while the senior staff was strengthened in order that more advanced teaching might be provided in accordance with the recommendations of a committee appointed in 1921 to investigate the affairs of the Institute. It is observed that the Saunders Weaving Institute, Amarapura, Burmah, exhibited Rs. 4,000 worth of silks and cottons at Wembley. Bihar and Orissa report that a silk institute was opened during the year at Bhagalpur, that schemes for a cottage industries institute at Gulzarbagh and the Tirhut Technical Institute, Muzaffarpur were sanctioned and that the Jamshedpur Technical Institute has not yet been fully organised, since its buildings were not completed and a Principal appointed.

The Sir J. J. School of Art, Bombay, was largely occupied with work for the Wembley Exhibition, the painting classes being responsible for decorating the ceiling panels, painting the friezes and the production of large mural paintings for the walls. Bengal reports that the control of the Government School of Art, Calcutta was retransferred to the Education Department. The architectural section was responsible for a design for the Mrs. Graham Memorial Entrance at Kalimpong and the design section for a certificate for the Calcutta Exhibition.

## X. EDUCATION OF SPECIAL CLASSES.

(i) Chiefs' Colleges and the education of chiefs and nobles.

A conference of the principals of the five Chiefs' Colleges in India was held at Ajmer in February. Such conferences should prove of great value in the inspiration that is to be derived when teachers and principals from different institutions meet together compare notes, consider the application to their own institutions of principles and policies adopted in other institutions, discuss their common difficulties and co-operate in their endeavours to solve them. The financial stability of the different colleges varies greatly. The Rajkumar College, Raipur, has established an endowment fund which has placed the college in a strong financial position—stronger indeed than when it received financial aid from Government. As regards its financial prospects, the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, is also in an enviable position, due to the sustained interest in its welfare taken by its old boys, so many of whom are Ruling Chiefs. The financial position of the Mayo College, Ajmer, has improved since last year; the budget has now been made to balance and the college authorities expect to have a small amount in hand each year to carry out necessary improvements. The financial position of the Aitchison College, Lahore, on the other hand, continues to give cause for anxiety. Grants have been curtailed, while owing to a decrease in the number of Kumars reading in the college the income from fees has fallen considerably. The timely assistance given by several ruling princes has, however, compensated for the reduction in the Government of India grant. A revised constitution has been prepared for the Daly College, Indore, its main object being to associate ruling chiefs more directly in the control of the College by means of a General Council and a working committee, the control formerly exercised by Government being almost completely delegated, entailing increased responsibility on the part of the electors of the General Council for adequate development of the College.

There is little to report regarding the Colvin Taluqdars' School, Lucknow. Its enrolment was 78 and its staff remained unchanged. An annual medical examination of all wards studying in the school is now held. During the September floods the school was completely isolated for eleven days and non-resident masters and day boys were unable to attend. During the year under review 26 boys of the Nazamat family, Murshidabad, who lived in a special hostel under the supervision of a European officer, attended the Nawab Bahadur's institution at Murshidabad which is also open as an ordinary high school to all communities.

(ii) European education.

The number of schools for Europeans showed a slight decrease chiefly in the number of primary schools for girls. The number of pupils, however, increased slightly chiefly in middle schools for girls. Bombay reports, however, a decrease and fears that such decrease is likely to continue.

Expenditure on European schools increased by nearly 1·4 lakhs of rupees in institutions for boys. It decreased by less than a quarter of a lakh of rupees in institutions for girls while a decrease



of three lakhs is shown on inspection, buildings and miscellaneous items. Collections from fees as well as expenditure from Government funds have, however, both increased. A special grant of Rs. 30,000 was paid to the La Martiniere School in Calcutta for liquidation of debt.

In Bengal persistent endeavours were made to persuade the three religious bodies who have particularly interested themselves in European education in the province to adopt a definite policy of co-ordination in the absence of which the work hitherto done by European schools has suffered considerably. In Bombay an event of great importance in the history of European education was the laying of the Foundation Stone of the great hall of the Bombay Education Society's high schools for boys and girls at Deolali. These schools, known as the Barnes schools, stand 2,000 feet above sea level and are designed to accommodate 600 girls and boys. The policy of concentration of educational effort with its resulting economy has been well served by this scheme for not only has the old Indo-British Institution been already amalgamated with these schools but also plans have been discussed for absorbing the Scottish Orphanage at Mahim. These schools will attract pupils of certain Railway middle schools thus enabling the Railway Company to concentrate their efforts on maintaining efficient infant and primary schools thus affecting a considerable saving on staff. Bihar and Orissa report that considerable progress has been made with the construction of buildings for a Boys' European school at Ranchi which will provide facilities for the education at a moderate charge in a good climate of many of the European and Anglo-Indian children who are now sent to hill schools in other provinces. The Punjab reports the revival of an old custom in the holding of an informal conference of such representatives of European schools as happen to be in Lahore during the winter—a conference where a great deal of useful work was done in the matter of suggestions for improvement of curriculum and subjects of examination.

There is a large and ever increasing demand made on managers of European schools to admit Indians—a demand which is being met in practically every province in India the former restriction limiting to 15 per cent. of the total enrolment the number of Indians admitted having been modified. The eagerness with which well-to-do Indians apply for the admission of their children to European schools is a testimony to the value of the teaching and discipline in these schools. Burma reports that in Rangoon the percentage of non-Europeans in schools for Europeans was as high as 28 and would be much higher if facilities existed for handling the large numbers of pupils that desired a purely English education. This demand was largely due to the prominence given to the vernacular language being used as the medium of instruction in Anglo-Vernacular schools up to the end of the Middle school stage; parents fear that English will thus be neglected. This province also reports that the increasing demand of non-European students for admission into European schools has resulted in some lowering of standard. Bombay reports a much larger number of European pupils in Eng-

lish teaching and Anglo-Vernacular schools, the possibility being thrown out that parents are finding it more difficult to meet the comparatively high fees in European schools, some being compelled to send their children to "English teaching" schools in which the fees are lower. The Central Provinces refer to the great amount of destitution prevailing in the Anglo-Indian Community in the years following the war, while Bombay reports considerable apprehension among the domiciled European community regarding the prospects of employment for their children in the near future.

The Central Provinces remark upon one of the weaknesses of European education namely the lack of qualified teachers. Although salaries have been increased there is little improvement in the qualifications of the staffs employed; and teachers after leaving the training colleges seldom keep abreast of modern pedagogic developments. The necessity for additional training facilities for European teachers has received the attention of some governments. In Madras a training school for women teachers in European schools has been started at Lovedale associated with the Lawrence Military School in that place. The Chelmsford Training College was transferred from Sanawar to Ghoragali, considerable economy being achieved by the transfer together with a strengthening of the staff of the Boys School at Ghoragali.

Burma expresses a fear that there has been an unconscious lowering of standards by examiners or by the Secondary School Board, examiners' reports being in general increasingly unfavourable. The high school examination of European schools has been recognised by the Board of High School and Intermediate Education in the United Provinces as equivalent to the Board's high school examination. In Bombay European schools prepare their pupils almost exclusively for the Cambridge Local Examinations. During the year the Cambridge Higher Local Examination was abolished and the Oxford Higher Local Examination took its place, all the candidates appearing from Bombay for this examination being successful.

Since the advent of the Reforms, which made European education a provincial subject, provinces have been considering the adaptation, to suit the conditions of their own provinces, of the code of regulations for European schools which was formerly an all-India code. A new code was issued in the United Provinces during the year while Bengal reports that a new code is under preparation. The Central Provinces remark upon the neglect of the vernaculars in European schools—a matter which is now being considered by the European High School Board in that province.

Very successful singing competitions have been organised in various European centres in India, particularly in Madras and in Bengal. Their success gave evidence of the high standard of excellence in singing in many European schools.

As will be observed from the subjoined table the total number of Mohammedans receiving education shows a satisfactory increase, the percentage increase in collegiate classes being greater than that

in school classes. The community is making strenuous endeavours to place itself on a footing of equality in higher education with other educationally more advanced communities.

Type of Institution.	NO. OF MUHAMMADAN SCHOLARS.		
	1922.	1923.	1924.
Arts Colleges . . . . .	5,424	5,715	6,472
Professional Colleges . . . . .	1,544	1,505	1,724
Secondary and Primary Schools . . . . .	1,710,910	1,828,481	1,951,805
Special Schools . . . . .	42,083	70,576	88,397
Unrecognised Institutions . . . . .	206,481	199,493	210,253
TOTAL . . . . .	1,966,442	2,105,770	2,258,651
Percentage to Population . . . . .	3.3	3.6	3.8

It will be further observed by reference to table IV A, that while less than 4 per cent. of the total number of Hindu scholars are reading in unrecognised schools, nearly 10 per cent. of the total number of Mohammedan scholars are reading in unrecognised schools—generally in schools of the Mullah type where religious instruction and observance based on the teachings of the Koran form the whole or the greater part of the education imparted. The United Provinces report that while the number of the Hindus under instruction has increased by over six per cent., that of Mohammedans has increased by over nine per cent.; while in Arts and Intermediate colleges the increase of Mohammedans is nearly 39 per cent. Bihar and Orissa report a welcome increase in the number of Urdu Middle schools while training schools for Mohammedan teachers were, with one exception, full or nearly so. In Bombay, excluding Sindh, Mohammedans are more advanced in education than are non-Brahmin Hindus; they have made much more rapid progress in education, especially in collegiate and in primary education, than have the cultivating and artisan Hindu classes. In Sindh, however, Mohammedans are educationally backward. While the total number of Mohammedan pupils in Bengal has increased a slight decline is, however, noticed in the high and middle stages in that province; the greatest increase has taken place in the primary stage of instruction and in special schools, the increase being due to the growing popularity of maktabas and reformed madrassas; the senior and junior madrassas of the reformed type are more in demand than are those of the orthodox type, the reformed type being really high and middle schools on an Islamic basis. Over 42 per cent. of the Muslim boys at school in Bengal receive instruction in maktabas

which, by reason of their secularised course, form an important link between the indigenous schools on the one hand and the secondary schools on the other. The Punjab reports that the last few years witnessed among Mohammedans a wholesome discontent with their position in the field of education and a keen desire among the leaders of the community to improve this position. A new spirit has been manifested in the greater activity by Anjumans and other bodies and by special efforts in connection with the annual Mohammedan Educational Conference.

It is gratifying to note the spread of education among trans-Frontier tribes; 48 boys from the North West Frontier agencies are reported to be reading at the Islamia College or Collegiate School. These include seven Mahsuds from Wana, two Waziries from the Tochi Valley, two Turis from the Kurram, fifteen Afridis from the Khyber, nine boys from the Swat Valley, three boys from the territories of the Nawab of Dir, a contingent of ten from Chitral and one Arab from Mesopotamia.

Bombay reports that their policy of opening more central Urdu schools for boys continues. These schools serve as a recruiting ground for teachers in Urdu schools in which at the present time a comparatively large number of unqualified men are employed. Burma reports that unusual interest in education prevailed among the community with a demand for more middle schools with its supplementary demand for teachers who have undergone superior training. Bengal reports as a measure of economy the deprovincialisation of all model maktabas which are to be conducted in future on a grant-in-aid basis. Madras reports that a long established High School for Mohammedans maintained by a Missionary society has been given up, but that the Mohammedan Educational Association of South India has stepped in and supplied funds towards the cost of the maintenance of the school pending a transfer of management. The United Provinces report the appointment of special supervisors for the inspection of maktabas, the scheme being worked on an experimental basis on the success of which it is as yet too early to express an opinion. Bengal reports that the tuition fees in all Government Madrassas were increased while Assam reports that steps have been taken to institute a public examination at the end of the junior Madrassa stage.

One of the main practical difficulties which has to be contended with in the education of Mohammedans is that of the vernacular of instruction. Except in the case of the Mopillas who speak Malayalam, of the Mohammedans of Sind who speak Sindhi and of some other groups or classes of Mohammedans in various parts of India who also speak the vernacular of the area in which they reside, the majority of Mohammedans demand instruction through Urdu. This difficulty is specially referred to in the reports from the Central Provinces and from Burma. In the Central Provinces Marathi as a second language was made a compulsory subject of instruction in the Urdu Primary schools in Berar. The problem in Arakan, a part of Burma, is reported to be complicated by the fact that except in Sandoway where Mohammedans have adopted

Burmese language and customs, the mother tongue is often Bengali. Added to this there is a demand for teaching English in Mohammedan special schools and officers have viewed with some concern the growth of an educational system which leaves citizens of Burma unacquainted with Burmese and unable to follow the avenues of employment open to educated people in Burma. The difficulty of obtaining bilingual or rather tri-lingual teachers is a serious obstacle to the advance of Mohammedan education, and the conflicting claims of Burmese, Urdu, Bengali and English form a problem which Burma finds difficult to solve. There is moreover evidence of considerable difference of opinion in Arakan on the language problem within the community most interested: Meetings have been held at several centres to discuss it and their resolutions show that the economic necessity to learn Burmese is generally admitted except in a few localities but that Mohammedans everywhere cling to Urdu for religious and sentimental reasons. Where local educational authorities consider it inadvisable to insist on Burmese being taught in their vernacular schools the local Government is not prepared to insist upon it. They do, however, consider the teaching of Burmese in all Vernacular schools an end to be kept in view and attained as soon as practicable.

Bengal reports that manual instruction in weaving, tailoring, carpentry and smithy was given, though spasmodically, in some of the junior madrassas. The demand for technical instruction of this kind is on the wane with the subsistence of the non-co-operation movement and the realisation that instruction of this kind valuable as it may be in some cases as a part of general education has little vocational value at the school stage.

The education of Mopillas is still receiving attention from the Madras authorities. The special training school for Mopillas has been raised in status while a committee of five persons was appointed for the compilation of a text book in Malayalam containing selections from the Koran and the Kitabs suitable for use in schools. A report from the Laccadives contains the interesting observation that the attempts of a new teacher to teach the boys the rudiments of drill were regarded with some suspicion by the islanders as being the first step towards the carrying off of their children to some distant war.

In Sind the total number of Mohammedan pupils decreased, the decrease being due to a falling off in the number of Mulla schools and of private institutions. The scattered nature of the population in Sind is no doubt a serious obstacle in the way of the spread of education there but it is reported that indifference on the part of the Mohammedans themselves rather than the lack of facilities for education appears to be mainly responsible for their backward condition. The decrease in the number of registered schools is due to the fact that inefficient schools are gradually being weeded out, one result of which is that the standard of work done is steadily rising. Of late years there has been a steady rise in the quality of the secular education imparted in Mulla schools and these schools must play an important part in the spread of primary education

among the Mohammedans of Sind. The Government of Bombay appointed a committee consisting of Mohammedan officials and non-officials to enquire into the Mullah system and their position in the educational organisation and system of Bombay. During the last few years political troubles have been responsible for a distinct setback from which the province is, however, now recovering. The Khilafat agitation is said to have spent itself and some of the mullas who gave up the government grant are now applying for their schools to be registered again. It is interesting to note, that a contribution of one lakh of rupees towards Mohammedan education was made by a private benefactor to a boys madrasa. The awakening consciousness of the Mohammedan community to the value of Western education linked with their traditional belief in the intrinsic goodness of an education based upon religious instruction and observance, where it results in the grafting of Occidental methods of teaching—Critical and Scientific—on an already existing oriental indigenous system of education, gives hope of a resultant system, which will, it is thought by some, make for gradual, slow but sure and stable development, will retain the learning of the orient and not forming two widely separated educated groups—one distinctly occidental, the other decidedly oriental, will be the mainstay of the series of educational systems—recognised and unrecognised—of the country.

(iv) Reformatory Schools.

Bombay reports that weaknesses in the system of reformatory schools are that many of the boys after their discharge drift back to towns and villages and the majority do not follow the trades they have been taught. To keep in touch with boys after their discharge "after care" committees in various localities are needed the members of whom will keep an eye on them and help them in their difficulties. In the Reformatory School at Delhi an experiment was tried during the year of licensing a number of boys to a firm for training under careful supervision. The training was quite successful, but almost all the boys returned to their homes at the end of it, instead of continuing in employment.

## APPENDIX.

## General Educational Tables, 1923-24.

## INDEX.

	PAGE.
General Summary of Educational Institutions and Scholars . . . . .	52
General Summary of Expenditure on Education . . . . .	53
Explanations . . . . .	54
I. Classification of Educational Institutions . . . . .	55
II-A. Distribution of Scholars attending Educational Institutions for Males . . . . .	56
II-B. Distribution of Scholars attending Educational Institutions for Females . . . . .	58
III-A. Expenditure on Education for Males . . . . .	60
III-B. Expenditure on Education for Females . . . . .	63
IV-A. Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the General Educa- tion of Males . . . . .	66
IV-B. Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the General Edu- cation of Females . . . . .	67
V-A. Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the Vocational and Special Education of Males . . . . .	68
V-B. Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the Vocational and Special Education of Females . . . . .	69
VI. Teachers (Men and Women) . . . . .	70
VII. European Education . . . . .	71
VIII. Examination Results . . . . .	72





	TOTAL EXPENDITURE.			PERCENTAGE OF EXPENDITURE FROM				COST PER SCHOLAR TO				Total cost per scholar.
	1924	1923	Increase (+) or decrease (-).	Govt. funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Govt. funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.					Rs. AS. P.	Rs. AS. P.	Rs. AS. P.	Rs. AS. P.	Rs. A. P.
Direction and Inspection.	94,43,991	93,42,751	+1,00,640	97.3	2.7	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Universities . . . . .	77,59,557	67,79,360	+9,80,197	47.2	..	37.2	15.6	..	..	..	..	..
Miscellaneous* . . . . .	3,97,79,972	3,88,98,654	+13,81,318	40.2	12.0	15.7	32.1	..	..	..	..	..
TOTALS . . . . .	6,69,82,920	5,45,20,765	+24,62,155	50.6	8.8	16.0	24.6	..	..	..	..	..
<i>Institutions for Males</i>												
Arts Colleges . . . . .	96,96,965	96,98,130	+8,635	44.8	0.3	42.3	12.6	86 13 5	0 10 6	81 15 4	24 7 2	193 14 5
Professional Colleges . . . . .	55,31,275	53,77,513	+1,56,762	74.3	0.2	22.8	2.7	257 15 0	0 12 10	79 3 0	9 6 0	347 4 10
High Schools . . . . .	3,27,91,153	3,03,97,113	+23,94,040	32.9	2.2	51.2	13.7	16 4 10	1 1 7	25 5 3	6 12 4	49 8 0
Middle Schools . . . . .	1,48,60,274	1,43,25,303	+5,34,971	38.9	22.0	28.4	12.7	8 1 6	4 13 3	6 3 4	2 12 8	21 14 9
Primary Schools . . . . .	4,80,37,749	4,57,77,568	+22,60,196	55.0	25.7	9.8	9.5	4 4 10	2 0 3	0 12 3	0 11 11	7 13 3
Special Schools . . . . .	1,25,99,158	1,29,98,142	-3,98,984	70.0	5.0	7.3	17.7	42 8 4	3 1 1	4 6 9	10 12 5	60 12 8
TOTALS . . . . .	12,36,19,574	11,84,83,754	+50,35,820	48.7	13.8	25.8	11.7	7 12 0	2 3 3	4 1 11	1 14 1	15 15 8
<i>Institutions for Females</i>												
Arts Colleges . . . . .	4,09,731	3,54,215	+55,524	58.4	..	13.1	28.5	238 11 10	..	53 10 9	116 11 0	409 1 7
Professional Colleges . . . . .	2,10,772	1,89,282	+21,490	73.8	..	1.4	24.8	1,044 5 6	..	20 2 7	360 1 2	1,414 9 3
High Schools . . . . .	48,06,185	44,11,407	+3,94,778	45.9	1.6	31.6	20.9	51 9 8	1 12 1	35 8 7	23 8 2	112 6 1
Middle Schools . . . . .	29,30,785	28,14,923	+1,15,862	40.1	12.0	13.6	34.3	26 3 7	4 13 11	5 7 11	13 14 1	40 7 7
Primary Schools . . . . .	85,07,081	79,64,167	+5,42,114	41.4	37.3	3.9	17.4	4 4 11	3 14 0	0 6 5	1 13 0	10 6 5
Special Schools . . . . .	17,44,135	16,64,723	+79,412	69.5	2.4	4.4	23.7	120 3 6	4 1 3	7 10 7	41 0 1	172 15 4
TOTALS . . . . .	1,86,08,697	1,73,99,517	+12,09,180	45.8	19.0	12.7	21.0	9 0 5	3 13 8	2 8 2	4 5 2	19 11 5
GRAND TOTALS	19,91,11,191	19,04,94,036	+87,07,155	48.9	12.9	21.8	16.4	10 7 5	2 12 1	4 10 5	3 8 0	21 5 11

N.B.—For explanation of certain terms used in the tables please see overleaf.  
\* Includes expenditure on buildings.

55

56

## EXPLANATIONS.

1. *School Year*.—In these tables the school year is assumed to coincide with the financial year, i.e., to extend from April 1st of one year to March 31st of the next, though in actual practice some institutions, e.g., European schools, may close in December and others, e.g., colleges, in May.

2. *Recognised Institutions* are those in which the course of study followed is that which is prescribed or recognised by the Department of Public Instruction or by a University or a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education constituted by law and which satisfy one or more of these authorities, as the case may be, that they attain to a reasonable standard of efficiency. They are open to inspection and their pupils are ordinarily eligible for admission to public examinations and tests held by the Department or the University or the Board.

3. *Unrecognised Institutions* are those which do not come under the above definition of recognised institutions. They are for the most part indigenous institutions for education of a religious character.

4. *Other sources* include income from endowments, subscriptions, contributions, etc.

5. *Classification*.—In tables IV-A and IV-B, Class I represents the lowest class in the school, whether called infant class, substandard A or Class I. Where the number of school classes exceeds 10, the additional classes should be entered in the spaces left blank below X and numbered for the purposes of this table XI and XII.

6. *Intermediate colleges and examinations*.—An "Intermediate college" means an institution preparing students for admission to the degree courses of a University or for entrance into vocational colleges. The Intermediate examination means an examination qualifying for admission to a course of studies for a degree.

7. *European scholars* are included in the general summary and General Tables II A and B, IV-A and B, V-A and B, VIII and IX.

## I.—Classification of Educational Institutions.

	FOR MALES.					FOR FEMALES.						
	Government.	District Board.	Municipal Board.	Aided.	Un-aided.	Total.	Government.	District Board.	Municipal Board.	Aided.	Un-aided.	Total.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<b>RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>												
Universities . . . . .	..	..	..	13	..	13	..	..	..	..	..	..
Colleges :—												
Arts and Science*	23	1	..	65	13	107	2	..	..	5	1	6
Law . . . . .	5	..	..	2	4	11	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medicine . . . . .	6	..	..	1	..	7	..	..	..	..	..	..
Education . . . . .	14	..	..	1	..	15	3	..	..	1	..	1
Engineering . . . . .	5	..	..	1	..	6	..	..	..	3	1	7
Agriculture . . . . .	5	..	..	..	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commerce . . . . .	1	..	..	9	..	10	..	..	..	..	..	..
Forestry . . . . .	2	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Science . . . . .	3	..	..	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..
Intermediate and 2nd Grade Colleges.	17	..	1	42	12	72	3	..	..	5	..	8
<b>TOTALS .</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>121</b>	<b>29</b>	<b>238</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>24</b>
High Schools . . . . .	271	95	67	1,143	588	2,164	27	2	1	195	10	235
Middle English . . . . .	107	202	139	1,814	646	2,899	22	..	6	215	14	257
Girls' Vernacular . . . . .	33	2,011	75	1,264	28	3,433	71	14	55	248	3	391
Primary Schools . . . . .	1,737	44,568	3,273	81,801	13,551	144,430	392	3,858	1,200	15,345	2,790	23,583
<b>TOTALS .</b>	<b>2,170</b>	<b>46,876</b>	<b>3,545</b>	<b>85,522</b>	<b>14,813</b>	<b>152,926</b>	<b>512</b>	<b>3,872</b>	<b>1,261</b>	<b>16,003</b>	<b>2,817</b>	<b>24,466</b>
Special Schools :—												
Art . . . . .	5	..	..	3	1	9	..	..	..	..	..	..
Law . . . . .	2	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medical . . . . .	19	..	..	1	2	22	2	..	..	2	..	4
Normal and Training . . . . .	360	196	14	74	3	647	52	2	4	90	3	161
Engineering . . . . .	9	..	..	2	1	12	..	..	..	..	..	..
Mechanical and Industrial . . . . .	63	19	13	133	16	244	2	..	..	66	4	72
Commercial . . . . .	4	..	1	29	90	124	..	..	..	7	..	7
Agricultural . . . . .	8	..	1	1	4	14	..	..	..	1	..	1
Reformatory . . . . .	7	..	..	1	..	8	..	..	..	..	..	..
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	2	..	..	22	..	24	..	..	..	4	..	4
Schools for Adults . . . . .	10	929	84	1,106	585	2,806	..	2	..	8	..	10
Other Schools . . . . .	59	8	48	1,787	516	2,418	1	..	..	36	1	38
<b>TOTALS .</b>	<b>548</b>	<b>1,152</b>	<b>163</b>	<b>3,249</b>	<b>1,219</b>	<b>6,330</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>214</b>	<b>8</b>	<b>287</b>
<b>TOTALS FOR RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>2,604</b>	<b>48,029</b>	<b>3,709</b>	<b>88,892</b>	<b>16,060</b>	<b>159,494</b>	<b>577</b>	<b>3,876</b>	<b>1,266</b>	<b>16,231</b>	<b>2,827</b>	<b>24,777</b>
<b>UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>19</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>28,965</b>	<b>32,197</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>2,578</b>	<b>2,668</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS, ALL INSTITUTIONS</b>	<b>2,604</b>	<b>48,048</b>	<b>3,710</b>	<b>88,946</b>	<b>45,025</b>	<b>191,691</b>	<b>577</b>	<b>3,876</b>	<b>1,266</b>	<b>16,252</b>	<b>5,405</b>	<b>27,440</b>

\* Includes 3 Oriental Colleges.

## II-A.—Distribution of Scholars attending

	GOVERNMENT.			DISTRICT BOARD.			MUNICIPAL BOARD.		
	Scholars on roll on March 31st	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<b>READING—</b>									
<b>IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>									
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION (a).</b>									
Arts and Science (b) & (c)	12,037	10,073	4,095	71	68	67	57	54	11
Law	2,615	2,196	71	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medicine	3,001	2,949	671	..	..	..	..	..	..
Education	864	812	691	..	..	..	..	..	..
Engineering	1,150	1,024	909	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agriculture	567	526	513	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commerce	380	328	61	..	..	..	..	..	..
Forestry	157	155	105	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Science	292	262	282	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>21,063</b>	<b>18,825</b>	<b>7,398</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>67</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>54</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>SCHOOL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION.</b>									
In High Schools	91,026	79,190	11,993	28,976	26,179	1,457	24,005	21,149	655
" Middle (English)	14,753	13,088	974	26,477	21,588	1,935	20,233	17,244	1,119
" Schools (Vernacular)	4,106	4,672	860	271,454	208,375	23,038	11,336	9,429	462
" Primary Schools	74,616	57,646	105	2,510,359	1,833,382	1,692	356,152	262,944	51
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>166,501</b>	<b>154,697</b>	<b>13,932</b>	<b>2,837,266</b>	<b>2,090,524</b>	<b>28,122</b>	<b>411,726</b>	<b>310,766</b>	<b>2,317</b>
In Art Schools	1,479	1,221	113	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Law	124	85	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Medical Schools	4,524	4,070	1,212	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Normal and Training Schools.	16,361	14,989	10,578	1,903	1,825	1,290	138	132	72
" Engineering Schools	1,194	1,055	390	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Technical and Industrial Schools.	3,892	3,178	683	1,477	1,134	74	1,401	1,098	27
" Commercial schools	777	718	..	..	..	..	31	19	..
" Agricultural ..	207	183	128	..	..	..	20	17	..
" Reformatory ..	1,172	1,096	915	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Schools for Defectives	47	53	18	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Schools for Adults	395	359	..	23,725	18,868	..	3,141	2,058	..
" Other Schools	4,074	3,187	694	434	300	75	1,539	1,077	..
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>31,246</b>	<b>30,204</b>	<b>14,726</b>	<b>27,545</b>	<b>21,927</b>	<b>1,448</b>	<b>6,270</b>	<b>4,401</b>	<b>99</b>
<b>TOTALS FOR RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>241,810</b>	<b>203,126</b>	<b>36,056</b>	<b>2,864,882</b>	<b>2,112,519</b>	<b>29,637</b>	<b>418,053</b>	<b>315,221</b>	<b>2,427</b>
<b>IN UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>1,093</b>	<b>351</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>24</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS ALL INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>241,810</b>	<b>203,126</b>	<b>36,056</b>	<b>2,865,975</b>	<b>2,112,870</b>	<b>29,637</b>	<b>418,077</b>	<b>315,221</b>	<b>2,427</b>

(a) Scholars reading more than one of the following subjects should be entered under only one head.

(b) Includes 355 scholars also reading Law.

(c) Includes 328 scholars in Oriental Colleges, and 415 scholars in Benares Sanskrit College in the U. P.

**Educational Institutions for Males.**

AIDED.			UNAIDED.			Grand total of scholars on rolls.	Grand total of average attendance.	Grand total of residents in approved hostels.	Number of females included in column 16.
Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.				
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
38,808	28,182	11,491	11,304	9,422	2,609	57,277	47,799	18,273	463
3,256	2,977	861	1,356	1,120	364	7,227	6,293	1,296	..
872	671	459	..	..	..	3,873	3,829	1,130	128
127	121	37	..	..	..	991	933	728	11
336	327	253	..	..	..	1,486	1,351	1,162	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	567	526	513	..
950	725	286	..	..	..	1,330	1,053	347	4
12	12	12	..	..	..	169	167	117	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	292	262	282	..
<b>39,361</b>	<b>33,215</b>	<b>13,399</b>	<b>12,660</b>	<b>10,542</b>	<b>2,973</b>	<b>73,212</b>	<b>62,204</b>	<b>23,848</b>	<b>606</b>
355,103	305,297	33,076	134,842	104,840	6,697	633,952	536,655	53,908	6,511
177,239	142,166	10,952	50,736	59,017	2,171	289,478	234,103	17,151	5,361
98,014	95,706	3,368	1,594	1,293	165	388,504	319,476	27,893	32,192
2,849,811	2,292,050	11,839	346,649	272,695	175	6,137,587	4,718,717	13,862	476,816
<b>3,480,167</b>	<b>2,835,219</b>	<b>59,235</b>	<b>533,821</b>	<b>417,845</b>	<b>9,208</b>	<b>7,449,481</b>	<b>5,808,951</b>	<b>112,814</b>	<b>520,370</b>
203	166	..	29	16	..	1,711	1,403	113	34
..	..	..	..	..	..	124	97	..	..
84	70	..	153	107	24	4,761	4,247	1,236	108
2,871	2,677	1,453	53	48	52	21,332	19,671	13,454	274
26	15	21	24	20	..	1,244	1,090	411	..
7,116	5,755	1,966	597	557	135	14,483	11,722	2,885	135
2,268	1,763	15	4,325	3,155	28	7,401	5,655	43	277
46	35	..	108	82	..	381	317	128	..
18	15	..	..	..	..	1,190	1,111	915	..
640	523	403	..	..	..	687	576	416	116
29,354	22,549	..	13,725	11,126	..	70,340	54,760	..	860
61,379	48,643	1,108	16,180	12,035	584	83,606	65,242	2,461	967
<b>104,005</b>	<b>82,211</b>	<b>4,966</b>	<b>35,194</b>	<b>27,146</b>	<b>823</b>	<b>207,260</b>	<b>165,689</b>	<b>22,062</b>	<b>2,271</b>
<b>3,623,533</b>	<b>2,950,645</b>	<b>77,600</b>	<b>581,675</b>	<b>455,533</b>	<b>13,004</b>	<b>7,729,953</b>	<b>6,037,044</b>	<b>158,794</b>	<b>523,247</b>
<b>2,677</b>	<b>1,824</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>493,648</b>	<b>246,932</b>	<b>85</b>	<b>585,236</b>	<b>324,952</b>	<b>1,058</b>	<b>32,152</b>
<b>3,626,210</b>	<b>2,952,469</b>	<b>77,600</b>	<b>1,075,323</b>	<b>702,465</b>	<b>13,089</b>	<b>8,315,188</b>	<b>6,361,996</b>	<b>159,782</b>	<b>555,899</b>

## II-B.—Distribution of Scholars attending

	GOVERNMENT.			DISTRICT BOARD.			MUNICIPAL BOARD.		
	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<b>READING—</b>									
<b>IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>									
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION (2).</b>									
Arts and Science (b) . . . . .	444	421	260	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medicine . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Education . . . . .	48	42	41	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>487</b>	<b>463</b>	<b>301</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>
<b>SCHOOL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION.</b>									
In High Schools . . . . .	5,700	4,548	887	287	260	..	174	52	..
„ Middle Schools. { English . . . . .	2,864	2,061	194	..	..	..	590	437	..
„ Vernacular . . . . .	7,612	5,084	112	876	636	56	7,106	5,451	11
„ Primary Schools . . . . .	24,265	18,725	2	175,141	125,717	21	103,173	70,159	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>40,441</b>	<b>28,418</b>	<b>1,195</b>	<b>176,304</b>	<b>126,613</b>	<b>77</b>	<b>111,043</b>	<b>76,099</b>	<b>11</b>
In Medical Schools . . . . .	70	76	57	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ Normal and Training Schools. . . . .	1,834	1,723	966	28	28	28	33	27	..
„ Technical and Industrial Schools. . . . .	21	17	10	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ Commercial Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ Agricultural Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ Schools for Adults . . . . .	..	..	..	16	14	..	..	..	..
„ Other Schools . . . . .	29	26	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>1,963</b>	<b>1,842</b>	<b>1,033</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>42</b>	<b>28</b>	<b>33</b>	<b>27</b>	<b>..</b>
<b>TOTALS FOR RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>42,891</b>	<b>30,723</b>	<b>2,529</b>	<b>176,348</b>	<b>126,655</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>111,076</b>	<b>76,126</b>	<b>11</b>
<b>IN UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>GRAND TOTALS ALL INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>42,891</b>	<b>30,723</b>	<b>2,529</b>	<b>176,348</b>	<b>126,655</b>	<b>105</b>	<b>111,076</b>	<b>76,126</b>	<b>11</b>

(a) Scholars reading more than one of the following subjects should be entered under only one head,  
 (b) Includes all scholars in Oriental Colleges.

## Educational Institutions for Females.

AIDED.			UNAIDED.			Grand total of scholars on rolls.	Grand total of average attendance.	Grand total of residents in approved hostels.	Number of males included in column 16.
Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.				
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
690	627	415	25	22	12	1,159	1,070	667	..
58	51	58	..	..	..	58	51	58	..
48	53	40	..	..	..	91	95	81	..
796	731	513	25	22	12	1,308	1,216	826	..
34,788	30,046	11,304	1,246	1,002	373	42,195	35,908	12,564	4,536
24,955	21,066	7,583	971	748	268	29,380	24,312	8,045	3,720
37,225	22,690	2,778	217	187	145	43,036	34,048	3,102	4,464
456,445	355,365	9,218	59,023	45,352	243	818,047	613,313	9,484	29,549
543,413	429,167	30,383	61,457	47,289	1,029	932,658	707,586	33,195	42,269
165	156	..	..	..	..	244	232	57	..
2,278	2,103	1,387	26	23	26	4,199	3,904	2,407	7
2,666	2,245	971	90	72	15	2,777	2,384	996	48
227	160	75	..	..	..	227	160	75	..
51	48	..	..	..	..	51	48	..	..
597	421	15	..	..	..	613	435	15	..
1,938	1,511	275	6	7	..	1,973	1,544	275	226
7,922	6,644	2,723	122	102	41	10,084	8,657	3,325	291
662,131	486,542	34,119	61,604	47,413	1,082	944,050	717,459	37,846	42,560
2,406	1,939	..	52,820	6,812	..	57,416	10,585	..	6,255
554,537	438,481	34,119	114,424	54,225	1,082	1,001,466	728,044	37,846	47,605

### III-A.—Expenditure on Education for Males.

Expenditure on Buildings includes, Rs. 41,34,994 spent by the Public Works Department on educational buildings.

"Miscellaneous" includes the following main items:—

Scholarships, Hostel charges and other contingent charges.

	GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.					DISTRICT BOARD AND MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.						
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>												
Universities . . . . .												
Arts Colleges . . . . .	27,94,310		2,580	9,58,860	34,561	37,90,111					9,908	9,908
Professional Colleges:—												
Law . . . . .	11,171			1,79,521	90	1,90,782						
Medicine . . . . .	13,51,219			4,92,81	8,795	18,50,840						
Education . . . . .	8,32,394			320	4,182	8,50,896						
Engineering . . . . .	8,01,275			1,18,712	1,20,869	10,40,856						
Agriculture . . . . .	3,00,204			10,471	488	3,11,163						
Commerce . . . . .	26,140			59,030		85,170						
Forestry . . . . .	2,69,543					2,69,543						
Veterinary Science . . . . .	3,97,281			16,922		4,14,203						
Intermediate Colleges . . . . .	6,54,978			2,24,940	8,860	8,86,768	4,000			4,848	24	8,872
<b>TOTALS</b>	74,58,506		2,580	20,61,457	1,75,835	96,98,378	4,000			4,848	9,932	18,780
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>												
<i>General.</i>												
High Schools . . . . .	46,54,142	309	9,726	24,41,520	27,971	71,93,668	4,77,908	2,69,373	2,05,944	12,52,852	28,107	22,34,184
Middle Schools—												
English . . . . .	6,92,131	3,100		2,63,578	1,504	9,60,313	5,80,652	2,02,996	2,48,907	5,52,192	17,860	16,02,607
Vernacular . . . . .	1,61,350			4,124		1,68,474	23,73,992	14,22,657	1,70,073	5,61,571	46,493	46,14,786
Primary Schools . . . . .	8,65,486	16,788	5,000	15,455	12,486	9,15,213	2,11,76,275	54,79,738	38,40,168	9,58,049	1,75,251	3,11,30,021
<b>TOTALS</b>	63,79,109	20,195	14,726	27,24,677	41,961	91,77,668	2,46,98,227	73,74,764	39,65,032	32,65,264	2,67,711	3,94,60,998
<i>Special.</i>												
Art Schools . . . . .	3,95,488			14,634	3,462	4,13,564						
Law Schools . . . . .				8,358		8,358						
Medical Schools . . . . .	12,18,376	2,754		2,08,581	15,347	14,43,668						
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	31,46,230	74,308	14,715	12,822	9,874	32,57,949	3,55,958	78,081	16,097		31	4,50,167
Engineering Schools . . . . .	5,24,083			54,849	10,213	5,90,045						
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	10,13,609	10,272	425	23,716	77,013	11,25,125	66,216	71,364	56,348	8,285	26,349	2,28,562
Commercial Schools . . . . .	51,298			41,153	1,647	94,093			766	442		1,208
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	71,544	216		1,800	1,404	74,964	1,659					1,659
Reformatory Schools . . . . .	2,92,371				19,443	3,11,814						
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	24,056			36	29	24,121						
Schools for Adults . . . . .	498				498	498	9,232	8,780	1,07,719	1,306	720	1,27,718
Other Schools . . . . .	3,83,276	2,354	3,240	25,978	4,967	4,19,816	13,242	4,452	8,483	158	6,945	38,280
<b>TOTALS</b>	71,21,824	80,904	18,880	3,89,927	1,43,399	77,63,434	4,16,807	1,62,627	1,89,413	10,193	34,054	8,42,594
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>	2,09,56,439	1,10,093	35,686	51,76,061	3,61,195	2,66,39,480	2,50,58,534	75,37,391	41,54,445	32,80,305	3,11,697	4,03,42,372



**III-A.--Expenditure on Education for Males--contd.**

	AIDED INSTITUTIONS.					RECOGNISED UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS.			
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.
	12	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTER-MEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>									
Universities . . . . .	35,41,894	..	1,400	27,02,155	11,52,212	73,97,661	..	..	..
Arts Colleges . . . . .	10,98,006	12,125	19,977	21,54,525	7,63,261	40,47,893	7,89,175	1,45,599	9,34,774
Professional Colleges—									
Law . . . . .	30,000	..	..	1,68,811	..	1,98,811	94,919	..	94,919
Medicine . . . . .	20,000	..	..	76,950	7,500	1,04,460	..	..	..
Education . . . . .	17,384	..	..	..	..	17,384	..	..	..
Engineering . . . . .	10,877	..	12,750	27,111	..	40,788	..	..	..
Agriculture . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commerce . . . . .	22,750	..	..	16,222	9,502	48,474	..	..	..
Forestry . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Science . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Intermediate Colleges . . . . .	3,92,422	..	2,000	5,02,409	3,40,362	12,38,093	59,809	1,27,855	1,87,755
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>61,33,332</b>	<b>12,125</b>	<b>37,027</b>	<b>56,44,183</b>	<b>22,72,887</b>	<b>1,31,03,504</b>	<b>9,48,993</b>	<b>2,73,455</b>	<b>12,17,448</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>									
<i>General.</i>									
High Schools . . . . .	51,94,523	65,020	1,46,000	90,56,582	32,05,417	1,76,67,611	35,06,865	10,40,116	43,46,481
Middle Schools—									
English . . . . .	16,07,262	2,45,185	66,544	23,02,209	12,79,219	55,04,419	4,97,205	4,33,189	9,30,394
Vernacular . . . . .	64,638	7,20,802	1,92,915	84,972	96,681	11,60,068	4,223	19,660	23,813
Primary Schools . . . . .	43,69,548	29,29,926	5,86,330	32,10,160	39,39,471	1,51,16,435	4,44,171	4,32,909	8,77,930
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>1,12,36,071</b>	<b>39,61,002</b>	<b>9,91,849</b>	<b>1,47,33,923</b>	<b>85,20,788</b>	<b>3,96,43,683</b>	<b>42,51,964</b>	<b>19,25,804</b>	<b>61,77,768</b>
<i>Special</i>									
Art Schools . . . . .	24,055	420	900	2,116	12,997	40,428	226	1,876	2,102
Law Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	1,092	..	2,592	1,813	4,104	9,917
Medical Schools . . . . .	..	..	600	2,988	..	4,41,666	3,096	2,476	5,571
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	3,20,182	926	248	..	1,17,522	..	..	..	..
Engineering Schools . . . . .	2,510	..	..	31	1,220	3,761	4,270	..	4,270
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	4,02,638	13,029	32,141	81,920	10,07,948	15,37,670	3,105	32,178	35,283
Commercial Schools . . . . .	13,175	50	221	54,851	39,168	97,400	1,31,967	31,809	1,53,776
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	600	..	..	..	7,334	7,934	..	105	105
Reformatory Schools . . . . .	4,800	..	75	43	6,720	11,667	..	..	..
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	56,374	..	17,391	6,139	59,291	1,30,195	..	..	..
Schools for Adults . . . . .	47,008	15,987	6,037	12,807	38,781	1,21,165	2,112	7,534	9,646
Other Schools . . . . .	3,73,584	62,419	24,739	1,67,510	4,66,855	10,95,107	39,409	2,34,206	2,73,616
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>12,44,921</b>	<b>92,825</b>	<b>82,952</b>	<b>3,30,417</b>	<b>17,47,730</b>	<b>34,98,845</b>	<b>1,85,298</b>	<b>3,08,287</b>	<b>4,94,285</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>	<b>1,76,14,224</b>	<b>40,65,952</b>	<b>11,11,828</b>	<b>2,07,12,623</b>	<b>1,26,41,365</b>	<b>5,60,45,882</b>	<b>63,81,955</b>	<b>25,07,546</b>	<b>78,99,501</b>

51

60

## III-A.—Expenditure on Education for Males—concl'd.

	TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM					
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	GRAND TOTALS.
	22	23	24	25	26	27
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Direction . . . . .	13,78,839	..	..	..	215	13,79,054
Inspection . . . . .	71,40,723	1,90,944	50,192	..	1,834	73,83,693
Buildings, etc. . . . .	82,02,105	22,15,968	6,14,632	3,42,226	45,27,625	1,59,62,556
Miscellaneous . . . . .	54,38,162	13,72,289	3,44,171	40,47,069	44,29,627	1,56,31,308
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>2,21,59,829</b>	<b>37,79,201</b>	<b>10,08,995</b>	<b>43,89,285</b>	<b>90,19,301</b>	<b>4,03,56,611</b>
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>						
Universities . . . . .	36,59,461	..	1,400	28,35,650	12,13,046	77,59,557
Arts Colleges . . . . .	89,19,217	12,125	22,557	39,02,300	9,26,427	87,82,686
Professional Colleges:—						
Law . . . . .	41,171	..	..	4,43,251	90	4,84,512
Medicine . . . . .	13,71,210	..	..	5,69,831	14,295	19,55,336
Education . . . . .	8,69,773	..	..	320	4,182	8,74,280
Engineering . . . . .	8,12,152	..	12,750	1,45,823	1,29,869	10,91,594
Agriculture . . . . .	3,00,201	..	..	10,471	488	3,11,163
Commerce . . . . .	48,890	..	..	75,252	9,502	1,33,644
Forestry . . . . .	2,69,543	..	..	..	..	2,69,543
Veterinary Science . . . . .	3,97,281	..	..	16,922	..	4,14,203
Intermediate Colleges . . . . .	10,54,527	..	2,900	7,92,096	4,73,965	28,23,488
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>1,27,43,434</b>	<b>12,125</b>	<b>39,607</b>	<b>88,41,976</b>	<b>27,62,364</b>	<b>2,44,00,006</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>						
<i>General.</i>						
High Schools . . . . .	1,03,36,378	3,35,545	3,61,730	1,60,57,319	42,90,972	3,13,81,944
Middle Schools—						
English . . . . .	28,82,373	4,51,281	3,15,451	36,15,184	17,28,844	89,93,133
Vernacular . . . . .	26,02,980	21,43,519	3,62,988	5,94,890	1,62,764	58,67,141
Primary Schools . . . . .	2,64,11,309	84,26,450	39,31,438	47,08,435	45,60,117	4,80,37,749
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>4,22,33,040</b>	<b>1,13,56,795</b>	<b>49,71,607</b>	<b>2,49,75,828</b>	<b>1,07,42,697</b>	<b>9,42,79,967</b>
<i>Special.</i>						
Art Schools . . . . .	4,19,543	420	900	16,976	18,375	4,56,114
Law Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	8,358	..	8,358
Medical Schools . . . . .	12,16,386	2,754	600	2,10,336	23,451	14,55,577
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	38,22,370	1,53,315	31,060	18,906	1,29,002	41,55,533
Engineering Schools . . . . .	5,27,493	..	..	59,150	11,433	5,98,076
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	14,82,553	94,659	88,914	1,17,026	11,43,488	2,26,640
Commercial Schools . . . . .	44,468	50	987	2,28,413	52,619	3,48,537
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	73,603	216	..	1,300	8,843	84,662
Reformatory Schools . . . . .	2,97,171	..	75	63	26,172	3,23,461
Schools for Deaf-mutes . . . . .	80,430	..	17,391	6,176	59,320	1,63,316
Schools for Adults . . . . .	58,733	24,717	1,14,356	16,227	46,994	2,59,027
Other Schools . . . . .	7,70,102	69,225	36,462	2,33,055	7,12,973	18,21,817
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>88,13,052</b>	<b>3,45,356</b>	<b>2,90,745</b>	<b>9,16,535</b>	<b>22,33,470</b>	<b>1,25,99,158</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>	<b>8,59,49,355</b>	<b>1,54,93,477</b>	<b>63,10,954</b>	<b>3,91,23,624</b>	<b>2,47,58,322</b>	<b>17,16,35,742</b>

GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.

DISTRICT BOARD AND MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.

	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>												
Arts Colleges	1,14,909	..	..	20,774	109	1,35,792	..	..	..	..	..	..
Professional Colleges— Medicine Education	28,854	..	..	..	..	28,854	..	..	..	..	..	..
Intermediate Colleges	43,115	..	..	4,201	..	47,316	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>1,86,878</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>24,975</b>	<b>109</b>	<b>2,11,962</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>												
<i>General.</i>												
High Schools	5,77,263	..	..	99,759	884	6,77,906	..	15,934	19,284	2,289	1,700	38,347
Middle Schools— English Vernacular	2,11,600	..	..	15,185	1,095	2,27,860	10,955	..	19,424	1,796	537	32,712
Primary Schools	1,33,525	..	..	1,439	23	1,34,987	36,964	14,024	1,31,382	2,787	15	1,85,172
	4,28,557	301	10	2,184	1,086	4,32,228	19,58,211	7,07,009	16,30,101	22,635	13,525	43,26,451
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>13,50,945</b>	<b>391</b>	<b>10</b>	<b>1,18,547</b>	<b>3,038</b>	<b>14,72,981</b>	<b>20,01,130</b>	<b>7,36,067</b>	<b>18,00,171</b>	<b>29,507</b>	<b>15,837</b>	<b>45,82,712</b>
<i>Special.</i>												
Medical Schools	58,256	..	..	..	..	58,256	..	..	..	..	..	..
Normal and Training Schools	6,58,519	9,846	7,840	326	3,711	6,80,242	7,325	52	4,062	..	..	11,439
Technical and In- dustrial Schools	5,307	..	..	..	..	5,307	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commercial Schools	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agricultural Schools	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Schools for Adults	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Other Schools	9,290	..	..	..	..	9,290	..	193	..	..	37	..
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>7,31,372</b>	<b>9,846</b>	<b>7,840</b>	<b>326</b>	<b>3,711</b>	<b>7,53,095</b>	<b>7,325</b>	<b>245</b>	<b>4,062</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>37</b>	<b>11,660</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR FEMALS.</b>	<b>22,69,195</b>	<b>10,237</b>	<b>7,850</b>	<b>1,43,848</b>	<b>6,908</b>	<b>24,38,038</b>	<b>20,08,455</b>	<b>7,80,312</b>	<b>18,04,233</b>	<b>29,507</b>	<b>15,874</b>	<b>45,94,381</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR M. LRS.</b>	<b>2,09,56,439</b>	<b>1,10,099</b>	<b>35,086</b>	<b>51,76,061</b>	<b>3,61,195</b>	<b>2,66,39,480</b>	<b>2,50,58,534</b>	<b>75,37,391</b>	<b>41,54,445</b>	<b>32,80,305</b>	<b>3,11,697</b>	<b>4,03,42,372</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR ALL.</b>	<b>2,32,25,634</b>	<b>1,20,336</b>	<b>43,536</b>	<b>53,19,909</b>	<b>3,68,103</b>	<b>2,90,77,518</b>	<b>2,70,66,989</b>	<b>82,73,703</b>	<b>59,58,678</b>	<b>33,09,812</b>	<b>3,27,571</b>	<b>4,49,36,753</b>

**III-B.—Expenditure on Education for Females—contd.**

	AIDED INSTITUTIONS.					RECOGNISED UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS.				
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	
	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTER-MEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>										
Arts Colleges . . . . .	56,848	..	..	21,857	1,01,888	1,80,088	2,940	5,880	8,270	
Professional Colleges . . . . .	1,01,001	..	..	..	33,258	1,33,258	..	..	..	
Medicine . . . . .	26,753	..	..	3,004	18,903	48,660	..	..	..	
Education . . . . .	59,825	..	..	12,936	29,918	1,02,677	..	..	..	
Intermediate Colleges . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>2,48,424</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>37,297</b>	<b>1,83,960</b>	<b>4,64,683</b>	<b>2,940</b>	<b>5,880</b>	<b>8,270</b>	
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>										
<i>General.</i>										
High Schools . . . . .	15,99,068	5,800	34,020	13,37,124	9,08,270	38,84,282	60,186	81,000	1,41,246	
Middle Schools—										
English . . . . .	6,54,544	3,793	18,816	3,53,133	7,20,039	17,50,628	2,349	22,412	24,761	
Vernacular . . . . .	1,27,421	67,775	97,765	20,822	2,44,940	5,68,528	..	16,137	14,137	
Primary Schools . . . . .	11,42,217	5,70,631	2,62,164	2,94,064	13,73,797	36,42,863	9,565	95,944	1,05,509	
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>35,28,216</b>	<b>6,47,902</b>	<b>4,12,745</b>	<b>20,05,443</b>	<b>32,47,046</b>	<b>98,36,301</b>	<b>72,100</b>	<b>2,15,553</b>	<b>2,87,658</b>	
<i>Special.</i>										
Medical Schools . . . . .	58,800	550	..	15,950	30,868	1,01,163	..	..	..	
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	3,20,816	1,339	7,307	23,331	1,56,368	6,11,161	303	5,698	6,001	
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	49,347	4,464	1,070	9,247	1,40,722	2,04,850	1,200	5,579	6,779	
Commercial Schools . . . . .	6,516	..	..	16,487	1,894	24,947	..	..	..	
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	380	..	..	..	..	360	..	..	..	
Schools for Adults . . . . .	10,979	28	1,423	6,811	15,780	36,021	..	..	..	
Other Schools . . . . .	31,722	..	2,885	3,663	50,559	88,879	10	300	310	
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>4,73,540</b>	<b>6,391</b>	<b>12,785</b>	<b>75,439</b>	<b>3,98,166</b>	<b>9,66,231</b>	<b>1,513</b>	<b>11,577</b>	<b>13,090</b>	
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR FEMALES.</b>	<b>42,40,211</b>	<b>6,54,183</b>	<b>4,25,500</b>	<b>21,18,179</b>	<b>38,29,192</b>	<b>1,12,67,265</b>	<b>76,552</b>	<b>2,32,460</b>	<b>3,09,013</b>	
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR MALES.</b>	<b>1,76,14,224</b>	<b>40,65,952</b>	<b>11,11,828</b>	<b>2,07,12,523</b>	<b>1,25,41,355</b>	<b>5,60,45,882</b>	<b>53,81,955</b>	<b>25,07,546</b>	<b>78,89,501</b>	
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR ALL.</b>	<b>2,18,54,435</b>	<b>47,20,135</b>	<b>15,37,328</b>	<b>2,88,30,702</b>	<b>1,63,70,547</b>	<b>6,73,13,147</b>	<b>54,58,508</b>	<b>27,40,006</b>	<b>81,98,514</b>	

## III-B.—Expenditure on Education for Females—concd.

	TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM					
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	GRAND TOTALS.
	22	23	24	25	26	27
Inspection . . . . .	6,64,515	5,064	10,530	..	535	6,80,644
Buildings, etc. . . . .	11,49,030	75,891	52,964	1,37,568	19,73,490	33,88,843
Miscellaneous . . . . .	11,93,636	53,770	42,266	17,25,021	17,82,572	47,97,265
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>20,07,181</b>	<b>1,34,725</b>	<b>1,05,600</b>	<b>18,62,589</b>	<b>37,56,597</b>	<b>88,66,752</b>
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>						
Arts Colleges . . . . .	1,73,757	..	..	45,071	1,05,322	3,24,150
Professional Colleges : Medicine . . . . .	1,00,000	..	..	..	33,258	1,33,258
Education . . . . .	55,607	..	..	3,004	18,903	77,514
Intermediate Colleges . . . . .	1,02,940	..	..	17,137	29,916	1,49,993
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>4,32,304</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>65,212</b>	<b>1,87,399</b>	<b>6,84,915</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>						
<i>General.</i>						
High Schools . . . . .	21,76,331	20,834	53,234	14,99,358	9,91,974	47,41,781
Middle Schools— English . . . . .	8,77,099	3,796	38,240	3,72,743	7,44,083	20,35,961
Vernacular . . . . .	2,97,915	81,599	2,29,147	25,048	2,61,115	8,94,824
Primary Schools . . . . .	35,24,000	12,78,031	18,92,275	3,28,448	14,84,327	85,07,081
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>68,75,345</b>	<b>13,84,260</b>	<b>22,12,946</b>	<b>22,25,597</b>	<b>34,81,499</b>	<b>1,61,79,647</b>
<i>Special.</i>						
Medical Schools . . . . .	1,12,056	550	..	15,956	30,863	1,59,419
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	9,86,660	11,237	19,299	23,960	1,67,777	12,08,843
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	54,654	4,464	1,070	10,447	1,46,301	2,16,936
Commercial Schools . . . . .	6,316	..	..	16,437	1,894	24,847
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	360	..	..	..	..	360
Schools for Adults . . . . .	10,979	28	1,423	6,811	15,780	35,021
Other Schools . . . . .	41,012	193	2,935	3,673	50,696	98,709
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>12,12,237</b>	<b>16,472</b>	<b>24,637</b>	<b>77,278</b>	<b>4,13,511</b>	<b>17,44,135</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR FEMALES</b>	<b>1,15,27,067</b>	<b>15,35,457</b>	<b>23,43,243</b>	<b>42,30,676</b>	<b>78,39,006</b>	<b>2,74,74,449</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR MALES</b>	<b>8,59,49,355</b>	<b>1,54,93,477</b>	<b>63,10,954</b>	<b>3,91,23,624</b>	<b>2,47,58,332</b>	<b>17,16,35,742</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR ALL</b>	<b>9,74,76,422</b>	<b>1,70,28,934</b>	<b>86,54,197</b>	<b>4,33,54,300</b>	<b>3,25,97,338</b>	<b>19,91,11,191</b>

## IV-A.—Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the General Education of Males

		Euro- peans and Anglo- In- dians.	Indian Chris- tians.	Hindu.	Muham- madans.	Bud- dhists.	Parsis.	Sikhs.	Others.	TOTAL.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<b>TOTAL POPULATION</b>		1,60,930	1,423,751	83,111,287	31,074,742	5,672,764	45,933	1,345,582	4,018,949	126,853,933
<i>School Education.</i>										
†Middle	<i>Primary</i>	<i>Classes.</i>								
	I	4,497	105,871	2,355,568	970,272	152,866	1,107	33,109	62,502	3,685,792
	II	2,277	38,610	823,966	285,391	31,778	921	13,214	16,601	1,218,758
	III	2,362	28,854	619,135	179,881	21,835	1,252	10,870	10,971	874,760
	IV	2,417	23,574	455,811	104,443	16,213	749	8,972	7,581	619,760
	V	1,787	11,953	251,119	50,594	7,598	604	6,356	3,741	333,702
	VI	1,844	9,257	159,357	35,378	4,482	928	4,569	1,418	217,733
	VII	1,736	7,264	121,197	25,656	4,761	877	4,061	745	166,297
	VIII	1,291	4,231	91,202	17,327	1,211	820	3,573	404	120,559
	IX	710	2,706	63,108	11,434	871	768	2,652	216	82,485
X	740	2,215	52,646	9,313	724	696	1,871	186	68,391	
..	268	1,548	41,786	5,441	74	608	15	87	49,827	
..	56	309	10,297	1,363	1	599	7	48	12,680	
<b>TOTALS</b>		19,935	236,192	5,051,892	1,696,993	242,414	9,929	89,069	104,500	(a) 7,450,724
<i>University and Intermediate Education.</i>										
Intermediate classes	1st year	132	708	13,579	2,086	253	396	368	53	17,515
	2nd year	111	511	13,128	1,672	130	218	310	33	16,368
Degree classes	3rd year	42	301	6,360	937	41	60	131	15	7,887
	4th year	39	244	6,875	1,180	67	62	117	10	8,694
	5th year	3	23	1,237	195	4	..	21	1	1,464
Post-graduate classes	6th year	7	15	937	187	3	15	11	2	1,177
	7th year	..	4	79	1	..	13	..	1	98
Research Students	..	..	1	841	6	..	..	..	..	847
<b>TOTALS</b>		334	1,807	43,036	6,464	498	699	958	115	(b)58,911
No. of scholars in recognised institu- tions.		20,269	237,999	5,094,728	1,703,457	242,912	10,628	90,027	104,615	7,504,035
No. of scholars in unrecognised insti- tutions.		19	6,643	190,890	172,072	206,775	131	4,641	4,064	585,236
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>		20,288	244,642	5,285,618	1,875,529	449,687	10,760	94,668	108,679	8,089,870

† Please draw two broad lines across the table indicating the stages where the High and Middle Departments begin. (These lines could not be drawn as there is no uniformity in the different provinces as to the stages where the High and Middle Departments begin.)

(a) Excludes 121 and 1,326 scholars in the U. P. and Assam respectively not shown by race or creed.

(b) Excludes 157 scholars of one Oriental college in the Punjab and 19 scholars of one Oriental college in Assam (shown against Education in IV-A), also excludes 3,190 scholars reading in school stages in colleges in the U. P.

## IV-B.—Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the General Education of Females

		Euro- peans and Anglo- In- dians.	Indian Chris- tians.	Hindus.	Muham- madans.	Bud- dhists.	Parsis.	Sikhs.	Others.	TOTAL.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<b>TOTAL POPULATION</b>		95,784	1,374,679	79,421,565	28,345,604	5,815,486	42,315	1,020,861	4,027,464	120,143,65
<i>School Education.</i>										
<b>Primary</b>	Classes.									
	I	8,844	24,844	323,448	187,702	19,780	1,143	5,840	2,063	572,069
	II	3,013	10,323	90,810	42,164	11,966	635	1,771	547	161,228
	III	2,448	7,840	50,433	15,071	2,454	1,247	1,394	398	87,285
	IV	2,381	6,626	32,304	6,361	3,082	778	859	316	62,452
	V	1,521	5,194	15,583	2,163	482	537	582	182	26,191
† Middle	VI	1,661	3,772	6,516	727	487	586	134	112	13,445
	VII	1,410	2,623	3,427	365	378	414	99	86	8,802
† High	VIII	1,064	1,729	1,618	154	56	228	70	62	4,981
	IX	495	698	856	54	59	246	20	25	2,453
	X	509	555	623	34	42	178	5	19	1,966
	..	187	328	421	8	..	66	..	20	1,050
	..	11	56	231	9	..	99	..	4	379
<b>TOTALS</b>		22,994	64,068	631,837	254,912	38,735	6,121	10,575	3,839	(a)933,001
<i>University and Intermediate Education.</i>										
<b>Intermediate classes</b>	1st year	41	107	127	4	..	3	10	1	293
	2nd year	36	86	97	1	..	2	3	..	225
<b>Degree classes</b>	3rd year	16	54	54	2	..	..	1	..	127
	4th year	15	52	42	..	..	..	..	..	109
	5th year	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>Post-graduate classes</b>	6th year	..	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	2
	7th year	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>Research Students—</b>		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b>		108	300	320	8	..	5	14	1	(b)756
<b>No. of scholars in recognised institutions</b>		23,102	64,368	632,157	254,820	38,735	6,126	10,589	3,840	933,757
<b>No. of scholars in unrecognised institu- tions.</b>		..	709	14,429	38,181	2,536	65	1,107	389	57,416
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>		23,102	65,097	646,586	293,001	41,271	6,191	11,696	4,229	991,173

† Vide footnote on previous page.

(a) Excludes 60 pupils in Assam not shown by race or creed.

(b) Excludes 57, 47 and 299 scholars reading in school stages in colleges in the United Provinces, the Punjab and Bangalore respec-  
tively.

### V-A.—Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the Vocational and Special Education of Males.

	Euro- peans and Anglo- In- dians.	Indian Chris- tians.	Hindus.	Muham- madans.	Bud- dhists.	Parsis.	Sikhs.	Others.	TOTAL.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<i>Schools.</i>									
Arts Schools . . . . .	21	76	1,295	277	6	10	13	13	1,711
Law Schools . . . . .	..	..	97	27	..	..	..	..	124
Medical Schools . . . . .	46	217	3,566	689	66	2	166	9	4,761
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	4	2,323	13,638	3,987	843	5	281	251	21,332
Engineering and Surveying Schools . . . . .	53	18	958	138	43	2	31	1	1,244
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	663	2,087	7,544	3,600	132	84	235	138	14,483
Commercial Schools . . . . .	380	597	5,161	545	378	286	19	35	7,401
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	2	48	308	23	..	..	..	..	381
Reformatory Schools . . . . .	4	45	675	354	96	..	6	10	1,190
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	12	243	326	66	14	9	14	3	687
Schools for Adults . . . . .	..	794	28,639	35,661	358	12	3,735	1,141	70,340
Other Schools . . . . .	24	434	33,032	42,076	7,594	199	57	190	83,606
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>1,209</b>	<b>6,882</b>	<b>95,239</b>	<b>87,443</b>	<b>9,530</b>	<b>609</b>	<b>4,557</b>	<b>1,791</b>	<b>207,260</b>
<i>Colleges.</i>									
Law . . . . .	13	84	6,013	822	58	53	57	122	7,227
Medicine . . . . .	56	170	2,998	349	24	152	118	6	3,873
Education . . . . .	30	34	722	196	5	..	22	1	(a)1,010
Engineering . . . . .	103	39	1,203	98	..	28	14	1	1,486
Agriculture . . . . .	..	21	340	94	14	5	61	32	567
Commerce . . . . .	5	23	1,162	56	3	75	5	1	1,330
Forestry . . . . .	6	12	98	25	11	..	13	4	169
Veterinary Science . . . . .	4	17	180	79	3	..	9	..	292
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>217</b>	<b>400</b>	<b>12,721</b>	<b>1,719</b>	<b>118</b>	<b>313</b>	<b>299</b>	<b>167</b>	<b>15,954</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>	<b>1,426</b>	<b>7,282</b>	<b>107,960</b>	<b>89,162</b>	<b>9,648</b>	<b>922</b>	<b>4,856</b>	<b>1,958</b>	<b>223,214</b>

(a) 19 Scholars of one Oriental College in Assam which have been shown against "Arts and Science" in II-A are shown against "Education" in this table.



V-B.—Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the Vocational and Special Education of Females.

	European and Anglo- Indians.	Indian Christians	Hindus.	Muham- madans.	Bud- dhists.	Parsis.	Sikhs.	Others.	TOTAL.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<i>Schools.</i>									
Medical Schools . . . . .	18	153	36	17	1	..	19	..	244
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	229	1,986	1,822	289	236	40	67	30	4,199
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	55	1,970	629	59	55	9	..	..	2,777
Commercial Schools . . . . .	223	3	..	..	..	..	..	1	227
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	..	61	..	..	..	..	..	..	61
Schools for Adults . . . . .	..	13	454	61	..	83	..	2	613
Other Schools . . . . .	26	402	966	528	3	16	..	22	1,973
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>661</b>	<b>4,578</b>	<b>3,407</b>	<b>954</b>	<b>295</b>	<b>148</b>	<b>86</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>10,084</b>
<i>Colleges.</i>									
Medicine . . . . .	12	12	27	4	..	..	3	..	58
Education . . . . .	49	27	13	1	..	..	..	1	91
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>61</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>149</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>622</b>	<b>4,617</b>	<b>3,447</b>	<b>959</b>	<b>295</b>	<b>148</b>	<b>89</b>	<b>56</b>	<b>10,233</b>

## VI.—Teachers (Men and Women).

CLASS OF INSTITUTIONS.	TRAINED TEACHERS WITH THE FOLLOWING EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS.					UNTRAINED TEACHERS.				Total Trained Teachers.	Total untrained teachers.	Grand totals of Teachers.
	A Degree	Passed Matric. or School final.	Passed Middle School.	Passed Primary School.	Lower qualifications.	Possessing a degree.		Possessing no degree.				
						Certificated.	Uncertificated.	Certificated.	Uncertificated.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
<i>Primary Schools.</i>												
Government	2	198	1,227	1,073	36	..	3	284	1,204	2,536	1,471	4,007
Local Board and Municipal.	1	457	36,175	35,385	327	133	16	9,619	28,438	73,345	38,206	110,551
Aided	18	1,165	18,743	17,204	1,265	7	48	35,010	62,428	38,398	97,493	135,891
Unaided	2	41	948	973	53	..	1	4,908	10,912	2,017	15,821	17,838
TOTALS	22	1,864	57,093	54,635	1,691	140	68	49,801	102,982	115,296	152,991	268,287
<i>Middle Schools.</i>												
Government	46	505	470	86	35	9	32	84	378	1,141	483	1,624
Local Board and Municipal.	147	823	9,291	756	120	25	97	601	2,600	11,137	3,228	14,365
Aided	159	1,425	3,899	1,028	655	151	271	4,646	5,467	7,166	10,535	17,701
Unaided	16	94	700	51	15	76	69	1,344	968	939	2,457	3,396
TOTALS	368	2,847	14,420	1,923	825	261	469	6,656	9,313	20,383	16,698	37,081
<i>High Schools.</i>												
Government	1,529	1,136	601	38	138	231	384	412	801	3,442	1,828	5,270
Local Board and Municipal.	559	819	261	48	227	77	161	152	509	1,914	899	2,813
Aided	2,064	2,862	2,166	283	572	1,525	2,040	3,116	4,865	7,037	11,576	18,613
Unaided	145	122	544	24	7	1,300	835	2,846	1,745	842	6,726	7,568
TOTALS	4,297	4,939	3,562	393	944	3,133	3,420	6,556	7,920	14,135	21,029	35,164
GRAND TOTALS	4,683	9,650	75,075	56,951	3,450	3,534	3,957	63,012	120,215	149,814	190,718	320,532

## VII.—European Education.

	Male . 157,558				Percentage to European population of those at school.							
	Female . 92,099				Males . 15-65		Females . 25-52		Total . 19-29			
	TOTAL . 249,657											
	Institutions.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	Number of females in institutions for males and vice versa.	TEACHERS.		EXPENDITURE FROM				Total expenditure.	
					Trained.	Un-trained.	Govt. funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	
							Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	
<b>Institutions for Males.</b>												
Arts Colleges . . . . .	4	131	115	..	21	17	83,736	..	87,671	60,054	2,31,461	
Training Colleges . . . . .	1	22	21	..	7	13	48,032	950	15,967	6,780	71,709	
High Schools . . . . .	70	14,405	12,934	816	502	378	11,07,011	6,704	9,61,568	5,09,358	25,84,681	
Middle Schools . . . . .	41	3,604	3,233	952	144	106	1,79,145	3,420	1,37,726	1,03,567	4,23,858	
Primary Schools . . . . .	52	3,894	2,799	1,115	96	59	64,166	372	47,743	91,538	2,03,819	
Training Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	1,937	..	..	..	1,937	
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	3	351	304	..	4	13	39,608	..	15,199	1,662	56,469	
Commercial Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	
Other Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	11,606	..	..	..	11,606	
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>171</b>	<b>21,997</b>	<b>19,406</b>	<b>2,833</b>	<b>774</b>	<b>586</b>	<b>15,35,241</b>	<b>11,446</b>	<b>12,65,874</b>	<b>7,72,979</b>	<b>36,85,540</b>	
<b>Institutions for Females.</b>												
Arts Colleges . . . . .	1	311	270	..	18	8	9,711	..	9,800	3,898	23,409	
Training Colleges . . . . .	2	47	53	..	7	6	32,021	..	2,163	1,495	35,679	
High Schools . . . . .	102	16,272	14,633	2,806	754	496	10,17,441	4,058	9,15,271	3,05,727	22,42,497	
Middle Schools . . . . .	63	6,273	5,671	1,794	256	177	3,06,426	1,548	1,77,879	2,18,827	7,04,680	
Primary Schools . . . . .	51	2,864	2,306	942	95	85	63,053	2,950	57,846	81,274	2,25,125	
Training Schools . . . . .	10	167	143	..	26	10	49,396	..	12,695	17,669	79,700	
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	1	73	70	..	2	2	450	..	..	1,761	2,211	
Commercial Schools . . . . .	4	134	72	..	4	9	3,890	..	10,389	162	14,441	
Other Schools . . . . .	2	28	28	4	3	1	4,624	..	23	3,538	8,160	
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>236</b>	<b>26,169</b>	<b>23,246</b>	<b>5,546</b>	<b>1,165</b>	<b>789</b>	<b>15,07,014</b>	<b>8,556</b>	<b>11,86,071</b>	<b>6,34,291</b>	<b>33,35,982</b>	
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>407</b>	<b>48,166</b>	<b>42,652</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>1,939</b>	<b>1,375</b>	<b>50,42,255</b>	<b>20,002</b>	<b>24,51,945</b>	<b>14,07,270</b>	<b>69,21,472</b>	
Expenditure on Buildings includes Rs. 1,24,954 spent by the Public Works Department.							Inspection . . . . .	1,24,079	..	..	1,24,079	
"Miscellaneous" includes the following main items:—							Buildings, etc. . . . .	5,47,002	..	2,34,920	6,96,308	14,78,230
Hostel charges, scholarships and other contingent charges.							Miscellaneous . . . . .	11,70,257	1,080	21,90,866	14,83,570	48,48,093
							<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>18,41,338</b>	<b>1,080</b>	<b>24,25,896</b>	<b>21,89,178</b>	<b>64,48,402</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b> . . . . .							<b>48,83,593</b>	<b>21,082</b>	<b>48,77,751</b>	<b>26,87,448</b>	<b>1,33,69,874</b>	

## VIII.—Examination Results.

Examinations.	MALES.						FEMALES.				
	NUMBER OF EXAMINERS.			NUMBER PASSED.			NUMBER OF EXAMINERS.			NUMBER PASSED.	
	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.
<b>DEGREE EXAMINATIONS.</b>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
<i>Arts and Science.</i>											
D. Litt. . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ph. D. . . . .	..	6	6	..	4	4	..	..	..	..	..
D. Sc. . . . .	..	6	6	..	2	2	..	..	..	..	..
M. A. . . . .	878	356	1,234	662	181	843	13	4	17	8	2
M. Sc. . . . .	265	21	286	206	18	219	2	..	2	2	..
B. A. (Honours) . . . .	1,277	88	1,365	909	69	967	37	5	42	33	4
B. Sc. (Honours) . . . .	314	33	347	195	21	216	1	1	2	..	..
B. A. (Pass) . . . . .	5,680	2,609	8,289	3,351	1,160	4,511	107	39	146	82	23
B. Sc. (Pass) . . . . .	1,209	179	1,388	813	88	901	7	..	7	5	..
<i>Law.</i>											
Master of Law . . . . .	1	24	25	..	6	6	..	..	..	..	..
Bachelor of Law . . . . .	3,723	165	3,888	1,861	79	2,040	..	..	..	..	..
<i>Medicine.</i>											
M. D. . . . .	..	3	3	..	2	2	..	..	..	..	..
M. B., B. S. . . . .	858	..	858	336	..	386	16	..	16	3	..
L. M. S. (Bombay) . . . .	30	..	30	15	..	15	4	..	4	2	..
M. C. P. & S. (Bombay) . . .	3	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
M. S. F. M. (Calcutta) . . .	24	..	24	12	..	12	..	..	..	..	..
M. S. . . . .	..	1	1	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..
M. Obstetrics . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
B. Hyg. . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
D. P. H. . . . .	1	14	15	1	11	12	..	..	..	..	..
B. Sc. (Sanitary) . . . . .	6	..	6	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..
D. T. M. (Calcutta) . . . . .	11	30	41	10	18	28	..	2	2	..	1
<i>Engineering.</i>											
Bachelor of C. E. . . . .	139	..	139	94	..	94	..	..	..	..	..
Bachelor of M. E. . . . .	74	..	74	46	..	46	..	..	..	..	..
<i>Education.</i>											
B. E., B. T. & L. T. . . . .	456	235	691	385	120	514	42	3	45	30	2
<i>Commerce.</i>											
Bachelor of Commerce . . . . .	149	87	236	98	38	136	..	..	..	..	..
<i>Agriculture.</i>											
Master of Agriculture . . . . .	..	4	4	..	4	4	..	..	..	..	..
Bachelor of Agriculture . . . . .	116	2	118	80	2	82	..	..	..	..	..

\* i.e., appearing from a recognised institution.

## VIII.—Examination Results—contd.

Examinations.	MALES.						FEMALES.					
	NUMBER OF EXAMINERS.			NUMBER PASSED.			NUMBER OF EXAMINERS.			NUMBER PASSED.		
	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
<b>INTERMEDIATE EXAMINATIONS.</b>												
Intermediate in Arts	10,149	4,784	14,933	5,042	1,648	6,690	271	164	435	188	62	250
Intermediate in Science.	6,408	490	6,898	3,755	196	3,951	52	..	52	22	..	22
Licentiate of Civil Engineering	234	4	238	147	1	148	..	..	..	..	..	..
Licence, Diploma or certificate in Teaching.	1,200	211	1,411	956	106	1,062	216	6	221	171	3	174
Intermediate or Diploma in Commerce.	440	13	453	269	7	276	..	..	..	..	..	..
Licentiate of Agriculture	45	..	45	37	..	37	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Examinations.	170	..	170	132	..	132	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.</b>												
<i>(a) On completion of High School course.</i>												
Matriculation	37,307	2,818	40,125	25,728	1,352	27,080	417	119	536	304	78	352
School Final; etc.	21,468	829	22,297	17,108	400	17,568	477	11	488	412	3	415
European High School	284	4	288	164	3	167	222	3	225	134	1	135
Cambridge Senior	359	83	442	244	15	259	208	15	223	134	1	135
<i>(b) On completion of Middle School course.</i>												
Cambridge Junior	519	4	523	341	1	342	386	..	386	226	..	226
European Middle	552	..	552	241	..	241	470	..	470	336	..	336
Anglo-Vernacular Middle	57,138	315	57,453	43,275	194	43,569	2,082	23	2,105	1,430	9	1,439
Vernacular Middle	29,072	4,557	33,629	18,643	1,506	20,149	1,106	470	1,576	757	230	957
Vernacular High (in Burma).	96	234	330	56	49	105	21	19	40	17	3	20
<i>(c) On completion of Primary course.</i>												
Upper Primary	170,276	319	170,595	121,391	208	121,599	9,660	106	9,766	7,286	74	7,360
Lower Primary	340,409	227	340,636	256,136	157	256,293	37,751	116	37,866	27,592	95	27,687
<i>(d) On completion of Vocational course.</i>												
For teacher's certificates.—												
Vernacular, Higher	4,702	899	5,601	3,564	438	4,002	1,389	44	1,433	1,048	25	1,073
Vernacular, Lower	10,336	3,328	13,664	7,233	1,381	8,614	729	29	758	477	18	495
At Art Schools	1,083	54	1,137	566	20	595	68	4	72	60	1	61
At Law Schools	7	..	7	7	..	7	54	2	56	24	2	26
At Medical Schools	1,297	337	1,634	815	205	1,020	53	15	68	41	10	51
At Engineering Schools	521	1,327	1,848	397	422	819	..	..	..	..	..	..
At Technical and Industrial Schools	1,558	3,437	4,995	1,209	2,097	3,306	106	656	762	98	378	476
At Commercial Schools	5,444	10,073	15,517	1,613	3,863	5,476	83	55	138	51	11	62
At Agricultural Schools	104	49	153	77	31	108	..	..	..	..	..	..
At other Schools	5,188	490	5,678	3,136	254	3,390	19	..	19	16	..	16

\* i.e., appearing from a recognised institution.

**BUREAU OF EDUCATION,  
INDIA.**

---

**EDUCATION IN INDIA  
IN  
1924-25.**



**CALCUTTA: GOVERNMENT OF INDIA  
CENTRAL PUBLICATION BRANCH  
1926**

**Government of India Publications are obtainable from  
the Government of India Central Publication Branch,  
8, Hastings Street, Calcutta, and from the following Agents :—**

**EUROPE.**

**OFFICE OF THE HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR INDIA,  
42, GROSVENOR GARDENS, LONDON, S.W. 1.  
And at all Booksellers.**

**INDIA AND CEYLON.**

**Provincial Book Depots :**

- MADRAS**:—Office of the Superintendent, Government Press, Mount Road, Madras.  
**BOMBAY**:—Superintendent Government Book Depot, Town Hall, Bombay.  
**BAND**:—Library attached to the Office of the Commissioner in Sind, Karachi.  
**BENGAL**:—Office of the Bengal Secretariat Book Depot, Writers' Buildings, Room No. 1, Ground Floor, Calcutta.  
**UNITED PROVINCES OF AGRA AND OUDH**:—Office of the Superintendent of Government Press, United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, Allahabad.  
**PUNJAB**:—Office of the Superintendent, Government Printing, Punjab, Lahore.  
**BURMA**:—Office of the Superintendent, Government Printing, Burma, Rangoon.  
**CENTRAL PROVINCES AND BERAR**:—Office of the Central Provinces Secretariat, Nagpur.  
**ASSAM**:—Office of the Superintendent, Assam Secretariat Press.  
**BIHAR AND ORISSA**:—Office of the Superintendent, Government Printing, Bihar and Orissa, P. O. Gulzarbagh, Patna.  
**COORG**:—Office of the Chief Commissioner of Coorg, Bangalore.  
**NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCES**:—Office of the Manager, Government Printing and Stationery, Peshawar.

Thacker, Spink & Co., Calcutta and Simla.  
W. Newman & Co., Ltd., Calcutta.  
R. Cambay & Co., Calcutta.  
S. K. Lahiri & Co., Calcutta.  
The Indian School Supply Depot, 309, Bow Bazar Street, Calcutta, and 226, Nawab Pur, Dacca.  
Butterworth & Co. (India) Ltd., Calcutta.  
Rai M. C. Sarcar Bahadur & Sons, 90-2A, Harrison Road, Calcutta.  
The Weldon Library, 17, Park Street, Calcutta.  
Standard Literature Company, Limited, Calcutta.  
Association Press, Calcutta.  
Chuckerorty, Chatterjee & Co., Ltd., 13, College Square, Calcutta.  
The Book Company, Calcutta.  
James Murray & Co., 12, Government Place, Calcutta. (For Meteorological Publications only.)  
Higginbotham & Co., Madras.  
V. Kalvanarama Iyer & Co., Madras.  
P. R. Rama Iyer & Co., Madras.  
Rochouse and Sons, Madras.  
G. A. Nateson & Co., Publishers, George Town, Madras.  
The Modern Stores, Salem, Madras.  
Roch & Co., Trivandrum.  
The Booklover's Resort, Talkad, Trivandrum, South India.  
V. S. Swaminathan, Bookseller, West Tower Street, Madras.  
Vijapur & Co. Vizagapatam.  
Thacker & Co., Ltd., Bombay.  
D. B. Taraporevala, Sons & Co., Bombay.  
Sunder Pandurang, Bombay.  
Ram Chandra Govind & Sons, Kalbadevi, Bombay.  
N. M. Tripathi & Co., Booksellers, Princess Street, Kalbadevi Road, Bombay.  
R. B. Umadikar & Co., The Bharat Book Depot, Dharwar.  
Proprietor, New Kirabkhana, Poona.  
The Manager, Oriental Book Supplying Agency, 15, Shukrawar, Poona City.  
R. S. Gondhalekar's Book Depot, Publisher and Bookseller, Budhwar Chawk, Poona City.  
Managing Director, Co-operative Bookstall, Booksellers and Publishers, Poona City.  
The Standard Bookstall, Karachi, Quetta, Delhi, Murree and Rawalpindi.  
The Standard Bookstall, Quetta.  
J. Ray & Sons, 43, K. & L. Edwardes Road, Rawalpindi and Murree.  
The Standard Book Depot, Lahore, Lucknow, Nainital, Mussorie, Dehrahouse and Ambala Cantonment

Karsandas Narandas & Sons, Surat.  
Mangaldas & Sons, Booksellers and Publishers, Bhaga Talao, Surat.  
Mrs. Radhabhai Atmaram Sagoo, Kalbadevi Road, Bombay.  
A. H. Wheeler & Co., Allahabad, Calcutta and Bombay.  
N. B. Mathur, Supdt., Nasir Kanun Hind Press, Allahabad.  
The North India Christian Tract and Book Society, 18, Clive Road, Allahabad.  
Ram Dayal Agarwala, 184, Katra, Allahabad.  
Manager, Newal Kishore Press, Lucknow.  
The Upper India Publishing House, Ltd., 41, Aminabad Park, Lucknow.  
Munshi Seeta Ram, Managing Proprietor, Indian Army Book Depot, Juhl, Cawnpore.  
Rai Sahib M. Gulab Singh & Sons, Mufid-Am Press, Lahore and Allahabad.  
Rama Krishna & Sons, Booksellers, Anarali, Lahore.  
Puri Brothers, Booksellers and Publishers, Katcheri Road, Lahore.  
The Tilak School Bookshop, Lahore.  
The Standard Bookstall, Lahore.  
Manager of the Imperial Book Depot, 63, Chandni Chawk Street, Delhi.  
Oxford Book and Stationery Company, Delhi.  
Supdt., American Baptist Mission Press, Rangoon.  
Proprietor, Rangoon Times Press, Rangoon.  
The Modern Publishing House, Ltd., 30, Phayre Street, Rangoon.  
The International Buddhist Book Depot, Post Box No. 971, Rangoon.  
Burma Book Club, Ltd., Rangoon.  
Manager, the "Hitavada," Nagpur.  
Bishey Brothers, Booksellers and Stationers, Sitabaldi, Nagpur.  
S. C. Talukdar, Proprietor, Students & Co., Cooch Behar.  
Times of Ceylon Co., Ltd.  
The Manager, Ceylon Observer, Colombo.  
The Manager, The Indian Book Shop, Benares City.  
B. C. Basak, Esq., Proprietor, Albert Library, Dacca.  
The Srivilliputtur Co-operative Trading Union, Ltd., Srivilliputtur. (Satur S.I.R.)  
Banwari Lal, Esq., Pakariya Street, Pilibhit, United Provinces.  
Manager, Educational Book Depot, Jubbulpore.  
Raghubrath Prasad & Sons, Patna City.  
Dandekar Brothers, Indore City.  
The Hyderabad Book Depot, Chaderghat, Hyderabad (Deccan).

## TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	PAGE.
I. General . . . . .	1
II. Controlling Authorities . . . . .	9
III. University Education . . . . .	11
IV. Secondary Education . . . . .	18
V. Primary Education . . . . .	22
VI. Female Education . . . . .	25
VII. Professional and Technical Education:—	
(a) Training of Teachers . . . . .	26
(b) Other Professional and Technical Education . . . . .	27
VIII. Education of Special Classes and Communities:—	
(i) Europeans . . . . .	29
(ii) Mohammedans . . . . .	30
(iii) Depressed Classes . . . . .	31
(iv) Defectives . . . . .	32
IX. Miscellaneous . . . . .	33
APPENDIX—	
General Educational Tables, 1924-25 . . . . .	37



# EDUCATION IN INDIA

IN  
1924-25.

## I. GENERAL.

The history of Indian education during 1924-25 is one of steady but uneventful progress. The general summary on page 38 shows an increase of 9,113 recognised institutions and of 482,060 scholars. The table below shows the different types of institutions with the scholars in attendance at them.

### *Institutions and scholars.*

Type of Institutions.	Institutions.		Scholars.	
	1924.	1925.	1924.	1925.
Arts colleges . . . . .	170	185	56,189	62,543
Professional colleges . . . . .	67	74	16,084	17,286
High schools . . . . .	2,421	2,530	678,064	714,436
Middle schools . . . . .	6,977	7,519	750,188	829,722
Primary schools . . . . .	168,004	175,596	6,954,764	7,307,262
Special schools . . . . .	6,617	7,723	217,344	255,162
Unrecognised institutions . . . . .	34,860	34,602	642,651	610,933
<b>TOTAL</b> . . . . .	<b>*219,116</b>	<b>228,229</b>	<b>*9,315,284</b>	<b>9,797,344</b>

\* Revised figures.

In order to reach an approximate estimate of the progress made in the fight with illiteracy we may compare the present position with that reached in the year 1921. In doing so private or unrecognised schools may be left out of account since most of them do not provide any secular education. In 1921, 5.1 per cent. of the male population of British India and 1.1 per cent. of the female population were attending recognised schools. The corresponding figures in the summary for 1925 are 6.05 and 1.24 respectively. These figures, however, do not take into account the increase in the population of

British India since the last census was made. Assuming that the annual increase has been normal—a fair assumption since this period was free from any abnormal epidemics—the percentage of school attendance in 1925 will be 5.97 in the case of boys and 1.23 in the case of girls. Since about 15 per cent. of the population of India may be classed as of school-going age, at the present rate of progress it will take at least forty years more to collect all boys of school-going age into school. Any similar calculation for girls would be meaningless.

Progress during the last four years has been delayed by the need for economy and by political events. These hindrances are temporary. Far more formidable are the obstacles in the path of education when it reaches the more sparsely inhabited country districts and the more backward elements in the population. The problems involved in bringing education to a scattered rural population, problems which loom so large in other agricultural countries, do not yet even call for serious consideration in India. There are still thousands of villages unprovided with schools; there are still millions of parents who do not send their children to schools provided at their very doors. Compulsory education has as yet made little headway (see page 22). Even where compulsion in its present form has been in force for several years it is rarely that 80 per cent. is reached of the possible school attendance and from this possible attendance not only are girls, except in rare instances, excluded, but also those children of the lowest class whose claim to the benefits of education cannot ultimately be ignored.

*Recognised Schools.*—There has been a large increase in the number of recognised schools in Madras, Bihar and Orissa, Bengal and the Punjab. Expansion in the Central Provinces was checked by the action of the Provincial Legislative Council in throwing out the educational budget. In the areas directly under the Government of India—the North-West Frontier Province, Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara and Baluchistan—money was not forthcoming for expansion or development.

*Unrecognised Schools.*—The unreliability of the figures for unrecognised institutions, which has been mentioned in previous reports, is well illustrated in the present tables. While the statistics for 1923-24 showed an increase of 1,200 institutions spread over most of the provinces, the tables for the next year show a general decline amounting in all to 258. Many of these unrecognised institutions are of an ephemeral character and their disappearance will not be a loss to education. For example, an increase in the number of unrecognised schools and of scholars attending them is reported from the Central Provinces; several of these schools are merely cramshops for the Calcutta and Punjab Matriculation examinations.

Few of the reports make any further mention of the national schools started during the non-co-operation movement. Bihar and Orissa report a decrease in the number of these schools from 184 to 96. Bengal from 109 to 90 and Burma from 61 to 28.

*Wastage.*—When we turn to the figures for enrolment we find that there has been an increase during the year of 513,778 scholars in recognised schools. It is a little depressing to find that the first primary class has also increased by 413,250. Indeed the table below, which is for boys' schools only, is even less encouraging than the similar table included in the last year's report.

	1923-24.	1924-25.	Wastage.
Class I . . . . .	3,685,792	4,045,684	.....
Class II . . . . .	1,218,758	1,252,507	2,433,285
Class III . . . . .	874,760	897,512	321,246
Class IV . . . . .	619,760	616,823	258,937
TOTAL . . . . .	6,399,070	6,811,526	.....
Class V . . . . .	333,702	338,205	281,555

Pupils are admitted to the first or infant class at all times of the school year; a child is eligible for admission as soon as he is five years' old; so that the first class will always contain some fifty per cent. more scholars, representing late admissions, than the class immediately above it. It is usual to find two or three groups of children at different stages of progress in the first class, and in some provinces the Department has recognised this fact by dividing the class into Sections A and B. With the object of indicating that a two years' stay in the infant class should be the exception and not the rule, several provinces in which this distinction existed have by a redistribution of the course of work combined these sections into a single first class. This step was taken last year by Bihar and Orissa. Nevertheless an increase of three hundred and sixty thousand boys in the first primary class accompanied by an actual decrease in the numbers attending the fourth primary class is a disquieting phenomenon. Only one girl out of every five admitted into school reaches this stage of education, which may be held to connote *temporary* literacy, *i.e.*, an ability to read and write which will rapidly disappear if not exercised.

Although Bangalore and Delhi show a high percentage of school attendance to population, 11 and 5.4, the circumstances of these two areas are peculiar. They each consist almost entirely of large cities containing advanced educational institutions to which students are attracted from the neighbouring provinces. Excluding these areas the highest percentage of scholars to population is found in Bombay, followed closely by Madras and Coorg. The lowest percentage is, as might be expected, reported from Balu-

chistan. The gap between the more advanced provinces and the more backward is rapidly widening. The supply of education creates a demand for it. A conspicuous instance of this fact is the annual increase in college attendance in Bengal and the multiplication of high schools in that province. The two are inter-related since the unemployed graduate as a last resort turns his hand to teaching and the presence of a large supply of cheap graduates encourages the opening of cheap secondary schools. The same holds good of vernacular education, more especially where the grant-in-aid system is in vogue. A rapid output of vernacular passed scholars results in a rapid increase in vernacular schools. Indeed recent experience in the Punjab shows that this principle can be carried still further. Even the provision of compulsory education in villages creates a demand among villagers for the introduction of compulsion.

*Expenditure.*—The total expenditure by Government on education in India is Rs. 9,98,01,594, a sum which represents only four annas per head of the population. The actual and potential resources of district and municipal boards are much less than in those other countries where the cost of education is chiefly financed from local rates. Although under the new primary education acts local bodies are empowered to levy special education cesses, very few of them do so, and the sums thus realised would provide only a very small fraction of the funds needed for the expansion and improvement of vernacular education. The Government of Madras, recognising this fact, have waived the condition which requires the levy of a local cess to entitle a board to receive Government subvention, and have decided to contribute to all the local Elementary Education Funds the actual recurring expenditure incurred from Provincial Funds in 1920-21 on the maintenance of elementary schools. The Government of the United Provinces have entered into a three-year contract with district boards by which those bodies, as a condition for the receipt of Government grants, are required to spend certain fixed sums on different educational objects. In Bihar and Orissa no municipality is to receive an increased grant, unless it undertakes to spend at least 5 per cent. of its ordinary income on primary education.

Meanwhile the percentage of the total expenditure on education borne by Government has declined from 48.9 to 47.9, while the contribution from fees has risen from 21.8 to 22.4. The cost per scholar to Government funds shows an extraordinary range of variety in the different provinces, from Rs. 3 in Bihar and Orissa to Rs. 42 in Delhi. The latter high figure is wholly accounted for by the presence at the capital of the Lady Hardinge Medical College for Women, which draws its students from all parts of India. If this college is excluded from the calculation, the cost to Government for a Delhi scholar is reduced to Rs. 26.38—not a high figure for an urban area. In the small province of Baluchistan the expenditure of nearly a lakh (from private sources) on a school building has at once increased by thirty per cent. the cost of each scholar.

(2) Number of Educational Institutions.

Province.	RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.			UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.			TOTAL INSTITUTIONS.		
	1925.	1924.	Increase or Decrease.	1925.	1924.	Increase or Decrease.	1925.	1924.	Increase or Decrease.
Mad	44,420	41,043	+ 2,774	3,052	3,322	- 170	47,472	44,365	+ 2,014
Bom	13,614	13,400*	+ 214	1,466	1,535	- 69	15,080	14,935*	+ 145
Hengal	55,988	54,047	+ 1,941	1,263	1,352	- 89	57,251	55,400	+ 1,851
United Provinces	20,289	19,452	+ 837	2,801	2,911	- 110	23,100	22,363	+ 737
Punjab	10,835	9,721	+ 1,114	4,370	4,528	- 158	15,205	14,249	+ 956
Burma	6,378	6,268	+ 110	18,619	18,351	+ 268	24,997	24,619	+ 378
Bihar and Orissa	30,566	27,803	+ 2,763	1,539	1,689	- 150	32,105	29,492	+ 2,613
Central Provinces and Berar	4,926	4,917	+ 9	347	235	+ 112	5,273	5,152	+ 121
Assam	5,082	4,948	+ 134	273	202	+ 71	5,355	5,150	+ 205
North-West Frontier Province	607	662	- 55	259	325	- 66	866	987	- 121
Coorg	110	110	...	3	11	- 8	113	121	- 8
Delhi	234	204	+ 30	98	84	+ 14	332	288	+ 44
Ajmer-Merwar	189	184	+ 5	110	130	- 20	300	314	- 14
Baluchistan	97	86	+ 11	251	193	+ 58	348	279	+ 69
Bangalore	99	95	+ 4	20	19	+ 1	119	114	+ 5
Aden	37	37	-	19	7	+ 12	56	44	+ 12
INDIA	193,627	184,256*	+ 9,371	34,902	34,800	- 102	228,529	219,062*	+ 9,467

\* Revised figures.

9

70

## (ii) Number of Scholars.

Province.	IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.			IN UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.			IN ALL INSTITUTIONS.			PERCENTAGE OF TOTAL SCHOLARS TO POPULATION.	
	1935.	1924.	Increase or Decrease.	1935.	1924.	Increase or Decrease.	1935.	1924.	Increase or Decrease.	1935.	1924.
Madras . . . . .	2,110,300	1,960,006	+120,004	83,016	80,983	+2,068	2,193,316	2,070,588	+122,596	5.2	4.9
Bombay . . . . .	973,916	*943,674	+29,242	45,856	*58,206	-12,410	1,019,772	1,001,940*	+16,832	5.28	5.19*
Bengal . . . . .	1,107,127	2,009,827	+97,300	43,815	47,335	-3,420	3,160,043	2,057,063	+93,560	4.80	4.40
United Provinces . . . . .	1,125,183	1,082,013	+43,171	67,332	68,750	-1,518	1,192,515	1,150,763	+41,663	2.63	2.53
Punjab . . . . .	885,307	755,806	+79,461	84,382	86,100	-1,718	919,689	841,906	+77,743	4.44	4.07
Burma . . . . .	364,029	348,741	+18,268	305,300	210,218	+4,856	589,389	555,959	+13,430	4.30	4.30
Bihar and Orissa . . . . .	903,428	806,191	+90,233	37,264	41,589	-4,325	999,067	907,780	+91,007	2.93	2.66
Central Provinces and Berar . . . . .	350,811	345,417	+5,394	11,343	7,093	+3,640	362,153	353,140	+9,013	2.60	2.53
Assam . . . . .	244,413	237,353	+7,060	10,905	9,473	+1,132	255,018	240,826	+8,192	3.35	3.2
North-West Frontier Province . . . . .	54,568	50,100	+4,378	0,443	7,707	-1,364	61,011	57,807	+3,114	1.7	2.6
Coorg . . . . .	8,337	8,405	-68	76	308	-292	8,418	8,773	-350	5.13	5.35
Delhi . . . . .	20,175	17,750	+2,425	0,310	5,971	+339	20,185	23,721	+3,704	5.4	4.8
Ajmer-Merwara . . . . .	11,163	11,126	+36	4,737	5,097	-360	15,809	16,223	-324	3.2	3.3
Baluchistan . . . . .	5,207	4,959	+248	3,241	2,836	+405	8,448	7,825	+623	2.0	1.9
Bangalore . . . . .	12,355	11,510	+845	712	882	-170	13,067	12,392	+675	11.0	10.4
Andhra . . . . .	2,169	2,007	+162	643	463	+180	2,812	2,490	+322	5.0	4.4
INDIA . . . . .	9,186,411	*8,073,033	+613,778	610,033	643,051	-31,718	9,797,244	*8,315,394	+1,482,060	3.96	3.77

\*Revised figures.

(iii) *Distribution of Scholars in Recognised Institutions.*

Province.	NUMBER OF SCHOLARS IN INSTITUTIONS FOR MALES, 1925.							NUMBER OF SCHOLARS IN INSTITUTIONS FOR FEMALES, 1925.						
	Arts Colleges.	Professional Colleges.	High Schools.	Middle Schools.	Primary Schools.	Special Schools.	TOTAL.	Arts Colleges.	Professional Colleges.	High Schools.	Middle Schools.	Primary Schools.	Special Schools.	TOTAL.
Madras	10,080	3,041	132,730	37,100	1,007,155	18,808	1,867,913	407	41	11,139	6,067	301,381	3,431	223,356
Bombay	7,093	2,533	69,243	18,500	739,830	17,008	843,671	—	—	8,587	2,713	115,296	2,450	120,045
Bengal	23,870	6,500	219,548	133,356	1,310,064	61,051	1,784,389	250	33	7,961	7,655	305,300	1,470	322,738
United Provinces.	5,619	2,744	55,130	57,322	921,893	13,886	1,056,588	70	0	3,757	10,834	47,479	300	68,000
Punjab	6,721	1,714	101,004	285,805	353,258	68,125	707,617	110	37	2,654	12,703	51,159	945	67,650
Burma	1,301*	—	35,359	115,861	147,576	12,179	312,316	—	—	6,048	10,547	38,574	644	51,819
Bihar and Orissa	2,895	708	30,921	43,889	797,469	15,037	800,900	9	—	738	3,109	66,681	977	71,514
Central Provinces and Berar.	1,302	352	4,280	71,977	246,256	2,136	326,203	—	—	159	4,808	19,116	637	24,548
Assam	1,109	97	13,409	25,902	184,141	1,004	226,722	—	—	804	2,853	11,028	46	15,601
North-West Frontier Province.	373	31	5,883	13,182	26,050	63	46,171	—	—	—	1,954	3,437	6	5,397
Coorg	—	—	823	—	6,035	—	7,448	—	—	178	—	711	—	889
Delhi	1,015	170†	3,612	4,491	7,067	755	17,110	43	68	497	1,340	1,176	29	3,056
Ajmer-Merwara	113	—	2,395	796	6,291	176	9,770	—	—	190	743	440	7	1,382
Baluchistan	—	—	1,680	900	1,706	8	4,309	—	—	—	673	172	—	844
Bangalore	113	—	1,827	965	4,737	89	7,731	312	—	895	1,030	2,315	82	4,024
Aden	—	—	—	406	1,212	161	1,779	—	—	—	167	223	—	390
INDIA	61,343	17,107	670,743	750,971	6,151,925	244,075	8,106,864	1,200	173	43,693	79,051	855,337	11,093	960,517

\* Rangoon University Scholars.

† In Jawahar of the Delhi University.

7

71

(iv) Expenditure on Education.

Province.	TOTAL EXPENDITURE.			PERCENTAGE OF EXPEN- DITURE FROM				AVERAGE ANNUAL COST PER SCHOLAR TO				
	1925.	1926.	Increase or Decrease.	Govt. Funds.	Board Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Govt. Funds.	Board Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total cost.
	Rs.	Rs.						Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Madras . . . . .	3,90,36,652	3,70,00,501	+ 20,36,151	48'90	11'67	21'00	22'03	8 1 11	2 3 2	4 0 0	4 2 11	18 6 0
Bombay . . . . .	3,38,91,167	3,26,31,288*	+ 12,59,884	54'3	15'2	17'7	12'8	19 0 0	5 0 0	0 0 0	5 0 0	35 0 0
Bengal . . . . .	3,56,45,939	3,44,49,307	+ 11,97,632	37'54	5'20	41'06	16'20	6 3 7	0 13 9	0 12 10	2 10 11	16 9 1
United Provinces . . . . .	3,08,85,596	3,01,50,957	+ 2,31,639	56'7	12'18	13'87	17'25	15 5 0	3 4 8	3 11 11	4 10 6	27 0 1
Punjab . . . . .	2,34,05,208	2,16,63,875	+ 18,51,391	50'56	13'47	22'59	13'36	14 2 8	3 1 2	6 5 3	3 11 11	28 0 4
Burma . . . . .	1,45,51,053	1,35,41,419	+ 10,09,634	46'99	14'56	20'68	18'37	12 0 2	3 11 7	5 2 1	4 11 2	25 8 11
Bihar and Orissa . . . . .	1,33,99,000	1,20,73,129	+ 13,25,871	37'25	20'03	20'06	16'96	2 15 5	3 1 7	2 7 9	1 11 10	10 4 7
Central Provinces and Berar.	90,40,444	88,80,773	+ 2,04,671	55'36	24'01	12'27	8'34	11 0 8	4 3 8	2 7 2	1 9 4	19 6 10
Assam . . . . .	38,16,444	37,23,147	+ 93,297	59'8	12'7	16'7	11'3	9 3 3	2 0 0	2 11 2	1 11 2	15 9 7
North-West Frontier Pro- vince.	17,50,116	16,60,159	+ 89,957	61'5	12'9	9'0	16'6	23 1 10	4 13 2	3 6 2	0 3 10	37 9 0
Coorg . . . . .	1,83,095	1,84,296	- 1,201	51'30	22'74	21'34	4'62	11 3 10	5 0 4	4 11 0	1 0 3	21 15 5
Delhi . . . . .	17,22,636	14,57,353	+ 2,65,283	47'4	9'7	15'4	32'4	42 0 0	10 6 9	14 10 7	30 12 2	100 14 2
Ajmer-Merwara . . . . .	5,61,570	5,65,612	- 4,038	45'14	7'00	21'70	20'10	22 11 10	3 7 10	10 14 9	13 3 8	60 6 1
Baluchistan . . . . .	4,04,615	3,35,481	+ 1,29,184	46'82	4'29	16'47	27'22	41 12 0	8 8 0	14 11 0	24 4 0	89 3 0
Bangalore . . . . .	7,98,121	7,77,596	+ 20,225	37'8	4'4	32'0	25'2	23 1 9	2 10 5	10 14 11	15 6 11	61 1 3
Aden . . . . .	94,596	97,183	- 2,583	40'0	5'0	13'4	40'7	17 0 0	3 0 0	5 0 0	18 0 0	44 0 0
INDIA . . . . .	20,87,46,319	19,90,30,340*	+ 97,11,973	47'9	13'1	22'4	16'6	10 3 0	2 12 7	4 12 6	3 8 9	21 4 10

\* Revised figures.



## II. CONTROLLING AUTHORITIES.

*Legislative Councils.*—No new educational legislation was passed during the year. The Assam Primary Education Bill was still under consideration and was passed in a revised form during 1925. The form in which legislation should be introduced for the improvement of secondary education in Bengal was further discussed between representatives of the Government and the University without any final decision being reached. The provincial councils continue to show a lively interest in education and to press for further expenditure from provincial revenues on this object. Exceptions were the local councils of Bengal and the Central Provinces, where the interests of education were sacrificed for political ends. The Bengal Council made a reduction of nearly 6½ lakhs in the budget of the Education Department with the object of abolishing the subordinate educational staff. Bengal with its thousands of small primary schools under untrained teachers has particular need of a strong inspecting staff to supervise the work of the elementary schools and to see that the grants from public funds are spent to the best advantage. Fortunately the Council at its meeting in August 1924 restored the grant and thus put an end to a period of great disquietude among the lower ranks of the educational service. In the Central Provinces the Provincial Council threw out the whole of the education budget for the year. Although the Governor subsequently by certificate restored to the Education Department sufficient funds to carry on its ordinary activities this act on the part of the Legislature temporarily stopped any educational advance.

A number of resolutions on educational topics were discussed in provincial Councils. In Assam, for example, 27 resolutions were tabled, of which 16 were discussed and five passed. Most of the resolutions discussed by the local Legislatures were of purely local interest. Among those of more general character discussed in several Councils were—the more rapid introduction of free and compulsory education, the use of the vernacular as a medium of instruction, the improvement of the system of physical education in schools and colleges and the addition of technical subjects to the secondary school curriculum.

*Local Boards.*—The recent revision in several provinces of the constitution of local boards and the devolution to them of greater responsibility in educational matters has led in some cases to friction between these bodies and the district inspecting staff. Such occurrences are inevitable until both parties learn that there must be co-operation between the administrative and executive authorities and reach some working agreement between themselves; no elaborate regulations can prevent friction. As an illustration of the misunderstanding on the part of local bodies of their relations to the schools under their charge, it is reported from more than one province that teachers have been employed for the collection of taxes and even of subscriptions for political purposes. The Bihar and Orissa Council passed a resolution, action on which has been deferred, in favour of Government handing over the subordinate inspecting agency to local bodies. This step has already been taken

in four of the districts in the Central Provinces. It is an experiment that has been repeatedly tried in India and elsewhere but always without success. If Government continues to supply an increasing proportion of the cost of vernacular education, it has a duty to the tax-payers to see that the money is spent to the best advantage. In Bombay the devolution of powers to local bodies has meant not only the handing over of the sub-inspectorate but also of the control of rural schools; for, by a system peculiar to Bombay among the major provinces, hitherto all rural schools have been Government institutions directly administered by the Department of Education.

*The Indian Educational Service.*—One of the most notable events of the year was the closing of further recruitment to the Indian Educational Service. With the retirement from time to time of its existing members the Indian Educational Service will gradually be brought to an end. This step was taken on the recommendation of the Royal Commission on Public Services; recruitment to the Service being stopped with effect from May 1924.

The Indian Educational Service came into being as a result of the Public Services Commission of 1886. It was actually constituted in 1896 when the superior educational service in India was divided into two branches, the one to be filled by persons recruited in England and to be called the Indian Educational Service, the other known as the Provincial Educational Service to be filled by recruitment in India. In 1919 the services were revised, the Indian Educational Service being constituted as the superior service and thrown open to Indians, while the so-called Provincial Educational Service was split up into real local or provincial services. At the time of this reorganisation the posts in the Indian Educational Service were increased by one-third in number by a transfer of superior posts from the Provincial Educational Service. It was then laid down that the proportion of Indians in this Service should on an average be 50 per cent. of the total strength excluding the posts in Burma. Actually the position in January 1925 was as follows:—

PROVINCE.	SANCTIONED CADRE.			NUMBER OF APPOINTMENTS ACTUALLY FILLED.			NUMBER OF INDIANS.		
	Men.	Women.	TOTAL.	Men.	Women.	TOTAL.	Men.	Women.	TOTAL.
Madras	53	13	66	38	11	49	21	6	27
Bombay	57	6	63	43	6	49	23	3	26
Bengal	68	4	72	46	4	50	21	...	21
United Provinces	43	2	45	34	1	35	14	...	14
Punjab	37	3	40	32	2	34	12	...	12
Burma	37	3	40	33	2	35	6	...	6
Bihar and Orissa	34	5	39	31	4	35	12	...	12
Central Provinces and Berar.	33	3	36	22	2	24	7	...	7
Assam	12	1	13	8	...	8	2	...	2
North West Frontier Province.	5	1	6	2	1	3	2	...	2
INDIA	379	41	420	259	33	322	139	9	139

It will be seen that the process of Indianisation had proceeded very rapidly. It will also be seen that a very large number of posts were vacant when recruitment to it was stopped in May 1924. This was partly due to the difficulties of recruitment in England during the war and post-war years. It was also the effect of economy. Provincial Governments in the then conditions of financial stringency were loth to recommend the filling of vacancies in the Indian Educational Service while they had men in their Provincial Educational Service whom they considered competent to carry out the duties of the vacant posts. The Indian Educational Service had a brief but fine record. The present organisation of education in the provinces is largely the work of members of this Service; while in the sphere of higher education it has produced many men of more than ordinary attainments.

### III. UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.

*Universities' Conference.*—A conference of Indian universities was held at Simla in May 1924. This was the first conference of its kind held in India and it was attended by representatives of all the fifteen universities established by law in British India and the Indian States, namely, Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Punjab, Allahabad, Patna, Benares Hindu, Aligarh Muslim, Dacca, Lucknow, Rangoon, Nagpur, Delhi, Osmania and Mysore. Altogether 51 representatives attended the conference including many of the Vice-Chancellors. The conference was opened by His Excellency the Viceroy who delivered an inaugural address. It was presided over by the Hon'ble Sir Narasimha Sarma, Member for Education in the Council of the Governor General, and lasted for five days. The conference dealt with a number of important topics of common interest to Indian universities and made recommendations concerning (a) the appointment and conditions of service of university teachers, (b) libraries, (c) the constitution of a central advisory board for scientific research, (d) the recognition of Indian degrees by English universities, (e) Indian students in England, (f) University training corps, (g) modern languages in university curricula. Other subjects which were discussed were referred for further consideration to an Inter-University Board, which the conference recommended should be established, with one representative from each Indian university. The functions of this Board were defined as follows:—

- (a) to act as an inter-university organisation and bureau of information;
- (b) to facilitate the exchange of professors;
- (c) to serve as an authorised channel of communication and facilitate the co-ordination of university work;
- (d) to assist Indian universities in obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations in other countries;

- (e) to appoint or recommend, where necessary, a common representative or representatives of India at Imperial or International conferences on higher education;
- (f) to act as an appointments bureau for Indian universities;
- (g) to fulfil such other duties as may be assigned to it from time to time by the Indian universities.

The first meeting of the Inter-University Board was held at Bombay in March 1925. It was attended by representatives of all the universities which took part in the conference, except those of Calcutta, Allahabad and Lucknow. The Educational Commissioner with the Government of India also attended in an advisory capacity. The Revd. E. M. Macphail, Vice-Chancellor of the Madras University, was elected Chairman, and Mr. N. S. Subba Rao, Principal of the Maharajah's College, Mysore, Secretary of the Board for the ensuing year. It considered amongst other questions the conditions of service of University teachers; the equivalence of examinations; and the recognition of Indian degrees by the University of Cambridge.

*Universities.*—There were no new universities opened during the year. The number of arts colleges increased from 170 to 185. This number, however, includes in the case of Madras 19 Sanskrit colleges with an attendance of only 267 students. The number of students in attendance at arts colleges increased from 56,189 to 62,543, the largest increase being in Bengal.

*Statistics of Universities in India.*

University.	Type.	Date of Foundation.	Faculties.	ANNUAL STATISTICS.			REMARKS.	
				Year.	Number of Teaching Staff.	Number of Students.		Number of Students who Graduated in Arts and Science.
1. Calcutta . . .	Affiliating and Teaching.	1857	A., Sc., L., Eng., M.	1924-25	1,456	29,094	2,028	
2. Bombay . . .	Affiliating . . .	1857	A., Sc., L., M. . . .	1924-25	554	11,338	796	
3. Madras . . .	Affiliating and Teaching.	1857 and 1923	A., Sc., Ed., Ag., L., Eng., M.	1924-25	1,370	17,127	1,488	
4. Punjab . . .	Affiliating and Teaching.	1882	A., Sc., O., Ag., Com., L., M.	1924-25	630	10,890	722	
5. Allahabad . . .	Affiliating and Teaching.	1887 and 1921	A., Sc., Ec., Com., L. . .	1924-25	263	2,370	497	
6. Benares Hindu . . .	Teaching . . .	1916	A., Sc., O., L., Th. . .	1924-25	127	1,946	208	Twenty-three graduates in Engineering (B. Sc.) are included.
7. Mysore* . . .	Teaching . . .	1916	A., Sc., Eng., M. . . .	1924-25	100	1,199	262	
8. Patna . . .	Affiliating . . .	1917	A., Sc., Ed., L., Eng., M.	1925	229	2,847	301	
9. Osmania* . . .	Teaching . . .	1918	A., L., Th. . . . .	1924-25	75	631	80	Faculty of Arts includes Science.

\* Outside British India and incorporated by law in an Indian State.

Statistics of Universities in India—concl.

University.	Type.	Date of Foundation.	Faculties.	ANNUAL STATISTICS.			REMARKS.	
				Year.	Number of Teaching Staff.	Number of Students.		Number of Students who Graduated in Arts and Science.
10. Aligarh Muslim	Teaching	1920	A., Sc., Ed., Th.	1924-25	57	1,121	263	Faculties are here called Departments of Studies.
11. Rangoon . . .	Teaching	1920	A., Sc., Ec., Ed., L., Eng., M., F.	1924-25 1925-26	121 116	1,301 1,263	62 55	
12. Lucknow . . .	Teaching	1920	A., Sc., Com., L., M.	1924-25 1925-26	97 104	1,130 1,137	135 125	
13. Dacca . . .	Teaching	1921	A., Sc., L.	1924-25	89	1,481	140	
14. Delhi . . .	Affiliating and Teaching.	1922	A., Sc., L.	1924-25 1925-26	70 80	1,221 1,292	147 127	
15. Nagpur . . .	Affiliating	1923	A., Sc., Ed., L.	1924-25	82	1,281	91	
16. Andhra† . . .	...	...	.....	...	...	...	...	

† The Act constituting the "Andhra University" was passed in 1926, long after the close of the year under review.

ABBREVIATIONS.— A. = Arts;                      So. = Science;                      O. = Oriental Learning;                      Ec. = Economics;                      Ed. = Education;  
 Ag. = Agriculture;                      Com. = Commerce;                      L. = Law;                      Eng. = Engineering;                      M. = Medicine;  
 Th. = Theology;                      Tch. = Technology;                      F. = Forestry;

**N.B.** The teaching of the "affiliating" Universities is carried on by the staffs of their Constituent Colleges, but generally the Universities themselves provide instruction in certain branches of higher education as required by the Universities Act of 1904.

Higher education in Bengal suffered a great loss with the death of Sir Ashutosh Mukherji. He had been five times Vice-Chancellor of the Calcutta University and had for many years devoted himself to its interests. Possessed of remarkable intellectual power and indefatigable industry his work, more especially in the establishment and development of the post-graduate department of the Calcutta University, will leave a lasting impression on higher education in Bengal. His death was quickly followed by that of Mr. B. N. Basu, his successor in the Vice-Chancellorship. Under the circumstances it is not surprising to find that no further progress was made with the reconstitution of the Calcutta University.

The Madras University in its reconstituted form began to function at the beginning of the year. The new statutes and ordinances prepared by the Vice-Chancellor—Dr. E. M. Macphail—who had been vested with special powers, were generally accepted by the Senate in April and sanctioned by His Excellency the Chancellor. The newly constituted Academic Council and Council of Affiliated Colleges met in August.

The long standing controversy as to the location of the Patna University was finally settled in the winter of 1924. The scheme for a residential university on the Phulwari site has been abandoned and the new college buildings, hostels laboratories and university buildings are to be erected near the town of Patna. Five lakhs have been provided for the acquisition of land and other preliminary work. The whole project is estimated to cost thirty lakhs. Meanwhile improvements, long overdue, have been effected in the Patna College.

Building projects have also been initiated by the Government of the Central Provinces in connection with the Nagpur University. A grant has been given for a new library and building operations have commenced. A college of science has been sanctioned at an estimated cost of eleven lakhs. The university building, which is to contain the university offices, an examination and convocation hall and the law college, are under construction. The building is estimated to cost two lakhs, towards which Messrs. Tata and Sons have made a generous donation of one lakh.

The Delhi University is still without a permanent habitation, nor has the question of its future site yet been settled. It moved in the winter to more commodious and suitable premises in Curzon House, where it was also able to house its Law Hall.

Several universities have extended their educational activities. Rangoon, for example, has opened courses in forestry, engineering, geography and geology. Delhi has established law classes. Nagpur has affiliated the Agricultural College. Benares has added no fewer than five professors and several assistant professors to its staff.

The last named university and the Aligarh Muslim University were both seriously in need of more funds. The Benares Hindu University was over sixteen lakhs in debt and the interest on this sum makes such a serious addition to the annual cost of maintenance that the debt is growing from year to year. The University has

spent large sums on its buildings but more money is still needed for this purpose. A particular need is a hostel for the students of its engineering college, an excellent institution which is capable of large expansion were funds forthcoming. The Aligarh Muslim University needs money for new laboratories and to develop a technological branch; while additional money is needed to meet the revised salaries of the staff.

*Indian Degrees.*—Some of the newer universities have found difficulty in obtaining recognition of their degrees by English universities, more particularly by the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. This is unfortunate; but there is no doubt that the recent rapid increase in the number of universities in India, the absence of any authority for co-ordinating university standards and the very mediocre attainments of some of the Indian graduates who have proceeded to England account for this hesitation on the part of the English university authorities. The London University, for example, has recently warned one of the older Indian universities that it can no longer accept its graduates without question but must in future consider each application on its merits. The Inter-University Board addressed the Cambridge University on the subject of Indian degrees. That there should be some divergence in the standards maintained by different universities is inevitable, but the following table seems to show that these standards vary in some cases far more than is either necessary or desirable.

### *Degree Examinations.*

Province.	University.	PERCENTAGE OF PASSES.			
		B. A. (Pass)		B. Sc. (Pass).	
		1923.	1924.	1923.	1924.
		Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.	Per cent.
Madras	1. Madras	(a)	(b)	(b)	50.0
Bombay	2. Bombay	47.39	49.18	55.97	51.94
Bengal	3. Calcutta	67.60	66.40	68.70	69.20
	4. Dacca	64.10	55.80	42.50	37.20
United Provinces	5. Allahabad	47.10	54.0	64.30	75.0
	6. Benares Hindu	58.06	54.60	38.24	61.30
	7. Aligarh Muslim	88.0	77.0	100.0	90.0
Punjab	8. Lucknow	65.86	81.70	60.0	79.49
	9. Punjab	45.40	51.70	67.30	48.80
Burma	10. Rangoon	65.38	51.89	55.0	48.78
Bihar and Orissa	11. Patna	50.80	51.02	37.50	34.09
Central Provinces and Berar.	12. Nagpur	(b)	42.0	(b)	76.0
Delhi	13. Delhi	62.50	52.90	(b)	(b)
Mysore State	14. Mysore	(a)	(a)	(a)	(a)
Hyderabad State (Deccan)	15. Osmania	77.42	66.44	(b)	(b)
	TOTAL AVERAGE	59.1	58.8	63.0	63.2

(a) Not available.

(b) No examination.



In the table above statistics for the pass degrees only have been given because the numbers entering for these examinations are large. A high percentage of passes at a degree examination is only justifiable when the preliminary examinations have been so severe that none but qualified students have been admitted to the degree course. The converse also holds true; and a low percentage of passes at the degree examinations suggests laxity in the standards of the entrance examination. It is a very doubtful kindness which encourages boys to spend time and money in pursuing courses of study for which they are unfit. Still more to be deprecated is any lowering of the standard of university degrees at a time when graduates of distinction find great difficulty in obtaining suitable employment. The committee appointed by the Bengal Government to enquire into the causes of unemployment among the educated issued its report, but offered no general solution of the problem and gave no data as to the extent of the unemployment or of the opportunities open to graduates.

*Indian Students in England.*—The number of students who go to England to complete their studies continues to increase. Altogether between 1,500 and 2,000 students were reported to be studying in the United Kingdom in 1925. Of these 583 were reading at the Inns of Court, 360 at the London University, 224 at Edinburgh, 117 at Cambridge and 86 at Oxford; the rest were studying at provincial universities or undergoing technical training. A decision was reached by the Government of India after hearing the views of the Universities' Conference on most of the recommendations made by the Lytton Committee. It was decided, for example, to continue the existing organisation attached to the High Commissioner's Office, hitherto known as the Indian Students' Department, to make it an integral part of that office under the title of 'Education Department of the Office of the High Commissioner for India.' It was also decided that the work hitherto carried on by the Students' Advisory Committees in India should be transferred to Information Bureaux to be established by each of the Indian universities.

On the general position of Indian students in England the following interesting remarks are quoted from the High Commissioner's letter forwarding the annual report:—

“Complaints are sometimes heard that Indian students who now come for training to this country are of inferior calibre and qualifications compared with those who came a generation ago. It is true that immediately after the war there was an unwholesome rush of ill-equipped and immature Indian youths for training in England and abroad, and instances of this kind still come to the notice of the High Commissioner and his staff. Sir Atul Chatterjee has, however, observed with great satisfaction that among those who now seek training here there is a very considerable proportion of serious and earnest students who have already done well at the Colleges and Universities in India and who do credit to themselves and their country during their career in England. Apart from success in the

classroom, laboratory, or examination hall, of which notable instances are recorded in the Report of the Joint Secretaries, many Indian students have recently distinguished themselves in their college debating societies and in athletics, some even representing their Universities in the latter field. The High Commissioner is confident that students of this type will always be welcome in British educational institutions."

*Indian Institute of Science.*—At the same time the development in India of institutions for higher learning and research continues. Amongst the most important of these is the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore which contains departments of (a) General and Organic Chemistry, (b) Electrical Technology, (c) Bio-Chemistry. During the last session there were some 109 students in attendance: five of these were sent by private firms, and some were maintained as scholars by the Local Governments of Madras, Bombay, Bengal and the Central Provinces and by the States of Mysore, Gwalior, Baroda and Bhavnagar. Much valuable research work done chiefly in connection with the application of chemistry to industry and agriculture. The Department of Electrical Technology provides advanced courses of instruction in the subject with facilities for original investigation. A new club house for students at the gymkhana was presented by Sir D. J. Tata.

#### IV. SECONDARY EDUCATION.

*High Schools.*—The number of high schools increased from 2,421 to 2,530. The increase in the number of Government high schools in recent years requires explanation in view of the fact that local Governments are relying more and more on private enterprise to provide secondary English education. The only large increase is in the Punjab. The Punjab Government, in accordance with their policy for the equalisation of educational facilities, are opening high schools in backward areas where no private agencies are available to found or manage schools. There are now, for example, five high schools in Shahpur and four in Attock, in each of which districts there was only one high school a few years ago.

Bengal still heads the list with its 996 high schools. Of these no less than 556 are unaided. In other provinces recognition is quickly followed by the award of Government grant which enables a school to maintain itself in at least a reasonable state of efficiency, though the North-West Frontier Province complains that its funds are insufficient to give adequate grants for this purpose. Of the 1,508 high schools situated outside Bengal only 100 are not in receipt of aid from public funds.

The need for a better form of control over secondary education is realised by all parties in Bengal. Unfortunately the Calcutta University and the Bengal Government have not yet been able to agree upon the form that this control should take. Meanwhile the Dacca Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education continues to function in a very restricted area. A similar board took over the

control of secondary education in the Central Provinces during the year and is reported to have made a vigorous start.

*Courses and Methods.*—Among questions which have assumed great importance at the present time is that concerning the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction and examination in high departments. The difficulty caused by the number of vernaculars in current use in a single province is illustrated in the report on the first examination conducted by the Central Provinces High School Education Board. The examination papers had to be translated into three vernaculars. Complaints were made, not without cause, that the translators had in some cases failed to make the meaning of the question clear. Nor is it possible to ensure absolute uniformity of standard in the marking of papers by examiners in different media. Although it is too early to arrive at a definite conclusion, the examination does not give evidence of the superior results which it was anticipated would be obtained in most subjects from instruction being given in the pupils' own vernacular. On the other hand, the difference in the standard of English reached by a pupil who was taught his general subjects through the medium of English and one taught through the vernacular is reported to be glaring. "The work of the one is spontaneous and direct, showing that he thinks in English, whereas that of the other is laborious and artificial, showing that he first thinks in the vernacular and then struggles to put his ideas into English. Examples could be quoted to show that the candidates using the English medium have freely utilised the vocabulary gained in the study of various subjects, whereas those using other media were considerably handicapped."

Another problem which has been exercising the minds of controlling authorities in several provinces is the place which should be assigned to history and geography in the Matriculation courses. While English, mathematics and a second language are generally accepted as necessary subjects for Matriculation considerable divergence of opinion exists as to the selection of the remaining subjects. Both history and geography have now been made compulsory at Dacca, and the Calcutta University proposes to follow this lead. The United Provinces Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education has now separated history from geography and made one or other compulsory. The Punjab, after leaving both subjects optional for some years, has recently decided to combine them as one compulsory subject, but not to make a pass in this subject obligatory. The general knowledge of the ordinary matriculate and undergraduate is woefully deficient. But it is doubtful whether the introduction of compulsory geography will remedy this defect. In all Indian secondary schools a fairly detailed course of geography is taught in the middle department; yet it is quite usual for a boy of the Matriculation class to betray amazing ignorance of simple geographical facts and to excuse his ignorance by the plea that he is not taking geography for Matriculation. He has not assimilated what he has learnt because he has made no use of it. The small encouragement given to general reading has been noted in previous reports and Directors again comment on the lack of suitable reading material.

The masters themselves read little but their textbooks and the newspapers.

General knowledge is often used in Indian education as a technical term to denote history and geography; properly speaking it should mean that body of information which a scholar possesses as a result of all his school work and his private reading. The lack of correlation between different subjects is noted in the report of the United Provinces. Subjects are taught in the high department by various specialists and any common interest in them is ignored. Co-ordination should be brought about by the expert supervision of the headmaster which is generally lacking. In particular the teaching of such special subjects as drawing and classical languages is left almost entirely in the hands of subordinate masters.

However a steady improvement is shown in the qualifications of secondary teachers. Out of 37,036 teachers in high schools 15,379 are trained. The North-West Frontier Province with 75 per cent. of trained teachers takes a high place. The proportion of qualified teachers would be much higher were it not for 556 unaided schools in Bengal staffed with 6,705 teachers, of whom only 541 are trained; even in the aided schools only 849 out of 5,059 teachers are trained.

Further progress with the introduction of pre-vocational subjects is reported from Madras, where woodwork, weaving, sericulture and other similar subjects are taught in several secondary schools. In the Punjab the system of manual training centres attended by boys from local high schools is proving successful. At Ambala, for example, the training centre is attended by no less than 800 boys from different schools.

Further isolated experiments with the Dalton System are reported, for example from the Armenitola High School, Dacca. The Assam Director after giving an account of the successful use of this system in the Shillong High School concludes: "The Dalton Plan in my opinion demands for its successful working a strong and enthusiastic headmaster, a strong and capable staff of teachers and equipment on a scale somewhat better than is usual in our schools".

*Recreation.*—Most favourable reports are received of the progress of the Boy Scout movement from all quarters. This movement, says Sir George Anderson, has already many achievements to its credit. In the first place it has gone far to provide means of happy and healthy recreation. In the second place the movement has awakened in the boys a desire for social service. In the third place it is a world-wide movement which recognises no distinctions of race, caste or creed and therefore may do much to counteract the communal rivalries and friction which still persist in the Punjab. Instances of special service are reported from the United Provinces and the Punjab, where boy scouts did valuable work during the disastrous floods of 1924. A camp attended by over 1,000 scouts was held at Mandla in the Central Provinces, while 3,000 scouts attended the camp at Multan in the Punjab.

Participation in school games is too often the privilege of the picked few. The 'play for all' movement in the Punjab aims at improving this state of things. A school period is set aside in which every class plays games, including a number of athletic exercises and Indian games, under the supervision of the masters. The games of each class are changed from day to day. The movement has spread rapidly and is deservedly popular.

*Middle Schools.—(a) English.*—There is a wide diversity of practice in the treatment of middle schools. The middle English school is little more than an embryo high school and the chief question at issue is whether there should or should not be a public examination at the end of the course. Such an examination has been reintroduced with success in the North-West Frontier Province. On the other hand it has been abolished in Ajmer-Merwara on the ground that it tempted successful pupils to leave off their studies. In Burma, owing to the inability of the teachers of English schools to cope with the large influx of pupils, only 36 per cent. of the candidates presented for the Government Middle examination were successful. The Council of National Education conducted its own examination and passed 15 per cent. of the candidates. The Council is considering the abolition of the examination "presumably as an impious attempt to fathom the depths of human ignorance".

*(b) Vernacular.*—Vernacular middle schools are classed as primary schools in Madras and Bombay, but here, as in the northern provinces of India, the final examination is the qualification for admission to elementary training schools. An increasing demand for these institutions is therefore reported from the United Provinces and the Punjab. The use of the vernacular middle schools as a training ground for future agriculturists is proving very successful in the Punjab. There are now twenty-seven schools with model farms attached. No less than twelve of these school farms have actually worked at a profit, while seven of the remainder show an annual loss of from Rs. 6 to Rs. 100 only. A similar system is being introduced in the United Provinces where ten teachers have been sent for training to the Agricultural School at Bulandshahr, subsequently to be attached to the staffs of board vernacular middle schools for which farms are being purchased.

*English Teaching in Middle Schools.*—The demand for the introduction of English teaching in middle schools becomes more pressing every year. In Bengal it is met by the conversion of vernacular middle into middle English schools: elsewhere the device of adding optional English classes open to those who go up for them has been adopted. In the United Provinces such classes are to be added to one vernacular middle school in each district. In the Central Provinces an initial local subscription of Rs. 600 is required to meet capital expenses and the fees for attendance are Re. 1-8 per mensem. In spite of these deterrents 46 schools introduced optional English classes during the year, of which no less than 36 were in Berar. The quality of the English teaching in vernacular schools leaves much to be desired and the wisdom of this

experiment has been questioned but there is no doubt as to its popularity. The difficulty is to meet this demand for English without detracting from the value of the vernacular middle course as a preparation for rural life and for the village schoolmaster.

### V. PRIMARY EDUCATION (BOYS).

The number of primary schools for boys in India increased from 144,425 to 150,919 and the number of pupils in attendance from 6,137,055 to 6,451,925. The largest increase is reported from Bihar and Orissa where primary schools for boys increased by over two thousand and pupils in attendance by eighty-two thousand.

*Compulsory Education.*—Compulsory education moves slowly.

Province.	Date of Act.	AREAS UNDER "COMPULSION."	
		Municipalities and Urban Areas.	District Boards and Rural Areas.
1. Bombay . . . . .	February 1918 . . . . .	5	..
	(For the City of Bombay only) 1920.	...	...
	February 1923 . . . . .	...	...
2. Bihar and Orissa . . . . .	February 1919 . . . . .	1	1
3. Punjab . . . . .	April 1919 . . . . .	25	290*
4. Bengal . . . . .	May 1919 . . . . .	...	...
5. United Provinces . . . . .	June 1919 . . . . .	18	...
6. Central Provinces . . . . .	May 1920 . . . . .	1	11*
7. Madras . . . . .	December 1920 . . . . .	15	...
8. Delhi . . . . .	(Punjab Act applied) 1925.	...	...

*N.B.*—The above table does not include areas for which schemes of compulsory primary education are under consideration or have been sanctioned but not yet introduced. It includes, on the other hand, areas in which such schemes have been partially introduced.

\* Individual school areas.

The Punjab still leads in the matter of compulsory education in villages. At the present stage, as Sir George Anderson points out, compulsion in India can only be effective if it is voluntary. "Thus, in the Punjab, it is the villagers who apply for compulsion and not the local body which enforces compulsion on an unwilling people". The motives which prompt this application are many. Sometimes it is merely a burning desire for education, sometimes it is the example of a neighbouring village, sometimes it is with the aim of increasing enrolment so that their school may be raised in status to a lower middle or even a full middle school. The success in this province is partly due to the valuable and effective help given by the Co-operative Department. Mention was made in the last year's

narrative of the compulsory education co-operative societies. The following account by the Registrar, Co-operative Societies, is interesting:—"The parents who become members bind themselves to send their children to school to the end of the four primary classes; the society is governed by an elected committee and has no legal or official authority other than that conferred upon it by the registration of its by-laws under the Co-operative Societies Act. The by-laws provide for the imposition of a penalty not exceeding Rs. 50 on any member who without sufficient cause omits to send his child to school; the penalty is imposed by the committee, and recovered by the committee. Seventy-nine registered societies have 4,124 parent members, and a number of others are awaiting registration. \* \* \* \* The attendance is stated by the local co-operative officers to be from 90 to 100 per cent. and it is natural that a higher percentage should be secured from this 'voluntary compulsion' of selected persons than from 'State compulsion' under the Primary Education Act. The committees found it necessary to utilise their special arbitration procedure against 48 defaulters and 20 fines were imposed. The fines have been paid, the children are attending school, and the parents have not withdrawn from the societies. A concerted attempt to break up a compulsory society for girls was made by 14 members of a Lvallpur village. The committee stood firm, fined three of the offenders Rs. 50 and eleven Rs. 5 each, and won the battle. The school is working satisfactorily."

*Expansion of Voluntary Education by Programmes.*—The necessity for proceeding according to a definite programme for the expansion of primary education in unschooled districts is now generally recognised. An experimental survey was conducted by the Madras Government in a single taluk. The survey was completed in May 1924. A survey of all the taluks in the Presidency on the lines of the model survey was then conducted by the inspecting officers of the Department in co-operation with the revenue officers. Maps and registers showing the results of the survey were prepared and a routine of these records was commenced from February 1925. Meanwhile Government sanctioned subsidies to fifty taluk boards which had levied the educational cess towards the opening of 825 schools in villages with a population of one thousand or more, till then unprovided with schools.

In Bengal further progress was made on the lines of the Pan-chayati Union scheme and Mr. Biss's proposals. The former aims at providing each union with an efficient lower primary school, the latter is designed to provide each municipal or union board area with a central and one or more ancillary schools, according to the needs of the locality, on a scale of pay higher than is customary in Bengal primary schools. The expenditure in the former scheme is borne exclusively by Government, in the latter it is divided equally between Government and the local body; consequently the rate of progress along the lines laid down by Mr. Biss is determined by the readiness with which municipal and union boards come forward with projects and proposals to meet their share of the cost.

In Bihar and Orissa, where there is an increasing demand for primary education, the programmes of expansion drawn up four years ago have been revised and resubmitted to Government for approval. This province also reports revision in the rates of pay of primary teachers which will in future range from Rs. 9 to Rs. 12 as a minimum in the case of trained teachers and from Rs. 4 to Rs. 7 in the case of untrained teachers. Where no fees are realised by the teachers an additional grant of Rs. 3 is allowed in each case.

The number of lay schools in Burma is steadily increasing. The Director foresees the time when, unless the pōngyis change their attitude towards education, the monastic schools will disappear as they have done in Ceylon. The recommendations of the Vernacular Education Committee were considered by the Burma Government, but few of them were found suitable for adoption.

In the North-West Frontier Province the number of primary schools has fallen, owing to retrenchment, from 625 in 1923 to 497. Of the towns and villages in the province with over fifteen hundred inhabitants more than one hundred are unprovided with any school. Meanwhile the demand for education is so great that the existing schools are overcrowded and the attendance is higher than ever.

*Primary School Buildings.*—In most provinces the lack of proper accommodation for primary schools is a crying evil. Probably the situation in India in this respect is without parallel. Thousands of primary schools are opened every year in rented or borrowed premises. Very little attempt is made by local bodies to provide even their well established schools with buildings. Rarely does the number of primary school buildings constructed in any year approach the number of new schools opened, so that no effort is made to make the accommodation provided keep pace with the rate of expansion. This question is most serious in those municipal areas where compulsory education is being introduced. In all such cases reliance is being placed on the hiring of temporary premises. As yet municipalities dare not face the problem of providing large central buildings such as are found in western countries. Every year as the solution of this problem is deferred the cost involved becomes greater; but compulsory education in municipal areas will never become really effective until the children are grouped together in large schools. It is impossible to check properly the attendance at a number of small schools conducted in private houses. Even where school buildings have been erected complaints are made that they have been allowed to fall into disrepair. While the pride of the managers or of the parents may induce the erection of suitable buildings for high schools, nothing but the pressure exercised by Government inspectors and public recognition of the need can bring about better housing for our primary schools.

*Free books, etc.*—Of other questions involved in the introduction of compulsory education, such as the provision of free school books for children, little is heard, though the Karachi Municipality has gone so far as to spend considerable sums on the clothing of the poorest scholars.



## VI. FEMALE EDUCATION.

The number of recognised institutions for girls rose by 1,163 to 25,935 and the number of pupils by 46,931 to 990,617. It is interesting to note that the increase in attendance at school of boys—466,847—is just ten times the increase in the case of girls. Of the new girls' schools 500 are situated in Bengal with 17,000 additional pupils. Bihar and Orissa comes next with 300 new schools and 8,000 new pupils. The increase elsewhere is negligible.

A comparison of general table IV-B for this and the preceding year shows that the increase in attendance is entirely in the first primary class in which the numbers rose from 572,000 to 625,000. The number of girls who have reached the High Department—5,868—remains practically stationary and of this number about half belong to the European or Indian Christian communities. Fifty more scholars are reported to be reading in colleges.

These figures do not indicate any change in the general attitude of parents towards the education of their daughters. The forces which hinder the advance of female education, an account of which will be found in the last Quinquennial Review of Education in India, have lost none of their strength. On the contrary the year is marked by one or two discouraging features. In the first place the expenditure by district boards on girls' schools showed a decline for the second year in succession, though there is a slight increase in expenditure by municipalities, possibly accounted for by the opening of some free primary schools by the Calcutta Corporation. Several reports emphasise the little interest that is taken by district boards in female education. In the second place the already wholly inadequate inspecting staff has been further reduced. While in towns and in a few rural areas valuable pioneer work has been done by denominational bodies, both European and Indian, it is the devoted work of the inspectresses which is largely responsible for the spread of female education in the countryside. With the present strength of the female inspecting staff it is not even possible for them to supervise the existing girls' schools and much of this work must be left to men. This in itself acts as a deterrent to further enrolment. In Burma a proposal to increase the staff of inspectresses from two to four was held over by Government as not immediately urgent. In Assam the single post of Inspectress was abolished, and the whole of the inspection of girls' schools was left to one Assistant Inspectress with the help of the male inspecting staff. Bengal with 12,000 recognised girls' schools has two inspectresses and twelve assistant inspectresses. Very similar conditions exist in other provinces.

*Buildings.*—If the buildings for boys' primary schools are insufficient in number and unsuitable in character, the condition of girls' schools is even worse. They have often to be contented with the building or equipment no longer required for a boys' school, just as their teacher is often a superannuated and inefficient village schoolmaster. In one board school in the Gujerat district of the

Punjab the girls have to be contented with half a stable, the other half being required for the cattle.

*Higher Education.*—When a girl does succeed in emerging from the infant class she makes surprisingly rapid progress. The teaching in secondary schools is generally good and girls do very well at examinations. For example, of 186 girls who appeared for pass degrees at Indian universities no less than 142 were successful.

*Zenana Education.*—An interesting experiment in zenana education is being tried in Dacca in which some of the methods of the Parents' National Education Union are being used. A course of the lower primary standard has been drawn up in reading, writing, arithmetic, hygiene and general information. The pupils are given fortnightly assignments of work. A zenana governess visits each pupil, at first twice a week and then at gradually lengthening intervals till the minimum of a fortnightly visit is reached. On finishing their assignments the pupils undergo a test and if successful are allowed to begin the next assignment. The pupils do the greater portion of the work themselves; the governess merely assists them when difficulties arise. The basic object of the scheme is not so much to teach as to get the pupils to educate themselves, which is essential if zenana education is ever to make headway.

## VII. PROFESSIONAL AND TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

### (a) *The Training of Teachers.*

There were, as in the previous year, 22 training colleges for English teachers with an attendance of about 1,000 students. The number of normal or training schools for vernacular teachers declined by 56, owing to the closing of a number of local training classes in the United Provinces.

*Training Colleges.*—The training colleges are among the most efficient educational institutions in India. Only more of them are needed. Burma is without any such institution, but a scheme for training secondary teachers at the Rangoon University was drawn up by Dr. Clark, Professor of Education. The scheme would, if sanctioned, involve a large capital and recurring expenditure. Assam still has to depend on the hospitability of Bengal, which is itself very poorly supplied, with only two training colleges containing 107 students to supply the needs of 2,500 English schools. At the Dacca College valuable research and experiments in education have been conducted by Mr. West and his colleagues, some of the results of which were shown at an exhibition held during the year. The new building for the David Hare Training College in Calcutta is nearly complete: the buildings are of the most modern type and stand in fine grounds of their own at Ballyganj. It has now been recognised that only the inducement of special grants for the payment of enhanced salaries to trained teachers will persuade aided schools to send their teachers for training: the Bengal grant-in-aid rules are being amended accordingly. With the opening of

training colleges at the Lucknow, Benares and Aligarh Universities, the United Provinces is now well provided with five institutions of this type. The better prospects before the teaching profession have attracted a better class of students.

*Training Schools.*—Of the 280,000 teachers in primary schools 124,000 are trained. The percentage would be much higher but for the presence of some 116,000 untrained teachers in recognised private schools. In municipal and district board schools the percentage of trained teachers is as high as 75. In some boards nearly cent per cent. of the primary teachers are trained. It is true that the standard of training varies very much in different provinces, but the general position is certainly not unsatisfactory. The North-West Frontier Province has even been able to extend the length of the training course; but this step has only been rendered possible by the stoppage of further expansion and consequently of the demand for new teachers. The great improvements in the pay of village schoolmasters which have been effected in all provinces in recent years have made the teaching career an attractive one to the village school boy with more than ordinary brains, but without the means or ambition to adventure into the ranks of the "English educated" classes.

(b) *Other Professional and Technical Education.*

Professional and technical institutions, other than training schools and colleges, are with few exceptions not in the charge of the provincial departments of education. Consequently the information about them supplied in educational reports is chiefly statistical. The following table summarises this information.

Type of Institution.	1925.		1924.	
	Institutions.	Scholars.	Institutions.	Scholars.
Law colleges and schools . . . . .	13	7,351	13	8,140
Medical colleges and schools . . . . .	34	8,930	37	9,169
Engineering colleges and schools . . . . .	18	2,730	19	3,275
Agricultural colleges and schools . . . . .	20	999	21	1,088
Commercial colleges and schools . . . . .	141	8,958	151	8,599
Forest colleges . . . . .	2	169	2	184
Veterinary colleges . . . . .	3	292	3	288
Technical and industrial schools . . . . .	316	17,260	346	20,045
Schools of Art . . . . .	9	1,711	19	1,847
TOTAL . . . . .	556	48,406	604	52,976

*Law.*—The condition of law colleges in India has always been indeterminate. In some cases, *e.g.*, Gauhati, the college itself has remained on an impermanent footing for years. At some universities graduates are allowed to read for their law degrees and for a Mastership in Arts at the same time. In some the conditions approach very closely to those of an ordinary college. In others the staff consists largely, if not entirely, of part time lecturers drawn from the ranks of the junior practising bar, and there is little corporate spirit among the students. The Madras Government appointed a committee to investigate this question and the staff of their law college is being revised in order to enable the leading members of the bar to be in touch with and to join in the work of instruction and in order to make a greater distinction between the tutorial and professional work. Special lectures on important subjects of law are to be delivered by leading members of the profession. In lieu of the staff of professors and assistant professors, hitherto employed, twelve assistant lecturers are to be nominated by the College Council from among junior legal practitioners of not more than six years' standing.

*Engineering.*—The Bihar School of Engineering was raised to the status of a college, making the seventh in India, six under Government management and one attached to the Benares Hindu University. Great pressure for admission is reported from several provinces. The colleges maintain a high standard, and it is essential that they should do so for business firms who have hitherto paid large salaries, for imported engineers have yet to be convinced that the products of the Indian engineering colleges are competent to do the work they require.

The advantages enjoyed by a technical institution placed in an industrial centre are illustrated by the report on the Jamshedpur Technical Institute. This school has been in existence for three years and thirteen students completed the course, of whom seven came from Bihar and Orissa. They have all been engaged on a five years' contract by Messrs. Tata & Sons on initial salaries of Rs. 200 per mensem except one who, failing in certain subjects, has been started on Rs. 150 per mensem.

*Commerce.*—There is a decrease in the number of commercial institutions, due no doubt to a further increase in the number of high school boys who take commercial subjects for the School Leaving Certificate instead of the ordinary Matriculation course. The general standard of attainments required for a school certificate does not qualify these boys for appointment to any but the lowest clerical posts. Such commercial classes, however, perform a very useful function in diverting many of the unfit from attempting to pursue a university course and in providing them at once with some marketable qualifications. There is a difficulty, as pointed out in the Burma report, in determining the stage at which such technical education should begin. Many employers, while appreciating the value of a good general education, are sceptical of the advantages to be derived from special commercial training in

schools. Unless the entrance qualification is pitched fairly high the pupils are not able to follow the instruction, but unless it is low pupils will be few.

*Veterinary.*—An increasing number of candidates now seeks admission to the Veterinary College, Lahore, some of whom have passed the Intermediate in Science. Although it has not yet been considered advisable to raise the minimum qualifications for admission, arrangements are being made by which the students shall receive special tuition in English.

## VIII. EDUCATION OF SPECIAL CLASSES AND COMMUNITIES.

### (i) *European Education.*

Detailed statistics for European education will be found in table VII appended to this report. It will be seen that these figures, however, include non-Europeans attending European schools, the number of whom is increasing annually. In Burma the percentage of non-Europeans has now reached 25 and the examiner in English reports that already "the favourite errors of non-Europeans writing English are in evidence."

The percentage of trained teachers in European schools is not high, partly owing to the dearth of training facilities, partly, however, owing to the presence on the school staffs of many members of religious orders who, though untrained, are experienced teachers.

Comparatively few European scholars proceed to the university. Intermediate classes are attached to six high schools. Such classes are being opened at the Lawrence School, Ghora Gali, to which teachers under training at the Chelmsford College will also be admitted. The Bengal Director reports that there is a growing tendency in that province to suggest that courses in European schools might be brought into substantial conformity with those for Indian schools so that the schools might be affiliated to the local university. On the other hand, it was decided in the Punjab to continue the departmental examinations, bringing them more into relation with the Cambridge examinations, but giving the pupils credit for the work done by them during the school year. In Madras too a scheme for a European School Leaving Certificate examination was drafted. Most of the European schools in India prepare their pupils for the Cambridge examinations which are in many respects unsuitable for a child brought up in India and proposing to spend his life here. The need for concentrating on success at examinations leaves the managers little latitude for attempting educational experiments or for developing any school individuality, though Bengal reports that three schools in that Province have experimented with the Dalton Plan. There is no doubt that owing to the increasing competition of Indians for appointments, which have in the past been largely filled by Anglo-Indians, the pupils of European schools are finding it increasingly difficult to obtain

employment. The United Provinces report that schools for the poorer classes are opening vocational classes in such subjects as type-writing, shorthand and dress-making, with a view to providing alternative careers.

The schools themselves are beginning to find a difficulty in meeting their expenses. Several of them have raised their fees and the average fee now payable in a European school is Rs. 53 per mensem, excluding hostel charges.

Had not the reduction of Rs. 99,000, made by the Bengal Legislative Council in the budget estimates for grants to European schools been adjusted by the local Government, the European primary schools in that province would have found themselves in a very serious position.

One of the notable events of the year was a donation of eleven lakhs of rupees made by Sir Paul Chater, himself an ex-scholar, to the Martinière schools.

#### (ii) Mohammedan Education.

The following table shows that very substantial educational progress was made by the Mohammedan community during the year:—

Type of Institutions.	NO. OF MOHAMMEDAN SCHOLARS.		
	1923.	1924.	1925.
Arts Colleges . . . . .	5,715	6,472	7,360
Professional Colleges . . . . .	1,505	1,724	2,084
Secondary and Primary Schools . . . . .	1,828,481	1,951,805	2,097,829
Special Schools . . . . .	70,576	88,397	108,458
Unrecognised Institutions . . . . .	199,493	210,253	203,801
TOTAL . . . . .	2,105,770	2,258,651	2,419,541
Percentage to Population . . . . .	3.6	3.8	4.1

Particularly satisfactory is the increase of nearly one thousand in the number of students reading in arts colleges, but the community has still much leeway to make up. In Bengal, where more than half the population is Mohammedan, this community supplies 50.5 per cent. of the attendance at primary schools, but only 12.9 per cent. of the attendance at arts and professional colleges. In the Punjab the position is somewhat better. Mohammedans here form more than half the population; they supply over 50 per cent.

of the attendance in primary schools and about 33 per cent. of the students at colleges.

The most important event of the year was the commencement of work on the Islamia College, Calcutta, the establishment of which has long been projected. The speech of His Excellency Lord Lytton, when laying the foundation stone, contains the following felicitous passage:—

“ In this Islamia College, that desire of the Moslem community will be met, and what Sir William Hunter described as a most powerful instinct of the Musalman heart will receive permanent and abiding satisfaction. That feeling which possibly still lurks in rural parts of Moslem Bengal that English education is not the education of a gentleman, that through it even though a Moslem may gain the whole world, he may lose his own soul, will surely disappear for ever when he sees this building in its final splendour, and realises that culture, though in modern form, can still be the handmaid of religion and can co-operate with it here in Calcutta in producing in large numbers for the service of Bengal that type which has played its part on many stages in the past and has yet, I believe, a great part to play—the cultured Moslem gentleman.”

### (iii) *Depressed Classes.*

Most provinces report a satisfactory increase in the number of scholars belonging to the depressed classes. For example, Bihar and Orissa show an increase of 51 schools for untouchables and of no less than 50 per cent. in the attendance at such schools (4,400). Even more satisfactory is the fact that many of these children are now admitted into ordinary schools. In Madras, for example, the number of Adi-Dravida and Adi-Andhra children reading in ordinary schools increased by 50 per cent. to about 13,000. The total attendance of children belonging to the depressed classes, however, is still very small in comparison with the size of these communities and there are still many municipal and board schools to which they are denied admission. When compulsion is introduced children of the lowest class are either exempted from attendance or their absence is ignored.

Less progress is reported in the education of the hill tribes in Assam and Burma. “ It is uphill work ” says one Deputy Commissioner “ educating a backward people, as they stand no chance in the race of picking up the plums which fall vacant from time to time. These can only fall to those situated a rung or two above them on the ladder of enlightenment.”

An interesting experiment is being tried in Bengal by the American Baptist Mission who have established a number of schools for the Santbals in the north western part of the Midnapur district. The central school, which has been provisionally recognised as a high school, is situated at Bhimpore and has 200 pupils on its rolls.

In this school an attempt is being made to co-ordinate the work of the class room with that of the village. The vocational work is not to be supplementary to the ordinary curriculum, but is to be brought into definite relation with it. For example, jute growing would be related to the geography of Bengal; spinning and weaving and the study of the cotton industry would include acquaintance with cotton-growing countries, cotton mills and various inter-related problems such as transportation, export and import, etc. The experiment will be of great interest as showing how far what is known in America as the project method of education can be made applicable to conditions in rural India.

(iv) *Education of Defectives.*

The following table shows the provision made for the education of defective children in India:—

Provinces	FOR THE BLIND.		FOR DEAF-MUTES.	
	Institu- tions.	Scholars.	Institu- tions.	Scholars.
Madras . . . . .	2	85	3	160
Bombay . . . . .	3	118	4	115
Bengal . . . . .	1	48	5	162
Punjab . . . . .	1	23	..	..
Bihar and Orissa . . . . .	2	67	..	..
Central Provinces and Berar . . . . .	..	..	1	18
Burma . . . . .	3	54	1	20
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>12</b>	<b>395</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>475</b>

Though the provision appears inadequate when the number of defective children in India is considered, actually few of the schools are full and several of them have less than ten pupils on their rolls. The schools are for the most part conducted by missions or charitable agencies for the children of the poor, and practical subjects are taught as far as possible. The lack of efficient demand has been ascribed to the fact that the money which a defective child can earn after such training is generally much less than he can earn by mendicancy.



## IX. MISCELLANEOUS.

*Students' residence.*—An interesting feature of educational statistics in recent years has been the growth in the number of scholars resident in hostels and boarding houses.

Province.	NO. OF SCHOLARS RESIDING IN APPROVED HOSTELS.		
	1923.	1924.	1925.
Madras . . . . .	28,801	30,763	34,588
Bombay . . . . .	12,785	12,553	12,337
Bengal . . . . .	25,721	26,964	31,165
United Provinces . . . . .	35,584	38,778	40,085
Punjab . . . . .	33,890	36,989	37,316
Burma . . . . .	14,777	15,684	15,906
Bihar and Orissa . . . . .	16,151	17,997	19,434
Central Provinces and Berar . . . . .	6,513	6,971	7,176
Assam . . . . .	3,731	4,097	4,163
North West Frontier Province . . . . .	1,755	1,952	2,056
Cook . . . . .	295	250	278
Delhi . . . . .	1,579	1,320	1,269
Ajmer-Merwara . . . . .	719	916	870
Baluchistan . . . . .	162	208	181
Bangalore . . . . .	1,363	1,131	1,150
Aden . . . . .	...	...	...
INDIA . . . . .	183,856	196,570	207,374

In European schools the percentage of resident students has always been high owing to the number of children who are sent to hill schools for their education, but this development in the case of Indian schools is due to other causes. It is partly of course the natural outcome of the spread of education in rural areas which brings an increasing number of country boys to the universities and high schools; but it is also due in a large measure to the wider recognition by school authorities of their duty to their scholars outside the class or lecture room. There is no doubt that the Calcutta University Commission by the lurid picture which it drew of the lives of many Calcutta students in mean and crowded lodging houses did much to stimulate public opinion in this matter. Private

generosity has been forthcoming in an increasing measure for the construction of hostels: indeed many boarding houses in the north of India consist of agglomerations of separate rooms provided by donors of limited means. There are few better forms in which private generosity can find expression. Hostel life is very popular with the Indian boy and it is well that it should be so, since it is over the resident scholars that a college or school can exert its widest influence.

*Adult Education.*—Too little is heard in India of adult education. Several provinces, including one so educationally advanced as Madras, return no recognised schools for adults in their provincial tables. The following table gives the distribution of recognised schools for adults by provinces.

Province.	1924.			1925.		
	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	Total Expenditure.	No. of Institutions.	No. of Pupils.	Total Expenditure.
			Rs.			Rs.
Madras . . . . .	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bombay . . . . .	216	7,025	1,80,574	213	7,569	1,39,348
Bengal . . . . .	1,046	22,236	64,573	1,345	25,860	1,11,864
United Provinces . . . . .	...	...	...	...	...	...
Punjab . . . . .	1,531	46,931	32,841	2,374	61,991	47,183
Burma . . . . .	1	70	10,018	1	89	11,604
Bihar and Orissa . . . . .	1	52	262	1	60	824
Central Provinces and Perar.	21	639	5,390	23	745	5,796
Assam . . . . .	...	...	...	...	...	...
North-West Frontier Province.	...	...	...	...	...	...
Coorg . . . . .	...	...	...	...	...	...
Delhi . . . . .	...	...	...	24	533	541
Ajmer-Merwara . . . . .	...	...	...	...	...	...
Baluchistan . . . . .	...	...	...	...	...	...
Bangalore . . . . .	...	...	...	...	...	...
Aden . . . . .	(a)	(a)	(a)	3	110	657
<b>INDIA</b>	<b>2,816</b>	<b>70,953</b>	<b>2,94,048</b>	<b>3,984</b>	<b>96,047</b>	<b>3,17,817</b>

(a) Included under Bombay

The Central Provinces made an experiment with a class attached to the Training College for training teachers of adult schools. Unfortunately owing to various outside circumstances the class did not prove a success.

Adult education in India stands much in need of development. Moreover it is inexpensive. The classes are conducted in the evening by elementary schoolmasters in village schools in return for a small remuneration. The schools themselves are temporary. When all the adults within easy reach of the school who desire learning have been given a reasonable opportunity to become literate, the school or rather the expenditure on it can be transferred to another centre where there is an effective demand. But, as Sir George Anderson says, literacy should not be allowed to go to rust.

The provision of village libraries for the use of the literate is essential. The difficulty is to find a suitable stock of books for such libraries. As the Inspector of Rohilkhand Division says "If the English-knowing schoolmaster, with any power of writing in his mother tongue, would translate suitable books he would probably meet with monetary reward as well as the thanks of his countrymen."

Lantern lectures are another method for spreading enlightenment in rural areas. It is disappointing to read that in the United Provinces the number of boards participating in the provincial scheme for village lantern lectures is decreasing year by year, mostly because of paucity of funds, but in some cases through lack of enthusiasm for the scheme.

J. A. RICHEY,

*Educational Commissioner with the  
Government of India.*

## APPENDIX.

### General Educational Tables, 1924-25.

#### INDEX.

	PAGE.
General Summary of Educational Institutions and Scholars . . . . .	38
General Summary of Expenditure on Education . . . . .	39
Explanations . . . . .	40
I. Classification of Educational Institutions . . . . .	41
II-A. Distribution of Scholars attending Educational Institutions for Males . . . . .	42
II-B. Distribution of Scholars attending Educational Institutions for Females . . . . .	44
III-A. Expenditure on Education for Males . . . . .	46
III-B. Expenditure on Education for Females . . . . .	49
IV-A. Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the General Education of Males . . . . .	52
IV-B. Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the General Education of Females . . . . .	53
V-A. Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the Vocational and Special Education of Males . . . . .	54
V-B. Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the Vocational and Special Education of Females . . . . .	55
VI. Teachers (Men and Women) . . . . .	56
VII. European Education . . . . .	57
VIII. Examination Results . . . . .	58

## General Summary of Educational Institutions and Scholars.

		PERCENTAGE OF SCHOLARS TO TOTAL POPULATION.				
		Recognised Institutions.		All Institutions.		
		1925	1924	1925	1924	
Area in square miles	1,091,317					
Population—						
Males	126,914,196					
Females	120,188,810					
TOTAL	247,037,506					
		Males	6.07	5.71	6.47	6.15
		Females	1.24	1.19	1.31	1.26
		TOTAL	3.71	3.51	3.96	3.77

	INSTITUTIONS.			SCHOLARS			Percentage of scholars in each class of institution.
	1925	1924	Increase (+) or decrease (-).	1925	1924	Increase (+) or decrease (-).	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	
<b>RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>							
<i>For Males.</i>							
Arts Colleges . . . . .	161	156	- 13	61,343	55,051	+6,292	0.75
Professional Colleges . . . . .	66	69	+7	17,107	15,985	+1,122	0.21
High Schools . . . . .	2,224	2,185*	+109	670,743	635,944*	+34,799	8.18
Middle Schools . . . . .	6,821	6,329*	+492	75,671	677,772*	+2,899	6.18
Primary Schools . . . . .	150,919	144,425*	+6,494	6,451,225	6,137,055*	+314,866	74.72
Special Schools . . . . .	7,423	6,331	+1,092	244,075	247,261	+3,815	2.96
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>167,692</b>	<b>159,484*</b>	<b>+8,208</b>	<b>7,195,864</b>	<b>7,729,011*</b>	<b>+466,447</b>	<b>100</b>
<i>For Females.</i>							
Arts Colleges . . . . .	16	14	+2	1,200	1,138	+62	0.12
Professional Colleges . . . . .	7	8	-1	173	140	+33	0.02
High Schools . . . . .	236	226*	+10	43,698	42,120*	+1,578	4.41
Middle Schools . . . . .	698	643	+55	79,651	72,416	+7,235	7.92
Primary Schools . . . . .	24,077	23,379*	+698	855,337	817,709*	+37,628	86.35
Special Schools . . . . .	301	287	+14	11,098	10,984	+1,099	1.12
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>25,935</b>	<b>24,772*</b>	<b>+1,163</b>	<b>990,547</b>	<b>943,616*</b>	<b>+46,931</b>	<b>100</b>
<b>UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>							
<i>For Males</i> . . . . .	32,027	32,197	-170	556,685	585,235	-29,600	..
<i>For Females</i> . . . . .	2,575	2,663	-88	55,240	57,416	-2,118	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>34,602</b>	<b>34,860</b>	<b>-258</b>	<b>610,925</b>	<b>642,651</b>	<b>-31,718</b>	<b>..</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>298,222</b>	<b>214,116*</b>	<b>+84,106</b>	<b>8,797,789</b>	<b>8,315,284*</b>	<b>+482,060</b>	<b>..</b>

NOTE.—There are also 13 Universities in British India which are not shown separately in this table.  
\* Revised.

General Summary of Expenditure on Education.

	TOTAL EXPENDITURE.			PERCENTAGE OF EXPENDITURE FROM				COST PER SCHOLAR TO				Total cost per scholar.	
	1925	1924	Increase (+) or decrease (-)	Govt. funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	Govt. funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.		
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		12
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.					Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	
Direction and Inspection.	94,65,413	94,43,301	+22,022	97.2	2.8	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Universities	83,75,697	77,59,567	+6,16,140	44.8	..	42.8	12.4	..	..	..	..	..	..
Miscellaneous*	3,90,34,986	3,97,79,972	-1,44,986	40.2	11.2	16.3	32.3	..	..	..	..	..	..
TOTALS	5,74,76,006	5,69,82,920	+4,93,176	50.2	8.2	17.6	24.1	..	..	..	..	..	..
<i>Institutions for Males.</i>													
Arts Colleges	1,13,82,178	90,96,965	+16,46,208	41.4	0.4	45.8	12.9	88 9 11	0 13 10	91 9 11	26 1 3	202 2 11	
Professional Colleges	62,27,877	55,84,275	+6,93,602	75.1	0.3	21.3	3.8	273 0 5	0 14 8	77 7 3	12 1 6	364 0 10	
High Schools	3,48,26,394	3,27,62,749	+20,68,825	82.1	2.4	50.9	14.6	16 0 4	1 3 2	25 5 6	7 4 7	49 13 7	
Middle Schools	1,67,91,418	1,47,39,494	+20,54,924	36.9	20.3	28.2	11.6	7 12 4	4 4 4	5 14 11	3 1 1	21 0 8	
Primary Schools	5,09,90,023	4,89,28,977	+20,61,646	52.4	28.0	9.5	10.1	4 2 4	2 3 4	0 12 0	0 12 0	7 14 5	
Special Schools	1,25,07,189	1,25,99,158	-91,989	70.0	4.5	7.7	17.8	35 14 0	2 4 7	3 16 3	9 2 1	51 3 11	
TOTALS	13,17,28,664	12,34,91,438	+83,07,216	47.1	14.3	26.1	13.5	7 9 2	2 4 11	4 3 1	2 0 0	16 1 2	
<i>Institutions for Females</i>													
Arts Colleges	4,75,438	4,09,789	+65,999	59.1	0.9	15.3	27.7	245 15 0	3 12 5	67 4 7	121 8 9	438 9 8	
Professional Colleges	2,88,413	2,10,772	+77,641	93.1	..	1.3	5.6	1,551 10 5	..	22 1 0	93 6 7	1,667 2 0	
High Schools	51,73,667	47,97,158	+3,76,204	44.4	1.1	30.7	23.8	51 15 1	1 5 5	35 14 7	27 18 7	117 0 8	
Middle Schools	30,09,919	20,30,785	+9,79,134	40.3	11.7	14.2	33.8	15 5 4	4 7 2	5 6 8	12 14 1	38 1 3	
Primary Schools	80,74,588	84,90,999	-4,16,489	41.1	37.6	3.4	17.7	4 2 8	3 12 11	0 5 10	1 12 10	10 2 3	
Special School	14,21,544	17,44,135	-3,177,100	65.3	2.0	4.3	28.4	113 3 1	3 6 10	7 6 7	49 3 0	173 3 0	
TOTALS	1,66,13,569	1,80,91,988	+9,51,581	45.4	19.0	12.7	22.9	8 15 4	3 11 11	2 8 0	4 8 5	19 11 8	
GRAND TOTALS	20,87,48,319	19,90,36,316	+97,11,973	47.9	13.1	22.4	16.6	10 3 0	2 12 7	4 12 6	3 8 0	21 4 10	

N.B. - For explanation of certain terms used in the tables please see overleaf.  
 \* Includes expenditure on buildings.  
 (a) Revised.

## EXPLANATIONS.

1. *School Year*.—In these tables the school year is assumed to coincide with the financial year, i. e., to extend from April 1st of one year to March 31st of the next, though in actual practice some institutions, e. g., European schools, may close in December and others, e. g., colleges, in May.

2. *Recognised Institutions* are those in which the course of study followed is that which is prescribed or recognised by the Department of Public Instruction or by a University or a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education constituted by law and which satisfy one or more of these authorities, as the case may be, that they attain to a reasonable standard of efficiency. They are open to inspection and their pupils are ordinarily eligible for admission to public examinations and tests held by the Department or the University or the Board.

3. *Unrecognised Institutions* are those which do not come under the above definition of recognised institutions. They are for the most part indigenous institutions for education of a religious character.

4. *Other sources* include income from endowments, subscriptions, contributions, etc.

5. *Classification*.—In tables IV-A and IV-B, Class I represents the lowest class in the school, whether called infant class, sub-standard A or Class I. Where the number of school classes exceeds 10, the additional classes should be entered in the spaces left blank below X and numbered for the purposes of this table XI and XII.

6. *Intermediate colleges and examinations*.—An "Intermediate college" means an institution preparing students for admission to the degree courses of a University or for entrance into vocational colleges. The Intermediate examination means an examination qualifying for admission to a course of studies for a degree.

7. *European scholars* are included in the general summary and General Tables II A and B, IV-A and B, V—A and B, VIII and IX. *Expenditure on European Schools* is included in the general summary and in General Tables III-A & B.

## I.—Classification of Educational Institutions.

	FOR MALES.						FOR FEMALES.					
	Government.	District Board.	Municipal Board.	Aided.	Un-aided.	Total.	Government.	District Board.	Municipal Board.	Aided.	Un-aided.	Total.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
<b>RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>												
Universities . . . . .	..	..	..	13	..	13	..	..	..	..	..	..
Colleges:—												
Arts and Science* . . . . .	28	1	..	71	15	115	2	..	..	6	1	9
Law . . . . .	5	..	..	3	5	13	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medicine . . . . .	6	..	..	1	..	7	..	..	..	1	..	1
Education . . . . .	14	..	..	1	..	15	2	..	..	3	1	4
Engineering . . . . .	6	..	..	1	..	7	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agriculture . . . . .	5	..	..	..	..	5	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commerce . . . . .	1	..	..	12	1	14	..	..	..	..	..	..
Forestry . . . . .	2	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Science . . . . .	3	..	..	..	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..
Intermediate and 2nd Grade Colleges . . . . .	10	..	1	44	13	77	3	..	..	6	..	9
<b>TOTALS . . . . .</b>	<b>90</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>1</b>	<b>133</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>259</b>	<b>7</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>16</b>	<b>2</b>	<b>25</b>
High Schools . . . . .	282	191	78	1,162	647	2,270	28	2	1	194	9	234
Middle (English) . . . . .	105	20	132	1,881	644	2,968	23	..	7	210	12	252
Schools (Vernacular) . . . . .	52	2,382	73	1,330	16	3,853	72	15	88	286	5	446
Primary Schools . . . . .	1,45	47,042	3,463	84,715	13,754	1,09,19	34	3,939	1,290	15,959	3,151	24,77
<b>TOTALS . . . . .</b>	<b>2,384</b>	<b>49,731</b>	<b>3,746</b>	<b>89,088</b>	<b>15,061</b>	<b>160,610</b>	<b>71</b>	<b>3,956</b>	<b>1,356</b>	<b>16,640</b>	<b>3,177</b>	<b>25,609</b>
<b>Special Schools —</b>												
Art . . . . .	6	..	..	3	1	10	..	..	..	..	..	..
Law . . . . .	2	..	..	..	..	2	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medical . . . . .	19	..	..	2	4	25	2	..	..	2	..	4
Normal and Training . . . . .	355	143	15	79	3	595	52	..	6	95	4	157
Engineering . . . . .	8	..	..	1	2	11	..	..	..	..	..	..
Technical and Industrial . . . . .	65	21	13	142	26	267	2	..	..	7	6	79
Commercial . . . . .	6	..	..	32	92	130	..	..	..	7	..	7
Agricultural . . . . .	10	..	1	1	3	15	..	..	..	1	..	1
Reformatory . . . . .	7	..	..	2	..	9	..	..	..	..	..	..
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	1	..	..	23	..	24	..	..	..	4	..	4
Schools for Adults . . . . .	16	1,477	115	1,524	839	3,911	..	..	..	12	1	13
Other Schools . . . . .	55	16	48	1,761	484	2,764	1	..	..	35	..	36
<b>TOTALS . . . . .</b>	<b>550</b>	<b>1,657</b>	<b>192</b>	<b>3,570</b>	<b>1,474</b>	<b>7,423</b>	<b>57</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>6</b>	<b>227</b>	<b>11</b>	<b>301</b>
<b>TOTALS FOR RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>3,024</b>	<b>51,359</b>	<b>3,939</b>	<b>92,791</b>	<b>16,749</b>	<b>167,692</b>	<b>535</b>	<b>3,956</b>	<b>1,362</b>	<b>16,892</b>	<b>3,190</b>	<b>25,935</b>
<b>UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	..	86	17	58	81,916	32,027	..	3	1	17	2,564	2,575
<b>GRAND TOTALS, ALL INSTITUTIONS</b>	<b>3,024</b>	<b>51,425</b>	<b>3,956</b>	<b>92,849</b>	<b>48,465</b>	<b>199,719</b>	<b>535</b>	<b>3,979</b>	<b>1,363</b>	<b>16,909</b>	<b>5,744</b>	<b>28,510</b>

\* Includes 3 Oriental Colleges.



## II-A.—Distribution of Scholars attending

	GOVERNMENT.			DISTRICT BOARD.			MUNICIPAL BOARD.		
	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<b>READING—</b>									
<b>IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>									
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION (a).</b>									
Arts and Science (b) & (c)	13,944	11,829	4,535	66	61	..	65	63	22
Law	2,177	1,747	72	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medicine	2,849	2,486	674	..	..	..	..	..	..
Education	870	817	590	..	..	..	..	..	..
Engineering	1,317	1,143	991	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agriculture	583	524	388	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commerce	257	216	61	..	..	..	..	..	..
Forestry	111	109	56	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Science	298	249	263	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>22,996</b>	<b>19,111</b>	<b>7,632</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>65</b>	<b>63</b>	<b>22</b>
<b>SCHOOL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION.</b>									
In High Schools	26,120	85,096	12,796	28,091	26,244	1,330	27,388	24,054	849
" Middle English	15,375	13,806	1,149	28,484	23,096	1,811	20,496	17,265	1,139
" Schools Vernacular	5,866	4,684	868	323,256	217,898	23,939	11,032	9,178	441
" Primary Schools	8,196	68,122	38	2,65,782	1,923,284	1,764	382,098	287,932	23
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>200,497</b>	<b>166,708</b>	<b>14,851</b>	<b>3,016,453</b>	<b>2,220,522</b>	<b>23,874</b>	<b>441,077</b>	<b>338,429</b>	<b>2,452</b>
In Art Schools	1,614	1,295	336	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Law	180	37	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Medical Schools	4,601	4,018	1,266	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Normal and Training Schools.	16,023	14,431	10,703	1,412	1,341	992	190	189	161
" Engineering Schools	1,166	1,158	734	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Technical and Industrial Schools.	5,140	4,108	779	1,261	986	72	1,729	1,427	33
" Commercial Schools	632	791	375	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Agricultural	287	257	14	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Reformatory	1,115	1,062	1,115	..	..	..	18	19	..
" Schools for Defectives	23	18	16	..	..	..	..	..	..
" Schools for Adults	56	39	..	37,431	29,146	..	3,356	2,800	..
" Other Schools	4,778	3,251	890	438	400	88	1,810	1,30	..
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>35,558</b>	<b>30,977</b>	<b>16,273</b>	<b>40,592</b>	<b>31,873</b>	<b>1,152</b>	<b>7,133</b>	<b>5,752</b>	<b>194</b>
<b>TOTALS FOR RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>258,451</b>	<b>210,636</b>	<b>38,757</b>	<b>3,057,111</b>	<b>2,252,459</b>	<b>30,026</b>	<b>418,272</b>	<b>342,244</b>	<b>2,668</b>
<b>IN UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>1,408</b>	<b>570</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>955</b>	<b>667</b>	<b>..</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS ALL INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>258,451</b>	<b>210,636</b>	<b>38,757</b>	<b>3,058,577</b>	<b>2,253,035</b>	<b>30,026</b>	<b>449,227</b>	<b>341,911</b>	<b>2,668</b>

(a) Scholars reading more than one of the following subjects should be entered under only one lead.

(b) Includes 397 scholars also reading *Lat.*(c) Includes 890 scholars in *Oriental Colleges*, and 448 scholars in Benares Sanskrit College in the U. P.

## Educational Institutions for Males.

AIDED.			UNAIDED.			Grand total of scholars on roll.	Grand total of average attendance.	Grand total of residents in approved hostels.	Number of females included in column 16.
Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.				
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
36,841	32,636	13,313	12,866	11,231	3,213	63,782	55,814	21,103	593
4,037	3,873	895	1,746	1,530	328	7,860	7,110	1,295	9
904	901	450	..	..	..	3,753	3,300	1,121	115
162	143	38	..	..	..	1,032	960	626	6
547	503	494	..	..	..	1,864	1,646	1,485	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	683	524	388	..
1,158	997	429	78	75	..	1,993	1,283	490	1
21	23	22	..	..	..	131	132	77	..
..	..	..	..	..	..	28	249	266	..
43,672	39,079	15,659	14,690	12,836	3,541	70,889	71,153	26,855	723
369,512	314,744	36,607	146,261	113,596	7,049	668,267	563,735	55,631	8,002
108,745	152,149	11,714	51,468	38,855	1,482	304,458	245,171	17,325	5,897
105,072	102,752	3,657	927	720	75	446,213	365,241	28,976	25,710
2,983,302	2,397,409	11,896	367,547	288,815	160	6,411,925	4,960,562	13,881	49,016
3,646,631	2,907,054	63,872	566,208	441,986	8,764	7,870,863	6,134,699	118,813	548,315
169	137	..	34	11	..	1,847	1,443	336	37
229	175	..	215	157	..	180	37	..	..
3,212	3,050	1,567	54	41	27	5,045	4,350	1,203	127
39	21	15	215	160	..	20,974	19,052	13,472	238
7,894	6,795	2,356	781	625	199	1,411	1,339	749	..
2,172	1,615	23	4,032	2,717	..	16,875	13,481	3,379	129
49	34	45	69	51	..	6,630	5,123	39	352
379	355	..	..	..	..	423	387	194	..
703	541	347	..	..	..	1,494	1,417	1,115	..
36,413	24,253	102	18,201	14,106	..	726	559	388	157
66,309	52,516	1,088	19,562	14,885	474	96,007	71,705	102	335
..	..	..	..	..	..	92,327	72,760	2,450	1,038
117,629	93,636	3,543	43,163	32,755	699	2,44,075	194,233	23,851	2,454
3,807,032	3,099,169	85,074	624,061	475,777	12,994	8,195,827	6,400,085	169,519	551,412
2,939	1,871	..	550,275	122,211	451	555,635	125,325	161	28,453
3,810,871	3,101,040	85,074	1,174,336	609,788	13,445	8,751,462	6,525,410	169,680	579,945

## II-B.—Distribution of Scholars attending

	GOVERNMENT.			DISTRICT BOARD.			MUNICIPAL BOARD.		
	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<b>READING—</b>									
<b>IN RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>									
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION (2).</b>									
Arts and Science . . . . .	440	403	290	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medicine . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Education . . . . .	47	41	47	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>487</b>	<b>444</b>	<b>343</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>
<b>SCHOOL AND SPECIAL EDUCATION.</b>									
In High Schools . . . . .	5,873	4,861	817	283	258	..	232	198	..
„ Middle Schools. { English . . . . .	2,844	2,090	135	..	..	..	70	533	..
„ Vernacular . . . . .	8,359	5,724	113	1,052	760	59	7,912	6,122	16
„ Primary Schools . . . . .	20,757	13,945	34	189,341	110,439	11	110,709	76,265	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>37,835</b>	<b>26,621</b>	<b>1,019</b>	<b>181,678</b>	<b>131,457</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>119,514</b>	<b>83,118</b>	<b>16</b>
In Medical Schools . . . . .	115	105	90	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ Normal and Training Schools. . . . .	1,877	1,634	1,117	..	..	..	64	55	25
„ Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	18	16	11	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ Commercial Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ Agricultural Schools . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ Schools for Adults . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
„ Other Schools . . . . .	13	27	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>2,046</b>	<b>1,842</b>	<b>1,218</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>64</b>	<b>55</b>	<b>25</b>
<b>TOTALS FOR RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>40,368</b>	<b>28,910</b>	<b>2,660</b>	<b>181,678</b>	<b>131,457</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>119,578</b>	<b>83,173</b>	<b>41</b>
<b>IN UNRECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.</b>	..	..	..	104	73	..	37	28	..
<b>GRAND TOTALS ALL INSTITUTIONS</b>	<b>40,368</b>	<b>28,910</b>	<b>2,660</b>	<b>181,782</b>	<b>131,530</b>	<b>70</b>	<b>119,615</b>	<b>83,201</b>	<b>41</b>

(a) Scholars reading more than one of the following subjects should be entered under only one head.

## Educational Institutions for Females.

AIDED.			UNAIDED.			Grand total of scholars on rolls.	Grand total of average attendance.	Grand total of residents in approved hostels.	Number of males included in column 16.
Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	No. of residents in approved hostels.				
10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19
752	663	584	22	19	12	1,214	1,085	802	..
63	63	63	..	..	..	63	63	63	..
63	66	51	..	..	..	110	107	58	..
878	792	698	22	19	12	1,087	1,255	1,053	..
36,152	32,073	11,803	1,202	973	371	43,710	38,361	12,791	4,628
25,352	21,844	7,595	1,166	941	284	30,062	25,408	8,014	3,829
31,279	26,432	2,469	327	332	186	48,989	39,374	2,843	5,536
475,203	371,422	9,507	68,336	52,629	54	855,337	644,600	9,006	30,251
507,980	451,711	31,174	71,091	54,775	895	978,104	747,745	33,254	44,214
190	175	152	..	..	..	308	280	242	..
2,200	2,171	1,531	49	41	39	4,280	3,961	2,712	5
3111	2,605	905	121	84	11	3,240	2,705	927	54
261	215	6	..	..	..	261	215	6	..
82	70	..	..	..	..	82	70	..	..
935	672	..	5	4	..	940	676	..	..
1,949	1,525	261	..	..	..	1,902	1,552	261	268
8,008	7,433	2,755	175	129	50	11,093	9,439	4,118	322
377,672	409,096	34,727	71,208	54,923	957	900,504	758,469	38,455	44,566
1,722	1,304	..	53,435	8,123	..	55,208	10,330	..	3,997
573,304	461,300	34,727	124,723	63,848	957	1,045,082	768,709	38,455	48,566

### III-A.—Expenditure on Education for Males.

Expenditure on Buildings includes, Rs. 37,77,355 spent by the Public Works Department on educational buildings.

"Miscellaneous" includes the following main items:—

Scholarships, Hostel charges and other contingent charges.

	GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.						DISTRICT BOARD AND MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.					
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>												
Universities	29,30,110	..	2,580	10,91,830	33,419	40,57,945	..	..	..	..	6,400	8,400
Arts Colleges	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Professional Colleges:												
Law	8,177	..	..	1,68,585	44	1,76,806	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medicine	15,97,943	..	..	4,71,807	5,778	20,75,228	..	..	..	..	..	..
Education	8,57,960	2,381	572	1,888	4,885	8,47,685	..	..	..	..	..	..
Engineering	9,30,893	..	..	1,64,707	1,68,540	12,64,050	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agriculture	4,36,334	..	..	11,337	2,409	4,90,580	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commerce	34,012	..	..	37,999	12,082	84,193	..	..	..	..	..	..
Forestry	2,82,998	..	..	..	..	2,82,998	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Science	4,35,247	..	..	20,213	..	4,55,460	..	..	..	..	..	..
Intermediate Colleges	6,84,247	..	..	2,75,895	9,603	9,60,645	4,000	..	1,245	5,378	245	10,868
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>81,58,631</b>	<b>2,380</b>	<b>3,152</b>	<b>22,44,287</b>	<b>2,38,660</b>	<b>1,08,45,090</b>	<b>4,000</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>1,245</b>	<b>5,378</b>	<b>8,645</b>	<b>19,268</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>												
<i>General.</i>												
High Schools	49,66,322	23,263	10,721	25,00,326	27,587	76,18,219	5,31,229	3,92,715	2,22,450	13,47,094	27,449	24,30,917
Middle Schools—												
English	8,82,345	3,100	..	2,78,132	1,630	9,65,207	5,85,891	1,95,899	2,15,297	5,81,399	27,055	16,05,532
Vernacular	1,60,949	543	..	4,380	7	1,61,079	26,85,718	15,54,859	1,80,546	5,92,007	42,345	50,54,875
Primary Schools	9,46,910	14,893	5,345	14,891	9,122	9,91,770	2,11,93,862	62,14,847	40,04,664	10,44,476	1,81,529	3,29,88,869
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>67,55,835</b>	<b>41,799</b>	<b>16,066</b>	<b>28,87,729</b>	<b>38,346</b>	<b>97,59,575</b>	<b>2,49,95,600</b>	<b>82,08,320</b>	<b>46,22,957</b>	<b>35,64,967</b>	<b>2,78,310</b>	<b>4,17,30,213</b>
<i>Special.</i>												
Art Schools	3,81,858	..	..	17,783	7,681	4,07,222	..	..	..	..	..	..
Law Schools	..	..	..	19,294	..	19,294	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medical Schools	13,32,419	1,700	..	1,80,691	12,474	15,34,284	..	..	..	..	..	..
Normal and Training Schools	30,51,250	54,515	5,344	9,185	11,243	31,39,487	2,25,098	59,608	12,412	4	..	2,08,022
Engineering Schools	4,59,948	..	..	68,002	9,885	5,07,835	..	..	..	..	..	..
Technical and Industrial Schools	10,01,432	9,042	375	23,370	49,160	10,82,888	69,619	97,400	67,464	8,393	39,603	2,52,488
Commercial Schools	62,489	..	..	87,941	1,646	1,02,076	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agricultural Schools	85,027	1,700	..	2,784	522	90,033	2,044	..	..	..	..	2,044
Reformatory Schools	3,09,359	..	..	..	18,965	3,28,324	..	..	..	..	..	..
Schools for Defectives	2,153	..	..	42	12	2,207	..	..	1,700	..	1,118	11,319
Schools for Adults	663	..	..	..	..	663	..	..	54,698	1,462	3	94,496
Other Schools	4,52,146	1,539	..	23,606	7,911	4,84,099	18,394	11,941	7,392	1,766	6,910	45,823
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>71,34,744</b>	<b>68,293</b>	<b>5,719</b>	<b>3,54,107</b>	<b>1,18,500</b>	<b>76,81,432</b>	<b>3,61,285</b>	<b>1,40,610</b>	<b>1,43,516</b>	<b>11,055</b>	<b>47,634</b>	<b>7,94,150</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>	<b>2,20,41,010</b>	<b>1,12,412</b>	<b>24,937</b>	<b>54,86,103</b>	<b>3,93,575</b>	<b>2,80,66,097</b>	<b>2,63,90,885</b>	<b>84,08,930</b>	<b>47,67,768</b>	<b>35,81,409</b>	<b>3,34,048</b>	<b>4,24,53,631</b>

### III-A.—Expenditure on Education for Males—contd.

	AIDED INSTITUTIONS.						RECOGNISED UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS.		
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.
	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTER-MEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>									
Universities	87,48,881	..	200	85,88,384	10,38,2-2	88,76,697	..	..	..
Arts Colleges	12,49,998	16,275	27,784	29,04,670	10,94,741	52,03,468	9,35,308	78,869	10,00,177
Professional Colleges—									
Law	30,000	..	..	1,86,598	..	2,16,598	1,27,235	..	1,27,235
Medicine	24,500	..	..	88,287	..	1,07,787	..	..	..
Education	17,461	..	..	..	..	17,461	..	..	..
Engineering	8,246	..	12,750	81,388	..	80,384	..	..	..
Agriculture	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commerce	27,885	..	..	16,959	10,847	55,651	3,693	2,268	6,261
Forestry	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Science	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Intermediate Colleges	4,47,873	100	6,409	5,35,659	3,53,499	13,49,787	95,980	1,91,421	2,86,500
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>65,82,789</b>	<b>16,375</b>	<b>47,140</b>	<b>78,46,105</b>	<b>24,13,369</b>	<b>1,54,05,778</b>	<b>11,61,616</b>	<b>2,67,557</b>	<b>14,29,173</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>									
<i>General.</i>									
High Schools	52,00,799	79,637	1,02,939	94,45,867	86,27,372	1,45,25,611	35,51,698	11,80,457	47,38,005
Middle Schools—									
English	16,52,899	2,59,895	69,865	23,95,826	16,35,928	60,10,524	5,21,824	4,69,640	9,01,444
Vernacular	65,471	5,47,888	1,81,732	78,038	1,11,590	9,44,624	1,3-8	15,825	17,298
Primary Schools	40,12,548	33,59,840	6,75,598	33,28,243	44,47,964	1,04,14,783	4,41,535	5,04,260	9,45,801
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>1,15,40,708</b>	<b>42,34,000</b>	<b>10,90,131</b>	<b>1,52,44,934</b>	<b>98,21,874</b>	<b>4,10,85,547</b>	<b>45,16,350</b>	<b>21,76,188</b>	<b>60,92,534</b>
<i>Special.</i>									
Art Schools	23,030	475	1,200	2,198	19,239	37,137	516	1,721	2,037
Law Schools	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Medical Schools	..	..	765	5,905	1,015	7,685	2,342	11,213	13,755
Normal and Training Schools.	8,12,991	1,220	519	7,596	1,06,436	4,28,582	8,327	2,010	5,337
Engineering Schools	1,159	375	7	..	..	1,541	6,150	..	6,150
Technical and Industrial Schools.	8,51,995	14,072	32,558	1,40,544	9,29,105	14,08,274	2,1-7	27,599	24,766
Commercial Schools	27,723	..	1,162	25,414	26,445	80,747	1,28,593	24,811	1,51,404
Agricultural Schools	920	..	..	5,817	..	6,737	..	76	74
Reformatory Schools	72,177	..	1,495	840	16,287	91,000	..	..	..
Schools for Defectives	58,884	948	20,178	4,943	65,067	1,50,490	..	2,324	2,324
Schools for Adults	4,338	21,083	10,072	16,653	69,714	1,56,870	2,448	16,901	19,249
Other Schools	3,63,153	79,937	22,817	1,98,073	5,97,638	11,02,618	63,491	2,46,248	2,09,739
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>12,60,148</b>	<b>1,69,199</b>	<b>99,773</b>	<b>1,02,071</b>	<b>17,29,663</b>	<b>35,91,750</b>	<b>1,07,084</b>	<b>3,82,803</b>	<b>5,29,837</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>	<b>1,83,84,640</b>	<b>48,09,275</b>	<b>12,28,044</b>	<b>2,24,96,210</b>	<b>1,39,64,998</b>	<b>6,09,33,075</b>	<b>58,75,000</b>	<b>27,76,548</b>	<b>86,51,548</b>

III-A.—Expenditure on Education for Males—*concl'd.*

	TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM					
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	GRAND TOTALS.
	22	23	24	25	26	27
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Direction . . . . .	14,94,889				7	14,94,896
Inspection . . . . .	71,18,414	1,97,728	47,442		5,062	73,68,746
Buildings, etc. . . . .	82,90,103	21,33,786	4,62,656	4,40,074	53,86,069	1,66,98,101
Miscellaneous . . . . .	58,56,794	13,19,325	3,05,700	41,03,018	43,53,815	1,54,38,812
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>2,21,40,293</b>	<b>36,56,549</b>	<b>8,16,358</b>	<b>45,43,092</b>	<b>97,54,953</b>	<b>4,09,10,555</b>
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>						
Universities . . . . .	37,48,881		200	35,88,384	10,38,282	83,75,667
Arts Colleges . . . . .	41,97,166	16,275	30,364	49,31,114	11,03,366	1,02,78,986
Professional Colleges—						
Law . . . . .	38,177			4,81,418	44	5,19,639
Medicine . . . . .	18,22,143			3,55,094	5,778	21,83,015
Education . . . . .	8,75,421	2,800	572	1,808	4,805	8,85,146
Engineering . . . . .	9,67,949		12,750	1,96,095	1,08,540	13,41,434
Agriculture . . . . .	4,46,834			11,337	2,400	4,60,580
Commerce . . . . .	92,747			58,901	25,197	1,48,905
Forestry . . . . .	2,32,698					2,32,698
Veterinary Science . . . . .	435,247			20,213		4,55,460
Intermediate Colleges . . . . .	11,08,129	100	8,251	9,12,212	5,80,067	26,16,760
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>1,37,02,483</b>	<b>18,755</b>	<b>52,137</b>	<b>1,07,57,366</b>	<b>29,08,568</b>	<b>2,74,99,309</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>						
<i>General.</i>						
High Schools . . . . .	1,07,07,650	4,05,905	3,96,107	1,69,84,895	48,68,205	3,38,12,832
Middle Schools—						
English . . . . .	29,21,112	4,55,894	2,85,162	37,77,182	21,33,863	95,72,727
Vernacular . . . . .	29,10,638	21,03,290	3,62,278	6,75,808	1,69,677	62,21,691
Primary Schools . . . . .	2,67,62,829	95,80,120	46,85,607	48,29,195	51,42,772	5,09,90,623
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>4,32,92,243</b>	<b>1,25,45,279</b>	<b>57,29,154</b>	<b>2,62,17,080</b>	<b>1,23,14,117</b>	<b>10,00,97,873</b>
<i>Special.</i>						
Art Schools . . . . .	4,04,888	475	1,200	20,242	19,591	4,46,396
Law Schools . . . . .				10,294		10,294
Medical Schools . . . . .	13,34,419	1,700	765	1,89,138	24,702	15,55,724
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	35,89,149	1,15,343	18,275	19,072	1,19,080	38,62,428
Engineering Schools . . . . .	4,52,107	375	7	54,132	9,885	5,16,526
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	14,22,046	90,523	1,00,397	1,74,983	10,45,467	28,33,416
Commercial Schools . . . . .	90,215		1,162	1,89,948	52,902	3,84,227
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	37,991	1,700		2,784	6,416	98,900
Reformatory Schools . . . . .	3,81,836		1,495	840	35,272	4,19,443
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	69,032	988	21,878	4,985	69,421	1,66,304
Schools for Adults . . . . .	85,796	22,685	64,680	20,863	77,518	2,71,242
Other Schools . . . . .	8,34,293	84,424	30,199	2,76,366	7,86,997	19,92,279
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>87,56,772</b>	<b>3,18,213</b>	<b>2,40,058</b>	<b>9,64,267</b>	<b>22,27,859</b>	<b>1,25,07,169</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>	<b>8,79,51,701</b>	<b>1,65,9,196</b>	<b>68,86,707</b>	<b>4,24,81,805</b>	<b>2,72,05,497</b>	<b>18,10,14,906</b>

### III-B.—Expenditure on Education for Females.

Expenditure on buildings includes Rs. 2,83,373 spent by the Public Works Department on educational buildings.

"Miscellaneous" includes the following main items:—

Scholarships, hostel charges and other contingent charges.

	GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.						DISTRICT BOARD AND MUNICIPAL INSTITUTIONS.					
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>												
Arts Colleges	1,19,857	..	..	24,295	769	1,44,941	..	..	..	..	..	..
Professional Colleges— Medicine	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Education	35,740	..	..	980	..	36,420	..	..	..	..	..	..
Intermediate Colleges	55,816	..	..	4,631	..	60,397	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>2,11,413</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>29,506</b>	<b>769</b>	<b>2,41,758</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>												
<i>General.</i>												
High Schools	6,21,909	..	..	81,098	1,580	7,04,587	..	7,392	16,919	2,024	1,700	28,095
Middle Schools—												
English	2,21,117	..	..	18,515	711	2,40,343	9,328	..	21,328	2,569	306	33,531
Vernacular	1,04,531	..	..	1,488	125	1,06,144	41,157	13,187	1,44,970	3,263	36	2,02,593
Primary Schools	3,48,191	1,044	..	1,035	645	3,50,825	20,75,267	7,76,958	16,74,482	25,564	10,800	45,69,081
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>13,55,658</b>	<b>1,044</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>1,02,136</b>	<b>3,061</b>	<b>14,61,809</b>	<b>21,26,752</b>	<b>7,97,487</b>	<b>18,57,649</b>	<b>38,420</b>	<b>18,902</b>	<b>48,33,270</b>
<i>Special.</i>												
Medical Schools	84,096	..	..	..	240	84,336	..	..	..	..	..	..
Normal and Training Schools	6,39,123	5,953	697	317	1,225	6,50,815	6,099	..	12,078	..	..	18,077
Technical and Industrial Schools	3,326	..	..	..	..	3,326	..	..	..	..	..	..
Commercial Schools	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Agricultural Schools	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Schools for Adults	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Other Schools	15,302	..	..	..	..	15,302	..	304	..	..	73	377
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>7,12,447</b>	<b>5,953</b>	<b>697</b>	<b>317</b>	<b>1,465</b>	<b>7,58,879</b>	<b>6,099</b>	<b>304</b>	<b>12,078</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>19,454</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR FEMALES.</b>	<b>23,09,508</b>	<b>6,997</b>	<b>697</b>	<b>1,31,959</b>	<b>8,315</b>	<b>24,57,536</b>	<b>21,33,851</b>	<b>7,97,791</b>	<b>18,70,927</b>	<b>33,420</b>	<b>19,035</b>	<b>48,52,724</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR MALES.</b>	<b>2,20,19,010</b>	<b>1,12,472</b>	<b>24,937</b>	<b>54,86,193</b>	<b>3,93,576</b>	<b>2,80,66,097</b>	<b>2,53,60,885</b>	<b>81,08,930</b>	<b>47,67,768</b>	<b>35,81,400</b>	<b>3,34,048</b>	<b>4,24,53,631</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR ALL.</b>	<b>2,43,68,578</b>	<b>1,19,469</b>	<b>25,634</b>	<b>66,18,062</b>	<b>4,01,860</b>	<b>3,05,23,633</b>	<b>2,74,92,736</b>	<b>92,06,721</b>	<b>66,38,396</b>	<b>36,11,820</b>	<b>3,58,683</b>	<b>4,73,06,355</b>



### III-B.—Expenditure on Education for Females—contd.

	AIDED INSTITUTIONS.						RECOGNISED UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS.		
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.	Fees.	Other sources.	TOTALS.
	18	14	15	16	17	18	19	20	21
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTER-MEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>									
Arts Colleges . . . . .	54,823	..	..	32,881	1,04,071	1,95,775	2,864	5,556	8,420
Professional Colleges—									
Medicine . . . . .	2,00,000	..	..	..	..	2,00,000	..	..	..
Education . . . . .	32,696	..	..	8,187	16,100	51,993	..	..	..
Intermediate Colleges . . . . .	62,077	..	4,582	17,118	39,141	1,22,918	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>3,53,591</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>4,582</b>	<b>53,186</b>	<b>1,50,372</b>	<b>5,70,180</b>	<b>2,864</b>	<b>5,556</b>	<b>8,420</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>									
<i>General.</i>									
High Schools . . . . .	16,48,001	1,477	82,751	14,35,102	11,21,540	32,44,780	51,746	87,440	1,39,186
Middle Schools—									
English . . . . .	5,47,221	9,710	17,713	3,67,684	7,04,160	17,16,144	3,255	32,382	35,637
Vernacular . . . . .	1,24,744	49,910	91,874	28,914	2,64,217	5,66,665	2,431	16,161	18,592
Primary Schools . . . . .	11,41,750	6,85,950	2,70,271	2,78,983	14,10,681	36,32,635	10,258	1,11,780	1,22,047
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>35,06,818</b>	<b>6,97,958</b>	<b>4,15,600</b>	<b>21,05,887</b>	<b>35,05,607</b>	<b>1,01,90,524</b>	<b>67,690</b>	<b>2,47,778</b>	<b>3,15,468</b>
<i>Special.</i>									
Medical Schools . . . . .	48,680	550	..	20,486	28,816	98,543	..	..	..
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	3,37,717	150	7,749	23,148	2,08,386	5,77,145	890	12,824	13,684
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	64,127	3,546	1,214	12,002	2,10,204	2,97,723	497	4,106	4,603
Commercial Schools . . . . .	7,682	..	..	15,620	1,608	24,910	..	..	..
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	600	..	..	..	25	525	..	..	..
Schools for Adults . . . . .	11,347	20	2,800	4,193	21,785	40,246	10	320	330
Other Schools . . . . .	31,051	..	1,925	4,620	44,907	84,593	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b> . . . . .	<b>5,97,113</b>	<b>4,266</b>	<b>13,818</b>	<b>80,566</b>	<b>5,23,831</b>	<b>11,20,594</b>	<b>1,387</b>	<b>17,250</b>	<b>18,617</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR FEMALES.</b>	<b>41,27,327</b>	<b>6,01,319</b>	<b>4,31,000</b>	<b>22,30,339</b>	<b>41,88,810</b>	<b>1,18,60,804</b>	<b>71,921</b>	<b>2,70,584</b>	<b>3,42,505</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR MALES.</b>	<b>1,83,83,640</b>	<b>43,60,275</b>	<b>12,23,044</b>	<b>2,29,00,210</b>	<b>1,39,04,000</b>	<b>6,09,83,075</b>	<b>58,75,000</b>	<b>27,70,548</b>	<b>86,51,548</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR ALL</b>	<b>2,28,10,967</b>	<b>49,61,594</b>	<b>16,62,053</b>	<b>2,52,85,549</b>	<b>1,81,53,710</b>	<b>7,28,23,879</b>	<b>69,46,921</b>	<b>30,47,132</b>	<b>89,94,053</b>

### III-B.—Expenditure on Education for Females—concl'd.

	TOTAL EXPENDITURE FROM					
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Municipal funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	GRAND TOTALS.
	22	23	24	25	26	27
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Inspection . . . . .	6,74,688	5,925	10,723	.	235	6,91,771
Buildings, etc. . . . .	11,62,614	51,432	60,473	92,541	13,21,578	26,88,718
Miscellaneous . . . . .	11,41,563	54,987	55,220	18,12,197	17,43,393	48,09,353
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>29,79,147</b>	<b>1,12,337</b>	<b>1,26,416</b>	<b>19,01,738</b>	<b>30,67,208</b>	<b>61,69,844</b>
<b>UNIVERSITY AND INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.</b>						
Arts Colleges . . . . .	1,80,680	..	..	6,040	1,08,416	3,40,136
Professional Colleges— Medicine . . . . .	2,00,000	..	..	..	..	2,00,000
Education . . . . .	18,438	..	..	3,817	16,160	88,413
Intermediate Colleges . . . . .	1,17,943	..	4,782	21,640	39,141	1,83,315
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>5,67,059</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>4,782</b>	<b>85,506</b>	<b>1,63,117</b>	<b>8,20,864</b>
<b>SCHOOL EDUCATION.</b>						
<i>General.</i>						
High Schools . . . . .	22,70,810	8,869	49,670	15,69,970	12,17,335	51,16,654
Middle Schools— English . . . . .	8,77,608	9,710	39,041	3,91,977	7,37,559	20,55,955
Vernacular . . . . .	3,34,482	63,953	2,39,844	56,696	2,80,539	9,53,964
Primary Schools . . . . .	35,63,116	13,13,952	19,44,703	3,10,840	15,39,975	86,74,588
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>70,48,026</b>	<b>13,95,584</b>	<b>22,73,258</b>	<b>28,08,83</b>	<b>37,75,108</b>	<b>1,68,01,161</b>
<i>Special.</i>						
Medical Schools . . . . .	1,32,785	550	..	20,488	20,156	1,82,879
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	9,82,309	6,103	21,424	24,320	2,25,435	12,60,221
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	68,053	3,546	1,244	13,199	2,20,510	3,06,252
Commercial Schools . . . . .	7,082	..	..	1,620	1,608	24,910
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	500	..	..	..	25	21
Schools for Adults . . . . .	14,347	20	2,006	4,203	25,105	46,575
Other Schools . . . . .	49,353	304	1,925	4,510	44,080	1,00,182
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>13,55,859</b>	<b>10,523</b>	<b>27,493</b>	<b>82,256</b>	<b>5,45,619</b>	<b>19,21,544</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR FEMALES</b>	<b>1,18,49,893</b>	<b>15,18,444</b>	<b>24,31,749</b>	<b>48,81,377</b>	<b>75,51,950</b>	<b>2,77,33,413</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR MALES</b>	<b>8,79,51,701</b>	<b>1,65,39,196</b>	<b>68,36,707</b>	<b>4,24,81,805</b>	<b>2,72,05,497</b>	<b>18,10,14,906</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR ALL</b>	<b>9,98,01,594</b>	<b>1,80,57,640</b>	<b>92,68,456</b>	<b>4,68,63,182</b>	<b>3,47,57,447</b>	<b>20,87,48,319</b>

## IV-A.—Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the General Education of Males.

	European and Anglo-Indians.	Indian Christians.	Hindus.	Muhammadians.	Buddhists.	Parsis.	Sikhs.	Others.	TOTAL.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<b>TOTAL POPULATION</b>	162,663	1,421,550	83,945,387	31,104,809	5,682,672	46,170	1,345,871	3,183,641	126,892,748
<i>School Education.</i>									
<i>Classes.</i>									
Primary	4,379	115,224	2,571,583	1,082,720	155,913	1,138	34,110	80,627	4,045,684
	2,091	41,500	855,235	290,333	30,696	901	14,048	17,703	1,232,507
	2,467	31,374	636,104	180,587	24,397	946	11,378	11,239	897,512
	2,441	23,901	446,472	107,566	17,395	851	10,033	7,164	617,823
	2,275	12,576	251,524	53,965	8,216	648	7,041	2,000	338,206
† Middle:	1,979	8,816	161,062	36,006	6,444	931	5,546	1,256	222,640
	1,778	6,707	122,446	26,306	5,516	836	3,956	653	168,198
† High:	1,743	4,274	90,454	18,292	1,518	784	3,571	250	120,486
	659	2,729	63,424	11,741	1,069	769	2,812	162	83,366
	749	2,112	53,718	9,762	1,000	701	2,301	151	70,502
	261	1,696	41,815	5,771	72	64	20	76	60,313
	30	159	6,947	926	3	645	11	23	8,744
<b>TOTALS</b>	20,152	250,068	5,300,754	1,824,525	252,237	9,796	94,790	121,324	7,873,970
<i>University and Intermediate Education.</i>									
Intermediate classes	108	718	14,847	2,245	321	340	411	72	19,062
2nd year	87	594	14,570	2,260	163	219	369	47	18,300
Degree classes	44	340	7,311	1,143	62	91	133	27	9,151
3rd year	24	299	7,193	1,202	47	74	139	13	8,991
4th year	8	24	1,317	228	8	11	12	2	1,610
5th year	5	25	1,065	185	3	14	17	2	1,317
6th year	..	..	75	7	..	..	..	..	82
7th year	..	..	321	9	..	3	..	..	336
Research Students	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b>	276	2,003	47,342	7,354	604	752	1,081	163	59,570
No. of scholars in recognised institutions.	20,728	252,071	5,348,126	1,831,879	252,841	10,548	95,874	121,487	7,933,554
No. of scholars in unrecognised institutions.	4	6,035	173,576	166,113	199,536	568	4,551	3,252	555,630
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>	20,732	258,106	5,521,702	1,999,992	452,377	11,116	100,425	124,739	8,489,184

\* Please draw two broad lines across the table indicating the stages where the High and Middle Departments begin. (These lines could not be drawn as there is no uniformity in the different provinces as to the stages where the High and Middle Departments begin.)

† Excludes 138 scholars of one Oriental College in the Punjab and 84 scholars of one Oriental College in Assam (shown against "Education" in V-A), also excludes 3,612 and 423 scholars reading in school stages in the colleges in the W. P. and in the Punjab respectively.

## IV-B.—Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the General Education of Females.

		Europeans and Anglo-Indians.	Indian Christians.	Hindus.	Muhammadians.	Buddhists.	Parsees.	Sikhs.	Others.	TOTAL.
		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<b>TOTAL POPULATION</b>		96,111	1,372,441	80,264,600	28,360,492	5,824,070	42,401	1,020,864	3,180,781	120,161,760
<i>School Education.</i>										
	<i>Classes.</i>									
Primary	I	7,648	25,496	843,712	218,934	20,255	1,295	5,712	2,375	925,427
	II	8,034	10,783	86,939	31,106	13,984	650	1,730	652	149,078
	III	2,386	7,923	57,454	13,866	2,462	959	1,416	358	86,846
	IV	2,818	6,443	32,456	5,407	3,981	766	935	221	52,582
† Middle	V	1,994	5,084	17,744	2,592	841	517	661	186	29,819
	VI	1,631	3,653	7,058	716	393	645	135	141	14,372
	VII	1,410	2,697	3,969	379	312	471	121	103	9,462
† High	VIII	1,080	1,708	1,767	183	106	329	66	59	5,288
	IX	513	716	926	50	43	206	19	30	2,502
	X	533	483	641	36	58	165	12	19	1,942
	..	165	349	480	9	1	80	..	14	1,118
	..	4	39	160	6	..	88	..	9	306
<b>TOTALS</b>		22,723	65,369	553,296	273,304	42,381	6,370	10,807	4,227	978,477
<i>University and Intermediate Education.</i>										
Intermediate classes	1st year	31	144	114	6	..	4	4	1	304
	2nd year	40	86	93	2	..	3	7	..	237
Degree classes	3rd year	18	66	56	5	..	..	2	..	147
	4th year	15	46	52	2	..	..	1	..	116
Post-graduate classes	5th year	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	6th year	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
	7th year	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Research Students		..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>TOTALS</b>		104	342	321	15	..	7	14	1	804
<b>No. of scholars in recognised institutions</b>		22,827	65,711	553,617	273,819	42,381	6,377	10,821	4,228	979,281
<b>No. of scholars in unrecognised institutions.</b>		..	810	15,426	35,683	1,912	87	1,298	77	55,298
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>		22,827	66,521	569,043	309,007	44,293	6,464	12,119	4,305	1,034,579

† Vide footnote on previous page.

**V-A.—Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the Vocational and Special Education of Males.**

	Euro- peans and Anglo- In- dians.	Indian Chris- tians.	Hindus.	Muham- madans.	Bud- dhists.	Parais.	Sikhs.	Others.	TOTAL.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<i>Schools.</i>									
Arts Schools . . . . .	35	90	1,388	278	1	25	17	45	1,847
Law Schools . . . . .	..	..	110	30	..	..	..	..	180
Medical Schools . . . . .	48	213	3,734	845	66	2	123	14	5,045
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	3	2,455	12,981	3,995	980	3	274	388	20,974
Engineering and Surveying Schools . . . . .	51	30	1,095	115	53	1	36	30	1,411
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	596	2,847	9,509	3,693	40	99	291	225	16,805
Commercial Schools . . . . .	377	564	4,562	532	377	352	22	50	6,836
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	2	51	328	42	..	..	..	..	428
Reformatory Schools . . . . .	4	68	811	496	99	..	7	9	1,494
Schools for Defectives . . . . .	10	229	399	53	21	6	6	2	726
Schools for Adults . . . . .	..	707	41,819	47,682	65	9	4,766	929	96,007
Other Schools . . . . .	123	58	32,952	49,616	9,331	125	26	96	92,327
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>1,249</b>	<b>6,812</b>	<b>109,656</b>	<b>107,382</b>	<b>11,033</b>	<b>622</b>	<b>5,568</b>	<b>1,753</b>	<b>244,075</b>
<i>Colleges.</i>									
Law . . . . .	14	95	6,604	1,058	59	51	73	11	7,960
Medicine . . . . .	58	190	2,864	332	19	113	120	7	3,733
Education . . . . .	26	58	739	206	4	..	31	2	1,066
Engineering . . . . .	103	47	1,427	158	4	24	99	2	1,864
Agriculture . . . . .	1	18	362	94	7	6	68	27	588
Commerce . . . . .	..	28	1,322	82	1	55	5	..	1,498
Forestry . . . . .	7	15	73	18	15	..	4	2	134
Veterinary Science . . . . .	6	16	170	83	2	..	11	..	286
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>215</b>	<b>467</b>	<b>13,561</b>	<b>2,076</b>	<b>111</b>	<b>249</b>	<b>411</b>	<b>51</b>	<b>17,141</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>	<b>1,464</b>	<b>7,279</b>	<b>123,217</b>	<b>109,458</b>	<b>11,144</b>	<b>871</b>	<b>5,979</b>	<b>1,804</b>	<b>261,216</b>

**V.B. - Race or Creed of Scholars in Institutions for the Vocational and Special Education of Females.**

	Europeans and Anglo-Indians.	Indian Christians	Hindus.	Muham-madans.	Bud-dhists.	Parsis.	Sikhs.	Others.	TOTAL.
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
<i>Schools.</i>									
Medical Schools . . . . .	20	199	60	18	..	1	10	..	308
Normal and Training Schools . . . . .	245	2,076	1,308	283	305	25	58	20	4,280
Technical and Industrial Schools . . . . .	48	2,376	700	74	23	..	..	19	3,240
Commercial Schools . . . . .	254	2	..	..	..	..	..	5	261
Agricultural Schools . . . . .	..	75	..	..	..	..	..	7	82
Schools for Adults . . . . .	..	2	54	75	..	131	..	183	940
Other Schools . . . . .	33	337	925	648	1	19	..	19	1,982
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>600</b>	<b>5,047</b>	<b>3,588</b>	<b>1,079</b>	<b>329</b>	<b>179</b>	<b>68</b>	<b>253</b>	<b>11,093</b>
<i>Colleges.</i>									
Medicine . . . . .	15	12	26	5	..	..	5	..	63
Education . . . . .	61	32	17	..	..	..	..	..	110
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>76</b>	<b>44</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>5</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>173</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>	<b>676</b>	<b>5,091</b>	<b>3,631</b>	<b>1,084</b>	<b>329</b>	<b>179</b>	<b>73</b>	<b>253</b>	<b>11,266</b>

## VI.—Teachers (Men and Women).

CLASS OF INSTITUTIONS.	TRAINED TEACHERS WITH THE FOLLOWING EDUCATIONAL QUALIFICATIONS.					UNTRAINED TEACHERS.				Total Trained Teachers.	Total untrained teachers.	Grand totals of Teachers.
	A Degree	Passed Matric. or School final.	Passed Middle School.	Passed Primary School.	Lower qualifications.	Possessing a degree.		Possessing no degree.				
						Certificated.	Uncertificated.	Certificated.	Uncertificated.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
<i>Primary Schools.</i>												
Government	3	194	1,166	1,138	42	1	2	243	1,219	2,643	1,466	4,009
Local Board and Municipal.	3	753	39,573	37,392	484	89	17	6,833	31,998	78,205	38,887	117,092
Aided	29	1,210	19,994	18,791	1,408	26	57	35,755	63,897	41,432	99,735	141,167
Unaided	..	41	1,082	929	24	1	2	5,420	11,142	2,056	16,565	18,621
TOTALS	35	2,198	61,795	58,250	1,958	67	78	48,251	108,256	124,236	156,662	280,898
<i>Middle Schools.</i>												
Government	54	490	547	111	16	16	35	72	359	1,218	473	1,691
Local Board and Municipal.	169	881	10,484	881	134	17	88	633	2,836	12,549	3,574	16,123
Aided	174	1,404	4,251	1,244	736	169	305	4,754	5,278	7,809	10,506	18,315
Unaided	20	123	738	64	11	63	91	1,343	975	956	2,472	3,428
TOTALS	417	2,898	16,020	2,390	897	265	519	6,802	9,439	22,582	17,025	39,557
<i>High Schools.</i>												
Government	1,657	1,234	790	43	186	268	372	384	790	3,850	1,814	5,664
Local Board and Municipal.	639	898	281	41	261	81	178	128	540	2,115	922	3,037
Aided	2,262	3,015	2,364	335	531	1,649	1,889	3,136	4,989	8,707	11,663	20,170
Unaided	159	137	577	22	12	1,867	606	3,300	1,485	907	7,258	8,165
TOTALS	4,717	5,279	3,952	441	990	3,865	3,040	6,948	7,804	15,979	21,657	37,036
GRAND TOTALS	5,169	10,375	81,767	60,991	3,845	4,197	3,637	62,001	125,499	162,147	195,334	357,481

## VII.—European Education.

Total European population	Male		Female		Percentage to European population of those at school.						
	157,558	92,099	10-14	25-49	Total	19-59					
	TOTAL		249,657								
	Institutions.	Scholars on roll on March 31st.	Average daily attendance.	Number of females in institutions for males and vice versa.	TEACHERS.		EXPENDITURE FROM				Total expenditure.
					Trained.	Un-trained.	Govt. funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
<i>Institutions for Males.</i>							Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Arts Colleges	5	179	161	..	46	22	1,13,865	100	88,965	56,905	2,50,835
Training Colleges	1	21	21	..	2	..	24,954	..	..	..	24,954
High Schools	65	14,793	13,316	988	424	384	10,63,959	8,206	10,04,002	6,34,474	27,10,641
Middle Schools	38	3,845	3,379	959	146	106	2,02,940	4,774	1,35,816	1,30,699	4,74,229
Primary Schools	55	3,794	3,108	1,217	128	91	1,01,994	8,782	70,613	1,19,222	3,00,561
Training Schools	..	..	..	..	..	..	2,173	..	..	..	2,173
Technical and Industrial Schools.	3	375	361	..	2	4	15,460	..	15,784	4,689	35,938
Commercial Schools	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Other Schools	..	..	..	..	..	..	11,854	..	..	..	11,854
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>167</b>	<b>23,007</b>	<b>20,340</b>	<b>3,163</b>	<b>746</b>	<b>607</b>	<b>15,37,199</b>	<b>21,812</b>	<b>13,15,180</b>	<b>9,45,989</b>	<b>38,20,980</b>
<i>Institutions for Females.</i>											
Arts Colleges	1	312	272	..	18	8	9,711	..	12,324	6,759	26,794
Training Colleges	2	49	49	..	9	1	33,316	..	2,837	4,272	40,425
High Schools	100	16,068	15,196	2,606	750	493	10,95,697	9,964	9,88,621	5,23,047	26,12,329
Middle Schools	60	6,250	5,625	1,742	269	157	2,84,562	3,893	1,81,508	2,04,711	6,74,704
Primary Schools	51	2,812	2,433	1,088	92	84	79,546	3,969	64,264	94,662	2,42,741
Training Schools	10	171	156	..	37	5	61,157	..	12,044	11,684	84,885
Technical and Industrial Schools.	1	54	56	..	2	2	450	..	..	1,837	2,287
Commercial Schools	5	165	151	..	6	6	6,295	..	11,368	1,194	18,857
Other Schools	2	25	25	4	3	1	11,916	..	139	3,570	15,625
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>232</b>	<b>25,006</b>	<b>23,963</b>	<b>5,590</b>	<b>1,186</b>	<b>752</b>	<b>15,82,650</b>	<b>17,826</b>	<b>12,78,105</b>	<b>8,52,066</b>	<b>37,10,647</b>
<b>GRAND TOTALS FOR INSTITUTIONS.</b>	<b>399</b>	<b>48,013</b>	<b>44,303</b>	<b>..</b>	<b>1,934</b>	<b>1,359</b>	<b>31,19,849</b>	<b>39,638</b>	<b>25,93,285</b>	<b>17,98,055</b>	<b>75,40,827</b>
Expenditure on Buildings includes: Rs. 1,61,778 spent by the Public Works Department.					Inspection		1,26,931	..	..	..	1,26,931
					Buildings, etc.		7,09,568	476	1,66,772	6,80,724	15,57,540
"Miscellaneous" includes the following main items:—					Miscellaneous		10,33,521	1,080	21,90,351	15,99,662	48,24,514
Hotel charges, scholarships and other contingent charges.					<b>TOTALS</b>		<b>18,70,036</b>	<b>1,556</b>	<b>28,57,123</b>	<b>22,80,386</b>	<b>65,08,095</b>
					<b>GRAND TOTALS</b>		<b>49,88,879</b>	<b>41,194</b>	<b>49,40,408</b>	<b>40,78,441</b>	<b>1,40,48,922</b>



## VIII.—Examination Results.

Examinations.	MALES.						FEMALES.					
	NUMBER OF EXAMINERS.			NUMBER PASSED.			NUMBER OF EXAMINERS.			NUMBER PASSED.		
	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
<b>DEGREE EXAMINATIONS.</b>												
<i>Arts and Science.</i>												
D. Litt. . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
Ph. D. . . . .	1	2	3	..	2	2	..	..	..	..	..	..
D. Sc. . . . .	1	1	2	1	1	2	..	..	..	..	..	..
M. A. . . . .	1,059	293	1,352	574	130	904	17	2	19	10	1	11
M. Sc. . . . .	269	24	293	197	12	209	1	..	1	1	..	1
B. A. (Honours) . . . . .	1,270	101	1,371	874	56	930	33	1	34	28	..	28
B. Sc. (Honours) . . . . .	375	55	430	219	29	248	..	..	..	..	..	..
B. A. (Pass) . . . . .	5,500	2,016	7,516	3,012	758	3,770	138	41	179	107	30	137
B. Sc. (Pass) . . . . .	1,469	293	1,762	810	130	940	7	..	7	5	..	5
<i>Law.</i>												
Master of Law . . . . .	2	14	16	..	6	6	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bachelor of Law . . . . .	4,195	249	4,444	2,570	131	2,701	1	..	1	1	..	1
<i>Medicine.</i>												
M. D. . . . .	8	5	13	3	4	7	..	..	..	..	..	..
M. B., B. S. . . . .	1,172	..	1,172	467	..	467	39	..	39	20	..	20
L. M. S. (Bombay) . . . . .	36	..	36	17	..	17	17	..	17	9	..	9
M. C. P. & S. (Bombay) . . . . .	5	..	5	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
M. S. F. M. (Calcutta) . . . . .	4	..	4	1	..	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
M. S. . . . .	3	1	4	..	1	1	..	..	..	..	..	..
M. Obstetrics . . . . .	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..
B. Hyg. . . . .	11	..	11	6	..	6	..	..	..	..	..	..
D. P. H. . . . .	17	..	17	14	..	14	..	..	..	..	..	..
B. Sc. (Sanitary) . . . . .	6	..	6	3	..	3	..	..	..	..	..	..
D. T. M. (Calcutta) . . . . .	3	25	28	3	17	20	..	1	1	..	1	1
<i>Engineering.</i>												
Bachelor of U. E. . . . .	149	..	149	110	..	110	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bachelor of M. E. . . . .	96	..	96	62	..	62	..	..	..	..	..	..
<i>Education.</i>												
H. E., B. T. & L. T. . . . .	514	272	786	412	139	551	55	12	67	37	11	48
<i>Commerce.</i>												
Bachelor of Commerce . . . . .	181	89	270	103	26	129	1	..	1	1	..	1
<i>Agriculture.</i>												
Master of Agriculture . . . . .	..	3	3	..	2	2	..	..	..	..	..	..
Bachelor of Agriculture . . . . .	105	12	117	89	7	96	..	..	..	..	..	..

\* is, appearing from a recognised institution

## VIII.—Examination Results—contd.

Examinations.	MALES.						FEMALES.					
	NUMBER OF EXAMINEES.			NUMBER PASSED.			NUMBER OF EXAMINEES.			NUMBER PASSED.		
	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.	Public.*	Private.	Total.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	
<b>INTERMEDIATE EXAMINATIONS.</b>												
Intermediate in Arts	12,555	3,947	16,502	5,115	1,366	7,081	230	154	484	221	71	292
Intermediate in Science.	7,216	698	7,914	4,000	295	4,295	72	4	76	44	2	46
Licentiate of Civil Engineering	74	..	74	50	..	50	..	..	..	..	..	..
Licence, Diploma or certificate in Teaching.	1,133	253	1,386	927	170	1,097	222	5	227	196	2	198
Intermediate or Diploma in Commerce.	496	23	519	276	14	290	..	..	..	..	..	..
Licentiate of Agriculture	83	..	83	64	..	64	..	..	..	..	..	..
Veterinary Examinations.	249	..	249	186	..	186	..	..	..	..	..	..
<b>SCHOOL EXAMINATIONS.</b>												
<i>(a) On completion of High School course.</i>												
Matriculation	39,444	3,962	43,406	26,105	1,875	27,980	585	130	715	361	75	436
School Final, etc.	23,555	1,834	25,389	18,623	808	19,431	542	33	575	432	13	445
European High School	290	8	298	161	1	162	242	3	245	143	2	145
Cambridge Senior	363	94	457	216	17	233	228	5	233	119	1	120
Vernacular High (i.e. Burma).	160	372	532	71	93	164	26	42	78	10	15	25
<i>(b) On completion of Middle School course.</i>												
Cambridge Junior	552	8	560	358	2	360	385	..	385	234	..	234
School Final, etc.	574	1	575	310	..	310	510	2	512	386	1	387
Anglo-Vernacular Middle	56,414	243	56,657	43,784	45	43,829	2,111	49	2,160	1,388	27	1,415
Vernacular Middle	30,447	4,706	35,153	19,093	1,733	20,826	2,242	630	2,872	1,339	280	1,619
<i>(c) On completion of Primary course.</i>												
Upper Primary	176,672	419	177,091	128,227	199	128,426	10,864	213	11,077	8,228	135	8,373
Lower Primary	362,427	1	362,428	278,289	1	278,290	26,169	116	26,285	26,714	94	26,810
<i>(d) On completion of Vocational course.</i>												
For teacher's certificates.—												
Vernacular, Higher	4,370	1,005	5,375	3,147	518	3,665	1,387	64	1,451	1,025	30	1,055
Vernacular, Lower	5,614	2,824	12,438	6,526	1,264	7,790	788	27	765	460	15	475
At Art Schools	1,233	95	1,328	60	19	619	29	2	31	16	2	17
At Law Schools	34	..	34	4	..	4	..	..	..	..	..	..
At Medical Schools	1,333	346	1,679	862	238	1,099	..	16	78	35	11	46
At Engineering Schools	665	42	1,157	449	193	642	..	..	..	..	..	..
At Technical and Industrial Schools	1,512	1,014	2,526	1,308	633	1,841	96	328	424	80	237	317
At Commercial Schools	2,800	7,824	10,624	1,185	2,012	4,097	89	62	140	42	13	55
At Agricultural Schools	83	1	84	77	..	77	..	..	..	..	..	..
At other Schools	5,234	439	5,673	3,353	274	3,627	132	..	132	88	..	88

\* i.e., appearing from a recognised institution.

**OCCASIONAL REPORTS**  
**No. 11.**

---

**RURAL SCHOOL TEACHERS**  
IN THE  
**UNITED STATES OF AMERICA**

*(Their Preparation and Supervision)*

BY

**H. G. WYATT, I.E.S.,**

*Principal, Central Training College, Lahore.*



# Agents for the Sale of Books Published by the Superintendent of Government Printing, India, Calcutta.

## IN EUROPE.

Constable & Co., 10, Orange Street, Leicester Square, London, W.C.  
 Kegan Paul, Trench, Tribner & Co., 63-74, Carter Lane, E.C. and 39, New Oxford Street, London, W.C.  
 Bernard Quaritch, 11, Grafton Street, New Bond Street, London, W.  
 P. S. King & Sons, 2 & 4, Great Smith Street, Westminster, London, S.W.  
 H. S. King & Co., 65, Cornhill, E.C., and 9, Pall Mall, London, W.  
 Grindlay & Co., 54, Parliament Street, London, S.W.  
 Luzac & Co., 46, Great Russell Street, London, W.C.

W. Thacker & Co., 2, Creed Lane, London, E.C.  
 T. Fisher Unwin, Ltd., 1, Adelphi Terrace, London, W.C.  
 Wheldon & Wesley, Ltd., 2, 3 & 4, Arthur Street, New Oxford Street, London, W. C. 2.  
 B. H. Blackwell, 50 & 51, Broad Street, Oxford.  
 Delighton Bell & Co., Ltd., Cambridge.  
 Oliver and Boyd, Tweeddale Court, Edinburgh.  
 E. Ponsanby, Ltd., 116, Grafton Street, Dublin.  
 Ernest Leroux, 28, Rue Bonaparte, Paris.  
 Martinus Nijhoff, The Hague, Holland.  
 Otto Harrassowitz, Leipzig.  
 Friedländer and Sohn, Berlin.

## IN INDIA AND CEYLON.

Thacker, Spink & Co., Calcutta and Simla.  
 Newman & Co., Calcutta.  
 R. Cambay & Co., Calcutta.  
 S. K. Lahiri & Co., Calcutta.  
 B. Banerjee & Co., Calcutta.  
 The Indian School Supply Depot, 309, Bow Bazar Street, Calcutta, and 226, Nawabpur, Dacca.  
 Butterworth & Co. (India), Ltd., Calcutta.  
 Rai M. C. Sarcar Bahadur and Sons, 60-2A, Harrison Road, Calcutta.  
 The Weldon Library, 57, Park Street, West, Calcutta.  
 Standard Literature Company, Ltd., Calcutta.  
 Lal Chand & Sons, Calcutta.  
 Association Press, Calcutta.  
 Higginbotham & Co., Madras.  
 V. Kalyanarama Iyer & Co., Madras.  
 G. A. Natesan & Co., Madras.  
 S. Murthy & Co., Madras.  
 Thompson & Co., Madras.  
 Temple & Co., Madras.  
 P. R. Rama Iyer & Co., Madras.  
 Vas & Co., Madras.  
 E. M. Gopalakrishna Kone, Madras.  
 Thacker & Co., Ltd., Bombay.  
 D. B. Taraporevala, Sons & Co., Bombay.  
 Mrs. Radhabai Atmaram Sagoon, Bombay.  
 Sunder Pandurang, Bombay.  
 Gopal Narayan & Co., Bombay.  
 Ram Chandra Govind & Sons, Kalbadevi, Bombay.  
 Proprietor, New Kitabkhana, Poona.

The Standard Bookstall, Karachi.  
 Mangaldas Harkisandas, Surat.  
 Karandas Narandas & Sons, Surat.  
 A. H. Wheeler & Co., Allahabad, Calcutta and Bombay.  
 N. B. Mathur, Supdt., Nazir Kanun Hind Press, Allahabad.  
 Munshi Sontaram, Managing Proprietor, Indian Army Book Depot, Juhl, Cawnpore.  
 Raj Sahib M. Gulab Singh & Sons, Mufid-i-Am Press, Lahore and Allahabad.  
 Rama Krishna & Sons, Lahore.  
 Supdt., American Baptist Mission Press, Rangoon.  
 Proprietor, Rangoon Times Press, Rangoon.  
 Manager, the "Hitavada," Nagpur.  
 S. C. Talukdar, Proprietor, Students & Co., Cooch Behar.  
 A. M. & J. Ferguson, Ceylon.  
 Manager, Educational Book Depôts, Nagpur and Jubulpore.\*  
 Manager of the Imperial Book Depot, 63, Chandney Chauk Street, Delhi.\*  
 Manager, "The Agra Medical Hall and Co-operative Association, Ltd." (Successors to A. John & Co., Agra).\*  
 Supdt., Basel Mission Book and Tract Depository, Mangalore.\*  
 P. Varadachary & Co., Madras.\*  
 Ramu Dayal Agarwala, 184, Katra, Allahabad.\*  
 D. C. Anand & Sons, Peshawar.\*  
 Manager, Newal Kishore Press, Lucknow.\*  
 Maung Lu Gale, Proprietor Law Book Depot, Mandalay.\*  
 Times of Ceylon Co., Ltd.†

\* Agents for the sale of Legislative Department publications only.

† Agents for the sale of Archaeological publications only.

## TABLE OF CONTENTS.

	PAGE.
PREFACE . . . . .	i—ii
CHAPTER I.	
The Rural Teacher and her training . . . . .	1—14
CHAPTER II.	
Practice work in training for Rural Teacherships . . . . .	15—27
CHAPTER III.	
The School and the Community . . . . .	28—46
CHAPTER IV.	
Rural School Supervision . . . . .	47—69
INDEX . . . . .	71—74

## PREFACE.

THE material for the report that follows was collected in the East and Middle West States of America in April and May 1921, and is the result of personal observations during visits to training institutions of different types and to rural and one or two town schools, of talks with several leading educationists and others, and of a study of a selection of educational literature on teacher preparation and rural school problems freely put at my disposal. A visitor studying American education has a cordial welcome everywhere, but I am especially indebted to Professors F. M. McMurry, and W. C. Bagley and Miss Mabel Carney of Teachers' College, Columbia University; to Professor O. Caldwell, Principal of the Lincoln School, New York City; to Principal J. E. Gregg, of the Hampton Institute, Virginia; to Miss Newbury, 'Helping Teacher,' New Jersey; Professor M. V. O'Shea, and Dr. J. A. Alexander, at Madison, Wisconsin; Professor C. H. Judd and others at Chicago University; Mr. B. C. Moore, Superintendent of Maclean County; and Mr. E. J. Tobin, with his fellow "country life directors" of Cook County, near Chicago, to several kind officials of the Bureau of Education at Washington, and in England to Mr. T. W. Twentyman, of the Board of Education, who armed me with many useful letters of introduction.

2. To present a conspectus of the system in vogue in the United States for the training of rural teachers has not been my purpose in the pages that follow. To do so might have been useful, but it would have been exceedingly dull. I have aimed rather at selecting certain features in the process of training, certain problems connected with it and certain innovations or modern tendencies illustrated in America, with a view to showing how these are there dealt with and where the treatment of them has significance for educational workers in India. I have not hesitated in many cases to apply the lessons of western experience to Indian conditions, but though I have done so without the reservation or humility that an experience limited to a single Indian Province would demand, I believe that more good may result by deliberately challenging criticism than by offering opinions in a tentative and self-effacing spirit. And after all conditions all over India are not so dissimilar that generalisations do not apply. Nor

have I confined myself to the technical training of teachers. The United States has also its contribution to make to the solution of the problem of preparing the rural school supervisor and of bringing the rural school into touch with the life around it. The training of a teacher does not end with her completion of her course of formal training. It has seemed relevant therefore to include some discussion of means taken to confirm and continue that training. In the chapters on the school and the community and on rural school supervision methods by which this is attempted are explained.

# Rural School Teachers in the United States of America.

## CHAPTER I.

### The Rural Teacher and her training.

#### *A. General conditions of rural education.*

The United States of America, like India and South Africa, abounds in single-room and single teacher rural elementary schools, for which teachers have to be found and prepared. Expedients adopted in America for finding and fitting teachers for their task cannot be made intelligible without a brief reference to circumstances outside the school itself.

About one-third of the population of the United States are engaged in agriculture, living for the most part away from big centres of population. A great many of these agriculturists are backward even in their methods of farming and in habits of life, and besides being generally ignorant become somewhat crude in manners and unsociable through the habit of isolation and lack of opportunity or initiative. As contrasted with the Indian zamindar, agricultural error or inefficiency, where it exists, is due more often to the ignorance of the immigrant, attempting old methods in new conditions, or farming for the first time, than to age-worn custom which is a community's second nature. It is of course easier to enlighten individual ignorance than to alter or disturb the general order of several thousand years. But the problem in America is complicated by constant accessions of fresh immigrants, bringing with them the speech and ways of various (more recently of Eastern) peoples of Europe, who have to be made good Americans as well as adaptable agriculturists; and the American love of individual liberty and local self-government has meant too often the neglect of those already backward in the struggle of the more favoured to look after themselves. Centralised government has an advantage here.

In America too, unlike India, the rural husbandman often lives alone. The Indian zamindar lives in village communi-



ties, the American farmer in a \*homestead by itself. The zamindar is a part of his community, which makes and orders every detail of his daily life, and is usually of a size in which the individual members all know one another, neither so small that each can have much influence, nor so large that any can live his own life apart. Hence its unprogressiveness.

A man's life can be his own only in big centres or in the wilderness. The American rural dweller is more often and more nearly of the wilderness. He may be a mile or more from his nearest neighbour, and several miles of indifferent roads or tracks, from any centre of social gathering. And his day's labour on his land may leave no time or inclination for society. Lonely lives sometimes make deep thinkers, but lack of emulation, suggestion, and encouragement, and of a social standard of manners, more often beget mental stagnation, narrowness of outlook and content with an animal or vegetable existence. The problem is to keep customs changing with improving possibilities, and to prevent wrong traditions from establishing themselves too early. The constant need in rural America is to create communities, rather than to alter communities old in time and tradition. The school and the teachers have their part to play here.

A young people like the American is fortunately free from many of the universal conventions that weigh like lead upon Indian social life. In America woman is at least the equal of man, a very important asset in educating for domestic life, and there are no distinctions of caste. Amongst the social differences that divide man from man the religious exist but are not so pervasive as in India; they do not affect the routine of ordinary life or prevent ordinary social intercourse. Differences of race exist, as immigrants tend to group together, but the immigrant enters America to become an American and not to cling to his customs with national pride; the process of Americanization is not so much that of reconciling inveterate and deliberate groups and local differences, as that of leading large numbers of newcomers into democratic ways. And the danger is that the American ideal may be degraded if the newcomers are too many or too crude to be assimilated in the time.

But social distinctions inevitably grow up as societies organise. There is, for instance, the inevitable pride of wealth in the large towns, and America is no exception to the

---

\* A homestead is a single residence, which may be only a cotta or hut, or may include buildings and outhouses attached to a farm.

rule that the town-dweller feels his superiority over the countryman in status, in knowledge of the world, and in the amenities and amusements of social life, and tends to look down on him in consequence. Indeed in many parts of America there are three grades in this unconscious hierarchy, that represented by the isolated homestead, that of the village and that of the town. In some ways the village is apt to separate its interests from the country surrounding it, setting up arbitrary boundaries which it then becomes the duty of the school to break down. A corresponding distinction commonly obtains between the rural school which serves a number of scattered homesteads and the village school which serves the little social centre that constitutes the village.

Another important characteristic of the American rural population is its comparative mobility, or to be more exact, the existence over a bedrock of established homes of streams of newcomers, or of comers and goers, seeking somewhere to settle or making a living without settling either to one profession or to one place. The American, insular as he sometimes is in outlook, is often moveable within his boundaries, and though this is true especially of the bachelor, a number of semi-detached families are always in motion over the country tracts. This again complicates the educational problem, for although elementary education is free and nominally obligatory, the wanderer can often escape its meshes, and even where he attends school, he suffers the inconveniences of disconnected teaching. Moreover, the rural school year is often remarkably short, it seldom exceeds eight and may fall as low as four or five months, and the provisions for enforcing attendance are not as effectual as they might be. That over a quarter of the adult population of the United States were practically illiterate in English was a discovery made during the recent War that showed how unawake the country was at the time to its educational interests, but has been used since by serious educationists—of which there has always been a zealous minority—to effect an awakening.

### *The Rural School.*

The visitor to the American rural school must be struck by its frequently isolated situation. It may be found standing by itself in the corner of a large open field or a little way off the road in a separate plot of its own. A simple wooden

structure, may be—though local building materials vary—with sloping roof and chimney, a tiny outhouse or two at the back, and sometimes only a single classroom for pupils of several grades and ages. There is no particular community centre to combine with mere accessibility to pupil population in deciding the school's location. Personal preferences of influential parents apart, the building finds itself where it can serve a number of separate homesteads most conveniently; there is often no social centre for it to serve. Of course there are grades between the school situated in a village and the school standing by itself, but the isolation of the school is sufficiently common to be characteristic.

A scattered population frequently means a small school attendance—a great many of these schools have less than twenty pupils on the rolls, and when we add that they belong to any of eight different grades of attainment, taught usually by a single girl (or woman), it will be understood that the common rural school of America entails much waste of teaching power. Improving means of communication, and the shifting incidence of population often make the co-existence of separate schools superfluous, but in America schools are local possessions, which cannot be opened and closed according to the will of a central authority, and one of the problems which the educational worker must be prepared to attack is that of subduing the smaller to the larger patriotism.

The teacher in the rural school to whom falls \*her share in realising these larger duties, is usually a woman, often a girl not far from twenty, who has obtained a high school education but less often any training as a teacher, hopes sooner, or at any rate later, to marry, and for that amongst other reasons finds the solitude of her school irksome, and has often to board and lodge at some local farmer's within walking distance, whose household's ways and hers may or may not happen to be compatible. In the absence of other daily society, however, it is necessary to find one's home associates congenial, and where as is common the teacher is locally appointed, to make herself at home in the neighbourhood is a condition of peace in life and smooth working at school. The tenure of rural school teachers in the States averages not over three years; and how to satisfy teachers with life in the country is an ever present problem. Marriage is a constant drain on the profession, so that the predominance of women

---

\* As most teachers, even in high schools in the U. S. A. are women I have given to teacher and student under training the feminine gender throughout this report.

teachers demands a correspondingly increased provision for training, and accentuates the difficulty of supply.

Even as it is however the best available candidate for appointment is not always chosen, for on real or misinterpreted democratic principles much of the control of the schools, including the appointment, pay, and dismissal of the teacher, is often in the hands of a local board of three or five members, and sometimes, in effect, of a single trustee, themselves of no particular education, willing to do a friend a good turn by finding paid occupation for his daughter in the local school whatever her temperament and qualifications—for a teacher is just a teacher and one girl may do as well as another. And after all a local girl it might be argued is more likely to stick to her job.

In these circumstances there is special need for skilled guidance and encouragement in her teaching, if she is to feel it worth while to teach efficiently and to learn a little how to do so. But as often as not the teacher is practically without this assistance, for the only interest from outside that relieves the monotony of the school routine comes from the so-called county superintendent, but he is generally a busy officer, with hundreds of schools in his area, appointed by popular vote and not primarily for educational qualifications. The wonder is that under this system the superintendent is as useful as he often is. There are signs of a change of system, and expedients for supplementing or improving the superintendent's efforts will be discussed later.

### *B. The preparation of rural teachers.*

Speaking broadly the preparation of teachers for rural school work is being carried on in three classes of institution, which we may name respectively normal schools, high schools, and county training schools. Of these the oldest established is the normal school, which ordinarily gives a course lasting two years in continuation of a general high school education, though many normal schools aspire to higher things. For reasons which cannot be explained here the normal school, whether state or private, is usually located in a large town and has paid undue attention to the production of urban school teachers, and even to advancing the academic education of its students. Local influences have predominated; the wishes of applicants for admission rather than the needs of American education have been considered;

and the attractions of town life and higher salaries have been decisive. The ruralisation of the normal school curriculum is thus the outcome of a deliberate effort in the face of obstacles to counteract in the public interest the popular demand and in point of fact a majority of teachers now in rural schools have been trained in high schools and county training schools which are more rurally situated. ✓

To go into detail over the varieties of conditions and programmes for training which obtain in different states and institutions would be a complicated and unfruitful task, and I shall confine myself to broad distinctions and general questions. Some normal schools have special departments for rural school teachers, some offer special courses to a few students without maintaining a separate department, and others make minor adaptations in their ordinary courses, or no arrangement at all, for rural work. Of these three methods of providing for rural teachers the first named seems the best eventual arrangement, where numbers admit.

Classes in high schools and county training schools, are a more recent departure. In the autumn of 1914 a National Conference on teacher training for rural schools held at Chicago approved the preparation of teachers for rural schools in county training schools and in classes in high schools

where more extensive training is not at present feasible.

This more extensive training refers to the two-year course of training usual in normal schools, following a twelve-year school life. At present classes attached to high schools exist in about a third of the states and are sometimes the chief current source of supply of rural teachers. Of these classes some admit pupils of the eighth school grade, others add a year of special training to the full high school course, and there are intermediate arrangements. And some treat the teaching course as separate from, others as part of, the high school course. A curriculum officially published for high school training, covering one year after passing the high school standard, comprises English, nature study, rural health and sanitation, rural school management and teaching methods, arithmetic and farm accounts, rural life problems, history and community civics, manual training, and physical exercises; with some attention to music and industrial arts. Where the course ends at an earlier stage, being taken as part, say, of the last two years of the high school course, it is naturally less comprehensive. In addition to general class subjects (English, mathematics, geography, history,

science), agriculture, botany, civics, and pedagogy figure on one sample programme; and physiology and hygiene, drawing and music find a place in another. And a training in library methods is not infrequent. ✓

The county training school is distinguished from the high school in being itself a special and a more 'countrified' institution framing its courses with the preparation of rural school teachers in view. It is not an ordinary school with teacher training as a side affair. One type of county training school in the southern states places more emphasis upon careful instruction in subjects which will give the primary school work a practical even an industrial turn, than on training in professional technique, adding to five years of primary work "two years of elementary work with suitable industrial courses, and then in addition three years of advanced work emphasising all the arts of home making and farm life, and in the last year a simple course in teacher training".

"In the training schools" to quote from a report, "an attempt has been made to put in the background old traditions of school work, which are largely concerned with city life, and to study the present-day needs of a country neighbourhood, from these determining the necessary equipment, program, and teaching force. It was determined to make a school that would be so helpful to the people that it would compel their interest and support, and would at the same time prove so useful to the country as to ensure adequate provision for its support from public funds".

A special difficulty has been that of finding teachers for the training schools, but help has been found by sending students, often existing primary school teachers, to the well-known Hampton Institute in Virginia where they study industrial arts useful in the home. The following extract is illustrative:—

"At Hampton the different groups of teachers were given just the equipment they would have in their own schools, and then they proceeded to work out a program for the coming year. Groups of men would be busy making wheelbarrows, learning to repair shoes and harness, to mix concrete and paint, or to use carpenters' tools. Groups of women would be busy with cooking, canning, preserving, laundry work, gardening, poultry raising

and at other times in the day they would be in the various academic classes in school management, English, community civics, hygiene, geography, reading, and arithmetic. At other times they would hold conferences with each other, talking over their problems and their plans. They went back to work with renewed courage and zeal. Some industry has been put into every school. Several teachers have spoken of the great value of cobbling. Boys in the schools had been taught to do repair work for the whole neighbourhood, and the people begin to take a new interest in their school because of this practical work. All have undertaken cooking, sewing, and gardening, the boys and girls doing club work in gardening and canning at their homes."

In the north the county training school has less of this special character. In a typical case pupils are taken who have passed their eighth grade or a higher standard and are given a special course of preparation of more than one or, if for students of high school standard, of one year. The courses in either case include some continuance or deepening of the student's general education, subjects considered useful in rural school work (*e.g.*, some out of music, drawing, hygiene, household arts, agriculture, plays and games) and some subjects specially professional as rural economy, school management, and school observation and practice.

To the question which is better, the class attached to an institution for general education or the class as a separate institution, the answer of most experts appears to favour the latter. Association with companions studying with a different object in view has, no doubt, a broadening influence, and the claim has been advanced that the high school which embodies teacher preparation in its ordinary course, (not treating it as a separate department), has a marked effect on the attitude of the whole school towards matters of discipline and administration (through the student's study of psychology and school problems and management, a point that is suggestive for those in charge of ordinary schools), that the practical bent thus given to high school work makes it popular with the public, and that the efforts of the staff generally are stimulated when their teaching is observed or discussed by prospective teachers. On the other hand a subsidiary class is apt to become a mere side issue, with insufficient supervision or guidance, made

to fit in with the requirements of the general school. The teaching is apt to miss its point, unless the class is taught by separately appointed teachers, and the 'field' or practice work is unlikely to be so suitable or so adequate as in an institution established and located with practising facilities in view.

As against this the county training school has the advantage of singleness and wholeheartedness of purpose, of being located where it will be in close touch with rural life and will have a sufficient field for observation and practice.

These comments in general have their application in India: witness the training classes for Junior English teachers attached to arts colleges in the Punjab. An ordinary arts college cannot be expected to find special lecturers for different branches of the training class curriculum and naturally resorts to entrusting a group of professional subjects to one or two additional lecturers while leaving other subjects to be taken supplementarily by ordinary professors on the college staff. However the temptation be resisted to treat supplementary work as subordinate to this main interest, an academic professor, not specially qualified for the work of training nor sufficiently in touch with the schools for which the teacher is being prepared, cannot be expected to teach his subject from the point of view required. In the case of English, for example, what the respective junior teacher needs to study is not an academic course in any sense, but the language of common and home life; and while mastering this he should learn also the methods of presenting his material to school beginners, of selecting subject-matter, and so on. The same applies equally to other school subjects. And only an institution with an 'ad hoc' staff of specialists, who are wholtime students of their respective problems, can so impart even non-professional subjects as to be of most service to the prospective teacher of them.

The fact that the county training school is located in a rural area also gives it an advantage for rural training over the ordinary normal school, which is not usually located with rural practice school facilities in view, and does not make up for this by adopting special measures. Nor does it draw on the rural population for its students. Out of 22 normal schools from representative areas dealt with in a report fourteen only were equipped with model rural school and only twelve reported having schools for rural practice. The county training school however can easily be placed within



reach of ordinary rural schools for the study of rural school problems on the spot, and though it does not appear that the courses of work as yet include as much or as thorough field and practice exercises as they might do, expert investigation reveals their superiority in producing serviceable and competent rural teachers. 'They invariably know,' says a recent report, 'what to do when they get into the school. Their own life experience and the preparation given them in schools located in the heart of rural communities have specifically prepared them to solve rural problems and led them to study carefully the conditions under which work in the average country school must be done. They plan their work in the training schools with country school conditions in mind; consequently when they enter the schools their ideas are definite in regard to the necessary steps of procedure. They know what must be taught, the classes that must be organised, the equipment with which they have to work, etc. They seem to get down to work from the start, whereas many teachers who have not had much special training waste much time in getting the school under way. The strongest phase of the teachers' work appears to be in the success with which they are able to project the activities of the school into the home and the home interests into the schools. In other words, the county training school graduates\* have been unusually successful in socializing the country community. This, it is well known, is generally the point of greatest weakness in teachers reared and trained in the town schools.'

It is now time to notice two features of most of the curricula for rural teacherships, with whatever type of institution they are associated. They reflect in the first place a difference, almost a contrast, in the requirements for teacherships in rural and urban schools; and in the second the rural teacher's concern not simply with the work in the school but with the whole life of the neighbourhood. Not only are some subjects of study distinctive but the treatment generally of all. Rural sociology and economics and agricultural nature study are actually or practically different subjects from those appropriate to a curriculum for urban teachers; and the treatment of 'the school system,' of 'internal school management' and teaching methods, of the school in its relation to the community, is largely dissimilar for country and for urban schools. Under the head of school management, for example, the prac-

---

\* In the United States of America the term graduate is used of a pupil who has completed any, even a school, course of study.

tical problems of classification, promotion, the day's timetable, order or discipline, of sanitation, of leisure occupations are on the face of them different for the assistant teacher in charge of a single class in an urban elementary school, from what they are for the teacher in charge of a rural school teaching all the pupils of various ages and standards. Amalgamation of rural and urban curricula means either the teaching of general principles without their application to the actual situation that will be met with or application to one set of circumstances and not the other.

But the most fruitful instruction for ordinary rural teachers is that which is based on the actual daily facts of the teaching life. Thus a teacher who had attended merely a general course of school management or one not specifically for rural schools would overlook the advantages in classification of splitting her small school into a few larger, instead of many smaller, groups; in selecting her syllabuses, of a 'see-saw' arrangement of courses for two successive years; and in the timetable, of skill in distributing oral instruction and quiet study amongst different groups. In methods of instruction, again, a teacher in a rural school needs to make a far more special study of occupations and exercises which children can undertake independently at every stage of development than is required by a teacher in charge of a single class, and to seek for the teaching in geography or arithmetic direct bearings on ordinary rural life. Rural geography and arithmetic, indeed, as rural nature study or home economics become largely different subjects.

The observance of this principle of course carries with it in practice a differentiation between rural school and town school elementary curricula, whether these are officially distinguished or not. Nor can there be successful differentiation in school courses unless there is differentiation in training for them. In some parts of America adaptations of elementary school curricula to rural circumstances have been made and are being carried further. In the case of India attempts to differentiate rural from urban school curricula have been made in the past, as for instance in the zamindari rural schools of the Punjab of twenty years ago, which failed through unpopularity. Failure may have been due partly to the villager's traditional association of schooling with a mysterious booklearning that has little to do with real life, and his consequent suspicion of the genuineness of any education that attempts to make a child's daily life more interesting.

If so, the more the need of reformed curricula that will disillusion him. But chiefly they failed because the rural course led on less easily than the town course to a secondary education, and, being mainly an abridged edition of the former, was accounted an inferior or even counterfeit article. What is wanted, it would seem, is a simplification of rural school teaching, not by giving the village the same diet as the urban boy only less of it, but a different diet of equal standard and quality, only suited to the requirements of his daily life. The teaching must be simple in the sense of treating the plain incidents of life, instead of abstractions whose bearing on it appears remote, and simplification of this kind is in India, as is being realised also in America, a condition of interesting the rural dweller in his rural school.

If we then go on to ask how is this adaptation to be successfully effected the answer in India is again that already being given to it in America, namely, not merely, nor primarily, by publishing different programmes of studies for town and rural primary schools, but by providing a preparation for prospective rural school teachers different from, but in no way inferior to that for teachers of city primary schools and departments.

Where normal schools in India prepare ostensibly for primary teaching, the questions may then be asked (1) whether they are designed to prepare for rural or for town teacherships, or both, and (2) whether, when preparing for rural teacherships, their courses and their treatment of them prepare a teacher to make life in the village both the main material and the objective of his teaching. That the rural teacher is concerned with the whole life of the neighbourhood and that his preparation consequently must have specific reference to that has been recognised by American educationists for several years. To quote from a bulletin of the Federal Bureau of Education issued in 1912. "Rural interests and rural problems are not like the city's interests and its problems; and educators everywhere, especially in the South, are coming more and more to believe that the course of study adapted to securing the most efficient life is radically different from any other course of study. The elementary school must, if it fulfils its high purpose, minister to the needs of the community in which it resides. To do this a course of study co-ordinated with rural life is needed, together with a corps of teachers trained to put in operation the work that the country districts need." "It is not necessary to argue

whether this training should be different from that of any other school. That fact is generally admitted, because the problems to be solved and the interests to be encouraged, developed, and ministered unto are different from those in any other phase of elementary education. The country school will not reach the position of efficiency that belongs to it until a distinctive training is required of its teachers."

The writer goes on to specify:—

"The country district is first of all and above all a place where practical education is needed, and one of the chief aims of the rural school should be the development of thrift. Thrift has always been and always will be a fundamental factor in progress, whether of the individual or of the community at large. Better homes and better household economy in every respect; better live stock and better barns; better crops and better use of them; the maintenance of the productivity of the soil and the reclamation of worn-out fields; better roads and better vehicles of travel; more good books, papers, magazines, art, and music for the boys and girls; better social conditions—these are the urgent needs of country-life to-day, and they are most worthy because they all contribute so much to a happy and a useful life. Shall not the rural schools minister to these needs? And shall not the rural school teacher's training be such as to prepare him for teaching in a school whose major work is concerned with the solution of these problems?"

In keeping with this spirit attention is given during training to problems of village life, and the means advocated for gaining familiarity with rural conditions include the undertaking of rural life surveys by the lecturers, the encouragement of boys' and girls' club work and 'school-home' gardens, the holding of community-centre meetings in demonstration schools, assistance in organizing and conducting school thrift campaigns, visiting the homes by the teacher, and so on. The school as a community centre forms the topic of a later chapter of this report.

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

1. Review of class subjects of instruction up to the eighth standard with special consideration of methods of presentment suitable in rural elementary schools.

2. Rural sanitation and hygiene (personal, school, and village).
3. Agricultural nature study.
4. Drawing.
5. Manual occupation in village life.
6. Rural school management.
7. Rural school administration, and the teacher's relations to other educational officers.
8. Problems of village life, and the relation of the teacher to the community.
9. School practice and observation, with some simple principles of education.
10. Village games and physical exercises.

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

## CHAPTER II.

### Practice work in training for Rural Teacherships.

An adequate programme of practice for rural school teacherships comprises exercises of three distinguishable types:—

1. Exercises to familiarise the student with possibilities of teaching under improved conditions in schools.
2. Exercises to familiarize her with methods of teaching and management in actual conditions in rural schools.
3. Exercises to acquaint her with conditions outside the schools, which affect school work.

The first purpose is best served by the use of a "demonstration" rural school attached to, or at any rate, under the control of, training school authorities; the second by observation and practice in ordinary rural schools as much like those in which the prospective teacher will work as possible. For the third purpose the student should engage in firsthand and secondhand studies of school and community situations.

By no means all training courses are as yet equipped for these three types of practice: in the early days of county training schools and high school training classes very little attention was paid to observation and practice teaching. And normal schools are not generally well situated to arrange for practice in ordinary rural schools. Some of them have naturally relied more upon demonstration schools attached to the normal school, and a few continue both forms of practice. Nor of course, are all "demonstration" or "model" schools suitably planned. An ambitious model school tries to illustrate the best obtainable things not only in building but also in grounds, equipment, teacher, course of study, daily program, methods of instruction, management of children, and social activities, that is, to be "a rich source of suggestion and inspiration to teachers and school officials and especially to students whom the normal school is preparing for work in the rural and village schools."

A "model" school, with its unfortunate title, is always liable to unintelligent imitation, but the risk of this depends upon the attitude to it adopted in the normal school. There is obviously much advantage in having at hand a school setting

a high standard of efficiency in which students can observe, and, so far as is possible without harm to the school, can emulate excellent teaching and pupil management, and can see ideals of sanitation, equipment and organisation, more nearly approached than usual. It is claimed for such demonstration schools that they can exert an influence beyond the school limits, since they are open to visits from local officials, private persons, and teachers not immediately connected with the institutions concerned in promoting such education. In America where county superintendents of rural education have themselves had but little education, and where the construction and charge of rural schools is often entrusted to small boards of farmers who are amateurs in education, a specially good school which they can come and see and hear about sets a standard of which they would otherwise not be aware.

Very similar has been the influence of Government high schools set up in the several districts in some provinces in India, at least in provoking amongst denominational committees emulation of their standard of school building; though excellence of teaching, so far as special schools present this also, is less easily communicable because less palpable to the naked eye.

The demonstration school on the spot as compared with the ordinary rural school can also exert a more present influence on the student teachers, because they are in daily contact with it and its teachers; while lecturers on the training staff can use it for demonstration or discussion more readily and incidentally than schools at a distance. And where as ordinarily it is under the same control as the normal school, illustrations and lectures can go hand in hand.

At the same time such training cannot dispense with the use also of rural schools in their own environment, that is, with exercises of the second type mentioned at the beginning of this chapter; for the student's problem is how to transfer to the school as it is educational principles only full realisable in the school as it should be; and she should be working out this problem under guidance and direction if she is to save herself a multitude of errors, or from rapid disillusionment, afterwards. No less imperative for the training staff is constant contact with actual rural schools.

To secure this ground for practice rural schools are sometimes especially affiliated, that is to say, an agreement is made with the managing boards for the service of these schools. In this case it is an advantage though the other circumstances of the

schools remain typical, to attach to them the better rather than inferior teachers, for what the student wants to find out is not how a bad teacher does badly, but how in ordinary rural circumstances she may hope to do well. Besides this, in such schools at a distance supervision of the practice falls mainly upon the teacher on the spot. An ordinary rural school with a good teacher can thus be to some extent a demonstration school as well, the extent varying with that to which the students need it for practice and to which other facilities for demonstration already exist. Here is an instance of the way this practice is arranged :

“ Each student spends two weeks in observing and teaching in the standard one-room school in the campus.\* In addition to this we are now sending students to ten rural schools in the vicinity of the normal school, where they serve as student assistants to the teacher in charge. Except in the cases of two schools the students live in rural communities in which they are assigned to teach. Certain houses have been selected as desirable boarding places. Each assistant remains for a period of four or five weeks and is given every opportunity to participate in all phases of the rural teacher's work. Each school is visited at least once a month by the director of the extension division. Students are required to submit weekly reports and are called for a final conference at the close of their service.”

“ This assistance ” adds this report, “ is proving a great advantage to the schools co-operating, and the demand is so great that we are obliged to limit the service to the schools offering the best conditions for training and supervision.”

It will be seen from this that one of the difficulties in this kind of practice is to secure sufficient practice and to keep the training authorities in touch with what is going on, without waste of time and energy, when the schools are situated at a distance. Where the number of students in a class training specifically for rural teacherships is often small, as in America, simultaneous practice of all the students may be possible without sending them too far afield or over-diluting the practice; but with large classes practice would have to be undertaken in relays, in which case the students under practice would be missing the class work given to the rest during their practice period, and class work could not be arranged to co-ordinate equally well for all with the requirements for practice.

---

\*The training school compound.



To make practice teaching in rural demonstration schools of most service the opinion of an expert in rural education favours making the conditions as realistic as possible. The student staying for two weeks in the country should board with the teacher, share all the work and experience of the regular teacher including teaching, looking after the school premises, local social activities, playground supervision, and so on. The student should have complete charge of the whole school when teaching, and should not keep to a single class only. As the aim is to provide typical rural experience, the demonstration teacher and students should keep the school together as if but one teacher were at work, following the regular program and dividing the time table, but never teaching at the same time. When the student is in charge, the demonstration teacher's duty would be to record her procedure and enter comments on it for discussion with her afterwards.

Most states in America have manuals of elementary school courses, and the student should plan her work in advance, in consultation with the "demonstration" teacher, on the basis of this manual and using the text books of the school (of which the training institution should keep a duplicate set of copies).

As the training school authorities have to trust very largely to the school teacher's reports, and the student's own written account of her fortnight, in judging the student's progress, the importance of specially selecting the teacher becomes obvious.

Apart from the specific rural school practice, the exercises in a "model" or "demonstration" school attached to the training institution can be arranged with rural conditions in view. It is possible to graduate practice in this school from the instruction of a small group or one or two pupils to that of handling groups of pupils taken from several grades simultaneously (often a task of the teacher in the one-teacher rural school), and to exercise students in the elaboration of time-tables for the occasion. The deliberate splitting of a big school vertically for this purpose is likely, however, if repeated, to disturb the instruction rather seriously, and I know of no instance in which this is regularly done. As an occasional exercise in time-table construction, revealing difficulties and suggesting fresh adaptations, this expedient has its uses, but for familiarizing the student with control of several classes the whole time practice in existing rural schools is the appropriate occasion.

Besides practice in rural schools accessible to the training school, students are sometimes during vacation attached to a school in their home neighbourhood, or make a special study of the local educational conditions. This brings us to the third type of exercise above discriminated, *viz.*, exercises to acquaint the student with conditions outside the schools which affect school work.

The subject of the school in relation to the community is separately treated at greater length in Chapter III where instances are given of efforts made to bring the teacher and the teaching in most schools to bear upon the immediate life of the neighbourhood, and to improve its conditions directly and indirectly. In writings and reports on rural education emphasis is placed upon attracting to the service young men and women who are, as it is called, rurally minded, that is to say, whose ordinary interests lie in outdoor occupations, agriculture or nature study, and who prefer a country to a town life. In this the recent growth of rural departments of high schools, where these are in the country, and of county training schools, has been of help, those institutions having, by their situation, attracted more rural dwelling students than attend normal schools less favourably placed. No student practising for a fortnight in a rural school under the conditions suggested above can fail to add to her knowledge of rural community life. But special exercises are sometimes also included in the training. Thus students may be encouraged to take part in project and club work and in community meetings held in rural schools, *e.g.*, of parent teachers' associations or other social gatherings. At one rural school which I visited some dozen students of a normal school were busy assisting or watching preparation for a special dramatic entertainment, and the students of another training class (attached to a high school in a smaller country town) give practical assistance during the annual "school-week" held in the state, during which community gatherings are organised at rural school centres with a social and educational programme. In this case students go to different centres in pairs to help the local teacher entertain and interest the local people. Definite programmes are usually drawn up, which include addresses or talks to those present on educational matters of the moment, on the need of a better building for the school, on the parents' co-operation over pupils' home work, on sanitation in school and home, and so on, according to the circumstances of the case.

The students in one institution, to give a particular example, are "assigned to a rhetorical section which meets every Tuesday under the direction of a member of the faculty. One section is open to those who are interested in the problems of the rural community. Students prepare talks and make reports upon topics in some field of rural life.

The general topic for the full quarter of 1919 was, "The Rural Community." First a study was made of the relationship between the open country and the resulting rural village or country town in order to get a proper concept of a rural community. This was followed by a study by the student of her own home community, the results of which she reported to the section, using charts where necessary to make her meaning clear."

The outline of the study included a number of definite questions under several headings; of which some were as follows:—

1. Character of population.
2. Is the population increasing or decreasing to-day?
3. Roads (quality, state, and seasonal use).
4. Is the community served by rural mail (postal routes)?
5. How wide is the range of travel?
6. Churches.
7. Various social organizations (Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A., Boy scouts, farm bureaus, community clubs, etc.).
8. Does the community support a lecture and entertainment course? (Library, reading matter, etc., public and private.)
9. Recreation and amusements for young and old.
10. Character and evidence of the existence of community spirit.
11. Attitude of various sections of the community towards the school.
12. Preparation of young men and women who leave the community when they take up their life work.

During the winter quarter the topic for discussion was "How to organize and conduct clubs." The work included a study of literary societies, poultry clubs, corn clubs, boy scouts, camp fire girls, country life clubs, and community clubs. A part of each meeting was devoted to a study of Roberts's Rules of Order and to parliamentary practice.

The students' assistance in community gatherings, the pooling of their experiences for the benefit of the training class as a whole, and the subsequent discussion of these and alternative methods of getting the people to take a real interest in their schools may, if carefully conducted, add a useful contribution to their preparation for their future work.

Comparison of students' experience is, as far as my personal attendance at lectures went, a rather prominent expedient in American training methods. Independent surveys carried out by each individual student of rural conditions in localities—often their home areas—familiar to her, may be embodied in reports which can afterwards be discussed in class. The discussion may then proceed by subdividing the subject into topics on which each of several students has gathered some first hand local material, and comparing the different reports. The explanation of contrasting reports will frequently be found in differences in other local circumstances, and interesting questions will sometimes arise round these. Or students may stand out to address the class, giving a coherent account of their investigation as a whole.

This alternative method of presenting the results of individual investigations to the class is in accordance with a prevalent emphasis in American education (so far as my observation went) laid upon training pupils to speak clearly and continuously.

In one of the best known state Teachers' Colleges the students taking courses in rural education constitute a club, which meets on alternate Monday evenings for social development and study of matters pertaining to the improvement of rural life. At these meetings part of the programme is devoted to community singing; good songs are learnt and sung by the whole group 'for pure enjoyment,' but with the further purpose of encouraging more group singing in rural communities. "The best games," to quote a report, "are learned and played for pure enjoyment. This activity looks towards encouraging more group recreation in rural communities. Studies are made into rural life conditions..., such as increase or decrease in rural population, ownership and tenantry on farms, average yield of corn in different countries, better roads, improved farm practice, consolidated schools, etc. The activities of the club give to members an opportunity to develop executive capacity and the power of leadership."

Practical exercises of the kind instanced above do more than merely supplement the teaching in the lecture room: they serve to add to it the vital touch of reality, or possibly in some cases to reveal its absence.

It is the tendency of teachers' training institutions to lose touch with hard facts, unless that tendency is deliberately counteracted, and thus to deal out smooth general principles in disregard of the complex particular situations. Yet to counteract its own particular tendency is indeed one of the prime functions of training, for to train a teacher is to make her skilful in effecting a judicious working compromise between the ideal and the actual, or, to put it in another way, in making the best of a given situation. The situation however must be "given," and comparisons of actual experiences provide a number of given situations which fall roughly into types, in the manner of dealing with which a student can be guided and cautioned beforehand. And it is all to the good if she has discovered these situations for herself first—for then her training has the interest of attacking known actual problems of daily life.

I must not however give the impression that the various "practice" exercises I have described are generally adopted in all institutions. Many are not. It is probably true that a good many courses of training are weak on the all-important practice side. County training schools, for example, that take students young and end their course before the end of the high school stage, are often more concerned with continuing or deepening their general education, while giving it a rural bias than with an elaborate course of special teacher preparation. This is certainly the case with some of the county training schools in the south. And a complete course of practice giving its due to each of the three types of exercise distinguished above takes more time than some institutions may be prepared to give to it, or makes too exacting demands upon the staff.

Training by firsthand experiences, or by comparison of students' reports, is inherently a slow method, and the problem is always arising of maintaining a balance between the contributions of the lecturer and of the student in the student's preparation. An excess of class-room instruction by the lecturer may teach much quickly, but without sufficient impression or the conviction of fact; too little may leave the student with material unassorted and unsystematised, and a good deal of it

waste. The temptation in all short courses is to overdo the lecturer's contribution in the endeavour to cover the ground. Here we may note the opinion of American educationalists that a two years' course of training on the top of a complete high school course is the minimum preparation that a rural teacher should receive. But the important point is not that the student's absorption of principles should all be firsthand, but that she should realise the *vitality* of her training, should learn to check class-room principles against experience, and be set on the way to work out her own best principles of action from experiences as they come, for this is what she must always be doing in sole charge of a rural school. In other words, it is resourcefulness that is required. To teach her these habits means constant assistance from her instructors, varying with the existing capacity and experience of the individual student. In this the American training class, in normal schools at least, has often a valuable advantage. Where the teaching personnel in schools is so largely untrained, there is always a number of teachers anxious to take training after having taught for some time. The visitor to school and college training classes is struck by the varying ages of the students. A very wide range of age may easily be a drawback, when teachers have grown into habits of thought and practice they cannot set aside, but the presence in a class of working teachers fresh from a year or two's experience is of considerable assistance to students and often, it may be added, to the lecturer. They can supply illustrations from the life, and can add useful local information, and when a lecturer has little time for personal contact with rural schools, they can even help to keep him abreast of changes unrecorded in current educational literature.

Yet if these methods of training for rural teacherships are to be effectual, it is clear that staff, no less than students, must be "rurally minded." Living amongst country people one of the teachers of education courses in a southern state normal school considers his best qualifying experience, and to quote from a Government report on the efficiency of rural teachers, "correspondence with normal school presidents and other leaders in the schools has developed the fact that those men have begun to see clearly the need of a specialized preparation for rural teaching"; and it is clear that you cannot have specialized preparation for rural teaching without a special knowledge of rural life in those charged with preparing the

teachers. Where normal schools in America have organised distinct departments for rural teachers the plan usually followed is to place a carefully prepared rural school expert at the head of the department, who can thus organize the teaching more especially with a view to a study of the problems of rural life. A glance down the list of qualifications of heads of those departments shows that most have some such qualifications—"farm life", "county supervision", "rural teaching under good supervision", "rural demonstration agent," "study of rural schools throughout the state," and so on in addition to degrees and university courses in education.

Such methods of practice work as have been here described are not applicable in their entirety to Indian conditions. At present the training of rural teachers in India is mainly the charge of so-called normal schools, corresponding most closely to most county training schools of America in the educational stage at which they admit students, but for elementary teacherships content so far with a single year of professional training, which cannot be extended to two without doubling available accommodation and large increases of staff.

These institutions at present often have "model" schools attached to them in which the main practice of the students is carried on. The locality is usually urban, and the practice school represents in its pupils, numbers and classification, and appointments, town rather than rural school conditions. There can be no question but that, for purposes of training, a rural training school should be in a rural locality, within easy reach of as many rural schools as possible.

Obstacles in practice to the adoption of this policy are the unattractiveness of country life to the staff, the inaccessibility in rural localities of good secondary schools for their children to attend, and the necessity of adding for lecturers accommodation not available except in towns. To some extent the unattractiveness of country life is a confession of weakness in the staff; for what the American calls "rural mindedness" is clearly an invaluable qualification for a training of rural teachers. Yet the proportion amongst educated people interested in country life and also professionally prepared for the technique of teacher training, small in America, in India is still smaller. But if it be admitted that the future prosperity of India largely depends upon the welfare of her rural population, and especially upon their remaining content, under education, with a rural life, then special preparation of

teachers who can take charge of rural training classes is of first importance. The present situation is involved in a vicious circle. Children in rural areas attend schools more because they are not interested in rural things, than because they are, they are taught by teachers not prepared for distinctively rural teaching, and those who prepare them have themselves from their earliest school days been similarly weaned from any rural inclinations they may have started with. I shall revert to the topic in the chapter on the training of supervisors. The point to establish here is that the work of training rural school teachers ought to lie with those who know and like rural things. At present it is often true that teachers in Indian normal schools and headmasters of practice or model schools have not only made no special study of rural problems, but have received all their education, and done most of their life's work in towns—strangers by habit and interest to country conditions.

Granted a qualified staff and rural position for the training school, difficulties in arranging "rural" practice in India arise from—

- (1) The number of students in a normal school.
- (2) The scarcity of rural teachers competent to supervise such practice.
- (3) The short duration of the course.

The great advantage of the model school attached to the normal school in a town area is that its attendance is sufficient for the regular practice of each individual student in the lesson-giving considered essential in the training of teachers. This means that the presence in the country of a large primary school is one important consideration in determining the site of a normal school. For, as has been pointed out above, there is need for practice both in a special demonstration school near at hand, and in ordinary rural schools at a distance.

Contact with rural schools is essential (both to student and to staff) in the course of training for rural teaching. But with large numbers and few accessible schools the assignment of single students for a fortnight's whole time practice, as instanced in America, may be impracticable. Another reason for this is that the number of ordinary rural teachers, themselves the product of normal school training, capable of supervising this practice, or presenting an example of the way to conduct a rural school efficiently, is insignificant. As things now are continuous individual rural school practice under conditions



that make it worth while can seldom if ever be arranged. But again, it must be added that until rural teachers are produced capable of undertaking this duty, the present disability in training them will remain. The need for competent rural teachers is thus the greater.

The reason why rural teachers are incompetent lies however not merely in defects in their training, but in the system which grades the standards required of a teacher according to the stage of the pupils to be taught. This scale of standard qualifications and salaries is peculiarly steep in India. At the one end of the scale is a headmaster of a high school on, say, Rs. 400 a month, at the other the village vernacular teacher on less perhaps than Rs. 20, with qualifications accordingly. Is there any other country in the world where the gradation is as steep as this?

Something may however be done to ruralise the practice even under present conditions, as by visits of observation to rural schools under supervision, preparing and discussing timetables for sample rural schools, collecting information about rural school and village conditions during the Christmas holiday in the student's own neighbourhood, and comparing facts and records after return. Besides this there seems no reason why in selected rural schools within easy walking distance a proportion of the students, preferably the better ones, should not actually undertake a ten days' or a fortnight's practice, provided a member of the staff can be spared to supervise this. With three schools accessible and students practising in relays, thirty-six students could each have a fortnight's practice in twenty-four weeks in the year. To make this of value one teacher from the normal school staff would have to be detached for supervision, not necessarily the same teacher all the time. In effect an extra teacher would be necessary, but well supervised practice in actual rural schools is an invaluable factor in rural teacher training.

Visits of observation, if carried out, should of course be definitely prepared for, every student must know what he is to observe. And lecture courses in the class room should bear directly on such exercises, preparing for them beforehand, and considering the results afterwards.

But whatever particular expedients be devised, the lesson of American experience in teacher training for rural schools certainly is that, if the training is to be effective, that is to say,

to help the prospective teacher make his work of use and interest amongst country dwellers, it must keep in close touch with rural circumstances all along.

### CHAPTER III.

#### The School and the Community.

That the preparation of rural teachers must be a special process distinct from that of teachers for urban schools will be made still clearer by considering the views of American educationists regarding the relation between the rural school and the community it serves, and the efforts being made to bring the life of the community into the school and through the school to improve life in the community.

That the school, and therefore the school teacher, exists for the service of the public, and not merely of the pupils that attend it, and should therefore be used to serve the people in its area, is a point of view which accounts for much in present rural education. To begin with, it explains to some extent the reluctance of local inhabitants to part in any measure with the control which they exercise over their local school, in spite of the drawbacks of personal bias and ignorance of education, which too often mark that control.

Amid a scattered population over much of America opened up for agriculture some time in the last century, "the barrenness of the naturally individualistic and isolated life of the pioneer period" for long prevailed, and has influenced the traditions of home life in the country down to to-day. The need has accordingly been realised for special measures to promote social life in the country. Poverty and monotony of rural life, and the development alongside of it of big towns, with their variety of occupations social entertainments and chances of making money, account for an increase of urban at the expense of rural population. "During the last thirty years a movement of population in the country seems to indicate that life offers more satisfaction in cities than in small communities." Still some 54,000,000 people, or about half of the population of America, "live in small rural communities whose main vocational concern is agriculture or closely associated with agriculture and whose manner of living is modified by this main concern." And those people, as evidenced by a commission appointed by Mr. Roosevelt to investigate the causes of preference for urban life, compare unfavourably with the town dwellers as regards "economic conditions, communications, social attractions, health conditions and the provision of education."

This being so, a big responsibility lies upon the rural school. For not only should it be improved, and the standard of rural education raised to that of the town school, but the type of education it imparts must be appropriate to the needs of the community.

But in what way is it to be appropriate? The answer being given in America is as follows. That life in the country, if unequal in happiness and opportunities to life in the town, ought not to be so. The rural dweller is as valuable to the public as the dweller in the town or more so, for these are the people "who are producing the cereals, vegetables, and fruits and meat for our tables. They are producing the cotton and wool, and flax, and hides, for our clothing.....The people who are really essential are the rural people."

Country life ought not to be inferior to town life, if we judge by the value of the work done in homestead and in town, and the need of keeping the homestead happy and interested and alive. But not only ought it not to be inferior; it need not be. There is nothing inherent in rural life, it is contended, to make it less attractive. Wherever else the practical proof of this contention lies, it rests partly in the school. The rural school must offer a type of teaching which is appropriate, not merely in the sense of teaching country things in school, though this is important enough, but also of making country life more interesting and more attractive by its influence on pupil and parent and the community as a whole.

Consciously or unconsciously this two-fold principle underlies much of the use being made of the rural school amidst the scattered populations of America, and explains the position being claimed for it in rural areas. A simple illustration of this is the use made of the rural school as a centre of community meetings. Farmers' clubs, "parent-teacher" associations, social gatherings, assemble at the school, and the teacher is actually taught during training and the supervisor in special courses at universities for supervisors, how to attract the people of the community to the school.

However pronounced the rural bias in the formal preparation of the teacher before she enters on her profession, this must be supplemented when she takes to teaching by encouragement within the community itself if social life and co-operation between school and people is to be effectual. The purpose of the school to improve the life of the community

may also be served directly as well as through the school. But efforts are most likely to meet with success when school and outside forces work together. To bring the two into unison, to make the school contribute its best to the life of the rural community, and the life of the community to the pursuits of the school, is the aim underlying the work of the official school supervisors of Cook County, Illinois, for rural areas adjoining Chicago. Some description of their work will also illustrate another of the special forms of rural school supervision elsewhere mentioned, in this case bringing out more particularly the connection between school and rural population.

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

“ They are charged with three definite lines of work, namely, supervision and direction of all academic school work, the initiation and supervision of all school-home project work, the initiation and direction of all community and recreation work in their divisions. They have no clerical duties.”

The Country Life Director is a kind of general adviser and help in the community as well as in the school, and for that reason is of course admirably situated for establishing relations between the two. A direct link established by all the Directors is that provided by the school-home projects. A project in this case is a definite undertaking on the part of a school pupil of a continuous and systematic piece of productive work useful in the home and treated as part of his school activities. The boy or girl may take up for instance a piece of gardening, the rearing of a calf, or a sheep, a pig, the canning of fruit, or some achievement in cooking, or in sewing, or as member of a local musical band. “ The natural home and farm, shop and store activities of Cook County boys and girls have furnished the material and the conditions from which the school-home projects have been created.” “ We have chosen projects which relate directly

to the farm and home," says one of the Directors, "because projects of that nature offer a most interesting and practical work which naturally appeals to every child, while they serve to connect the school and the home more closely, and to stimulate a greater interest on the part of the pupil in his school and home work."

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

The first step is to get the pupils really interested. "This naturally begins in the school room. We talk to the pupils about the work outlined in the achievement course, and explain how every project offers real study and real work; a grown-up's job, as it were, cut down to suit the size of every boy and girl. Emphasis is put on the fact that project work enables one to learn a great deal about useful things, and it also enables him to earn something while he is learning about these things. The garden chart with the names of the pupils who have successfully grown a garden, showing the kind of crop planted, the receipts, expenditures, and net profits each child received from his garden plot, has been used to illustrate this point with excellent results."

"Without exception," it is added, "we have the hearty co-operation of the parents, when they fully understand what project work really is, and the advantage it gives in laying a firm and broad foundation for useful education." The Country Life Director includes the regular supervision of projects started at the home as part of his routine, and this largely occupies his time during the long summer vacation enjoyed by rural schools in America. With the help of "wandering supervisors," teachers chosen for their efficiency in this work, "each pupil's project is visited once a week or thereabout."

The pupils keep a careful record, in books designed for the purpose, of their work, and their achievements are tested and reckoned as part of their progress at school. But beyond this formal embodiment of the work in the curriculum, these out-of-school activities are intended to influence the school occupations in various ways. "Ideal material for class room work is that which is most interesting to the pupils and which

at the same time offers most to the development of their powers. To quote an illustrative case:—

“ The Canning Project, for instance, offers unlimited material. A complete record of a tomato, a string bean plant or any other vegetable used in canning may be kept from seed time to harvest. Such a record supplies a valuable foundation for oral and written English. This personal observation will lead the pupil naturally to an interest in the book study of the history of the tomato, the apple or the pear, and thus a study of the text comes as an outgrowth of the pupil's own interest, rather than as a subject forced upon him by the teacher. When a class has canned a number of jars of vegetables or fruit it is a splendid exercise to take the canned products and score and compare them as to color, texture, etc. This scoring and comparing of the canned products give interesting material for oral expression and discussion. The canning can be correlated with physiology and food values as well as with mathematics.

Tomatoes contain 94.3 water. How much water in a 2 pound can ?

Tomatoes contain 9 per cent. protein. Find weight of protein in the same can.

Give weight of carbo-hydrate if proportion of carbo-hydrates is 3.9 per cent.

Tomatoes are .4 per cent. fat. How much fat in a 2 pound can ?

Using the first five problems as models, similar sets may be made for string beans, peas and other products.

In the Sewing Project the members of the class may learn the cotton fabrics used, muslin, lawn, dimity, cambric, linen, etc. Tests for linen and wool are interesting and valuable. Again observation leads naturally to interest in the geography lesson and introduces the young people to the industrial life of the world. They are glad to learn where cotton is grown, the location of the cotton mills, what the processes of cotton raising are in the United States, the processes of cotton ginning and baling, of the manufacturing of cotton yarn, thread and cotton cloth.

An opportunity for correlation with history is offered. The young people will be really interested in the history of the sewing machine, of calico, and sewing needle, etc. For example, by consulting books easily obtainable the young people

will discover that the earliest needles were made of fish bone and ivory, that needles of bronze have been found in the tombs of the Egyptians, that the sewing needle of to-day is made of steel wire, and that it is manufactured almost exclusively in England."

And all the while incidentally as well as deliberately the Country Life Director is kept close in touch with the people in their homes. His first charge is to get into touch with every man, woman and child in his division.

"The achievement course makes it obligatory that all pupils in grades about the fourth acquire an achievement credit. The Country Life Director directs and supervises the 'out-of-school' achievement work of each pupil. This puts him in personal touch with every boy and girl in his division old enough to do achievement work. Supervising school-home projects brings him to the homes where he meets the fathers, mothers and older members of the family, and furnishes an ideal means of bringing the teacher and the school to the home and there on the common ground of the pupil's school-home project cement the two together with a concrete tie."

"Educational supervision, of which the Country Life Director is the corner stone, is the very best weapon that can be utilized in attacking the rural school and the rural life problem. It furnishes a permanent 'all the year round' publicly paid educational supervisor, who is charged with gaining the confidence and respect of his people by keeping in the closest possible touch with them through supervision of school-home projects and the initiation of recreation and community work. The gaining of the confidence and respect of the community is of the utmost importance. In fact, very little of value can be accomplished without it."

"One reason for lack of progress in rural districts is that there is 'no body to start things.' Good leaders are rare in rural communities. This lack of leaders accounts for much of the stagnation of country life." "The Country Life Director is thus a kind of rural life leader, employed and paid to start things and to inspire others to become leaders."

And amongst these others the teachers naturally stand first. One of the Directors' most important duties is to stimulate the teachers to be leaders of their community, and to set them an example, and by that example show them how to create or kindle community life. In the ideal the Country



Life Director carries on, in the preparation of the teacher, the work which the formal training course begins, prepares the social ground as it were for the rural teacher, and demonstrates to the teacher how to make it most productive.

Not all Directors pursue these objects in the same way. I had no opportunity of inquiring individually from several of them their methods and routine of work. And though the characteristics of their work which I have described are general, there is room for individual special aptitudes and interests. One will be specially interested in the possibilities of the school as the recreation centre of the community. In his view "the public school should be the common meeting house of the people of the neighbourhood," on a footing of common interest, distinct in this from political or religious sectarian gatherings. A point is made by this Director of holding evening meetings in the winter months.

"In most cases the program of the evening consisted of two parts. First, entertainment given by the pupils of the schools. This consisted of music, recitations, dialogues, talks by pupils upon school home projects, exercises in spelling, arithmetic, reading, debates, etc. This section of the evening program had, of course, been arranged by the teacher. A second part of the program consisted in varied exercises. Sometimes the Country Life Director showed the county school home project pictures. Very often there was a period set apart for a general discussion of topics of interest for that particular neighbourhood. Here the adults present took part. Sometimes a 'Question Box' was passed and the questions later taken from the box and read aloud and answered by the party designated or the volunteers in the audience. In this manner, questions of local interest in matters of farming, dairying, gardening, business, health, law, schools, government, etc., were brought out for the information of all present. Often these questions led to better equipment for the school, better lighting, heating, ventilation, libraries and supplies for the teachers and school.

"Sometimes a luncheon for all followed the program and made a very popular and agreeable closing number. Sometimes a citizen from an adjoining district came in by invitation to contribute some special feature for the program. Sometimes an old soldier told the story of old civil war days. Here the boys and girls drank in history first hand. Sometimes a local physician came in and gave a short talk upon

health, disease, etc. Sometimes an attorney gave points in the law useful to all. Sometimes a business man told the story of the particular business that his firm conducted. A dairyman told how to select and take care of a cow. A farmer told how to build up the fertility of the soil; how to raise livestock, poultry, etc. How to treat animal disease. Everybody enjoyed the two hour program and wondered how the time had gone so quickly. The program for the next meeting was then announced and all went home happy."

The same Director also speaks of evening lectures, *e.g.*, on gardening, soils, fertilizers, poultry, seed corn testing, milk testing, and other farm topics; of a club association of all pupils doing club project work, with regular rules of procedure, and self-management under a teacher's general supervision, of community festivals at which "busy farmers lay aside their work for a day and come with their families to enjoy the occasion with friends and neighbours"; and of market day sales when "boys and girls bring the product of their own labours, their vegetables, their poultry, etc., and meet the city dweller at the city limits and there sell direct to the consumer."

Another of the Directors is especially interested in music, another, the schools in whose division are in dilapidated buildings, is engaged in a campaign for building improvements, and another again is specializing on other experiments for vitalising, to use the American term, the curriculum in addition to those connected with the home-projects. To be efficient in this kind of school and home assistance the educational officer should have miscellaneous knowledge, the rural mind and interest, and the power of making friends with country folk. Granted these special qualifications, and a limited area and a long enough tenure of office, this kind of rural school supervision appears to have decisive advantages over the type of inspection that devotes itself chiefly to the schools, is intended to estimate their level rather than to encourage and help, and is accompanied by much administrative and clerical work. It stimulates and encourages the teacher, wins the support of the parents and enhances the practical value of the school in their eyes, interests the pupils and unifies for them their school and their home life and, above all, impresses on the school education (and on the minds of the community), its only true—that is, most useful—meaning, namely, the enrichment of life for all whom it touches: the interests of daily life are multiplied, and a fuller life promised.

Recurring to the theme with which I started this chapter, the work of the Country Life Director may be regarded as an effort to enlist the support of school and home in vindicating the claim that rural life not only should not but need not be inferior in interest and attractiveness to life in the town. Mention has been made also of various forms of associations for which the rural school building sometimes provides a meeting place. In many rural areas in America, dwellers in isolated homesteads may come across one another most frequently in church or chapel, or at the local store where they exchange their commodities for cash or articles of immediate need. Such gatherings are occasional and incidental, and there is need of common accommodation for meetings of a more definite and organised kind. To encourage association and co-operation amongst rural dwellers is a frequent object of leading educational workers, whether through the training of teachers to be community leaders in this respect, or through direct contact of the community with agencies like agricultural colleges, or university extension services. The rural life associations which have thus been called into life from within or from without may be roughly grouped as associations with an economic or industrial interest, usually for the betterment of farming methods, those with a general recreational or intellectual motive, as for mutual entertainment, lecture, reading, study, or exchange of ideas, and those whose primary purpose is the educational progress of the community. There is however no hard and fast division between associations differently named; a club may develop new activities as time goes on while maintaining its specific original purpose and dominant character.

A typical association commonly heard of in various states is the local Parent-teachers' association, about which I shall give a few details as it illustrates a means of placing the school in touch with parents and of spreading its influence over the community generally. In certain areas, one hears sometimes of parent-teachers' associations common to more than one school, or of general meetings of a number of associations each attached to its own school; but in the country a single school is the natural point of attachment, the ultimate purpose of the association being the welfare and successful training of the children of the school through the joint efforts of parents and teacher. "But the more immediate purpose," as described by one authority, "is the creating of a means or vehicle by which the community can come into constructive relationship

with the school in practical ways, and by hearty and sincere co-operation with teachers and school boards provide means and stimulus for the greater effectiveness of the school plant. Moreover, the parent-teachers' association is in a sense a clearing-house of information between parents and teachers. It enlightens the parents as to the needs of the school, the difficulties the teacher has to confront, and the kind of surroundings in which the child spends his school life. On the other hand, it enables the teacher to come into a more helpful and sympathetic attitude toward her individual pupils through contact with their parents. Nothing so easily clears up misunderstanding and suspicion as frank informal conferences between persons out of harmony with one another, and this unfortunate condition often obtains between teachers and parents."

A local association is usually started by sounding the more progressive people, and, if they are favourable, arranging an evening meeting of the men and women by invitations conveyed through the children. Sometimes an outside speaker is secured to explain the objects and procedure, and lend its inauguration his prestige, and usually some simple entertainment precedes the business of the evening. Typical forms of constitution and by-laws are available for guidance, and the association may divide into committees on, say, consultation with the teacher on school needs, on programs for the regular meetings of the association, or social activities of the community (amusements and recreation), and on safeguarding the general welfare and health of the school children.

Reports of committees are discussed at general meetings.

While maintaining its original purpose, the association may become the means of a general awakening of interest in community betterment. It can become a nucleus of musical and dramatic clubs, activities regarded as most helpful in democratizing the community, that is, in co-operation for high aims. And small groups within the association can come together for the "serious study of problems affecting children and youth; and may pursue organised consecutive courses in child study and kindred subjects for the sake of self-improvement, and to become more efficient parents and better citizens."

In the State of Wisconsin, special assistance is offered to these associations by the state university, which suggests

typical programmes for meetings, outlines for studies or endeavours in special directions (*e.g.*, community recreation, child welfare, Americanization, sex-hygiene, home economics, etc.), and places information by pamphlet or book at the service of the management. In this state particular constructive activities carried on by parent-teachers' associations include taking over and carrying on the work of school gardens; supplying the school with gramophone or piano-player, lanterns and moving pictures, equipping play grounds; providing facilities for domestic science and manual training; helping in providing school lunches, medical inspection, and school nurses, and dental clinics. But in more indirect and subtle ways they have worked constructively in the interest of children and youth, and for better feeling and understanding between the school, the parents, and the children.

Under good conditions associations of this kind serve also to counteract the effects of differences in politics, religion, nationality, and social status, that separate people in the same community; but they may be made the instruments of individual social ambitions, or take the form of an exclusive social club. Cases also arise where the members concern themselves with the academic work of the school, with the appointment and dismissal of teachers, or where the association uses political methods to determine the personnel of the school board, thus defeating its main purpose. Mistaken interference in the internal economy of the school on the part of local associations connected with rural schools is a phenomenon not confined to America; but in America, where the schools and their teachers are largely under the authority of a small local board of laymen, the temptation to such misuse is evidently the greater.

The success of parent-teachers' associations may, as I have said, be promoted through extension services of a state university. Besides specific courses in training teachers, the rural supervisors, and particular local associations, the American university may be instanced as another instrument in quickening and informing rural life. This is especially the case with the university of the state of Wisconsin, which maintains a separate department for extension services, as well as a department of agriculture which carries on agricultural campaigns all over the state. The extension division of the university's work, which touches the rural communities, includes a bureau of community development, which assists in promoting and organising leisure activities of children and adults, sends down officers to assist the starting of local asso-

ciations, circulates pamphlets of games and forms of amusement and recreation suitable to local circumstances, and seeks for potential community leaders who will keep the rural association going and serve on the spot as an agent for the university. This is necessary in the absence of a large university staff for the purpose, but the university is prepared to conduct local two-day courses, in which during the first day the playing of games, the holding of a sing-song, and various forms of physical or intellectual exercise, for old and young, are demonstrated to a small group of teachers and others, and in the evening to all who care to come; the second day being given to impressing what has been taught in the first. An account was given me of a meeting of this kind in the backward "cut-over\*" region of Northern Wisconsin, thirty teachers from various distances collecting for the day's demonstration while the evening attendants, some walking from fifteen or twenty miles away, amounted to one hundred and seventy-five. Once set going under an energetic leader an association may result which will help to break down the tradition of isolation which dates from pioneer days not, in some states, very distant.

Another extension device of the university is the package library service, delivering free of charge to any genuine inquirer on behalf of a public, a package of information on any subject of general interest. A small staff is kept busy taking cuttings from papers, keeping files of information up to date, and posting and checking the passage of packages. The location of this service at the university facilitates the collection of information from university specialists. Teachers, pupils, farmers, and other rural dwellers have thus an opportunity of obtaining the latest information on every subject, in the absence of public libraries and the many services of knowledge accessible in towns.

A particularly promising extension service of this university is the bureau of visual instruction, which supplies magic lanterns, slides, and portable bioscopes with reels of films, to assist farm agents and others in bringing home to the people by ocular demonstration the benefits of improved methods of agriculture, the effects of pests, and disease, methods of sanitation and public health, the prevention of epidemics, the purification of milk, and much beside. There are sets of films in connection with industrial education (conserving the

---

\* Land in which the trees have been cut down preparatory to agriculture, but the stumps have not yet been removed.

national timber, match making, the story of a typewriter, the chocolate and cocoa industry, etc.), with travel and geography, with incidents of the Great War, historical subjects, games and recreations, nature study, and science teaching. Useful as visual methods are in American rural education by their inherent attractiveness to ordinary people, and their graphic demonstration, and in awakening the rural mind to the value of new ideas, inventions and discoveries, the use of this expedient for enlightening the rural dweller would seem still more opportune in India, where the ordinary villager can neither read nor write, and must thus rely largely on other means than reading for information of vital concern to his welfare. To his unsophisticated mind the film should offer an ocular demonstration of processes and results peculiarly convincing, and so long as it is not altered to exaggerate or faked to delude, the magic lantern and the "movie" ought to be of real service in persuading the ordinary villager of the means and worth of individual and social betterment.

The same university does a great deal of agricultural extension work. For this purpose, special stations for demonstration are established at headquarters and throughout the state, which farmers are encouraged to visit to learn the results of improved farming methods. Special reliance is placed however in the farm demonstration on the farmer's own land, a large number of field trials being carried out by county farm agents and extension specialists on individual farms.

It is through these county farm agents that the rural school and the school teacher learn to co-operate in the work. Wisconsin state is divided into some seventy counties, for fifty of which county agents existed in the year 1920. These agents are appointed jointly by the university and a small county board, and on this board sit three practical farmers, the county agent, and the county superintendent of schools. The educational and the agricultural officer thus work together, and apart from the general agricultural bias that this connection may introduce into rural school work, a special line taken up is that of organising boys' and girls' clubs for joint projects in agriculture and home economics, of the kind promoted by the country life directors of Cook county already described. A typical club has about five members, one being the leader for the year, works on a definite programme, with regular meetings, records of the progress of each member

and an annual exhibit of work, with an award of an "achievement button" to each member who has carried his work through well. The rural teacher may often be the first club leader, and the county agent assists with personal help and bulletins or handbooks of suggestions published by the university. As regards the measurable results of this club work—

"A half million dollars was added to the value of Wisconsin products during the past year by the young people of the state enrolled in these clubs. The net profits shown by the records of club members was \$270,000. The potato clubs did the biggest piece of business, a total of \$175,000 with an average individual return of a little over \$92 each. The pig and calf clubs are next in order. The 58 baby beef club members averaged \$83.23 each. Nearly 18,000 boys and girls were enrolled in the various club activities."

But the more important result of all this activity is the permanent interest boys and girls acquire in rural life, and the practical training in productive manual pursuits.

For the local county agent, courses are provided at the university, where he learns how to lay out his time to best effect, by itinerant visits, club meetings, demonstrations, addresses, and so on. Here too, he learns how to make use of the press in advertising agriculture, to prepare the kind of stuff a paper will accept in the form most palatable to its public. This "boosting" in America of a particular ware or industry is not however peculiar to agriculture.

The university's agricultural department attempts also to influence the teacher under training. For example, to quote from a circular of 1920:

"Lectures and demonstrations on rural health and sanitation have been given in connection with twelve of the state and county normal training schools. Much interest has been shown by these prospective teachers in the problem of rural health improvement. Through the medium of charts, microscopic material, and lantern slides it has been possible to bring home the essential facts in connection with rural hygiene more strikingly than in any other way yet devised. More than 500 prospective teachers have thus been reached. These young people inspired by this message will carry the gospel of better health directly into the rural schools of the state."

In applying the lessons of American experience to the circumstances of rural education in India one realises to begin



with both the still greater need in India of harmonising rural education with the rural life around it and at the same time the still greater difficulty of doing so. The need is insistent. It is often because he does not recognise the value of the village schooling for village life that the villager, whether agriculturist or other, where he considers the subject at all, presents his boy at school in the hope of his bettering his condition by eventually leaving the village. The lad studies, not that he may be a better farmer or villager, but that he may enter upon some other walk of life. And where he is a promising pupil and gains a scholarship he passes hopefully to a secondary school and learns English if he can possibly afford it and thence to a college in a town, and so to some career superior, in profit and prestige, to farming. And yet agriculture is India's greatest industry.

Apart from the effects of this drain of intelligence upon the immediate progress of this industry, perhaps more serious is its political significance for the future; for it means that the Indian countryside loses in educated and intelligent representation what the urban and university educated circles thereby gain. Be it added that the ordinary course of higher education withdraws the growing lad's interests and sympathies from practical agriculture and the daily problems of the zemindar, and is conducted, when in the secondary school, in smaller towns, and when at college in city centres. His thoughts dwell anywhere rather than in the field. Of two lines of attacking through education the problem of securing constant intelligent care of agriculture and of the agriculturist in his home, that which attempts to do so by altering the conditions and curriculum of secondary and higher education it is not in place to discuss at length here, except to allude to the contribution which university extension measures in America make to the solution of the problem. The difficulty in India is that the improvement of the conditions and methods of agriculture, and the fostering of appreciation for rural life, has hitherto been considered the duty of a special institution, the agricultural college, and of special officers in the Agricultural Service, and little if any thing has been done to link the ordinary universities in sympathy and knowledge with rural and agricultural life. The Indian university suffers in this respect from two disabilities. Firstly, its whole environment is urban, and its students and staffs and government are disproportionately urban minded. And secondly, partly for this reason, and partly because the academic ideal is by tradition

literary rather than practical it is to the cultivation of intellectual pursuits that the university devotes itself, and not to the intellectual cultivation of practical pursuits. If the aim of a university education is culture, the university will not play a full part in touching the lives and increasing the happiness of most of the inhabitants of India unless culture admits association with the labour of the hands. But whatever be the theory of culture, it will probably be granted that one method of assisting the agriculturist in his life, in his industry, and in drawing nearer a level of culture (even on a narrow interpretation of the word), is suggested by the American university rural extension services, which attempt, without the disadvantages of official authority or dictation, to make the rural life better worth living, to do something towards making it at least no less attractive than life in the towns. To leave this duty mainly to a special department or institution is to fail in supplying two insistent needs, that of shedding more than the single light of technical knowledge upon those that sit in rural ignorance and darkness, and that of bringing the general body of the educated into sympathy and familiarity with most of the people. Yet since it is from the universities that the leaders of Indian progress come, to lead in the progress of the vast majority they must first know and feel how the vast majority live.

The second line of attack upon the rural problem through education lies through establishing a closer and more living connection between the rural school and the rural society which it exists or should exist to serve. This need is already widely recognised. The question is whether American methods can suggest any thing of value here. Can help be expected (1) from a change in the character of superintendence or inspection? (2) from bringing the curriculum or school activities into closer touch with the pupil's village life? (3) from extending the functions of the school so as to serve as a community centre? In each of these three directions America has examples to offer which have been described. If an affirmative answer can be given to these questions much can be done through the rural school to make rural life more interesting, more intelligent and more attractive, if not to place it on a level with town life in these respects.

These questions cannot be entirely isolated. A supervisor's efficacy clearly depends in part upon the character of the curriculum he has to consider and the possibilities of the school in the community, as determined amongst other things by the

teacher and the surrounding population. Assuming these amenable, there is no reason to suppose that the skilled and sympathetic guidance of an itinerant "helping teacher" (or whatever satisfactory name be appropriated) attached to a restricted area, able to pay five or six substantial visits to any school during the year, intent to assist not to estimate or criticize, and preserving continuity of effort, will not be of much more value than a type of inspection which lacks these conditions. In India as in America there is the same picture of the humbly prepared teacher working in isolation, and there is the same danger of his falling quickly into routine if unassisted, and the same perhaps greater call for personal sympathy if it can be given and sustained. The appointment of itinerant supervisors, with small circles, has similar possibilities of good results, if supervisors of the right kind can be found or made, a question considered elsewhere in this report. India has no doubt its peculiar difficulties. In America, for example, society is still largely in the making, and there are fewer fixed traditions of home or social life to contend with. The idea of the school as a practical help in the neighbourhood, as intended to make its pupils more useful wherever they may live and not to prepare them for higher academic studies, is more easily established in America where the people are awake to, and even expect, the new. For one of the chief duties of the new type of officer would be to revolutionise the popular conception of the school. And the firmer the wrong tradition the greater the need of uprooting it. Nor is it sufficient to entrust this duty only to the training school, though the training school also can play its part; because assistance given and demonstrated on the spot in the actual school circumstances, where the teacher has been trying and failing, is far more telling and helpful than demonstrations under training, and because that teacher is rare, however thoroughly trained at the outset, who can build his best upon his promise, without stimulation and encouragement afterwards.

If then the first question can be answered in the affirmative, the ground is prepared for a favourable answer to the second. Some reasons for failure of attempts to vitalise and ruralise the rural school curriculum have been mentioned elsewhere. And there is no royal road to a remedy. But one step towards a cure might be the starting of a band of educational missionaries, themselves alive with the new idea and, which is equally important, trained in the methods of realising

it. With these in the field, a vital curriculum becomes a possibility: the school activities can be related to the pupil's life. "Projects" as described in the first part of this chapter can be introduced, and conventional subjects of the curriculum can be so taught as to throw light upon the practical problems and interests of the villager. Syllabuses and text-books compiled for the purpose may be of some help, but what the missionary has to teach the teacher on the spot is not how to teach from a text-book but how to teach off it, how in this subject and that subject to think first of the details of the pupils' daily life and then of how geography, the 3 Rs. nature-study, manual occupations, can be so taught as to enlighten and give 'significance' to these details. The departmental code curriculum can suggest, but should not prescribe; better the issue of a pamphlet (like the English Board of Education's suggestions for the consideration of Teachers) which can inculcate principles for guidance, and co-ordinate, without unnecessarily restricting, the efforts of the itinerant workers over an extended field.

Whether the school can then become in any true sense a community centre must always depend ultimately upon how the teacher shapes under changed methods of treatment. The tragedy of education is that, however high and true our ideals, at present they always break down at the teacher. And in India amongst the teaching profession the primary school teacher compares far less favourably in salary and qualifications with teachers of older pupils than in America (if not in any Western country), and suffers other handicaps already pointed out in a previous chapter. Until the desirability is recognised by the public of attracting a more highly qualified teacher to Indian primary departments, and funds are forthcoming for this purpose, the vitalising of the rural school, though an urgent necessity, must be partial and slow. To teach the 3 Rs. mechanically does not require a high level of skill or intelligence. The task of spreading literacy amongst the masses of India—in the sense of teaching them the mechanical processes of reading, writing, and reckoning—is within measurable distance of fulfilment. But to teach the village children how to live to their own highest interest and advantage, how to find interest in their own daily lives, and how to be of most service as members of the village community, the task of making the school activities tell at every angle on the occupations of village life, of projecting the school into the home and the home into the school (and illustrations

of both processes have already been cited from American rural education), demands for its successful performance a teacher with a broader conception of the meaning of education than can usually be expected in a youth of fifteen or sixteen with a year of training behind him on a salary of twenty rupees or so a month. So long, on the other hand, as the rural school aims only at literacy, so long will it fail to bear for the agriculturist any special significance in the agricultural life. And though for its full performance is demanded a teacher of exceptional quality, this is no reason for making no improvements at all. The teacher even at his present starting pay and quality can be helped to widen his outlook and impart life into his methods as he goes along. He can be helped to take some steps towards linking school and community. Better training schools, improved preparation of training school staffs, improved methods of continuing the teacher's training after his appointment, by these we may be enabled to introduce with some hope of success improvements in the school work and curricula, and thus in time by a virtuous circle a better prepared candidate for the training institution. The important thing is to institute improvements where they are most practicable, knowing that they will carry others with them as they progress. There seems no reason for example why itinerant helpers should not immediately popularise the 'project' method and spirit, inaugurating and exemplifying home-school projects from school to school. This in its turn will make a wider curriculum possible, and provide the training school with improved practice and observation. Suggestions for preparing these itinerant helpers, and for vitalising the training school work, are given elsewhere.

## CHAPTER IV.

### Rural School Supervision.

#### *(1) Methods of Supervision.*

Besides preliminary training for their career, it is also important to give assistance to teachers already in the field, to guide the erring efforts of those who have had no training, and to continue guidance and encouragement for teachers who without it are only too likely to fall into routine. This supplementary assistance is required the more where the rural teacher has low general qualifications, and little, say only a year, of special training. In the United States where "one-third of the great army of 350,000 rural teachers have little or no professional preparation for their work", efficient supervision might do something to make up for this lack of professional equipment. The need of this assistance is generally realised by educationists. As a recent Bulletin of the Federal Bureau of Education says—"However important supervision may be in cities, it is vastly more important in the country." "Teachers in rural schools are poorly paid, are constantly changing, are largely untrained, and have no system of grading. They are teaching an impossible number of classes, and conducting far too many daily recitations to make even fairly good work possible. Add to this the isolation, which makes helpful advice and association among teachers impossible or nearly so, and it is difficult to conceive of much improvement in the present conditions without adequate and efficient supervision...." Most of this description applies equally in India, though the Indian rural teacher does not have to cope with pupils of eight different grades or classes, and the reasons for the constant staff changes differ. In America the cause is usually the teacher's marriage, or preference for other work, in India it is more often administrative convenience.

But supervision—in the sense of positive help to the teacher in her work of teaching—is hampered in America mainly from two causes. Circumstances vary somewhat, but the school officer corresponding most nearly to the inspector of schools in India is usually the county superintendent of schools. The county is the unit of rural school supervision throughout the United States, and has a varying area, often of 3,000 or 4,000

square miles, and teachers numbering 50 to 300 in somewhat fewer schools. The first cause of inefficiency in supervision of these teachers is that the county superintendent in most states is elected by popular vote, usually for a brief tenure of office. This means that "educational qualifications are not required except when the sentiment of the community is so urgent as to influence political parties," for political qualifications rather than competency as teachers or supervisors influence the election. Nor does an officer, dependent on popularity for his continuance in office, venture readily to disturb traditions; educational enterprise may endanger his position.

Secondly his work is mainly administrative, and he seldom has an assistant. He finds himself burdened with office work, and because of this and the extent of his territory and number of schools he is unable to reach every school in the county once a year.

That he usually has no voice in engaging teachers and fixing salaries is not necessarily in America an obstacle to efficiency of internal supervision, because as I understand most rural teachers are ready to respond to earnest and efficient guidance if it is offered them, and because the actual appointing authority, generally a small board of three or five local inhabitants, does not itself take much interest in the art of teaching, and thus presents no active opposition. There is however "a growing feeling that the county superintendent should be a man or woman of training and experience in educational work, that he should be assisted by a competent corps of supervisors, and that he should have clerical assistance for his office work." To this a noteworthy qualification is added: "he should be capable ..... of forming public sentiment in all things concerning the educational welfare of the community", with "a keen insight into the needs of country life and how the school can meet them. He needs such a knowledge of rural vocations as will enable him not only to teach and supervise vocational subjects, but to be a leader among the farmers of the community and one with whom they may consult on matters of general community welfare."

Though this want is not being generally supplied, I touch elsewhere on some of the movements at work to effect a contact between the school and the community, and in this chapter attention may be drawn to an interesting movement for more effectual internal supervision of rural schools. In two states,

for example, Wisconsin and New Jersey, the plan has been adopted of appointing specially qualified officers—usually women—working over smaller areas than the county superintendent, and concerned almost entirely with the promotion of better teaching in the schools and of adapting the school work to rural and local requirements. Two features in the system are worth remarking, first that on this plan the administrative and the supervisory functions are kept separate, the second, that the officers are out simply to help the teachers. The officer who administers education and has in his hands promotion and appointments, or whose duty it is to estimate schools for purposes of grant, is not only deflected from guidance of the teaching by other demands, but is feared as a judge, where he might be welcomed as a helper. The name “inspector” of schools is usually avoided by American authorities because of its unfortunate implications, and it has been difficult to discover a satisfactory substitute. To describe the officers under mention the term “rural supervisors” is given in one state, but even supervisor implies imposition of authority, and New Jersey knows them simply as “helping teachers.” As their immediate duty is that of helping rural teachers, supplying as it were on the spot deficiencies largely due to lack of training, it is important that they should keep in continuous touch with teachers in their area. For this reason their circles are usually carefully limited. A county may have two or three “helping teachers”, who might have each of them 40 or 50 one-room schools to visit. The appropriate number will naturally vary with the needs of the given area and its physical conditions such as distance between schools, surface level, and the state of the roads. But there is always a limit beyond which school visits will be too infrequent or too short to produce continuous progress. Though the helper does not aim at uniformity, and in some cases one or two personal visits may suffice, in others as many as five or six visits are paid in the school year. Judgment is required to decide which teachers should have most help; you may, for example, adopt the principle of assisting most those who most appreciate assistance, in which case the local effect may be maximum, but the neediest schools go disregarded, or of giving most where schools seem most in need, but that is usually where the teachers are most dull, and the effect of a visit may be therefore least. Personal visits to schools are not the sole means of helping rural teachers, and the question which the helper has to answer is, not only how to distribute



or so taking small pupil groups herself while occupying the rest through her written assignments on the blackboard, illustrating exercises which call for thought in the pupils (and are not just memorizing or the mechanical working of rules), and providing them variety of occupation within the same assignment. And secondly, every visit leads on to the next. For this purpose teacher and helper both keep a notebook or diary, and a succeeding visit will follow up the work done at the last, encouraging success and initiating further progress on the same or other lines. Contrast this with the type of school inspection which through lack of time and difference of purpose firstly is not selective but investigates evenly and superficially under a series of stereotyped headings, secondly, gives no time to personal demonstration, for the inspector has too many duties to spare time for keeping his hand in ordinary school teaching, and thirdly does not follow up the results of one visit at the next, but treats each inspection as an isolated and separate whole.

I mentioned economy of time and effort as marking the work of the helping teacher. Making the most of one's time at an individual visit often means being content to cover a limited ground. It also means taking topics in a considered order of precedence, selecting in the raw teacher's work a few big general principles which she disregards (*e.g.*, keeping all the children occupied, varying the occupations, discovering your pupil leaders, providing for the bright as well as the backward pupil, and so on) and impressing these at early visits, before dealing with later requirements and particular methods. But there is also a saving in combining several teachers in a single demonstration, and a part of the helper's work lies in collecting teachers at intervals for joint demonstrations for the benefit of all. This may of course take the obvious form of teachers' meetings, but another plan which I found in use is that by which the helper as she passes from one school to another picks up teachers as she goes along till she reaches her last, and there stops to watch some specially promising teacher at work, or to demonstrate herself in the school some device of general interest; this in ordinary school surroundings, for demonstrations on the spot carry more conviction than at special centres. This type of informal gathering of successive teachers at a school under its ordinary working is made possible in America by the regular use of motor cars, which a helping teacher seems accustomed to drive (with the little knowledge that gives con-

fidence) even over barbarous and deeply rutted roads. Intermediate between the teachers' meeting at headquarters and this kind of informal gathering of three or four teachers to a school, is the pre-arranged meeting at a given school which has a specially promising teacher, to witness, say, special points in her conduct of a morning's work, and discussion of those or other points afterwards. I attended such a meeting as a visitor, at a school some dozen miles from the nearest town of any size, to which three motor cars brought for the morning session five or six rural teachers (two being men), two helping teachers, and the county superintendent, an officer of many years' standing, for county superintendents though elected for short periods sometimes retain office over many successive elections. A questionnaire of points for guidance in observation had been circulated some days in advance, to keep attention to the point and enable those present to select within them for discussion. All present took notes of the proceedings, but beyond this the morning of three hours was occupied simply in watching the teacher do her ordinary work; the means, in brief, by which she made the best of the morning with her twenty boys and girls of four or five different grades. Characteristics that struck the visitor were the effective use of the blackboard assignments, the active parts played by the pupils themselves both in lesson conducting and in ordinary duties about the room (stoking the fire in the central stove or heater, ranging into lines, conducting physical exercises, etc.) and the introduction of the play spirit in the instruction. But the point I wish to emphasise here is that these and other qualities in the teacher's teaching had been acquired partly perhaps at summer schools held for teachers but partly from the helping teacher at previous visits, and the afternoon discussion which follows such a demonstration enables the helping teacher to convince other teachers of the value and practicability of innovations or reforms, on the basis of a morning's work, done by one of the ordinary teachers in an ordinary school. The introduction of innovations, the discussion of points of common interest, may also be effected through meetings of all the teachers of a circle or county at headquarters, and general meetings are an additional weapon in the helping teacher's armoury. At such a general meeting the programme may include, for instance, a demonstration by one helping teacher of alternative methods of teaching spelling (economical methods of teaching spelling are much discussed in America at the moment), the assembled

teachers being made to represent for the purpose a class of pupils; of simple means to encourage group singing; of different types and purposes of reading lesson, etc. In this case helpers from neighbouring areas may be brought in to assist, according to their special qualifications. A general meeting may serve to initiate what the individual visits afterwards carry on, and a new rural school movement can thus spread from the centre outwards. It is also used to bring to the notice of all teachers common deficiencies or needs of which the helping teacher has accumulated a record during her tours.

The process of teacher preparation, in fine, is not and should never be limited to the actual training of teachers by a whole time course at training institutions. Untrained teachers can be helped a good deal by a system of rural supervisors or helping teachers; which may serve equally to save and resuscitate the trained teacher who too easily falls into discouragement and routine.

Among rural teachers especially what is most needed is encouragement, for they work in isolation from one another, and unless they are deliberately provided with professional help and sympathy in their ordinary daily teaching from someone who makes herself familiar with the problems and difficulties of the rural teacher's life, they are apt to shift their interests to where they are shared by the society around them, outside the school. For man lives largely as he is understood.

For the helping teacher to be of most service to the rural teacher at least three conditions have to be fulfilled:—

1. Her chief, if not her only, duty must be that of service to the teacher.

To mix up her work with administration or inspection is to lessen its efficiency for the purpose in view.

2. Her qualifications must be special; they should include training as a rural teacher, a course in rural supervision at a University, experience of rural teaching, and familiarity with rural schools and rural life. That she should be "rural minded" goes without saying.

Probably not all the rural supervisors in these states have all these qualifications, at any rate to begin with. Teachers in America have opportunities of accumulating qualifications as they go along, for as age limits for admission to institutions

of college rank are elastic, educational workers may add to professional qualifications as they have time and money. On the courses for supervisors more is said elsewhere.

3. She should work in a limited area, for a sufficiently long time. For it is her business to become familiar with her schools and school teachers and with the people of the country, and to make her visits frequent and long enough to have a permanent effect. From five to ten years might be suggested as a satisfactory tenure.

The last two conditions are the more important because rural supervisors do not confine themselves to work in the schools only: they make a point of getting in touch with the community; and though they work mostly on and through the rural teachers, they aim at improving the community life through the teachers, and at improving the teaching through relating and adapting it to the community's life. It is also in the teacher's interests for the rural supervisor to cultivate relations with the country people, for her appointment and promotion often lie in the hands of a single local trustee for the school or of a local school board of three or five persons; and the rural supervisor can influence local people to supply school needs, to make the teacher at home in their society, and, where this is desired, to increase her salary. Apart from this, rural supervisors sometimes hold at the school parents' or community meetings, for entertainment or discussion of educational requirements, and if they make friends in the country they may be made welcome, and be put up on their rounds in the houses of local farmers, with added opportunities of studying the conditions of local rural life. Besides this, an energetic and popular supervisor becomes in time the eyes and ears of her county superintendent, an invaluable link between the school and the homestead on the spot and the educational headquarters. At present this link is lacking in most of the states of America, but in an epoch where the state is taking a more active interest in and beginning to strengthen its control over local elementary education, the rural supervisor over a small area is an invaluable source of local educational information.

### (2) *The Preparation of Supervisors.*

Many American universities include in their School of Education courses for different kinds of supervisory work in

education. Educational superintendence is of several shapes and degrees. The county superintendent of schools and one or two types of rural school supervisor have already been mentioned. It must not be thought, however, that all county superintendents have the same duties or are similarly appointed or of similar qualifications: except that they all exercise some degree of control or influence over education within a country area, they vary a great deal in pay, status, manner of appointment, and the extent of their duties. And though I have dwelt particularly in one or two devices for guiding the work of rural schools not all rural supervisors are "helping teachers" or "country life directors." In the state of Montana, for example, a woman rural supervisor is attached to the state, not to the county, and her duty is not to work with or under a county superintendent, but rather to guide and train the county superintendents in such supervision within their areas. Another class of rural supervisor is the \*Jeanes' rural supervisor of the southern states, "a supervising industrial teacher who visits the negro rural schools of a particular territory or county and introduces and supervises simple forms of industrial work." In America details vary everywhere. Most states have state superintendents of education (not always under this name), an official of the state board of education, a body of from six to twelve members as a rule, with different degrees of control over local education in the state, though as has been pointed out local self-government in education is strong still both in small rural areas and in towns. Like the county superintendent he is often elected by popular vote on a limited tenure of office.

A great many of these officers have had no special formal training for their business, and some of them—especially the county superintendents—are without high general educational qualifications.

Nor have they always the same facilities as in England for learning their job by a kind of apprenticeship or formal training after appointment. The English inspector of schools on appointment is usually either an experienced teacher and headmaster of a state aided school, selected for special excellence or suitability, or a much younger man with a good university degree and some additional special experience of school work, chosen for intelligence, general education, and personal fit-

---

\* Named after the lady who inaugurated a fund for assisting negro rural education by this means.

ness, without formal training beforehand. Training however he is able to obtain, because he finds himself attached to a senior inspecting officer who takes him with him on his visits, sets him his duties, and reports on his progress to headquarters. And as the Board of Education's inspectorate is a single cadre for the whole country, young officers can be attached to seniors where and as the Board thinks fit. In America conditions are otherwise. A state may have forty to fifty counties and county superintendents all separately and locally appointed, and the state superintendent not in close or constant official touch with them, or at any rate not able to undertake the training of any for their work. Those who are keen on efficiency and wish for special qualifications seek these accordingly by attending courses provided for the purpose. As a rule these courses are at universities but one hears of occasional instances also of supervisors in some states whose duty is to train others to supervise, as for example the two state supervisors for rural education in Montana. The state superintendents' work being, as elsewhere, mainly administrative, it falls in Montana to the rural supervisors to keep in touch with the fifty-two county superintendents (who are mostly women, and untrained), and by visiting schools with them, holding conferences and institutes (periods of a week or more devoted to conference, discussions, addresses, and lectures), circulating information and suggestions, and a state educational magazine issued monthly, and again by community meetings at which members of local educational boards and those interested in rural education are present, to improve the county superintendent's methods of school supervision, to give her some knowledge of educational principles and ideals of school conduct, to co-ordinate effort throughout the state, and to promote or prepare the way for general new movements, such as the substitution of the county for the small district as the unit of school administration.

In default, however, of any general provision for preparing supervisors on the spot, recourse to the universities is common. A large university in its educational department has courses which will cover most if not all forms of school supervision, and a state rural supervisor of the kind described, no less than helping teachers, school principals, lecturers in normal schools, county superintendents and others, come in large numbers to the various teachers' colleges, some for summer courses, some for a year, some longer to work for a degree specializing in educational study.

The best known of these institutions is the Teachers' College, Columbia University, New York. The faculty of education of this university is primarily intended, not to provide the ordinary formal training for assistant teacher-ships, with which the Indian reader is familiar in normal schools and training colleges for secondary teachers, but "to offer to advanced students of both sexes instruction in the history and philosophy of education, in educational psychology and sociology, and in the theory and practice of educational administration, supervision, and class-teaching..." "The policy of the Teachers' College is to adapt its work to the needs of students in training for positions of leadership in the educational field...The requirements for admission should emphasise maturity, experience in teaching, and academic scholarship appropriate to the subject or department in which the student intends to specialize." "The college attempts to provide courses to suit the very varying requirements of different positions in different states. Some positions emphasise practical experience in teaching and school management, while others lay stress upon academic training. It is the aim of Teachers' College to suit both the requirements of admission and of graduation to the actual conditions which prevail in American education."

The college, in fact, does not confine itself to two, three or four fixed programmes of study with a certificate or diploma corresponding to each. Owing to the size of the institution its fifty professors on the faculty of education and assistant officers of instruction (professors, associates, and instructors) numbering some hundred and thirty and owing to the number of students in attendance (in the year 1919-1920 there were 1,000 graduate, and 2,000 undergraduate students on the register, excluding 2,000 who attended the summer session only), it is enabled to offer each student that particular selection of subjects which seems to suit her best. She may or may not elect to study for a diploma or degree. She may wish to increase her knowledge of some minor educational topic (*e.g.*, the use of the bioscope in city schools), or to combine part time study at the university with remunerative work outside it, or for some reason to take less than is required for the purposes of a teacher's diploma or a degree; but if she elect to qualify for these, then she must choose her courses in consultation with the college authorities and satisfy the Director of the Bureau of Educational Service that her programme is adequate in quantity, proportion and

quality, and follows upon adequate preliminary attainments, to lead up to the particular qualification desired. "The guiding rule is that the candidate should first determine the career which he wishes to pursue and then seek the assistance of a faculty adviser in making up his curriculum."

The university does not itself offer a degree of Bachelor of Arts; but admits graduates from other approved colleges for degrees of Master of Arts, and of Science (obtainable in one academic year), and of Doctor of Philosophy (obtainable in three years beyond the Bachelor's degree), with Education as a speciality. The degree course may or may not comprise the course qualifying for a teacher's diploma, for the "diploma is granted only to those who, besides qualifying for a degree, give promise of superior professional ability as evidenced by their personality, character, experience, and technical training. Thus a teacher is not necessarily to be regarded as a trained teacher because she has taken a degree in education, though she must have specialized in some educational study. But even the degree includes in its requirements some practice teaching for inexperienced teachers, and some form of practical work for all "demonstrating ability to select, organise and present the results of professional investigation in the field of major interest." What that field will be depends naturally on the particular province in education in which the candidate wishes to engage or having engaged to improve her chances of success.

Thus the courses taken by students for supervisory posts comprise forms of practical investigation, though not necessarily ordinary practice in teaching, in addition to class room lectures. The precise combination of subjects taken by the prospective supervisor will depend of course upon the career in view.

In the case of the state rural supervisor of Montana, whose duties have already been alluded to, assuming she has already before graduation completed courses in psychology, history and principles of education, and had some experience of elementary rural school work, a programme to suit her requirements might include some amongst the following subjects and syllabuses:—

### *1. The course for Superintendents of schools.*

Under this heading she would study among other topics the following: national participation in education: national



and state support and supervision of education; the organization of school systems, to include special treatment of the development of intermediate schools, the junior college, vocational schools, lecture courses, and community centers; the financing of public education, including the study of taxation, budget making, the buying, storing, and distributing of supplies, and the like; school records and school statistics; the attendance, classification and progress of children, to include a consideration of special classes, the continuing census, retardation, elimination, and the like; the organization of newer types of education; extra-curricular activities, to include the work of the boy and girl scouts, junior red cross, boys' and girls' agricultural clubs, and the like; school health administration; the school plant and equipment, to include a consideration of building plans, standardization of equipment and of building, school hygiene and sanitation; the preparation, selection, tenure, salaries, pensions and promotion of teachers; the organization of the supervisory corps, with special reference to the democratization of administration and supervision; the selection of text-books; the making of courses of study; developing school programmes; reports and publicity; methods of securing co-operation with other public welfare agencies; the methods and results of school surveys.

### *2. Rural School Supervision.*

This includes amongst other topics the aim of rural elementary education; and school organization, method, curriculum, text-books, and equipment, in relation to that aim, with special attention to conditions in small schools of one to three teachers.

Methods of supervision in rural schools is the subject for the session. Class room supervision, the use and conduct of teachers' institutes, teachers' meetings, reading circles, and teachers' councils, printed and mimeographed helps, surveys, use of standard tests, records and reports, teachers' ratings, development of community activities and the supervisor's plan for progress, are among the topics considered.

### *3. The preparation of Rural Teachers.*

The topics treated include: the present status and shortage of rural teachers; the national programme for education and its bearing upon the rural teacher situation; state policies in rural teacher training and supply; agencies employed in the pre-

paration of rural teachers; the organization and administration of these agencies; courses of study; practice teaching, including amount, types, yearly scheme, lesson planning, and supervision; rural demonstration schools; extension activities and the follow-up of graduates; relationships to other departments and other rural agencies; and future policies and developments in the preparation of rural teachers.

#### *4. Rural Sociology and Economics.*

A descriptive and practical course in the study of the conditions, forces, and processes of country life. The course centers in the analysis of community life, of the institutions of the rural residence area and of rural wealth; such as the school, church, health association, recreation society, grange, co-operative elevator, creamery, factory. The market conditions so far as they affect the rural community are carefully analysed. The history, progress, types of mind of the rural community and the objectives of rural progress are studied with the practical preparation of the student for employed social service in the country as teacher, supervisor, pastor, superintendent, county demonstration agent, county welfare agent, community organizer, or public health nurse, as the aim. The organization of country people by community or county is considered. The purpose of the course is to teach the student to observe, to weigh social values, to classify rural material and experiences and to make programmes for social work in any field of employment in the country.

To these she might add courses in one or more of measurement and experimentation in elementary education, the history of education in the United States, or education in citizenship, or a study of curricula and experiments in the education of young children, or rural sanitation and hygiene, and so on.

These courses will be given by separate lecturers specializing for one or two courses in particular, or in many cases, a single subject is split amongst several lecturers each taking that branch of it in which he (or she) is most interested.

The point of interest is the great mass of material that has been and is still being collected by American educationists directly assisting supervisors and administrators in their work, so that whatever educational work a student is preparing to take up, he (or she) will find the latest information and ideas on the subject placed in college lectures at her disposal.

It is probably safe to say that in no other country has this as yet been so systematically and deliberately done, and in none are so many different courses of study available for the student covering so wide an educational field.

The advanced student preparing for supervisory duties does not however come to Teachers' College merely to hear from the lips of the professor the latest utterances on her subject. She engages in an active programme of self-preparation. Under his direction she makes a first hand study of a good deal of "source material," if one may so call it, in her particular line. Of this America has plenty to offer; for in a country where every one of forty-eight states is responsible for its own system of education, there is much variety of administration, supervision, and organisation; there are always states, counties and cities reorganizing their educational systems, and therefore reports of surveys, with different objects, by special commissions preliminary to such reforms. A student for administrative or supervisor's posts will thus work through a number of educational "surveys," of the kind most useful for her special purpose.

The "surveys" are prolonged investigations on the spot carried out on local invitation by a number of experts—usually university professors—specially paid by the local authorities for this purpose.

The student can thus profit directly from the experience of others working in her own, or similar, fields; but she learns in particular, by comparison and contrast of different reports, the need and methods of adopting measures to varying circumstances, and again, a valuable acquirement, how to work through printed matter, often voluminous and detailed, seizing what is useful. The reader who is acquainted with reports prepared laboriously by special commissions or with periodical reports of government or other authorities, and who is tempted to reflect sadly on the frequent fate of all the thought and energy put into them, may agree that the study of selected reports by prospective workers in a kindred field is after all merely a common-sense measure of economy. Where selected experts have been attacking a problem akin to that on which the student will be engaged, and when the problem is one so complicated as that of administering or supervising and improving an educational system, to ignore the record of their experiences seems foolish, and especially so where their record is in sufficient detail for guidance and the problem and its circumstances sufficiently similar. It is through these two

features that a study of such records is more practically useful than a simple course in such a subject as the history of education, for in the latter case the circumstances are too distant, and the story usually too general, to have an obvious bearing on the task ahead. But there are good reasons, of course, for including the second study as well in the curriculum of the prospective educational adviser or administrator.

Nor does the student confine herself to studying the reports of others. She is expected to undertake some kind of "field" work herself. The special course for superintendents of schools given at Teachers' College, for example, is based not only on "lectures, readings, and reports," but on "information derived from visits to schools and participation in the work of administration in school offices, and upon results which are made available through school surveys in which the members of the group participate." There is a special and separate course devoted to "field work in rural social organization and rural education," and another in "rural social surveys" outlined as follows:—

"A practical course in the methods of rural investigation and the principles of social work designed for the preparation of responsible leaders in rural fields of employment. The means employed besides lecture and discussion are personal investigation, measurement, weighing of social forces and preparation of articulate programmes in school administration, home demonstration work, public health service, and supervision of religious activities. The descriptive lecture basis of this course analyzes the governing factors of rural life, which enter into all social programmes. Students will report upon surveys made, will be required to present in a thorough term-paper the results of an original investigation and to prepare a constructive programme. The visiting of rural areas within reach of New York, the study of rural leadership agencies and of marketing processes located in New York are essential to the plan of this course. The individual student has wide liberty of selection in choice of his field of work."

Apart thus from a special study of reports, the student will usually join in some actual field work herself, and draw up some kind of reports or suggestive programme relative to the special problem she is preparing to face.

Thus a prospective supervisor of rural schools may during her course at the college or in her vacation attend a number of rural "community" meetings or other types of rural educational conference available to her, record the procedure, and

the methods of preparing for or following up these meetings, as she has observed them, and bring back her records with her or criticisms or comments for class or group discussion. A group of prospective county superintendents may, with a professor as their leader, be themselves engaged during part of their college course in an actual survey of some city's educational system, the work being distributed amongst them and progress and methods discussed in joint conclave as they go along.

Another prospective rural supervisor will spend time going round with a selected officer "watching supervision going on", joining, that is to say, with her in school visits, home visits, and meetings, and discussing with her methods of work.

The difficulty with this kind of practice is to preserve proportion: too extensive or prolonged, it wastes time in a limited university course; too intensive or contracted, it may not be worth while. Besides this, in adopting it as a general ingredient in supervisory training the question will arise of the availability of a sufficient number of selected experts in various supervisory fields willing to consult the convenience of the learner. Teachers' College, New York happens to be rather well placed in this respect, and if my personal impression is correct progressive American educational workers are peculiarly kind in showing other workers what they are doing, and college authorities usually come to special agreements with the authorities of certain regular practising fields to avoid mutual inconvenience.

Of the suggestive programmes drawn up by students relative to their special problems several instances were shown me. These programmes are not always the work of individual students; if, for example, a small group of students are anticipating the same career, they may join over a specific project in which all will be engaged, a detail, let us say, of points to note in judging the suitability of text-books in a certain class of school, or an attempt to classify the most important constituents in the "make up" of the ideal rural school teacher. The point that strikes one is the endeavour to secure for each of a large class or body of students not only the course of reading and lectures, but also a course of practice that suits her individual requirements, and to guide and evaluate her work along the chosen line.

The question may be asked whether the student can choose with safety a specifically individual line beforehand. But a

great many of the students, (though I have used the terms "prospective supervisor" for convenience), have already been engaged in educational work for some time, are sometimes committed to returning to their previous appointments, or have been able to decide the special branch of educational work that suits them best. Others again are younger and affect a curriculum that is more general.

The visitor to a college class of advanced students notices at once their miscellaneous character: of both sexes, from all the states of America and several countries outside (there is generally a student or two from Japan and India), of ages within a range of twenty or thirty years, and of varying types and degrees of experience. There are undoubted advantages in this variety, and as a fair proportion in a class of thirty to sixty students are educated people of mature age and experience as teachers, principals or superintendents, there is special reason for another striking characteristic of the lecture, namely that there is always plenty of opportunity for discussion, and the professor is anything but autocratic. His views are open to question and refutation, and stand merely on their own merits. A good deal of the classroom work is mainly organised discussion, guided by the lecturer, and a good deal is the deliberate eliciting of the opinions or experience of the students, the lecturer calling on particular students to address the class, this being a recognised method common in secondary and even elementary school classes.

The lecturer's classroom with advanced students at a leading American university may thus become a kind of clearing house of educational opinion and experience, and must greatly help in co-ordinating methods of supervision and in spreading new ideas and movements throughout the United States, if not beyond. The alert student can gain as much from contact with his fellows, as from the deliveries of his lecturer, and the lecturers, themselves frequently men of note in administration or supervision before they accepted appointments at the university, are not above learning from the fresh experience of students in their classes, while their occasional work on "surveys" or as lecturers at teachers' institutes and conferences, etc., up and down the country supplement their reading in keeping them in close touch with the changing conditions throughout the continent.

There are no doubt weaknesses in the system of miscellaneous classes, each class the momentary meeting point of students who may be separated for other lectures, and consist

ing of students each following a curriculum and pursuing a course of his own. One must however avoid overstating the position: there is always a fair number of students who will have a common nucleus of lecture courses, and who do a good deal of work in common.

A critic no doubt would remark on the absence of corporate life in a huge American teaching institution, as indeed in many of the smaller colleges whose students come and go and take their courses leading to diploma and degree in convenient (or inconvenient) snippets. These are certainly weaknesses in the arrangement which passes students in and out as it were miscellaneously, in order to suit each case, and to deal with it on its merits. Though it is not my business to enlarge on deficiencies, it seems relevant to point out one practical corollary of the individual adjustment method, namely, that it makes difficult any formal testing or standardising of the student's fitness for degree or diploma at the conclusion of his course. English and American practice differs noticeably in this respect. In England training colleges for teachers have on the whole the same examination set by the Board of Education, and an elaborate procedure is followed to standardize colleges against one another even in the practice of teaching. In America the custom is for institutions to make independent awards, and the machinery for measuring individual students in the same college against one another and against objective standards is still largely lacking—an interesting anomaly in a country where so much is being made of objective tests of intelligence and achievements in the school stages of education. In most training institutions the ordinary means of determining at the end of the course the success of the student's qualifications is mainly personal impressions, without a formal *ad hoc* paper examination, the impressions being mainly of lecturers or instructors in the courses which the student has attended, and of "critic" teachers or supervisors as regards her practical exercises. The evidence upon which the lecturer may be said to base his judgment is derived from personal contact at individual "conferences" or interviews, the part played by the student in discussion or in speaking in the class, paper work done by the student in connection with his practice or field exercises, occasional informal class oral tests or "quizzes", and opinions similarly founded by others. At Teachers' College, periodical instructors' meetings are held to measure up a student's merits, and the professor's or instructor's lecture periods are carefully limited so as to leave

him plenty of office time during which he sets aside regular periods for any students who wish to see or "confer with" him. During these periods students come to talk over their practice work and submit their reports and records of work done or to be done for his assistance or opinion, so that a certain amount of *tête-a-tête* contact is thus secured. And no doubt personal impression at its best can include in its judgment of a prospective teacher qualities of character and manner not easily measurable on paper. In practice however despite the precaution of persuading unpromising students to give up their studies in an early stage, the tendency in normal schools is towards unevenness and laxity of standard, and the Teachers' College authorities have been contemplating the setting of short examination papers with questions requiring short answers as a supplement to measurement by personal impressions only. Though the American procedure may have erred too far on one side, there is no doubt a mean of true economy between the reliance upon somewhat casual personal verdicts on the one hand and upon the results of a cumbersome, tedious and expensive paper examination on the other; and I have personally no doubt that most paper examinations—whether for training college students or others—could, if the matter were carefully and scientifically considered, be very greatly reduced with no loss of efficiency for the limited ends that a purely paper test can at best serve. As regards the testing of a candidate's preparedness for school supervision, at any rate, the American can rightly claim that without judgment of the candidate's personality a good many people who are very competent practical administrators and supervisors, but comparatively poor in academic study or in amassing knowledge, would fail to get due recognition from the university, and that a degree in education if not indeed more generally should be a token of practical efficiency in life, though along some particular line, and not of intellectual excellence apart from the power of using it for social good. Where a student accumulates high university honours, and claims or secures on the strength of his degree an appointment for which, through personal deficiencies, he is unsuitable, the degree has lost most of its significance for life. It is at least arguable that any degree should signify something more than the absence of an actively bad character, and the presence of a certain minimum mental content.

Experience in American and English school supervision and in the preparation of supervisors is not without suggestion



for improving inspecting methods in India. In America as in England it is recognised that competent work cannot be expected in school superintendence without some form of deliberate preliminary preparation. And it is safe to lay down at the outset the negative proposition that no appointments should be made to superior inspecting posts whether from England or India without subjecting the officer to a course of preparation before he assumes unfamiliar responsibilities. This applies equally to Indian and European, to the professor familiar with college work, but unfamiliar with schools, the technique of teaching, or the school administrative system and management, and to the officer coming from England who either knows nothing of India beforehand or has been separated for some years from the problems of Indian rural and school life.

The superior branches of the inspectorate in India undertake miscellaneous and difficult duties, the actual visitation of schools being only one, though an indispensable one, of them. Examples of these are scrutiny of budgets and programmes of local bodies, promotions and appointments of a large number of teachers, assessments of grants, determination of scholarships, approval of building plans, and much administrative work under the provincial Government in connection with Government schools, advice in connection with schemes for improving and expanding primary and rural education, and general supervision of subordinate officials more directly concerned with primary and vernacular schools. Though these duties are more comprehensive than those of either American superintendents or English inspectors of schools, yet at present there are usually in India neither the special arrangements for apprenticeship to senior inspectors of long experience which obtain in England nor the special college courses for school supervisors described above as characteristic of America. And instances are not rare in which officers undertake senior inspectorships, who have made no special study of several of the essentials to efficiency in their work, amongst others, the technique of class instruction, different types of curricula, tests of pupils' progress, systems of school management and organisation, methods of school inspection and supervision, educational principles and ideals, school planning and architecture, current problems in primary and secondary (as distinct from university) education in various aspects in their own province, and the relation of education to other aspects of social life. Nor does the daily work of the inspector in India

leave much time for professional study, even if that study were economically directed, as is less likely to be the case where the officer has had no preparation beforehand. For officers who undertake senior inspectorships and have presumably had a sound and advanced general education to build upon, and are of too mature years lightly to undertake study for examination, a course of apprenticeship to educational and general administrative officers might serve as an appropriate introduction to office, if supplemented by directed study or a brief lecture programme, in which some special line of investigation might perhaps usefully find a place. For a class of "helping teachers" (to use the American term) or rural supervisors, a special course of college training would seem more fitting: Since assistance to teachers in primary classes does not demand the academic subject qualifications required of a future teacher in high classes, the officer would be a gainer if he had had an opportunity of considering general educational philosophy during his university preparation for a degree, leaving him the more time for other professional studies in a following year of college training. This training might as a minimum include sufficient practice in actual rural schools, association (as soon as they become available) with selected workers already in the field, study of teaching technique, of the general educational system, of problems of village life and village education, of educational history in the province, of the connection of primary and general with higher and special forms of education, problems of rural school staffing, classification, and building, the relation of the school to the community and methods of associating school and home life. Official reports, conference reports, and current problems should have attention and discussion. And after a period of work as itinerant helping teacher the officer might hope to rise to higher ranks in the inspectorate. It is doubtful if such a preparatory study and practice could be compassed in a single year after first graduation, but to insist on a longer period at the outset might be impracticable. The difference in professional preparation between the future rural supervisor or helper and the secondary school teacher should here be noticed; for the latter would come to his period of training more usefully equipped if he had not replaced some possible subject of a secondary school curriculum by a course in educational theory during his college career, and his practice and his theory under training would have reference to the secondary school stage of education, while rural problems

would receive a less thorough treatment as part of a wider course in school management and organisation. On the other hand he would make a special study of method in connection with one or two particular subjects of instruction for secondary pupils.

In either case this period of training could qualify for a further advance towards say a Master's Degree in Education, for which an original thesis of sufficient usefulness and merit, practical efficiency in some active educational work, and evidence of special study or research, under check and guidance, might be required. Rural supervisors whose work showed special merit could be favourably placed for proceeding to this further degree (the age limit for which might be placed somewhere say within the thirties), as their ordinary work would admit of lines of special research of definite practical utility.

In conclusion it seems worth while considering whether a more satisfactory substitute cannot be found for the title inspector of schools with its unfortunate implications. After all there is something in a title, and though superintendent of schools, school or rural school supervisor, or simply educational adviser, are none of them entirely satisfactory, any one of them seems preferable to the term inspector which remains an unhappy legacy from earlier days.

## INDEX.

[ 'a' indicates top, 'b' middle, 'c' bottom, of page referred to.]

	PAGE.
<b>Agriculture—</b>	
In American Schools . . . . .	35
In Indian Schools . . . . .	42 <i>sq.</i>
University Extension and . . . . .	40b
( <i>Vide</i> also under Wisconsin.)	
<b>Agriculturists. Conditions of life . . . . .</b>	<b>1 <i>sq.</i>, 28a, 29, 36</b>
<b>Assessment of students' competency . . . . .</b>	<b>65 <i>sq.</i></b>
<b>Associations v. Clubs.</b>	
<b>Cinematograph, for rural enlightenment . . . . .</b>	<b>40b</b>
<b>Clubs—</b>	
Parent-teachers' . . . . .	36 <i>sq.</i>
for rural life studies . . . . .	20 <i>sq.</i> , 29c
in rural schools . . . . .	8a, 40a
for social objects . . . . .	36
<b>Community life—</b>	
and Indian rural schools . . . . .	45b
and school supervision . . . . .	29 <i>sq.</i>
and students . . . . .	19b, 21a, 29 <i>sq.</i>
( <i>Vide</i> also under Wisconsin.)	
<b>Cook County plan of rural school supervision . . . . .</b>	<b>30b <i>sq.</i></b>
<b>Corporate life lacking in college . . . . .</b>	<b>65</b>
<b>'Country Life Directors' . . . . .</b>	<b>30b <i>sq.</i></b>
<b>Country farm agents . . . . .</b>	<b>40b</b>
<b>Country Superintendents of schools . . . . .</b>	<b>5a, 30a, 47c, 52</b>
<b>Country training schools . . . . .</b>	<b>5 <i>sq.</i></b>
compared with High Schools . . . . .	7a
( <i>Vide</i> also under Ruralization.)	
<b>Critic teachers . . . . .</b>	<b>65</b>
<b>Curricula—</b>	
in elementary schools . . . . .	18b
projects . . . . .	30b
for rural school supervisors in training . . . . .	58 <i>sq.</i>
related to rural life . . . . .	10a, 13b, 44c
in training institutions for rural teachers . . . . .	6 <i>sq.</i> , 20a
<b>Degree in Education . . . . .</b>	<b>69</b>
<b>Demonstration schools . . . . .</b>	<b>15, 18</b>
<b>England—</b>	
preparation of inspectors . . . . .	55c, 67
training institutions . . . . .	55c
<b>Field work for students in training . . . . .</b>	<b>9a, 62</b>
<b>Hampton Institute . . . . .</b>	<b>7</b>
<b>'Helping Teachers' of New Jersey . . . . .</b>	<b>49b</b>
<b>High Schools—</b>	
Training classes . . . . .	5c
compared with Country Training Schools . . . . .	7a
<b>History of Education. In curricula for training . . . . .</b>	<b>62a</b>
<b>Illiteracy in America . . . . .</b>	<b>3b</b>

	PAGE.
<b>India—</b>	
American and Indian rural life compared . . . . .	2 sq.
Government high schools . . . . .	16b
Inspectors' preparation . . . . .	67 sq.
Normal Schools . . . . .	12b
Rural curricula . . . . .	11c, 13 sq., 44c
Ruralising education . . . . .	41 sq.
Rural practice for students . . . . .	24 sq.
Rural schools and the community . . . . .	45 sq.
Staffs in training institutions . . . . .	24
Supervision of rural schools . . . . .	43 sq.
Teachers' qualification in rural schools . . . . .	45b
University and rural education . . . . .	42 sq.
Urban and Rural teachers requirements . . . . .	12b
Industrial lines in training . . . . .	7
Inspection v. Supervision . . . . .	35b, 49 sq., 51a, 69b
'Jeanes' rural supervisor . . . . .	58b
Lecturers . . . . .	23b, 66 sq.
Lectures . . . . .	21b, 22c, 64
classes for . . . . .	23, 64b
students co-operation in . . . . .	26c
(Vide also under Students.)	
Model schools . . . . .	15, 16, 18
Montana plan of rural school supervision . . . . .	56b
Normal schools . . . . .	5 sq.
classes in . . . . .	23b
in India . . . . .	12c
teaching practice in . . . . .	15b
(Vide also under Wisconsin.)	
New Jersey plan of rural school supervision . . . . .	49 sq.
Parents' co-operation with schools . . . . .	31b, 36 sq.
Parent-Teachers' Associations . . . . .	36 sq.
Practice of students in training—	
in demonstration schools . . . . .	16
difficulties and defects of . . . . .	17c, 22c
organisation of . . . . .	17b
in rural schools . . . . .	17b, 19
for supervisors . . . . .	62 sq.
supervision of . . . . .	18b
types of . . . . .	15 sq.
Practising schools . . . . .	9c, 16b
Programmes—	
v. Curricula.	
v. Students.	
'Projects'—	
as an item in curricula . . . . .	30b, 40c
in Indian rural schools . . . . .	45
instances of . . . . .	32, 35
Pupils—	
in Indian rural schools . . . . .	11c, 42a
and 'projects' . . . . .	31 sqq.
(Vide also Rural Schools.)	

	PAGE.
<b>Ruralisation—</b>	
of curricula . . . . .	7b, 10 sq., 29b
through county training schools . . . . .	7a, 9a, 10
of Indian rural school work . . . . .	41 sq.
through practice under training . . . . .	18
of teachers . . . . .	7c, 23c, 26b
<b>Rural life—</b>	
conditions of . . . . .	1 sq., 28 sq., 33c, 36
and curricula of schools . . . . .	13b
in relation to school supervision . . . . .	33b
studies of . . . . .	20, 61 sq.
and the rural teacher . . . . .	2b, 4c, 10a, 13b, 53b
and town life . . . . .	3a, 28 sq.
<b>Rural schools—</b>	
attendance in . . . . .	4b
character of . . . . .	1a, 3c, 47b
in relation to the community . . . . .	13c, 19, 29
curricula of . . . . .	11b, 44b
used for practice of students . . . . .	16b, 19a
sessions of . . . . .	3b
supervision of . . . . .	49b, and v. 'Supervision.'
teachers in . . . . .	47b, 53b, and v. 'Teachers.'
compared with town schools . . . . .	11c
and village schools . . . . .	3a
<b>Rural teachers—</b>	
and urban teachers . . . . .	12 sq.
(Vide also under 'Teachers.')	
Schools <i>vide</i> 'Rural schools,' 'High schools,' etc.	
School Boards . . . . .	5a, 16a, 54b
School-home projects . . . . .	30b
Staffs . . . . .	7b, 16c, 23b
(Vide also under 'Lecturers.')	
in Indian rural schools . . . . .	24c, 26
transfers of . . . . .	47b
relations with students . . . . .	66
(Vide also under 'Students.')	
for University extension work . . . . .	39
in University faculty of education . . . . .	57
<b>State Superintendents . . . . .</b>	<b>55</b>
<b>Students in training . . . . .</b>	<b>17b, 19a</b>
ages of . . . . .	23b, 57b
field work of . . . . .	62
at lectures . . . . .	21b, 64
programmes of . . . . .	63
relation to rural life of . . . . .	19b
relation to tutors . . . . .	66
(Vide also under 'Staffs,' 'Lectures,' and 'Practice.')	
<b>Supervision—</b>	
conditions of effective rural school . . . . .	35b, 48b, 53c, 58, 63 sq.
by Country Life Directors . . . . .	30 sq.
defects in . . . . .	47c, 54b, 56b
in India . . . . .	44 sq.

	PAGE.
<b>Supervision—contd.</b>	
methods of . . . . .	49 sq.
New Jersey plan of . . . . .	49 sq.
by teachers . . . . .	31c
<b>Supervisors—</b>	
types of . . . . .	54 sq.
training of . . . . .	55c, 58 sq.
<b>Surveys in training . . . . .</b>	61b
<b>Teachers—</b>	
and the Community . . . . .	28a, 33b
(Vide also under 'Community.')	
difficulties of rural . . . . .	4 sq., 44b, 47a, 53b
qualifications of . . . . .	4c, 47a
sex of . . . . .	4c
in relation to supervisors . . . . .	50 sq.
(Vide also under 'Supervision.')	
rural and urban . . . . .	12c, 33.
training of . . . . .	5c sq.
(Vide also under 'County Training Schools,' 'Curricula,' 'Normal Schools,' 'Practice,' 'Staffs,' 'Students,' 'Training Institutions.')	
<b>Teachers' College . . . . .</b>	57a sq.
<b>Training Institutions . . . . .</b>	5c
attached compared with independent . . . . .	8c
in England . . . . .	55c
in India . . . . .	9b
for rural schools . . . . .	12b
for supervisors . . . . .	54 sq.
(Vide also under 'Teachers,' 'Normal Schools,' 'County Training Schools.')	
<b>University—</b>	
assistance for rural school work . . . . .	37 sq.
extension . . . . .	37 sq.
and rural education in India . . . . .	42b
and training of supervisors . . . . .	56 sq.
(Vide also under 'Wisconsin.')	
<b>Village and rural schools . . . . .</b>	3a
<b>Visual methods . . . . .</b>	39c
<b>Wisconsin University—</b>	
and Agriculture . . . . .	40b, 41c
bureau of community development . . . . .	38c
package library service . . . . .	39b
in relation to Normal schools . . . . .	41c
<b>Zamindars—</b>	
and American farmers . . . . .	1 sq.
schools for . . . . .	11c

**BUREAU OF EDUCATION**  
**INDIA**

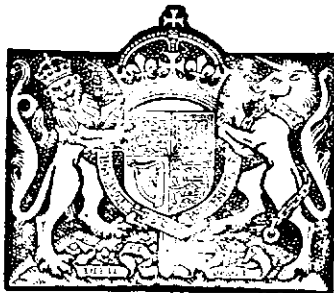
**Pamphlet No. 18**

**Conference of Indian Universities**

**Held in May 1924**

**AT**

**SIMLA.**



**CALCUTTA: GOVERNMENT OF INDIA**  
**CENTRAL PUBLICATION BRANCH**  
**1924**



**Government of India Publications are obtainable from  
the Government of India Central Publication  
Branch, 8, Hastings Street, Calcutta,  
and from the following Agents :—**

**EUROPE.**

de & Co., 10, Orange Street, Leicester  
square, London, W.C.  
Adrian Paul, Trench, Trübner & Co., 68-74,  
Gartley Lane, E.C., and 9, New Oxford  
Street, London, W.C.  
Bernard Quaritch, 11, Grafton Street, New  
Bond Street, London, W.  
F. S. King & Sons, 2 & 4, Great Smith  
Street, Westminster, London, S. W.  
Strindley & Co., 54, Parliament Street,  
London, S.W.  
Lusac & Co., 45, Great Russell Street,  
London, W.C.  
W. Thacker & Co., 2, Creed Lane, London,  
E.C.  
C. Fisher Unwin, Ltd., 1, Adelphi Terrace,  
London, W.C.

Whellon and Wesley, Ltd., 2, 3 & 4, Arthur  
Street, New Oxford Street, London,  
W.C. 2.  
East and West Ltd., 3, Victoria Street,  
London, S.W. 1.  
B. H. Blackwell, 50 & 51, Broad Street,  
Oxford.  
Deighton Bell & Co., Ltd., Cambridge.  
Oliver and Boyd, Tweeddale Court, Edin-  
burgh.  
E. Ponsonby, Ltd., 116, Grafton Street,  
Dublin.  
Ernest Leroux, 28, Rue Bonaparte, Paris.  
Martinus Nijhoff, The Hague, Holland.  
Otto Harrassowitz, Leipzig.  
Friedländer und Sohn, Berlin.

**INDIA AND CEYLON.**

Thacker, Spink & Co., Calcutta and Simla.  
W. Newman & Co., Ltd., Calcutta.  
E. Cambay & Co., Calcutta.  
S. K. Lalrri & Co., Calcutta.  
The Indian School Supply Depot, 309, Bow  
Bazar Street, Calcutta, and 226, Nawab-  
pur, Dacca.  
Butterworth & Co. (India), Ltd., Calcutta.  
Bai M. C. Sarcar Bahadur & Sons, 90-2A,  
Harrison Road, Calcutta.  
The Weldon Library, 20, Chowringhee  
Road, Calcutta.  
Standard Literature Company, Limited,  
Calcutta.  
Association Press, Calcutta.  
Chukerverty, Chatterjee & Co., Ltd., 13,  
College Square, Calcutta.  
Higginbotham & Co., Madras.  
V. Kalyanarama Iyer & Co., Madras.  
P. R. Rama Iyer & Co., Madras.  
Rochouse and Sons, Madras.  
Bright & Co., Trivandrum.  
V. S. Swaminathan, Bookseller, West Tower  
Street, Madras.  
Thacker & Co., Ltd., Bombay.  
D. B. Taraporevala, Sons & Co., Bombay.  
Sunder Pandurang, Bombay.  
Ram Chandra Govind & Sons, Kalbadevi,  
Bombay.  
Proprietor, New Kitabkhana, Poona.  
The Manager, Oriental Book Supplying  
Agency, 15, Shukrawar, Poona City.  
The Standard Bookstore, Kanchi, Rawal-  
pindi, Muree, Lahore and Quetta

Karsandas Narandas & Sons, Surat.  
A. H. Wheeler & Co., Allahabad, Calcutta  
and Bombay.  
N. B. Mathur, Supdt., Nazir Kanun Hind  
Press, Allahabad.  
The North India Christian Tract and Book  
Society, 16, Olive Road, Allahabad.  
Ram Dayal Agarwala, 184, Katra, Allah-  
abad.  
Manager, Newal Kishore Press, Lucknow.  
The Upper India Publishing House, Ltd., 41,  
Aminabad Park, Lucknow.  
Munshi Meeta Ram, Managing Proprietor,  
Indian Army Book Depot, J. S. J. Caw-  
npore.  
Bai Sahib M. Gulab Singh & Sons, Muld-  
Am Press, Lahore and Allahabad.  
Rama Krishna & Sons, Booksellers, Anar-  
kali, Lahore.  
Manager of the Imperial Book Depot, 63,  
Chandney Chawk Street, Delhi.  
Oxford Book and Stationery Company,  
Delhi.  
Supdt., American Baptist Mission Press,  
Bangoon.  
Proprietor, Rangoon Times Press, Rangoon.  
The Modern Publishing House, Ltd., 70,  
Sparks Street, Rangoon.  
The International Buddhist Book Depot,  
Post Box No. 971, Rangoon.  
Manager, the "Hitavada," Nagpur.  
S. C. Talukdar, Proprietor, Students & Co.  
Cooch Behar.  
Times of Ceylon Co., Ltd.  
The Manager, Ceylon Observer, Colombo.

## REPORT OF THE UNIVERSITIES' CONFERENCE.

Held at Simla from May the 19th to the 24th, 1924.

	PAGE.
Programme . . . . .	iii
List of delegates who attended the Conference . . . . .	v
Chapter I.—Inaugural address by His Excellency the Viceroy . . . . .	1
Chapter II.—Proceedings of May the 19th . . . . .	8
Chapter III.—Proceedings of May the 20th . . . . .	11
Chapter IV.—Proceedings of May the 21st . . . . .	20
Chapter V.—Proceedings of May the 21st ( <i>concluded</i> ) and of May the 22nd . . . . .	29
Chapter VI.—Proceedings of May the 23rd . . . . .	35
Appendix A.—Addresses by the Hon'ble Sir Narasimha Sarma—	
(i) introductory address; . . . . .	45
(ii) valedictory address . . . . .	48
Appendix B.—Notes supplied to the delegates on items of the agenda . . . . .	53
Appendix C.—Resolutions passed by the Conference . . . . .	70
Appendix D.—Report of the Provisional Committee held on May the 24th . . . . .	77

## PROGRAMME OF THE UNIVERSITIES' CONFERENCE.

- 
- May 19th . 10-30 A.M. . Delegates assemble at Committee Room B of the Legislative Assembly Building.
- 11-00 A.M. . Address by His Excellency the Viceroy in the Legislative Assembly Chamber.
- 12-00 NOON to 1 P.M. Appointment of four committees to consider the following subjects:—
- (i) (a) the appointment and conditions of service of whole-time university teachers;
  - (b) the exchange of university teachers.
  - (ii) The exchange of library books.
  - (iii) The publication of an Indian journal of science.
  - (iv) The equivalence of Indian university examinations.
  - (v) The substitution of university bureaux for students' advisory committees. The constitution of a central university agency in London.
  - (vi) The recognition of Indian examinations in the United Kingdom with special reference to:—
    - (a) the new regulations of the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge; and
    - (b) the holding of examinations by English universities in India.
- 2-30 P.M. to 4-30 P.M. . . . . .
- May 20th . . . . . Meetings of committees.
- May 21st . 10-30 A.M. to 12-30 P.M. . . . . . (vii) University training corps.
- (viii) The recognition of the final examination of the Prince of Wales' College, Dehra Dun, as equivalent to the Intermediate examination.

- (ix) The question of admitting students of Indian Universities to direct King's Commissions on the system adopted at Oxford and Cambridge Universities.
- 12-30 P.M. to 1-30 P.M. (x) Place of modern languages in the curricula of Indian Universities:—
- (a) Indian vernaculars;
- (b) European languages used in scientific literature.
- 2-45 P.M. to 4-30 P.M. Reports of Committees on items (i) and (ii).
- May 22nd . 10-30 A.M. to 1-15 P.M. Reports of Committees on items (iii) and (iv).
- 2-45 P.M. to 4-30 P.M. (xi) Methods of co-operation between Indian Universities, including:—
- (a) specialisation in higher studies;
- (b) co-operation in research; and
- (c) the proposal to form some permanent inter-university organisation.
- May 23rd . . . . . This day is reserved for the completion of adjourned discussions or the consideration of additional topics not included in the agenda.

### List of Delegates who attended the Universities' Conference.

University.	Names of Delegates.
1. Calcutta	1. The Hon'ble Mr. Abul Kasim Fazl-ul-Haq, M.A., B.L., Minister for Education, Bengal. 2. Sir Nilratan Sircar, Kt., M.A., M.D., LL.D., D.C.L., President of the Governing Body of the Carmichael Medical College, Beigachia. 3. Mr. Herambachandra Maitra, M.A., Principal, City College, Calcutta. 4. Revd. Dr. W. S. Urquhart, M.A., D.Litt., Principal, Scottish Churches College, Calcutta. 5. Dr. C. V. Raman, F.R.S., M.A., D.Sc., Palit Professor of Physics, Calcutta University.
2. Bombay	6. The Hon'ble Sir Chimanlal H. Setalvad, Kt., B.A., LL.B., LL.D., Vice-Chancellor, Bombay University, and President, Legislative Assembly. 7. The Hon'ble Sir Lalubhai Asharam Shah, Kt., M.A., LL.B., Puisne Judge, High Court of Judicature, Bombay. 8. Mr. V. G. Kale, M.A., Professor of History and Economics, Ferguson College, Poona, and Member, Tariff Board, Simla.
3. Madras	9. The Hon'ble the Revd. E. Monteith Macphail, M.A., D.D., C.B.E., Vice-Chancellor, Madras University, and Member, Council of State. 10. Mr. R. Littlehales, M.A., M.L.A., Director of Public Instruction, Madras. 11. M. R. Ry. Diwan Bahadur Mocherla Ramachandrarao Pantulu Garu, M.L.A. 12. The Hon'ble Mr. G. A. Natesan, Member, Council of State.

University.	Names of Delegates.	
4. Punjab . . . .	13. The Hon'ble Sir John Maynard, K.C.I.E., C.S.I., Vice-Chancellor, Punjab University.	
	14. The Hon'ble Khan Bahadur Mian Fazl-i-Hussain, Minister for Education, Punjab.	
	15. Mr. A. C. Woolner, M.A., Principal, Oriental College, Lahore, and Dean of University Instruction, Punjab University.	
	16. Mr. Manohar Lal, M.A., Barrister-at-Law, Lahore.	
	17. Rai Sahib Shiv Ram Kashyap, B.A., M.Sc., Professor, Government College, Lahore.	
	5. Allahabad . . . .	18. Dr. N. R. Dhar, D.Sc., Docteur de Sciences Physiques, F.I.C., F.C.S., Dean of the Faculty of Science, Allahabad University.
		19. Dr. Ganesh Prasad, M.A., D.Sc., M.L.C., Member of the Executive Council of the Allahabad University.
20. Mr. P. S. Burrell, M.A., Dean of the Faculty of Arts, Allahabad University.		
21. Dr. Shafaat Ahmad Khan, M.A., Litt.D., M.L.C., Head of History Department, Allahabad University.		
6. Benares Hindu . . . .		22. Pundit Madan Mohan Malaviya, B.A., LL.B., M.L.A., Vice-Chancellor, Benares Hindu University.
	23. Mr. A. B. Dhruva, M.A., LL.B., Pro-Vice-Chancellor, Dean of the Faculty of Arts, University Professor of Sanskrit, and Principal, Central Hindu College, Benares Hindu University.	
	24. Mr. L. D. Coueslant, B.Sc., Patiala Professor of Mechanical Engineering, Benares Hindu University.	
	25. Dr. S. S. Bhatnagar, D.Sc., University Professor of Chemistry, Benares Hindu University.	
	26. Mr. P. Seshadri, M.A., Head of the Department of English Studies, Benares Hindu University.	

University.	Names of Delegates.
7. Mysore . . . . .	27. Mr. N. S. Subba Rao, M.A., Barrister-at-Law, Dean of the Faculty of Arts and Member of the Mysore University Council.
8. Patna . . . . .	28. Mr. S. Sultan Ahmad, Barrister-at-Law, Vice-Chancellor, Patna University. 29. Mr. H. Lambert, M.A., Director of Public Instruction, Bihar and Orissa. 30. Mr. E. A. Horne, M.A., Principal, Patna College. 31. Mr. Sri Narayan Sahay, B.A., B.Sc., Barrister-at-Law, Professor, Patna Law College.
9. Osmania . . . . .	32. Nawab Hyder Nawaz Jang Bahadur (Mr. A. Hydari), B.A., Finance Member, Executive Council, and Member, University Council. 33. Nawab Masood Jang Bahadur (Syed Ross Masood), B.A., Director of Public Instruction, and Member, University Council. 34. Dr. A. Siddiqi, M.A., Ph.D., Principal, Osmania University.
10. Aligarh Muslim . . . . .	35. Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad, C.I.E., M.A., D.Sc., Ph.D., M.L.C., Pro-Vice-Chancellor, Aligarh Muslim University. 36. Dr. L. K. Hyder, B.A., Ph.D., M.L.A., Professor of Economics, Aligarh Muslim University. 37. Dr. A. S. Tritton, M.A., D.Litt., Professor of Arabic, Aligarh Muslim University.
11. Rangoon . . . . .	38. Mr. L. G. Owen, M.A., Professor of Mathematics, Government College, Rangoon. 39. Mr. A. Campbell, M.A., Registrar, Rangoon University.
12. Lucknow . . . . .	40. Dr. K. N. Bahl, M.Sc., D.Phil., D.Sc., Professor, Lucknow University. 41. Dr. Radha Kumud Mookerji, M.A., Ph.D., P.R.S., Professor, Lucknow University.

University.	Names of Delegates.
13. Dacca	42. Mr. P. J. Hartog, C.I.E., M.A., B.Sc., L.-es-Sc., Vice-Chancellor, Dacca University.
	43. Dr. R. C. Mazumdar, M.A., Ph.D., Professor of History and Dean of the Faculty of Arts, Dacca University.
	44. Dr. J. C. Ghosh, D.Sc., Professor of Chemistry and Dean of the Faculty of Science, Dacca University.
14. Delhi	45. Dr. H. S. Gour, M.A., D.Litt., D.C.L., LL.D., M.L.A., Vice-Chancellor, Delhi University.
	46. The Revd. P. N. F. Young, M.A., St. Stephen's College, Delhi.
	47. Mr. Khub Ram, M.A., M.Sc., Dean of the Faculty of Science, Delhi University.
	48. Mr. H. L. Chablani, M.A., Reader in Economics, Delhi University.
15. Nagpur	49. Rao Bahadur V. R. Pandit, M.A., Barrister-at-Law, Nagpur.
	50. Mr. G. G. R. Hunter, M.A., Professor of History, Morris College, Nagpur.
	51. Mr. F. P. Tostevin, M.A., Principal, King Edward College, Amraoti.

*Representative of the Post-Diploma Examination classes of the Mayo College, Ajmer.*

52. Mr. S. F. Madden, B.A., O.B.E., Principal, Mayo College, Ajmer.

*Secretary to the Conference.*

Professor L. F. Rushbrook Williams,  
M.A., B.Litt., C.B.E., M.L.A.

Mr. J. A. Richey, M.A., C.I.E., Educational Commissioner with the Government of India.

**Members of the Standing Advisory Committee of the Indian Legislature for the Department of Education, Health and Lands, who attended the Conference by invitation.**

1. The Hon'ble Sir Deva Prasad Sarvadhikary, Kt., C.I.E., Member of the Council of State.
2. Maulvi Muhammad Yakub, M.L.A.



# Conference of Indian Universities held in May 1924 at Simla.

---

## CHAPTER I.

### Inaugural Address by His Excellency the Viceroy.

The Conference was formally opened by His Excellency the Viceroy at 11 a.m. on May the 19th in the Legislative Assembly Chamber. His Excellency the Governor of the Punjab, His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief and the Members of the Viceroy's Executive Council, the President of the Council of State and other high officials of the Government of India were present on the occasion. His Excellency the Viceroy addressed the delegates as follows:—

Let me extend a warm welcome to the delegates of the Universities of India who are assembled here for the Conference. I am conscious that many of you have travelled considerable distances to attend this Conference at a season of the year when unfortunately the rigours of the climate add in a material degree to the fatigue and discomfort inseparable at all times from long journeys. In many cases also, I know that your absence from your other duties and preoccupations at this time has only been arranged at considerable personal inconvenience and sacrifice. I and my Government highly appreciate the sense of public duty, of interest in the objects of the Conference and of keenness to take part in any measure to advance the well-being of the Universities which has prompted you to accept our invitation; and we are grateful to the governing bodies of the Universities for their ready and willing response to our suggestion for the Conference. I am confident that my Government will profit by the Conference and acquire a most useful store of advice on the important questions to be discussed from the united wisdom of so distinguished a body of representatives; and I believe the results will be generally acknowledged by the Universities also to be highly beneficial to the best interests of the Universities and of University teaching.

This is the first Conference of the kind that has been held and I welcome this opportunity of inaugurating its proceedings. Ever since I came to India, I have taken a keen interest in the Universities; and whenever I have been at a University centre and have had the opportunity, I have visited the University, and made the acquaintance of those who conduct its affairs and instructed myself regarding the work of the University and its influence.

These individual visits have been a source of pleasure and interest to me; and I trust I have been able in my addresses to convey my high conception of the great mission of University teaching and training and my personal conviction of the extreme importance of University work in India in its effect both on the individual and the country as a whole. If by my visits I have communicated in some measure my desire to stimulate and encourage those, who share my ideals for the true scope of University teaching, to look with confidence beyond the local problems and difficulties of the moment confronting the administration of a particular University to the higher and wider planes, which await successful University development, my solicitude has been amply repaid. Many of those here to-day I have had the pleasure of meeting within the walls of their own Universities. It is a pleasure to meet them again and to meet them together; and from this assembling of representatives of various Universities I entertain great expectations. The advantages of collecting representatives together in a Conference may not at first sight be apprehended. It is true that each University is self-contained. It has its own work to perform and the needs of its own centre and clientele to provide for. To a large extent its destiny lies in its own hands and it is master of its own fortunes and alone responsible for its own success or failure. Nevertheless, in the history of a country the more important factor is not the success of an individual University, but the influence and effect of University policy and education as a whole. To take an example from the scheme of Universe, in the world a particular flower may have beauty, colour, scent, perfection of form, or perhaps uses peculiar to itself, but its importance in the general scheme of creation is not comparable with that of the flower world as a whole with its infinite variety of beauty, form, colour, virtues and uses. We might deplore the loss of a single species, but any change affecting the whole flower world would be an unthinkable calamity.

I have stated the fact of my constant interest in Indian Universities; let me explain more precisely the reason for it and for my personal satisfaction in inaugurating this Conference. It may appear that, as education is now a provincial subject, and as the connection of the Government of India or of the Indian Legislature in regard to Universities has only been prescribed in certain particular cases for special reasons, the Governor-General and the Central Government cannot be supposed to be directly interested in their affairs. It is true that University administration is largely now, and rightly, a provincial care; but the abstract idea, which underlies all forms of University activity, is of such cardinal importance that it is woven into the principal functions of the Government of India and the Governor-General. The outcome of the spread of University teaching, if it achieves success and exerts its proper influence, is to set an intellectual and moral standard for the people of India as a whole. It should be the principal formative influence in the development of capacity in these directions. Its highest ideal is not to rest content with the production

of individuals of brilliant attainments, but to ensure a permanent progress in the mental outlook of the people as a whole and to give birth to a higher moral tone in general and to a more widespread striving for enlightenment. The responsibilities of the Government of India for the administration and progress of the country and the charge which has been laid on me as Governor-General by the King-Emperor in his instructions that the "Governor-General should use all endeavour consistent with the fulfilment of his responsibilities to us and our Parliament for the welfare of our Indian subjects" cannot be fulfilled, unless I and my Government take a direct interest in fostering these ideals and in assisting towards their consummation. A healthy national life depends on the wide dissemination of a desire to arrive at balanced judgments, of ideas of duty and discipline and of common responsibilities and mutual obligations. These can only come by the spread of an atmosphere, which it is one of the most important functions of the Universities to diffuse. We have to travel away from the narrow and circumscribed view which regards education only as means of individual advancement or profit, and pass out towards the broader horizon where education is destined to achieve higher purpose to lead the man intellectually endowed and aided by the illuminating quality of imagination to those greater altitudes from which to reflect honour and glory upon his fellowmen and his country. Where these conditions have been established, those who have profited by University teaching will look back on their University days, not merely as an episode serving an individual and material end, but as an epoch in their lives which beckoned along the road of honour and duty.

Let me now turn to the objects which this Conference primarily has in view. In order to appreciate to the full the necessity for this Conference, in addition to the consideration of the importance of fostering common ideals already explained, a brief review of University history in India is essential. University history in India started with the foundation of the Calcutta University in 1857. By 1887 four more Universities had come into existence; and these five institutions continued to exist and cater for the needs of Academic Education in India until 1916. These Universities were all of the affiliating type. This system was well adapted for the first steps; but as the demand for education increased, it outgrew, as is now generally admitted, its usefulness. There was no limit to the number of institutions which could be affiliated to a University; and for the 30 years which elapsed between 1887 and 1916 the increasing demand for University Education was met not by the creation of new Universities but by adding to the number of the affiliated Colleges or inflating their capacity. The strain on the central organisations which were not designed to cope with this unwieldy growth and the weakness of the tie with and between the groups of constituent Colleges, often situated several hundred miles apart and in a position to contribute nothing to the vitality of the University, gradually drained all reserves of strength and

resulted in loss of efficiency. Paralysis seemed imminent which would for ever impair the beneficent activities both of the body itself and of its members.

The Government of India were alive to the danger and broke new ground by advocating a restriction of the area attached to affiliating Universities by the creation of separate Universities for each Province and by the institution of local teaching and residential Universities within each province with a view to secure more progressive educational efficiency. Local patriotism and communal enthusiasm also came to the aid of Government; and to one or other of these various causes may be ascribed the birth of seven new Universities in British India since 1916. A powerful stimulus to University reform and strong support for the establishment of the unitary teaching type of University advocated by the Government of India was also created by the report of the Calcutta University Commission. It is no exaggeration to say that the whole course of University education has been profoundly affected by the publication of this report. No aspect of the functions of a University in India, of the needs for which it should cater or of the conditions essential for its success, escaped the careful survey of this Commission. The highest praise of the labours of the members is to be found in the fact that, though only dealing with the Calcutta University, their conclusions were at once recognised as applicable or adaptable to the whole of India; and not only has all legislation for the incorporation of new Universities since the publication of the Commission's Report embodied features from their recommendations, but some of the older Universities also have in some respects remodelled their structure on lines advocated by them.

We are now at a period in the history of the Universities in India where there has been a sudden increase in the number of Universities. The growth has been phenomenal; in less than a decade the number of Universities has doubled. We are also at a stage where transition from an older to a newer type is in progress; the new Universities are taking different shapes; in addition, apart from changes in external structure, we are living in an era of University reform affecting the internal composition of each edifice. This reform is proceeding, hampered, it is true, in many cases by difficulties of finance, but proceeding nevertheless with a wider horizon of intention and a greater variety of aims than at any past period of University history in India.

I need scarcely point out that at such a time it is essential to ensure the preservation of the highest standards of University education and to safeguard against any falling away from the ideals of the best class of University training. With a multiplication of institutions, with alterations in type, with changes in internal systems, and with financial stringency affecting the complete execution of projects there is no small risk of some deviation from the right road to educational efficiency. It is a time for conserving and strengthening resources and for using them to the best advantage. It is a time when the newer may lean to some extent on the

garnered experience of the older foundations and when the latter may in turn derive some assistance from newer methods under trial in the former. It is a time for mutual help and for co-operation between Universities. A united front must be shown. There must be a joint effort to develop higher education in India to the highest standard. There must be combination to meet reasonable criticism and to remedy defects. Some uniformity of internal organisation seems desirable if there are to be no weak spots in the general system. The work of reorganisation and development lies primarily in the hands of each individual University with the help and control of the Local Government; but the Government of India will always take a profound interest in the progress of the Universities; and it is with the hope of strengthening the structure as a whole and of adding solidarity to the general system that they have initiated this Conference.

The recent advance in the quality and scope of University teaching in India has been remarkable. It should be a source of satisfaction to all those who have laboured to bring it about; and I congratulate them upon the achievement. Nevertheless we should not rest complacently on our laurels. We cannot conceal from ourselves that we have a vast field still to cover. If the highest standards had already been reached, we should not find so many of our brightest students leaving India to complete their education and to seek degrees in England or foreign countries. We must confess to a need for further development in many directions, more especially in higher Technological Education. We are conscious that our Medical Courses have not attained the standard which is elsewhere regarded as the highest. Though India has vast potential resources in the mineral world lying undeveloped, no facilities, I believe, exist at present for the advanced study of Mining Engineering in India and the only School of Mines is still in the stage of being constructed. The higher education of women also is still in its infancy. I have mentioned only a few instances out of many, not in a spirit of reproach because I am fully conscious of the great work that has been accomplished and of the difficulties that have been surmounted in the fields we have already explored, but with a desire to advance the ideal, with which I know you are all in sympathy, of striving to perfect our University education in India and to attain the highest possible standards.

I trust I have now made clear the special needs which my Government hopes may be served by this Conference and the directions in which the results of the Conference may be expected to benefit individual Universities and University education as a whole. If in some degree these expectations can be realised, we shall derive permanent advantages from this first Conference of Indian Universities.

Before I conclude, let me bring to your notice one aspect of the influence of Universities to which I attach the highest importance. I need not lay stress on the great part each University plays in the life of the local or provincial community or on the still more

important part Universities may be expected to play in the life of India as a whole, if by co-operation and mutual assistance between Universities those common ideals and that united strength and solidarity, for which we all hope, can be attained.

If I were to be asked what is the greatest service the Universities can perform for India, I should be in no doubt as to my answer—I should reply “to extend the Empire of reason in India until it is coterminous with the Empire of India itself.” It is a commonplace that one of the effects of University education should be to produce in the individual to a greater or lesser degree according to his capacity the power of forming a balanced judgment by the exercise of reason on a careful examination of ascertained facts. This should be the first characteristic of the scientifically trained and scholarly mind. A mind of this mould will first strive to determine whether the whole of the facts and the whole material necessary for decision have been marshalled for examination. The examination of the material will proceed by testing each component part and assigning to it its correct relative value to the whole. This process can only be successfully carried out by the operation of unbiassed reasoning and by banishing all shadow of prejudice and assumption from the test. In the end the accurate result is only attained by exercise of an untiring capacity for probing each feature of the case and of a passionate desire to find the truth. These are the mental processes which lead up to a reasoned judgment. Difficult as they may appear, they are nevertheless inherent in the powers of the human mind and only need cultivation to secure their growth and expansion. Without such cultivation, the mind is prone to rely excessively upon sentiment, intuition and impulse. Let me examine for a moment these springs of human action. Sentiment may be and indeed often is noble: It is universal; there is no mind so dull, no nature so callous that some spark of sentiment cannot be found in it; but sentiment alone is an unsafe guide to decision. It is too often exercised on an object before reason has time to ascertain whether the object is worthy of its exercise; it is nearly related to prejudice; by itself it is insufficient and unstable ballast for any nation; and by trusting to it alone nations have suffered the ship of state to wreck. To weather the storms and to bring the vessel into safe harbourage sentiment should be controlled and guided by reason. Intuition has its value; but for the individual or the nation it is a mental shortcut which offers no assured return to the highroad. If reason is sufficiently developed, it can reach with certainty that end which intuition may only occasionally attain. Impulse is closely allied to intuition and carries with it the same uncertainty. It is perhaps the commonest of all springs of human action; when not controlled by reason it is surely the most unsafe of all guides. Nevertheless sentiment, intuition and impulse have their bright moments. They do not resemble reason which like the sun shines with a light constant, uniform and lasting; for sentiment, intuition and impulse, although at times a spark of divine afflatus may

inspire them, are meteors, alas, only of uncertain lustre, irregular in motion and delusive in direction. It is a high function of University teaching to provide them with the sure light of the torch of reason, to hand it on from hand to hand until it has illumined the uttermost dark corners of this country and to spread abroad the beams of enlightenment and certainty where the mists of doubt now mask the light.

---

The Hon'ble Sir Narasimha Sarma thanked His Excellency on behalf of the delegates and the proceedings then terminated.

## CHAPTER II.

## Proceedings of May the 19th.

After the termination of the inaugural proceedings the delegates assembled in Committee Room B. The Hon'ble Sir Narasimha Sarma, Member of the Governor General's Council for Education, Health and Lands, addressed the delegates. He explained the purpose of the Government of India in summoning the Conference and expressed the hope that the deliberations of the delegates would contribute materially to the solution of the manifold problems attending university education in India. He then outlined the procedure to be adopted in the deliberations of the Conference. [Appendix A (i).]

The universities represented at the Conference proceeded to elect four Committees to consider and report on particular items of the agenda (p. iii) as follows:—

- Committee (i) on item (i) of the agenda;
- Committee (ii) on items (ii) and (xi) of the agenda;
- Committee (iii) on item (iii) of the agenda;
- Committee (iv) on items (iv) and (vi) of the agenda.

It was arranged that the first three Committees should meet on the morning of May the 20th and Committee (iv) on the same afternoon. The committees were composed as follows:—

## Committees.

University.	Committee (i).	Committee (ii).	Committee (iii).	Committee (iv).
Calcutta . . .	Dr. W. S. Erquhart	Prof. C. V. Raman	Prof. C. V. Raman	Sir Nilratan Sircar and Principal Maitra.
Bombay . . .	Mr. V. G. Kale . .	Mr. V. G. Kale . .	Mr. V. G. Kale . .	Sir Lalubhai Shah and Mr. V. G. Kale.
Madras . . .	Hon'ble Dr. E. M. Macphail.	Diwan Bahadur M. Ramachandrarao.	Hon'ble Mr. Natesan.	Mr. Littlehales and Hon'ble Dr. Macphail.
Punjab . . .	Mr. A. C. Woolner	Mr. Manohar Lal	Prof. S. R. Kashyap.	Khan Bahadur Mian Fazl-i-Hussain and Mr. Manohar Lal.
Allahabad . . .	Dr. Shafaat Ahmad Khan.	Prof. Burrell . .	Dr. N. R. Dhar . .	Dr. Ganesh Prasad and Dr. N. R. Dhar.
Benares Hindu . . .	Mr. A. B. Dhruva	Prof. P. Seshadri	Dr. Bhatnagar . .	Mr. Dhruva and Prof. L. D. Coeulant.
Mysore . . .	Mr. N. S. Subba Rao.	..	..	Mr. N. S. Subba Rao.
Patna . . .	Mr. H. Lambert . .	Mr. E. A. Horne . .	Mr. S. N. Sahay . .	Mr. Sultan Ahmad and Mr. S. N. Sahay.
Osmania . . .	Mr. Hydari . . .	Mr. Ross Masood	Mr. Ros Masood	Mr. Hydari and Mr. Ross Masood.
Aligarh Muslim . . .	Dr. A. S. Tritton	Dr. L. K. Hyder . .	Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad.	Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad and Dr. L. K. Hyder.
Rangoon . . .	..	Mr. L. G. Owen . .	..	Mr. A. Campbell.



University.	Committee (i).	Committee (ii).	Committee (iii).	Committee (iv).
Lucknow . . . . .	Dr. Radha Kumud Mookerji.	Dr. K. N. Bahl . . . . .	Dr. K. N. Bahl . . . . .	Dr. Radha Kumud Mookerji and Dr. K. N. Bahl.
Dacca . . . . .	Mr. P. J. Hartog . . . . .	Dr. J. C. Ghosh . . . . .	Dr. J. C. Ghosh . . . . .	Mr. P. J. Hartog and Dr. J. C. Ghosh.
Delhi . . . . .	Mr. Chablaui . . . . .	Dr. H. S. Gour . . . . .	Mr. Khub Ram . . . . .	Dr. H. S. Gour and Mr. Young.
Nagpur . . . . .	Mr. F. P. Tostevin . . . . .	Mr. G. G. R. Hunter.	..	Rao Bahadur V. R. Pandit and Mr. F. P. Tostevin.

In the afternoon the Conference reassembled at 2-30 P.M. Sir Narasimha Sarma explained that the proposals of the Lytton Committee on Indian students in England had been circulated to Local Governments and through them to universities for opinion. Mr. Hartog moved the following resolution:—

“ That this Conference considers the substitution of University Students’ Information Bureaux for Students’ Advisory Committees to be desirable.”

There was a general consensus of opinion in favour of adopting the resolution, but the question whether the universities might club together for the maintenance of these bureaux was raised by Dr. S. A. Khan who stated that in the United Provinces such an arrangement was contemplated in order to avoid expense. He explained that the United Provinces contained four Universities, and if each University were compelled to maintain a bureau, the result would be not one bureau would be really efficient, while the expenditure on their maintenance would be very great indeed. Sir Deva Prasad Sarvadhikary explained that the Lytton Committee had contemplated the establishment of direct relations between individual universities in India and in Great Britain.

After some discussion an amendment adding “ provided that two or more universities may, if they so desire, form a combined bureau ” was suggested and accepted by the proposer of the resolution.

There was further discussion as to whether the University Bureaux should confine themselves to university students strictly so called, or whether they should also concern themselves with other students not connected with the universities.

Rao Bahadur V. R. Pandit moved an amendment to add “ for the purpose of (i) supplying students, whether belonging to the University or not, but belonging to the area over which the University exercises jurisdiction, who wish to pursue their education abroad, with all the information, advice and assistance which they may require; (ii) of supplying foreign university authorities with the kind of information regarding students which will enable them to make their selections from the applications forwarded.”

In moving his amendment Rao Bahadur Pandit explained that in certain provinces intermediate education had been removed from

the control of universities and entrusted to boards. There must be a certain number of brilliant or at any rate deserving students who after completing their intermediate examination might desire to pursue their education abroad. Moreover, there were various competitive examinations held in England for which an age limit has been prescribed. Facilities for preparing for such examinations might be lacking in this country but assistance should be given to students who desired to go to England for preparation at the intermediate stage. The students' advisory committees which it was proposed to abolish catered for the needs of these students also.

After some discussion, the amendment was withdrawn, it having been pointed out that the new bureaux would take over the functions exercised by the present advisory committees of giving advice to any students who applied for such advice. The resolution was unanimously carried in this form:—

“ This Conference considers the substitution of University Students' Information Bureaux for Students' Advisory Committees to be desirable, provided that two or more universities may, if they so desire, form a combined bureau.” (Appendix C. 22.)

The following resolution was then moved by Mr. Hartog and seconded by Mr. Littlehailes:—

“ The constitution of the University Students' Information Bureaux is a matter for determination by the Universities and Local Governments concerned.”

An amendment was moved by Dr. Ganesh Prasad and seconded by Principal Maitra to omit the words “ and Local Governments concerned ” and to insert the word “ final ” before “ determination.” Mr. Horne pointed out that as Local Governments would be asked to finance the bureaux they would wish to be consulted as to their constitution. Sir Deva Prasad Sarvadhikary thought that the success of the bureaux might depend upon their being non-official in character as far as possible, but that there would be nothing to prevent officials who were on the university joining the bureaux as university men. This amendment was carried. The resolution was finally passed in the following form:—

“ The constitution of the University Students' Information Bureaux is a matter for final determination by the Universities.” (Appendix C. 23.)

Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad moved that there should be a central agency in India and a central agency in London. In view of the importance of this question the Chairman suggested that it might first be submitted for consideration to Committee number (ii). This was agreed to.

On the motion of Dr. Macphail item (vi) was remitted to Committee number (iv).

The Conference then adjourned till Wednesday, May the 21st, at 10-30 A.M.

### CHAPTER III.

#### Proceedings of May the 20th.

The results of the deliberations of the Committees were presented in the following form:—

Committee (i) assembled at 10-30 A.M. on May the 20th, 1924.

The following members were present:—

Dr. W. S. Urquhart . . . . .	Calcutta University.
Mr. V. G. Kale . . . . .	Bombay University.
The Hon'ble Dr. E. M. Macphail	Madras University.
Mr. A. C. Woolner . . . . .	Punjab University.
Dr. S. A. Khan . . . . .	Allahabad University.
Mr. A. B. Dhruva . . . . .	Benares Hindu University.
Mr. N. S. Subba Rao . . . . .	Mysore University.
Mr. H. Lambert . . . . .	Patna University.
Mr. A. Hydari . . . . .	Osmania University.
Dr. A. S. Tritton . . . . .	Aligarh Muslim University.
Dr. R. K. Mookerji . . . . .	Lucknow University.
Mr. P. J. Hartog . . . . .	Dacca University.
Mr. Chablani . . . . .	Delhi University.
Mr. F. P. Tostevin . . . . .	Nagpur University.

#### RESOLUTIONS.

##### *Method of selection of teachers.*

(1) That it is desirable that whatever may be the appointing authority teachers should be selected by a small selection committee which in the case of major appointments should contain experts who are not teachers or officers of the university or of the colleges under its jurisdiction.

(2) That such a committee should consist of the Vice-Chancellor and representatives of the executive and academic bodies in addition to the external experts in the case of major appointments.

(3) That it is desirable that the total number of members of such a committee should not ordinarily exceed 9.

Proposer—Dr. E. M. Macphail. Second—Mr. Chablani.

##### *Terms of appointment of teachers.*

(4) That it is desirable that in order to secure the best men available university teachers should have security of tenure and

that appointments should be permanent with an age limit of 55 or 60 years; in order, however, to safeguard the interests of the universities such appointments should, except in the case of experienced men who have already gained distinction in their subject, be in the first instance for a term of three years and be subject to confirmation at the end of that period.

Proposer—Mr. Hartog.

Secunder—Dr. Urquhart.

(5) That the foregoing arrangements should not exclude the establishment of short-term appointments in special cases.

Proposer—Mr. Hydari.

Secunder—Dr. S. A. Khan.

*Salaries and leave of teachers.*

(6) That in view of the disparity of conditions the Conference does not think it either possible or desirable to make any recommendations regarding salaries or leave for university teachers, but they regard it as desirable that this matter should be considered by any permanent inter-university organisation which may be formed.

Proposer—Dr. R. K. Mookerji. Secunder—Mr. V. G. Kale.

*Provident Fund for teachers and officers.*

(7) That it is desirable that there should be a provident fund for whole-time permanent teachers and officers of every university, to which the persons concerned and the universities should contribute.

(8) That the contribution of the subscriber should not be less than  $6\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. (one anna in the rupee) and that of the university not less than 10 per cent. of the salary in each case.

Proposer—Mr. A. B. Dhruva. Secunder—Mr. F. P. Tostevin.

(9) That this Conference recommends, for the favourable consideration of any permanent inter-university organisation which may be established, the foundation of a common provident fund for Indian universities on lines similar to, though not necessarily identical with, those of the Federated Superannuation Fund of the British universities.

Proposer—Mr. P. J. Hartog. Secunder—Dr. A. S. Tritton.

*Exchange of university teachers.*

(10) That the Conference approves in principle the exchange of teachers between different universities, the details being settled in every case by the universities concerned.

(11) That in the opinion of the Conference it is desirable that universities in India should combine to invite distinguished teachers from abroad to deliver courses of lectures at different centres; and that the further consideration of this question be referred to any permanent inter-university organisation that may be founded.

Proposer—Mr. N. S. Subba Rao. Secunder—Mr. V. G. Kale.

*Notice of termination of appointments by university teachers.*

(12) That in the opinion of the Conference there should be a mutual understanding between universities to the effect that whole-time university teachers should not ordinarily be at liberty to determine their appointments without giving six months' notice.

Proposer—Mr. A. C. Woolner. Seconder—Mr. Chablani.

E. MONTEITH MACPHAIL,  
*Chairman.*

Committee (ii) assembled at 10-30 A.M. on May the 20th, 1924.

The following members were present:—

Professor C. V. Raman	. . .	Calcutta University.
M. Ramachandrarao, Bahadur	. . .	Diwan Madras University.
Mr. Manohar Lal	. . .	Punjab University.
Professor P. S. Burrell	. . .	Allahabad University.
Professor P. Seshadri	. . .	Benares Hindu University.
Mr. E. A. Horne	. . .	Patna University.
Mr. Ross Masood	. . .	Osmania University.
Dr. L. K. Hyder	. . .	Aligarh Muslim University.
Mr. L. G. Owen	. . .	Rangoon University.
Dr. K. N. Bahl	. . .	Lucknow University.
Dr. J. C. Ghosh	. . .	Dacca University.
Dr. H. S. Gour	. . .	Delhi University.
Mr. G. G. R. Hunter	. . .	Nagpur University.

Dr. H. S. Gour was elected to the chair and Professor P. Seshadri, Secretary to the Committee.

With reference to item (ri) proposal to form some permanent inter-university organisation, the following resolutions were passed:—

I. That it is necessary to have a central agency in India—

- (a) to act as an inter-university organisation and bureau of information;
- (b) to facilitate the exchange of professors and students;
- (c) to assist in the co-ordination of university work and the promotion of specialisation of functions:

- (d) to assist Indian universities in obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations in other countries :
- (e) to appoint or recommend, where necessary, a common representative or representatives of India at Imperial or international conferences on higher education :
- (f) to act as a bureau for appointments in Indian universities.

II. That the central agency be constituted as follows :—

- (1) The Board should consist of one representative appointed by each university.
- (2) The members will hold office for three years.
- (3) The Government of India may nominate from time to time a representative to attend meetings of the Board in an advisory capacity.
- (4) The headquarters of the Board should be at the capital of India, but the Board should meet at such centres as may be decided by the Board from time to time (Professor C. V. Raman, Dr. J. C. Ghosh and Diwan Bahadur Ramaehandrarao dissenting).
- (5) Half the cost of the maintenance of the Board should be met by the Government of India and the other half by equal contributions from the universities.
- (6) The Committee estimates that the annual cost of the maintenance of the central office of the Board is not likely to exceed Rs. 30,000 for the next few years, excluding the travelling allowances of members.
- (7) The Committee expects universities to pay the travelling expenses of their own representatives.

III. That the Government of India be requested to intimate to the International Committee of the League of Nations on Intellectual Co-operation that the proposed inter-university organisation should be recognised as an institution which the International Committee should consult with a view to the formation of an Indian National Committee.

With regard to item (ii) the following resolutions were passed :—

- I. The Committee recommends that universities should facilitate the issue of books to professors of other universities under such safeguards as may be necessary.

- II. The Committee does not think it practicable to make any recommendation with regard to the exchange and gift of books among Indian universities.
- III. The Committee recommends that the India Office, the Government of India and the Provincial Governments should supply all their publications free of cost to each university in India.
- IV. The Committee recommends that the libraries of the Imperial Government should be accessible wherever possible to professors of Indian universities.

With regard to item (xi) (a) and (b) the following resolutions were passed:—

- I. That it be recommended to the Government of India, that with a view to promote co-operation among Indian universities in higher scientific studies and research and to advise the Government of India from time to time generally with regard to the promotion of scientific research in India, a central advisory board for scientific research be constituted in India comprising the heads of scientific Departments of the Government of India and a representative of science nominated by each of the Indian universities.
- II. The Committee is of opinion that economy in university finances and increase of efficiency will be rendered possible by the co-ordination of post-graduate studies in Indian universities, especially in provinces containing more than one university. (Professor C. V. Raman, Dr. J. C. Ghosh, Diwan Bahadur Ramachandrarao, Dr. L. K. Hyder and Dr. K. N. Bahl desired their dissent to this resolution to be recorded.)

The Committee then adjourned for lunch and resolved to meet at 2-45 P.M.

P. SESHADRI,  
*Secretary.*

H. S. GOUR,  
*Chairman.*

## Committee (ii) reassembled at 2-45 P.M.

## PRESENT.

Dr. H. S. Gour (in the Chair).  
 Professor C. V. Raman.  
 Diwan Bahadur M. Ramachandrarao.  
 Professor P. S. Burrell.  
 Mr. E. A. Horne.  
 Mr. L. G. Owen.  
 Mr. G. G. R. Hunter.  
 Professor P. Seshadri (*Secretary*).

Mr. J. W. Bhore, I.C.S., Secretary to the Government of India in the Department of Education, Health and Lands, was also present by special invitation.

The following resolutions were passed with regard to the second part of item (v):—

I. That the proposed Indian Universities' Bureaux may continue to use the existing organisation in England which might in future be termed the Education Department of the High Commissioner's Office.

II. The question of forming a separate central agency in England for Indian Universities be deferred till further experience has been gained of the working of the proposed University Bureaux.

The Chairman nominated the following members of the Committee to move the various resolutions to be put before the general Conference:—

First set of propositions relating to the functions of the Inter-University Board—to be moved by Dr. Gour. Second set of propositions with regard to the constitution of the Board—to be moved by Mr. Horne. Third proposition with regard to co-operation with the International League—Mr. Hunter. Propositions with regard to item (ii)—Professor Seshadri. First proposition with regard to items (a) and (b) of item (xi) about the constitution of a central advisory board for scientific research in India—Professor Raman. Second proposition with regard to (a) and (b) of item (xi) on the co-ordination of post-graduate studies in Indian Universities—Professor P. S. Burrell. Proposition no. I with regard to the second part of item (v)—Diwan Bahadur M. Ramachandrarao. Second proposition with regard to the second part of item (v)—Mr. Hunter.

The meeting dispersed with a vote of thanks to the Chair and to the Secretary proposed by Professor Burrell.

P. SESHADRI,  
*Secretary,*

H. S. GOUR,  
*Chairman.*



Committee (iii) assembled at 10-30 A.M.

The following members were present:—

Professor S. R. Kashyap (Chairman)	.	.	.	Punjab University.
Professor C. V. Raman	.	.	.	Calcutta University.
Hon'ble Mr. G. A. Natesan	.	.	.	Madras University.
Dr. N. R. Dhar	.	.	.	Allahabad University.
Dr. S. S. Bhatnagar	.	.	.	Benares Hindu University.
Mr. S. N. Sahay	.	.	.	Patna University.
Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad	.	.	.	Aligarh Muslim University.
Dr. K. N. Bahl	.	.	.	Lucknow University.
Mr. Khub'Ram	.	.	.	Delhi University.

The following resolutions were unanimously adopted.

1. This Committee is of opinion that it is not desirable to have a single Journal of Science for the whole of India but that there should be All-India Journals dealing with special branches of knowledge.

(To be moved by the Hon'ble Mr. Natesan, and seconded by Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad.)

2. This Committee considers it desirable that the Journals of the Indian Botanical Society and of the Indian Chemical Society, which are already in existence and which are run on an All-India inter-university basis, should be encouraged and supported by the Government and the universities.

(To be moved by Dr. N. R. Dhar, and seconded by Dr. Bhatnagar.)

3. This Committee is of opinion that the Records of the Indian Museum (A Journal of Indian Zoology), the Records of the Botanical Survey of India, Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India and the Agricultural Journal of India, now run by Government, should have on their Editorial Boards expert representatives of the various universities and that the scope of these journals should be enlarged.

(To be moved by Dr. K. N. Bahl, and seconded by Mr. S. N. Sahay.)

4. This Committee considers it desirable that the Indian Science Congress be requested to make efforts to start a combined Journal for Physics and Mathematics on an All-India basis on the lines of the Journals of the Indian Botanical Society and the Indian Chemical Society and that the Government and the universities be requested to encourage and support the same.

(To be moved by Mr. Khub Ram, and seconded by Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad.)

5. This Committee considers it desirable that the Government of India should organise the publication of a scientific journal dealing with the sciences for which specific provision is not otherwise made.

(To be moved by Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad, and seconded by Mr. Khub Ram.)

SHIV RAM KASHYAP,

Chairman.

Committee (*iv*) met at 2-30 P.M. on May the 20th, 1924.

Mr. A. Hydari (Chairman)	Osmania University.
Sir Nilratan Sircar . . . . .	Calcutta University.
Principal H. C. Maitra . . . . .	Calcutta University.
Sir Lalubhai Shah . . . . .	Bombay University.
Mr. V. G. Kale . . . . .	Bombay University.
Mr. B. Littlehales . . . . .	Madras University.
The Hon'ble Dr. E. M. Macphail	Madras University.
Khan Bahadur Mian Fazl-i-Hussain . . . . .	Punjab University.
Mr. Manohar Lal . . . . .	Punjab University.
Dr. Ganesh Prasad . . . . .	Allahabad University.
Dr. N. R. Dhar . . . . .	Allahabad University.
Mr. A. B. Dhruva . . . . .	Benares Hindu University.
Mr. L. D. Coueslant . . . . .	Benares Hindu University.
Mr. N. S. Subba Rao . . . . .	Mysore University.
Mr. Sultan Ahmad . . . . .	Patna University.
Mr. S. N. Sahay . . . . .	Patna University.
Mr. Ross Masood . . . . .	Osmania University.
Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad . . . . .	Aligarh Muslim University.
Dr. L. K. Hyder . . . . .	Aligarh Muslim University.
Mr. A. Campbell . . . . .	Rangoon University.
Dr. R. K. Mookerji . . . . .	Lucknow University.
Dr. K. N. Bahl . . . . .	Lucknow University.
Mr. P. J. Hartog . . . . .	Dacca University.
Dr. J. C. Ghosh . . . . .	Dacca University.
Dr. H. S. Gour . . . . .	Delhi University.
Mr. P. N. F. Young . . . . .	Delhi University.
Rao Bahadur V. R. Pandit . . . . .	Nagpur University.
Mr. F. P. Tostevin . . . . .	Nagpur University.

The following resolutions were passed:—

- (1) “ That it be recommended to the Conference that mutual recognition of degrees and examinations by Indian Universities be encouraged.”

(To be moved by Mr. Dhruva.)

- (2) “ That this Conference recommends that candidates appearing for the post-graduate, M.A. or M.Sc. degree examination at an Indian University be allowed credit for the attendance and work at another university, provided that at least one academical year has been spent at the university at which the degree is taken.”

(To be moved by Mr. N. S. Subba Rao.)

The following resolution was moved by Mr. N. S. Subba Rao, but it was decided on the score of the lateness of the hour that the matter should be taken up at the main Conference:—

“ That this Conference is of opinion that the new regulations of affiliation of the Cambridge and Oxford Universities are less favourable to Indian students than those in force hitherto, and recommends that—

- (1) The authorities of the Cambridge and Oxford Universities be moved to accept, for purposes of affiliation, Indian degrees which require the study of *one* language, in addition to English, that language being—

(a) Sanskrit, Pali, Arabic, or Persian in the case of affiliation to the Cambridge University.

(b) Sanskrit, Pali, Arabic, Persian, French or German (or an Indian vernacular) in the case of affiliation to the Oxford University.

- (2) That the authorities of the Cambridge University be moved to grant graduates of an Indian University who have not obtained first or second class honours the status and privileges granted to them by the Oxford University, *viz.*, those of a junior student.”

**CHAPTER IV.****Proceedings of May the 21st.**

The Conference resumed its session at 10-30 A.M. under the presidency of the Hon'ble Sir Narasimha Sarma.

Colonel R. J. Collins, C.M.G., D.S.O., and Colonel J. C. Freeland representing the Army Department were present.

The first item which came up for discussion was the recognition of the final examination of the Prince of Wales' College, Dehra Dun, as equivalent to the Intermediate Examination.

Colonel Collins explained the point of view of the military authorities and the curriculum of the Prince of Wales' College, and stated that it was hoped that for the majority of cadets a Sandhurst career would be available. But the military authorities were anxious that students who for medical or other reasons were unable to proceed to Sandhurst should not be handicapped in the search for other careers. It was for such students, whose numbers must necessarily increase with the increase in the number of students on the roll, that some recognition by the universities of the diploma of the Prince of Wales' College, Dehra Dun, was asked for.

The Chairman explained that the principal object of placing this item on the agenda was to open up the subject and to place the authorities at Dehra Dun in touch with the university bodies. A general discussion took place. Several speakers pointed out that it was difficult to decide upon the equivalence of examinations, without a detailed scrutiny of the Dehra Dun syllabus. The general sense of the Conference was one of sympathy and desire to assist the military authorities in solving the problem of the careers of those cadets who failed to qualify for the Army. The suggestion was made that "military training" at Dehra Dun should count as one of the subjects for the purpose of equivalence with the Intermediate Examination. It was pointed out that the question of equivalence was one that could only be finally decided by individual universities.

The Conference then proceeded to examine the question of admitting students of Indian universities to direct King's Commissions on the system adopted at Oxford and Cambridge.

Dr. Ganesh Prasad urged that the Conference should record its strong opinion that Government should admit students of Indian universities to direct King's Commissions on the Oxford and Cambridge principle. Colonel Collins explained that King's Commissions were only given to university students on the direct recommendation

of the Army Council, and said that it was very doubtful if this power could be delegated. He felt sure that the best preparation for Indian officers was through the Prince of Wales' College; where particular care was directed towards building up the stamina necessary for the arduous duties of military life. Dr. Gour proposed that the Conference should pass a resolution asking Government to establish university corps in all universities with the idea of fostering direct recruitment for King's Commissions in the Indian Army from among Indian University graduates.

The President suggested that their purpose would be served if the fact were recorded that the Conference was by a majority of opinion that the university authorities would gladly co-operate with the Governmental authorities in any scheme that might be instituted for direct recruitment on the lines adopted in the British universities.

Mr. Campbell suggested that the military authorities might be asked to institute examinations equivalent to those for the certificates A and B of the Officers Training Corps in England, as a first step towards the institution of University Commissions.

After some further discussion the President's suggestion was accepted, and the majority opinion of the Conference was recorded as stated above.

University Training Corps.      The Conference then passed on to the  
(Item vii.)                              question of University Training Corps.

Mr. Woolner explained some of the practical difficulties attending the task of finding time for military training in the short cold weather season consistently with the claims of academic work. There were also certain difficulties connected with discipline. Short of very drastic penalties, the Commander had really no power save reprimand. The college authorities in some cases were willing to co-operate by bringing college discipline to bear. He enquired what was being done elsewhere. He also dealt with the exceptional cases of men who took very readily to the training and wanted to join the regular army. It would be an excellent thing if some direct avenues were provided for these men.

Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad described the keenness of the Aligarh students, but deplored delays and the poor response on the part of the Government in the matter of equipment.

Dr. Bahl stated that in the United Provinces instead of 16 platoons there were only 8. Uniforms and equipment were delayed. Rifles had been promised but not issued. No annual camps had so far been held, despite repeated requests. Mr. Dhruva also joined in the complaint on behalf of the Benares Hindu University.

Mr. Hartog said that the experience of Dacca was even less favourable than elsewhere. No final answer had been received to the request made more than a year ago for the establishment of a university corps despite repeated reminders.

Mr. Littlehailes stated that from Madras there were no grievances. There was a very general interest among the public; without this, the university itself could hardly have got things going. They had difficulties in getting officers for the platoons: and they had also some difficulty in the matter of discipline, due to the sensitive character of the Indian student. They had found it best to go gently at first, and to establish discipline through *esprit de corps*.

Mr. Sultan Ahmad stated that Patna was doing well; and had no grounds for complaint either against the students or the military authorities. He suggested that the universities should recognise the military training of cadets as a subject for university purposes.

Dr. Hyder complained of insufficient response on the part of the military authorities.

Mr. Campbell proposed that this Conference recommends to the military authorities:—

- “ (1) the institution of A and B certificates in University Training Corps and the overhauling of the system of granting commissions in the University Training Corps;
- “ (2) that a central information body be set up to co-ordinate and bring into touch the University Training Corps in various places;
- “ (3) that the military authorities add to their subventions for the purpose of training camps, etc., and that the universities should supplement these funds.”

He also recommended:—

- “ (4) that some effort should be made to ensure closer working between the University Training Corps and the battalions of the Territorial Force;
- “ (5) that sapper and medical units should be encouraged;
- “ (6) that Anglo-Indians should be permitted to enter the University Training Corps;
- “ (7) that universities should take the holding of A and B certificates into account in estimating the work of students in examinations;
- “ (8) that the military authorities should hold out facilities to the University Training Corps to take part in inter-army rifle meetings and the like.”

Dr. Ganesh Prasad pointed out some difficulties in recognising military training as part of the degree course. Professor Burrell emphasised this point. Sir D. P. Sarvadhikary and Dr. Gour on the other hand supported the principle that the universities should directly encourage University Training Corps by recognising military training in their courses.

Colonel Freeland explained certain points regarding training camps, discipline and the like. He would be willing to take up the

question of the disciplinary powers of the Commanding Officers, if practical suggestions were put up to him; but this particular difficulty had not been represented to him before. The A and B certificates might, he thought, help towards direct Viceroy's Commissions and the military authorities would consider the institution of such certificates sympathetically. One difficulty about the University Training Corps was the limitation of the total Territorial Force strength to 20,000; and though he was a firm believer in the University Training Corps on educational grounds, it must be remembered that it was of no military value. He then dealt with various matters affecting individual universities.

The resolutions proposed by Mr. Campbell were passed *nem. con.* with the exception of no. 7 upon which a vote was taken. This was carried by 22 votes to 10. (Appendix C. 26—34.)

Modern languages in University curricula. The Conference then passed on to item (x). Mr. Dhruva moved:—

“ That this Conference is of opinion (a) that composition in a modern Indian language be prescribed as a compulsory subject at the Matriculation or Admission examination, the Intermediate examinations in Arts and Science and the B.A. and B.Sc. examinations;

“ (b) that a modern Indian language and literature be recognised as an optional subject at the Intermediate Arts and Bachelor of Arts and Master of Arts examinations.”

In the course of his remarks the mover pointed out how the education of Indian youths remained barren for want of sufficient command over their mother tongue. Moreover, the Indian vernaculars, he said, provided a rich field for linguistic and literary research, and were thus a fit subject for university recognition and encouragement.

Dr. Macphail moved to omit the prescription in the case of the B.A. and B.Sc. as he thought that a student should be at liberty to choose his own subjects of study for his degree. The amendment was carried, and both parts of the motion as amended were carried. (Appendix C. 35.)

Dr. J. C. Ghosh moved that “ in the interests of those students taking an Honours or Post-Graduate degree in Science, facilities should be provided by Indian universities for the study of French and German.” The motion was seconded by Professor C. V. Raman. Principal Maitra moved as an amendment that the words “ or arts ” should be inserted after the word “ science.” The amendment was carried.

Mr. Hunter moved that the word “ Russian ” be inserted after the word “ French ” in view of the recent contribution of Russia to political and economic theory and of the proximity of Russia to India. The amendment was not seconded.

The original resolution of Dr. Ghosh as amended was carried *nem. con.* (Appendix C. 36.)

The Conference then adjourned for lunch.

The Conference resumed its session at 2-30 P.M. and proceeded to discuss the recommendations of Committee number (i).

Appointment of University Teachers. Dr. Macphail moved and Mr. Chablani seconded the following resolutions:—

“ That it is desirable that whatever may be the appointing authority teachers should be selected by a small selection committee which in the case of major appointments should contain experts who are not teachers or officers of the university or of the colleges under its jurisdiction.

“ That such committee should consist of the Vice-Chancellor and representatives of the executive and academic bodies in addition to external experts in the case of major appointments.

“ That it is desirable that the total number of members of such a committee should not ordinarily exceed nine.”

These were carried unanimously. (Appendix C. 1—3.)

Mr. Hartog moved and Dr. Urquhart seconded the following resolution:—

“ That it is desirable that in order to secure the best men available, university teachers should have security of tenure and that appointments should be permanent, with an age limit of 55 or 60 years; in order however to safeguard the interests of the universities, such appointments should, except in the case of experienced men who have already gained distinction in their subject, be in the first instance for a term of three years and be subject to confirmation at the end of that period.”

Mr. Hartog pointed out that in India the universities competed with Government service in which there was practically security of tenure and unless some similar security of tenure were provided by the universities, Government would always have the best men and the universities the second best. On the other hand, Committee number (i) were of opinion that permanency of appointment should not be given to young men until they had proved that they were adequate to the posts to which they were appointed, and they recommended, therefore, that all appointments should be made, in the first instance, for a term of three years only, and be subject to confirmation at the end of that period, except in the case of men who had already gained distinction\* in the subject of the appointment—men whom it would not be possible to secure in many instances, unless they were offered such security of tenure at the outset. The proposals made by the Committee were on the lines adopted by the University of London.

\* (Distinction in a subject was not intended to mean distinction obtained at examinations.)



The resolution was carried. (Appendix C. 4.)

Mr. Hydari moved and Dr. S. A. Khan seconded:—

“ That the foregoing arrangements should not exclude the establishment of short-term appointments in special cases.”

This was carried. (Appendix C. 5.)

Mr. Owen moved:—

“ That it is desirable that university teachers be exempted from language tests, except when such tests have a direct bearing on the work for which they have been appointed.”

Mr. Owen quoted the case of a valuable professor who had failed three times to pass in Burmese. Professor Raman seconded the resolution, which was carried. (Appendix C. 7.)

Dr. R. K. Mookerji moved and Mr. V. G. Kale seconded:—

“ That in view of the disparity of conditions the Conference does not think that it is either possible or desirable to make any recommendations regarding salary or leave for university teachers, but it regards it as desirable that this matter should be considered by any permanent inter-university organisation which may be formed.”

In moving the resolution Dr. Mookerji pointed out the disparity of conditions and resources of different universities which stood in the way of any uniform treatment or simple solution of the problems indicated. He instanced, in particular, the munificent endowments offered to the Calcutta University by the late Sir Rashbehari Ghose and Sir Taraknath Palit under which university professorships carrying different salaries ranging from Rs. 500 to Rs. 1,000 and upwards were created. It would be premature in the present stage of university development in India to try to fix any rigid and absolute minimum of salary for the title and status of a university professor or reader. The autonomy of the universities which differ so much as regards their local conditions, traditions, resources, and even their difficulties and prospects should be left untouched in this matter. Even at Oxford or Cambridge university chairs created by endowments have different salaries depending on the amount of the endowments. According to indigenous educational ideals of India, the status and the honour due to a teacher should not depend upon his pay alone. There are some prominent institutions which are endeavouring to organise the available moral resources of the country—the spirit of self-sacrifice and enthusiasm for public service—for the promotion of education, and such endeavours should be given full scope.

Principal Maitra moved the omission of words “ but they regard it as desirable that this matter should be considered by any permanent inter-university organisation which may be formed.” After

discussion the amendment was lost and the original motion carried. (Appendix C. 8.)

Mr. Woolner moved and Mr. Hartog seconded:—

“That in the opinion of the Conference there should be a mutual understanding between universities to the effect that whole-time university teachers should not ordinarily be at liberty to determine their appointments without giving six months' notice.”

The resolution was carried. (Appendix C. 6.)

Provident Funds. Mr. Dhruva moved and Mr. Tostevin seconded:—

“That it is desirable that there should be a provident fund for whole-time permanent teachers and officers of every university to which the persons concerned and the universities should contribute.”

“That it is desirable that the contribution of the subscriber should not be less than  $6\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. (one anna in the rupee) and that of the University not less than 10 per cent. of the salary in each case.”

The mover characterised the subject of his motion as a beneficent measure, absolutely necessary in order to ensure that atmosphere of freedom from anxiety which was essential for good educational work.

These resolutions were both carried. (Appendix C. 9—10.)

Mr. Hartog moved and Dr. Tritton seconded:—

“That the Conference recommends for the favourable consideration of any permanent inter-university organisation which may be established the foundation of a common provident fund for Indian universities on lines similar to, though not necessarily identical with, those of the Federated Superannuation Fund of the British universities.”

Mr. Hartog explained that some years ago the Government in England, with the concurrence of the universities, had framed a superannuation scheme which all universities were at liberty to join and which had been joined by the majority of the British universities. He had not the available details of the scheme but the general provisions were somewhat as follows:—For all persons whose lives were insurable an endowment insurance was taken out by the University concerned for each beneficiary. Towards the cost of this insurance the universities originally contributed 5 per cent., and each beneficiary 5 per cent. of his salary. The sum produced was, however, found to be insufficient and some years ago the contribution of the universities was raised to 10 per cent. which is the figure now adopted.

When a teacher left one of the universities belonging to the scheme to go to another university, the second university took over the responsibility originally taken by the first university and thus the transference of the teacher from one of the universities to another was effected without loss in respect of the life insurance scheme, either to the university or to the teacher. Migration of teachers from one university to another was common in England, it being the ordinary practice for the higher posts in a university to be filled by teachers who had achieved distinction in another university, generally in a post of less importance.

Special provision was made in the scheme for persons whose lives were not insurable.

The speaker thought that the English scheme would need careful study in order to make it adaptable to Indian conditions, but Committee member (i) and he believed that it would be of very great advantage to India if a common scheme could be adopted which would allow the migration of teachers from one university to another without affecting provident fund arrangements.

The resolution was carried. (Appendix C. 11.)

Professor Seshadri moved and Mr. Hartog seconded:—

“ That the Government of India be requested to apply the provisions of the Provident Funds Act of 1897 to the Provident Funds of Indian universities established by the Legislature and exempt contribution so made to them from payment of income-tax.”

Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad and Dr. Marphait also supported, the latter hoping that provident funds attached to affiliated colleges might also enjoy the privilege at an early date.

This resolution was carried. (Appendix C. 12.)

Exchange of Professors. Mr. Subba Rao moved and Mr. V. G. Kale seconded:—

“ That this Conference approves on principle the exchange of teachers between different universities, the details being settled in every case by the universities concerned.”

Mr. Subba Rao said that the principle underlying the resolution had been accepted not only by all the universities in India with which the Mysore University had corresponded on the subject, but also by important bodies abroad. The League of Nations Committee for Intellectual Co-operation recommended that “ each of the National Committees is to endeavour in its own country to encourage as much as possible the development of the system of interchange among professors and lecturers, not only for short series of lectures but also for courses of lecturing and practical teaching of longer duration.” It was also well known that the Carnegie Endowment subsidised exchange of professors among the universities of the United States and even between different countries. For example,

recently a professor of the Baroda College had gone to Nebraska and the Nebraska professor had come to Baroda.

The resolution was carried. (Appendix C. 13.)

External lecturers.

Mr. Subba Rao then moved and Mr. Kale seconded:—

“That in the opinion of the Conference it is desirable that universities in India should combine to invite distinguished teachers from abroad to deliver courses of lectures at different centres; and that the further consideration of this question be referred to any permanent inter-university organisation that may be founded.”

Mr. Subba Rao said it was most desirable in the interests of economy that several Indian universities should arrange jointly for the visits of distinguished teachers from abroad, as thereby they could share the heavy travelling expenses. Such visits could also be arranged on some system, so as to give the benefit of such visits to a number of universities.

This resolution was carried. (Appendix C. 14.)

The Conference then passed on to consider the report of Committee number (ii).

Inter-borrowing of books and manuscripts. Professor Seshadri moved and Diwan Bahadur Ramachandrarao seconded the following resolutions which were all passed:—

- (i) “That universities should facilitate the issue of books and manuscripts to professors of other universities under such safeguards as may be necessary, though it is not practicable to make any recommendation with regard to the exchange and gift of books among Indian universities.” (Appendix C. 15.)
- (ii) “That the India Office, the Government of India and the provincial governments should supply copies of all their publications free of cost to each university in India.” (Appendix C. 16.)
- (iii) “That the libraries of the Imperial Government should be accessible, where possible, to professors of Indian universities.” (Appendix C. 17.)

## CHAPTER V.

## Proceedings of May the 21st (concluded) and of May the 22nd.

Inter-University Board.  
(Item xi.)

Dr. Gour moved and Diwan Bahadur Ramachandrarao seconded—

“That it is necessary to have a central agency in India—

- “ (a) to act as an inter-university organisation and a bureau of information;
- “ (b) to facilitate the exchange of professors and students;
- “ (c) to assist in the co-ordination of university work and the promotion of specialisation of functions;
- “ (d) to assist Indian universities in obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations in other countries;
- “ (e) to appoint or recommend, where necessary, a common representative or representatives of India at Imperial or international conferences on higher education;
- “ (f) to act as a bureau of appointments in Indian universities.”

The discussion on this resolution was taken clause by clause.

To clause (a) Dr. Ganesh Prasad moved an amendment to add the words “which should be of a purely advisory character.” Dr. Gour explained that such was in fact the intention of the resolution he had moved. Mr. Hartog pointed out that the adoption of Dr. Ganesh Prasad's amendment would deprive universities of the power to use the board as an agency if they wished to do so. Sir John Maynard suggested that the object of the mover of the amendment would be met by the addition of the phrase “which should be of an advisory and ministerial character.” Dr. Ganesh Prasad was prepared to accept this amendment, but the majority of delegates did not feel the need for such a qualifying phrase as the functions of the Board were sufficiently detailed in the succeeding clauses and the original resolution namely “it is necessary to have a central agency in India (a) to act as an inter-university organisation and bureau of information” was carried.

From clause (b) Dr. Macphail moved for the omission of the words “and students” as these words appeared to encourage the migration of under-graduate students from one university to another which was not desirable. The amendment was seconded by Mr. Littlehailes and accepted *nem con.*

Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya moved that the whole of clause (b) should be omitted. He said that each university best knew what help it would welcome from another university, and also which of

its professors it could send out on deputation. Two universities could therefore best decide the question of an exchange of professors, and the terms and conditions upon which they could do so, by direct correspondence with each other. It was not necessary—it would only cause delay—if the proposals had to pass through a central agency. In support of Dr. Gour's motion it was pointed out that the resolution only used the word "facilitate" and that it would not be incumbent on any university to employ the services of the Board for this purpose unless it desired to do so. This amendment was rejected by a majority and the resolution as amended by Dr. Macphail was passed. The Conference then adjourned.

The Conference resumed its session at 10-30 A.M. on May, the 22nd, the Hon'ble Sir Narasimha Sarma in the Chair. The consideration of Dr. Gour's resolution regarding the functions of the Inter-University Board was resumed at clause (c) which ran:—

“to assist in the co-ordination of university work and the promotion of specialisation of functions.”

Dr. Ganesh Prasad moved that for the words “to assist in” the following words be substituted “to serve as an authorised channel of communication between universities for” and that the second part of the clause, *i.e.*, “and the promotion of specialisation of functions” be omitted. The two parts of this amendment were discussed separately.

Against the first part of the amendment it was argued by Rai Bahadur V. R. Pandit and others that its acceptance would reduce the functions of the Board to that of a post office, and that so far from assisting universities it would only serve to delay inter-communication. At the same time it was felt by several speakers that the words “to assist in” left the powers and duties of the Board too vague. An amendment was moved by Dr. Urquhart to substitute the following words “to serve as an authorised channel of communication and to facilitate the co-ordination of university work.” This amendment was carried *nem con.*

The omission of the words “and the promotion of specialisation of functions” was supported by Professor Raman and by Mr. Hartog, the latter of whom pointed out that their inclusion in the resolution suggested an intention to inhibit universities from developing to their fullest capacity. Mr. Hartog said that specialisation would be best achieved by the distribution of grants from a central body to encourage development on individual lines and not by any system of inhibition.

Dr. R. K. Mookerji was also in favour of the omission of these words and read out an extract from the Report of the Royal Commission on Oxford and Cambridge Universities, presided over by Mr. Asquith, to show how the principle was therein recognised that the universities should be self-contained as centres of learning, cultivating equally the humanities and the sciences in the interests of culture itself. The position was accordingly taken that Oxford

should lead as much in the sciences as the equal of Cambridge as she has done in the humanities.

Dr. S. A. Khan while giving his cordial support to the principle enunciated in the resolution, warned the Conference against the possibility of the misuse of the term "co-ordination," and "specialisation." He recognised the need for specialisation, but showed that "co-ordination," if not clearly defined may—he did not say, it is bound to—lead to retrenchment of expenditure on universities. "Co-ordination" might come to mean a cutting down of expenditure on the maintenance of university chairs, and research scholarships. He, however, supported the resolution, as he was aware that the resources of some of the universities were frittered away on the maintenance of professorships and readerships in subjects for which there was no real demand.

The amendment to omit these words was carried by a majority.

Clause (d) "to assist Indian universities in obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations in other countries" was passed without discussion.

For clause (e) "to appoint or recommend, where necessary, a common representative or representatives of India at Imperial or international conferences on higher education," Dr. Ganesh Prasad moved that the following words be substituted "to assist the universities in the election of a common representative or representatives of India whenever there is occasion for such election." The practical difficulties involved in the acceptance of this alternative were pointed out by several speakers. If each university suggested different representatives how was the election to be carried out. Dr. Macphail also pointed out that the term "university" used in this connection was difficult to define. Were the syndicates or the senates to elect representatives? The Universities would already have elected their representatives on the Central Board and this was surely a function with which the Board could be entrusted. Mr. Hydari pointed out that as the function of the Board would be only a recommendatory one, the proper course would be for all the names suggested by the Universities to be sent up to the Government of India who would select one from them. As to this it was pointed out that this could be provided for in the rules of the Board which it would make for the purpose.

The original motion was accepted.

For (f) "to act as a bureau of appointments in Indian universities" Mr. Hartog suggested the substitution of the words "to act as an appointments bureau for Indian universities" as he contemplated that the Central Board would be used as an agency for finding appointments for distinguished Indian graduates. To this it was objected that each university should have its own appointments bureau to find work for its own graduates. Mr. Woolley stated that the Punjab University already possessed such a bureau.

Dr. Ganesh Prasad moved to substitute the words "to act as a bureau of information for appointments in Indian universities."

It was objected that this was an unnecessary elaboration of the original phrase as the function of an appointments bureau was merely to bring employers and candidates into touch with each other. Mr. Horne pointed out that the recommendation of the Committee confined its functions to acting as a Bureau of Information for appointments in Indian universities only, whereas Mr. Hartog's amendment extended it not only to such appointments, but to appointments in general.

Mr. Hydari objected to the amendment on the ground that there was a fear of graduates of all the universities not receiving that consideration for particular appointments from a Joint Board as they would from their own University individually and that it would be therefore desirable to confine the activities of the bureau only to university appointments so that it might not act as an ancillary to a Public Service Commission Board.

In favour of Mr. Hartog's amendment it was argued that while the Central Board would not deal with ordinary university graduates who would be referred to their local university appointments bureau it might be able to find posts outside universities for graduates of eminent distinction. The amendment of Dr. Ganesh Prasad was negatived and that of Mr. Hartog accepted.

Various subsidiary amendments to add further duties to the Board were withdrawn in favour of a general amendment moved by Mr. Hartog, adding (g) "to fulfil such other duties as may be assigned to it from time to time by the Indian universities." (Appendix C. 37.)

Mr. Horne moved the next recommendation of the committee:—

"That the Board should consist of one representative appointed by each university."

Sir Lalubhai Shah moved an amendment "that the Board should consist of one representative appointed by each unitary university and two representatives appointed by each of the other statutory universities." He thought that the more complex interests of the older universities of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras would require more representation.

This view was supported by Sir Nilratan Sircar.

It was shown that the wording of the resolution was defective in that it would give two representatives to every affiliating university including the most recent and smallest universities. The delegates of Patna and Nagpur expressed their willingness to forego the additional representation offered to them by the amendment. Dr. Macphail said that however wide the interests of the Madras University were, its delegates were in favour of equal representation for all universities. He quoted the examples of the United States, the Swiss Confederacy and the League of Nations Assembly where no difference in representation was made between the larger and the smaller states. Professor P. Seshadri also opposed the resolution on



the ground that such inequality of representation would introduce an element of disharmony injurious to the work of the proposed Board. After some discussion the proposition was lost only seven delegates voting in its favour and the original motion was adopted. [Appendix C. 38 (i).]

For the next proposition: "that the members shall hold office for three years," Dr. Urquhart moved the substitution of the following words:—"members shall ordinarily hold office for three years, but during the first triennial period one-third of the original members shall retire at the end of one year, and one-third at the end of the second year, the allocation to be made by lot." He explained that the object of his amendment was to maintain some continuity in the personnel of the Board. The amendment was agreed to *nem con.* [Appendix C. 38 (ii).]

For the proposition "the Government of India may nominate from time to time a representative to attend meetings of the Board in an advisory capacity," alternative amendments were moved by Mr. Tostevin, Dr. Gour and Dr. Macphail, which suggested that the Government of India might be asked to nominate a representative or that the Board might invite the Government of India to nominate a representative. Ultimately the resolution as originally framed was carried. [Appendix C. 38 (iii).]

The Conference at 2-45 P.M. resumed its discussion on the Inter-University Board. The next recommendation of the Committee was moved by Dr. Gour:—

"The headquarters of the Board should be at the capital of India but the Board shall meet at such centre as may be decided by the Board from time to time."

Diwan Bahadur Ramachandrarao moved to omit the words "the headquarters of the Board should be at the capital of India but," his amendment having the effect of making the resolution read "the Board shall meet at such centres as may be decided by the Board from time to time". He was seconded by Dr. Dhar.

Professor C. V. Raman moved that "the headquarters of the Board should be at Allahabad and the Board should meet periodically at such centres as may prove convenient from time to time." This amendment was seconded by Dr. Bhatnagar.

After a lengthy discussion of the advantages and disadvantages of locating the Board in proximity to the Government of India it was agreed to leave the question for determination by the Board itself, and it was resolved:—

"That the Board shall decide where its permanent headquarters shall be, but pending such decision its office shall be at the headquarters of the Government of India, and the Board shall meet at such centres as may be decided by the Board from time to time. The Board shall meet at least once a year." (Appendix C. 39.)

The Conference then discussed the cost of maintaining the Board. The Committee had proposed that half the cost of the maintenance of the Board should be met by the Government of India and the other half by equal contributions from universities. Professor C. V. Raman, seconded by Dr. Ganesh Prasad, moved to substitute "the cost of the maintenance of the Board shall be met by equal contributions from the universities." He, however, accepted an alternative amendment moved by Dr. Macphail which was passed by the Conference. "The Conference recommends:—

"(i) that the cost of maintaining the Board be met by equal contributions from the universities;

"(ii) that the Government of India and the provincial governments be requested to make grants towards the expenses of the Board." (Appendix C. 40.)

The next recommendation "that the Conference expects universities to pay the travelling allowance of their own representatives" was opposed by the delegates from the Madras and Calcutta universities. A suggestion made by Mr. Littlehales that the University authorities of the place at which the Conference of University delegates was held should bear the expenses of all the delegates was not supported. On the question being put to the vote 18 voted for and 18 against. On a recount the ayes were 20 and noes were 20. The President declared the motion as not carried.

Mr. Hunter proposed "that this Conference recommends to the Government of India that the travelling allowance of the delegates to the first meeting of the Inter-University Board should be met by the Government of India." The motion was carried. (Appendix C. 41.)

Mr. Hunter then moved the next recommendation of the Committee, namely, "the Government of India be requested to intimate to the National Committee of the League of Nations on Intellectual Co-operation that the proposed inter-university organisation should be recognised as an institution which the international committee should consult with a view to the formation of an Indian National Committee."

Dr. Gour moved as an amendment that the initial words should read "upon the Board coming into existence the Government of India be requested to inform, etc." The resolution as amended was carried. (Appendix C. 42.)

## CHAPTER VI.

### Proceedings of May the 23rd, 1924.

The Conference met at 10-30 A.M. In the unavoidable absence of the Hon'ble Sir Narasimha Sarma, Mr. J. A. Richey was elected to the Chair.

Professor C. V. Raman moved and Diwan Bahadur Ramachandrarao seconded the following resolution framed by Committee number (iii).

“ That it be recommended to the Government of India that with a view to promoting co-operation among Indian universities in higher scientific studies and research and to advising the Government of India from time to time generally with regard to the promotion of scientific research in India, a central advisory board for scientific research be constituted in India comprising the heads of scientific departments of the Government of India and representatives of science nominated by each of the Indian Universities.”

Sir Lalubhai Shah moved an amendment the effect of which was to omit all reference to the Government of India “ that it be recommended to the universities that with a view to promote co-operation among the Indian universities in higher scientific studies and research a Central Board for scientific research be constituted in India of representatives of science nominated by each of the Indian universities.”

Dr. Gour and others opposed the amendment on the ground that it would be unwise not to obtain the help of the eminent scientists employed in Government departments who were after all servants of the Indian public. Professor C. V. Raman explained that the Board might usefully suggest to the Government of India opportunities for helping scientific research. After discussion the amendment was lost only two persons voting for it.

Mr. Littlehales suggested the addition of the words “ and by the Indian Institute of Science ” at the end of the resolution.

Mr. Hartog pointed out that there were other institutions of science not affiliated to any university, and Dr. Gour proposed the following alternative addition:—

“ and by the Indian Institute of Science with power to co-opt representatives of other recognised institutes of science not affiliated to any university.”

This amendment with minor technical amendments moved by Dr. Macphail was accepted and the resolution as amended was passed. (Appendix C. 18.)

Dr. S. A. Khan raised the question of the admission of research scholars in history to consult the records contained in the Imperial Record Office, Calcutta. He instanced a case in which permission had been refused. The Chairman stated that the question could be raised at a later period in the proceedings if time permitted.

Professor Burrell moved the next recommendation of the Committee:—

“The Conference is of opinion that economy in university finance and increase in efficiency will be rendered possible by the co-ordination of post-graduate studies in Indian universities, especially in provinces containing more than one university.”

Professor Burrell explained the possibilities of co-ordination between the different universities in the United Provinces. Dr. Ghosh observed that this recommendation left it free for the Universities to develop their Honours Schools as recommended by the Sadler Commission, and it would be a great mistake to debar many eminent teachers, who might be running these Honours Schools, from doing advanced work, and thus attracting students in post-graduate classes. Several delegates found difficulty in understanding how such co-ordination could be achieved. Mr. Campbell moved as an amendment that the following be substituted for the original resolution:—

“The Conference is of opinion that the question of co-ordination of post-graduate studies in Indian universities be referred to the Inter-University Board for report.”

This amendment was seconded by Mr. Tostevin, but was rejected by the Conference.

Dr. Urquhart moved the omission of the words “especially in provinces containing more than one university.” The amendment was accepted by Professor Burrell and by the Conference. The amended resolution was then put to the Conference with a slight textual change and carried by a majority. (Appendix C. 43.)

The two following recommendations moved by Diwan Bahadur Ramachandrarao and by Mr. Hunter were accepted with only slight textual changes (Appendix C. 24.):—

“It is desirable that the proposed Indian Universities' Bureaux may continue to use, when formed, the existing organisation in the United Kingdom.”

“The question of forming a separate central agency in London for Indian universities should be deferred till further experience has been gained of the working of the proposed university bureaux.”

The Conference then proceeded to discuss the recommendations of Committee number (ii) on the subject of the proposed Indian Journal of Science.

Mr. Natesan moved:—

“ This Conference is of opinion that it is not desirable to have only a single journal of science for the whole of India, but there should be all-India journals dealing with special branches of knowledge.”

Professor Raman moved to add the following words to the resolution:—

- “ (i) and that efforts should be made to utilize or combine existing organs of publication and to develop them into publications having an all-India basis;
- (ii) that the central advisory committee for scientific research should be entrusted with the task of co-ordinating scientific publications in India and recommending to Government cases where financial assistance from the State would be desirable.”

The resolution with Professor Raman's amendment was accepted without discussion. (Appendix C. 19.)

Recommendation No. (2) of the Committee was withdrawn.

Dr. Bahl moved the third recommendation:—

“ This Conference is of opinion that the records of the Indian Museum (a journal of Indian Zoology), the Records of the Botanical Survey of India, Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India and the Agricultural Journal of India, now issued by Government, should have on their editorial boards expert representatives of the various universities and that the scope of these journals should be enlarged.”

Professor Raman suggested that it would not be proper for the Conference to pass a resolution of this kind without first consulting the heads of scientific departments and hearing their views. It was therefore decided by the Conference on the motion of Mr. Khub Ram that this resolution should be referred in the form of a recommendation to the Central Advisory Committee for Scientific Research. (Appendix C. 20.)

Since recommendations Nos. (4) and (5) of the Committee were covered by the resolutions already passed they were with the leave of the Conference withdrawn.

Mr. Khub Ram moved:—

“ This Conference considers it desirable that the Indian Science Congress be requested to make efforts to start a combined journal for physics and mathematics on an all-India basis on the lines of the journals of the Indian Botanical Society and the Indian Chemical Society and that the Government and the universities be requested to encourage and support the same.”

Dr. Ganesh Prasad strongly opposed the resolution on the ground that physics and mathematics were too important subjects to be combined in a single publication. Professor Raman thought that the object of the resolution was already met by the amendment moved by him and accepted by the Conference to the first recommendation of the Committee. On this ground and on the understanding that the whole question would be considered by the proposed central advisory committee for scientific research, Mr. Khub Ram withdrew his motion.

Mr. Hartog moved a supplementary resolution:—

“That the Government of India be requested to remit the payment of customs duty on scientific apparatus and chemicals imported for the use of universities.”

Mr. Hartog stated that in 1921, at his suggestion, the Vice-Chancellors of the Universities of India with one exception, which, he thought, was accidental, had moved the Government of India to remit the payment of customs duty on scientific apparatus and chemicals imported for the use of the universities, but their request was refused. He urged that the Conference should support this request on the following grounds:—

The tax of 15 per cent. was a very heavy charge on the universities and for many years the Government colleges had been exempted from that tax, though it was understood that they had been recently required to pay it. The tax could not be regarded as protection for Indian firms manufacturing apparatus and chemicals. At any rate no such protection was required for the charges for insurance and freight were so heavy in the case of apparatus and chemicals that no educational institution would obtain them from abroad if they could be obtained from India. The tax was a very serious bar to the development of scientific education and hence, of Indian industries. He compared it with the charge of  $2\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. on mechanically driven machinery and suggested that there was no justification for the difference. If there was any industry in India that needed protection it was the educational industry and he sincerely hoped that Government might be induced to remit the duty.

The Conference, while unanimously in favour of this resolution, disclosed some divergence of opinion with regard to enlarging its scope. The representatives of the Benares Hindu University suggested the addition of machinery and plant used in engineering colleges, etc. It was pointed out that the duty on such imports was at present much lower than that on scientific apparatus. Mr. Hartog was also averse to making too large demands on Government in the first instance. Finally the resolution as proposed was passed with the addition at the end of the words “and for approved educational institutions.” (Appendix C. 21.)

Item (vi) of the agenda had not for lack of time been dealt with by Committee number (iv), to whom it had been referred; but the Chairman suggested that the Conference might deal with

it at this stage as it raised issues of great importance to Indian students.

Dr. Gour then moved:—

“ This Conference desires to represent to the University of Oxford the serious disability imposed on Indian graduates by the new Statute requiring as a qualification for admission to the status of a junior student that a candidate must have taken Latin, Greek, French or German for his degree.”

Dr. Ganesh Prasad stated that the question had been fully considered by the Academic Council of the Allahabad University who had framed definite proposals for the amendment of the Statute which they intended to submit to the Oxford authorities. He read a copy of these proposals and suggested that they should be attached to the resolution in the form of a recommendation. It was felt by several members that the proposals of the Allahabad University were too lengthy and involved for proper consideration by the Conference in the time at its disposal. It also appeared that these proposals might not be equally applicable to the circumstances of each university. It was therefore decided that the task of framing constructive proposals should be entrusted to the Inter-University Board and the original motion of Dr. Gour was passed *nem con.* (Appendix C. 25.)

The Chairman informed the Conference that he had learnt from the High Commissioner that the Senate of the Cambridge University had at their meeting on May the 17th adopted an amendment to their original regulation permitting those whose native country was situated in Asia or Africa and who were not of European descent to offer Arabic, Sanskrit, Classical Chinese or Pali in lieu of Latin or Greek.

The Conference recorded its appreciation of the action of the Cambridge University in making this concession in favour of Indian students.

At this stage in the proceedings Sir Narasimha Sarma resumed the Chair. Professor Coueslant moved:—

“ This Conference recommends to the Government of India to ask the University of London to examine in India candidates for all its degrees provided that such candidates have been regularly prepared at an Indian university.”

Professor Coueslant explained the value of obtaining the degrees of the London University in engineering and stated that he had been in correspondence with the London University on this subject. The motion was supported by Pandit Madan Mohan Malaviya. He said he did not desire to encourage Indian students to hanker after the degrees of foreign universities. He rather wished to encourage them to be proud, like the Japanese, of the degrees of their own universities. He had been told that the Japanese students went in

large number to foreign countries for special study in certain subjects: but after completing their periods of study in some of the best universities of the world, they went back to their own country, and rejoiced in possessing the highest degrees of their own universities. He would like Indian students to do the same. But he supported the proposal to this extent that as there was only one engineering college in India imparting instruction and training for degrees in Mechanical, Electrical and Mining Engineering, namely the Engineering College at the Benares Hindu University, if some of its students, after they had appeared for the degree examination of the Benares Hindu University, desired also to sit for the corresponding degree of the London University, he would let them do so for some time. For this would be a very fair competition and the standard of instruction imparted at Benares would be subjected to an additional test. The standards prescribed for the degree examinations of the London and the Benares Universities in question were nearly the same. That made the competition possible. Some of the students of the Benares University had been allowed to sit for the London City and Guilds Examination at which students from many parts of the British Empire competed; and two of them had won the first places in Mechanical Engineering. No special instruction had to be given to them. The preparation which they were undergoing for the examination of their own University, sufficed to enable them to compete at the City and Guilds Examination, and with gratifying results. If the Conference thought that the course proposed should be encouraged for some time, to the extent he had indicated, the resolution might be accepted.

Mr. Richey read extracts from a letter received from the Secretary to the High Commissioner in which he stated that an increasing number of Indian students were applying direct to the University of London asking it to hold its examinations in India; that the London University had discontinued this practice in 1897 as the result of the adoption of a policy by the University of examining only in those countries in which no university existed; that the London University did, however, hold its examinations in other colonies and dominions under arrangements made with local universities and that the London University had not so far agreed to hold its examinations in India since it understood that such a step would be contrary to the policy of the Government of India.

Dr. Gour strongly opposed the resolution on the ground that it was subversive of the principle of unitary teaching and would, if accepted, convert the universities of India into cram shops destroying all chances of the developing of real university life and culture in the country.

The Hon'ble Mr. Natesan then moved that Mr. Coueslant's resolution be passed over and the Conference should proceed to the next business of the day.



The mover of the resolution withdrew his motion, not because he felt any doubt of its expediency, but in order to save the time of the Conference, which was evidently not in favour of its acceptance.

The Conference resumed its deliberations at 2-30 P.M., Sir Narasimha Sarma in the Chair. The Conference first completed the consideration of item (xi) on the agenda, on which subject Mr. Hartog had given notice in the morning session of a motion. Mr. Hartog's motion ran as follows:—

“ That the Conference requests the representatives of each university to nominate a member to serve on a provisional committee to meet at Simla immediately after the conclusion of the Conference for the purpose of making to the universities further detailed suggestions with regard to the formation of an Inter-University Board, on such subjects as (i) the date by which the reports of the universities in response to the resolutions of the Conference should be received; (ii) the initial financial requirements of the proposed Board; and (iii) the practical arrangements to be made for the first meeting of the Board including the place of its first meeting.”

In support of his motion Mr. Hartog explained that universities could not be expected to accept the recommendations of the Conference for the formation of an Inter-University Board without having before them for consideration more concrete proposals especially on the subject of the expenditure involved than those embodied in the general resolutions of the Conference.

Mr. Hartog's motion being carried (Appendix C. 47) he moved further:—

“ That the Conference requests the Government of India to forward the resolutions of the Conference and of the provisional committee relating to the proposed Inter-University Board to the Indian universities, and if the majority of the universities agree to these resolutions, to make arrangements in accordance with the conclusions adopted by these universities, for the first meeting of the Inter-University Board.”

The motion was carried (Appendix C. 48) and the different universities at once proceeded to nominate their representatives to serve on the provisional committee.

(The composition of the committee which met on May the 24th and the recommendations made by it will be found in Appendix D.)

The Conference next proceeded to consider item (iv) of the agenda on which the Committee had been able to frame very few recommendations. The first recommendation was moved by Mr. Dhruva:

“ That this Conference is of opinion that mutual recognition of degrees and examinations by Indian universities should be encouraged.”

In support of the recommendation Mr. Dhruva remarked that the proposition, which he had the honour to move on behalf of the Committee appointed to consider item no. (iv) was the only proposition which had survived as the fittest after a number of other propositions dealing with the question of standardisation of courses and examinations had been carefully considered and rejected. It was, he said, the only proposition, which did not interfere with the autonomy of universities in the matter of courses and examinations and had besides received the unanimous support of the Committee.

Dr. Gour, Dr. Macphail, Professor Sahay and Mr. Hartog put in amendments to this resolution.

Dr. Gour moved :—

“ This Conference (i) recommends to the Universities the desirability of taking steps to standardise their examinations with a view to facilitate the mutual recognition of their examinations and degrees by the universities in India and the United Kingdom and (ii) recommends when possible mutual recognition of examinations and degrees.”

Dr. Macphail moved :—

“ (i) That it is desirable that a university should accept the corresponding examinations conducted or accepted by other universities in the case of students who for reasons satisfactory to the university authority concerned seek admission to universities other than the one for admission to which they originally qualified.

“ (ii) That while it is not desirable to declare that examinations and degrees are equivalent which in point of fact are not it is desirable that if possible real equivalence in Indian degrees should be obtained, provided that this equivalence be not obtained by lowering any existing standard.

“ (iii) That it is desirable in the interests of education that a university course in Arts and Science should be of not less than three years' duration after admission to the university, and that this course should ordinarily be spent in one and the same institution provided that where the entrance examination is of the present matriculation or school leaving certificate standard the course shall be of not less than four years' duration.”

Mr. Hartog moved :—

“ That in the opinion of the Conference, the length of an Honours course for the Bachelor's degree in Arts and Science, subsequent to the passing of an examination of the Intermediate standard, should be not less than three years.”

Mr. Horne in place of Professor Sahay, moved:—

“(i) That in order to prevent a lowering of the standard of degree examinations it is desirable that the teaching up to the Intermediate stage and the Intermediate examination should be conducted by the university.

“(ii) That the number of marks which a student must obtain to get a first class and a second class at the Matriculation and Intermediate should be the same in every university, namely 60 per cent. for a First class and 45 per cent. for a Second class.

“(iii) That in order to keep the standard of the M.A. and the degree examinations (Honours and pass) at a high level it is desirable that the universities should arrive at a mutual agreement to allot at least half the number of examinerships to external examiners.”

The Hon'ble Mr. Natesan moved:—

“The recommendations of the Committee and the amendments moved here be forwarded to the Inter-University Board for report at the next conference.”

This was supported by Principal Maitra on the understanding that the opinions of universities should first be obtained and their replies tabulated in the form of a statement. The Chairman ruled that Mr. Natesan's amendment being of the widest scope should be taken first and it was carried. (Appendix C. 44.)

Dr. Macphail then moved:—

“That it be a recommendation to the local governments that grants made to the universities be ordinarily block grants and that the universities bureau, when established, be requested to consider the question of the financial relations of the universities with the local governments.”

This was accepted by the Conference. (Appendix C. 46.)

Dr. Gour moved:—

“That this Conference considers it necessary that the Government should take some steps, legislative or otherwise, to prevent the sale and use of bogus degrees in India.”

It was decided that this topic should be referred to the Inter-University Board. (Appendix C. 45.)

Mr. Hartog moved and Mr. A. Hydari seconded the following resolution:—

“That the cordial thanks of this Conference of the Universities of India be offered to the Hon'ble Sir Narasimha Sarma for the very great service which he has rendered to the Indian universities by summoning the Con-

ference, and by his courteous and able conduct in the Chair; and that the warm thanks of the Conference be also accorded to the Hon'ble Mr. Richey for his services in making arrangements for the organisation of this Conference and to Mr. Rushbrook Williams as its Secretary."

Mr. Hartog stated that he ventured to move the resolution because the Conference might be regarded as the direct outcome of the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission for the constitution of some central organisation for education after the transference of that subject to provincial governments and his colleague on the Commission—Dr. Zia-ud-din Ahmad,—who had unfortunately been obliged to leave, had originally consented to second the motion. It was obvious that some members of the Conference had, at the outset, been apprehensive lest the part played by Government might prejudice the newly acquired autonomy of the Indian universities. But he thought that the impartiality of the Chairman, and of Mr. Richey who had acted as Chairman on one occasion, must have removed any such apprehensions. At any rate it was quite clear from the discussions that the presence of important members of Government had in no wise hampered the expression of opinion on the part of the University delegates. From his experience as a member of the Central Advisory Board of Education which was established on the recommendation of the Calcutta University Commission, but had disappeared under the axe of the Inchcape Committee, he felt sure that the Government of India had no desire to dominate the universities, but only wished to help them. They must all be grateful for the great courtesy and tact shown by the Chair and for the care and ability with which the Conference had been organised. The success of the Conference was very largely due to the preliminary arrangements which had been made by Sir Narasimha Sarma and Mr. Richey. They were also grateful to Mr. Rushbrook Williams who, although he did not belong to the Education Department, had kindly consented to act as Secretary of the Conference.

The representatives of each university supported the resolution, which was carried by acclamation. (Appendix C. 49.)

Sir Narasimha Sarma briefly replied, thanking the delegates for their vote of thanks on behalf of himself and Messrs. Richey and Rushbrook Williams. He also congratulated the Conference upon the work achieved and declared the Conference closed. [Appendix A (ii).]

## APPENDIX A.

## Addresses by the Hon'ble Sir Narasimha Sarma.

## (i) INTRODUCTORY ADDRESS.

GENTLEMEN,

Let me add a few words of personal welcome to what has been said already by His Excellency in such felicitous terms this morning. The Government of India and my Department, not to speak of myself, readily appreciate the cordial response which has been accorded by the various universities to our invitation and for their promise of co-operation. And let me thank you, gentlemen assembled here, for your so readily and cheerfully acquiescing in the call of your universities to attend this conference at much personal inconvenience and self-sacrifice, especially so in the case of most of you who had to undertake a long, an arduous and inconvenient journey in the burning heat of a hot summer month. In welcoming you, I feel that it is but right and proper that I should add a few words to what has been already said by His Excellency to indicate and emphasise what are and what are not our objects in convening this conference. The Government of India recognise that education, including university education, is a provincial subject. As has been pointed out by His Excellency there is not the slightest disposition in any quarter to interfere with or to detract or subtract in any manner whatsoever from the autonomous or self-governing powers possessed by the various universities. There is no intention to produce a dull level of monotonous, lifeless and soulless uniformity. We readily recognise the diversity of conditions prevailing in the various provinces and that education can be developed and advanced along healthy lines only by looking forward to diversity suited to the capacities of the people within the charge of the several universities, to their peculiarities and temperament and to their means of adaptation. But all the members of the Conference, I believe, will readily recognise that it is also essential that there should be a unity of purpose and of design running through it all, and it is the intention of the Government of India, in asking the universities to co-operate with them, to promote, if possible, that unity of purpose and design. The Government of India had the Lytton Committee's report before them some time ago and have sent that report to the various local governments and universities for their opinion. They felt that it was desirable that there should be a conference at which the various universities could, through their representatives, discuss amongst other problems the overseas student problem, which we shall have to meet and face boldly and openly if we are to avoid some of the evils which have been pointed out in such graphic terms in the Lytton Committee's report. Our idea, and I believe it is the idea of the Indian people generally, is

to make India self-contained, as self-contained as possible, so that within the four corners of the Indian Empire you may have university institutions of the highest standing to which students and research scholars may resort without the painful necessity of having to go abroad in quest of knowledge of a high order. But we all recognise the paucity, the inadequacy of the yellow and white metals, especially when they are wanted for educational purposes. And recognising as we do that painful and ugly fact, the only question is, how are we to conserve and husband our resources and utilise them to the best advantage, so that, without any unnecessary duplication, we may be able to establish within India at least one institution in each branch of knowledge of the type I have already mentioned. Gentlemen, I hope that your endeavours, with the experience you possess, will be fruitful in devising measures to bring about this result.

There is only one matter to which I need refer and that is that in the new life that is before us, when we have started new universities and are embarking upon fresh experiments in that direction, it is very desirable that university experience should be available to all, so that the corporate influence of the whole body may be utilised for the purpose of assisting each and every individual university to aim at a fairly high minimum standard of excellence, so that the degree which may be conferred by any university may be respected both at home and abroad. I know this is a vexed problem and that we can proceed but slowly and cautiously and that we should do so without an unnecessary sacrifice of the needs of expansion. I have during my short experience as a Member of the Government of India had to face this problem, especially in selecting candidates for the various public services. Two years ago when I was in charge of the Public Works Department we had to call an engineering conference. In selecting students for the Indian Forest Service, I had great difficulty in appraising the value of the degrees conferred by the various universities, and some of the problems which confront the Government of India and the local Governments will have to be faced equally by this Conference, so that as satisfactory a solution as possible may be arrived at in order to co-ordinate the activities of the several universities in achieving this common purpose of having a fair minimum level up to which each university must strive to improve its standards. If in the case of any university those standards are not considered to be sufficiently high—though I do not for a moment suggest that in the case of any university the ideals or standards are low—but if in the course of the conference proceedings it be found to be necessary to consider this question, I hope you will readily recognise the need for an appreciation of the situation, and, without raising angry factious cries, achieve the object aimed at by means of the gentle influence which a corporate body like this can bring to bear upon the life and activities of the individual universities working for the same end.

Now, gentlemen, I shall not detain you more with detailing the purposes for which we are met here to-day. The agenda which has

been circulated already must have indicated to you some of the objects we have before us. I shall now say just a word or two about the procedure which we may adopt without inconvenience.

I have invited the members of the general committee attached to my Department in order that they may give any assistance that may be required of them and may themselves reap the benefit by listening to the discussions here; the general Committee of the Government of India dealing with education is deeply interested in this subject. Of course they are not part of this conference in the strict technical sense of the term. They have no right to vote and they will speak with the permission of the President, but it was desirable that we should invite those members in order to have the benefit of their advice when needed and in order that they may also give me later on the benefit of their advice in the light of the discussion that will take place here. A few members of the Departments and of institutions working up to university standards may also give us the benefit of their advice when a suitable occasion arises.

We shall now proceed to form four committees for the purpose of framing resolutions for consideration by the general body of the conference. Unfortunately a few of the delegates have not been able to attend, but possibly the position is not quite so difficult as we felt it might be at one time. The original intention was that universities which have more than four representatives should appoint only one of their members to each committee. Universities which have fewer than four might appoint the same members to more than one committee, provided it is understood that no committee should be delayed in its activities by the absence of a member from that committee. It has been suggested to me that we might take up two of the committees to-morrow morning and two to-morrow evening, and give each university the chance of sending two of its men to each committee. If it is desired that we should adopt that procedure I do not see any difficulty. I think two of the committees can sit to-morrow morning and two in the evening, and each university may appoint two of its members to each committee.

The second point is that I propose with your leave to preside over the deliberations of the general body of the conference, but with regard to committees I would request that each committee should appoint its own president and evolve its own method of procedure. As to whether any time limit for speeches is necessary is a matter for consideration and I would leave it to you with the tentative suggestion that members may perhaps confine their remarks ordinarily to five minutes.

This evening, it is proposed to take up items (i) and (ii). It was suggested to me that perhaps (ii) might be taken up along with (i) for discussion by a committee and later on for discussion and adoption by the general body of the conference. But I intend to take up (i) and (ii) this afternoon and if it is felt by the conference that any of the points mentioned in (ii) ought to be referred to a committee, that can be done later on, but for the present we will

proceed with (v) and (vi) this evening. All the committees will sit to-morrow and submit their resolutions to the Secretary, it is hoped, in time for circulation to the members of the conference. We can decide later as to whether committees (i) and (ii) should sit in the morning or (iii) and (iv). I would now ask members to settle who is to sit on the various committees.

(ii) VALEDICTORY ADDRESS.

“ GENTLEMEN,

I cannot express in words how deeply grateful I am for this mark of appreciation of the efforts made by the Government of India in assisting the Universities in the discharge of their heavy and responsible duty of promoting higher education and research amongst the people of India; and let me also thank you on behalf of the Hon'ble Mr. Richey and Professor Rushbrook Williams for associating them in the remarks which you have made so kindly in respect of me as representing the Government of India. I feel highly indebted to Mr. Richey on whom I laid the very heavy task of organising this Conference, and let me inform you that our obligations to Professor Rushbrook Williams are the greater for the simple reason that he does not belong to my Department, and it is a labour of love that he has undertaken (*Cheers*), and I cordially express my thanks to Professor Rushbrook Williams for having undertaken the arduous duties of Secretary.

Before we disperse let me congratulate you most cordially and heartily upon the success of the deliberations of this Conference. I was indeed very sorry when I, on behalf of the Government of India, extended this invitation to the Universities, that I could not undertake the expenditure involved. I express my regret on behalf of the Government that it has not been found possible to do otherwise. It may have been my mistake; possibly if the matter had been pressed, there might not have been any difficulty, but I did not wish to risk the whole conference falling through, should there be a difference of opinion on the subject, and I therefore ventured to appeal to the universities to bear the burden and to come forward spontaneously and assist the Government of India in this task, and I think perhaps it was wise that it was so done because any efforts spoon fed by the Government of India (and that might have been the construction if we had paid the expenses) would not have had the same importance as we can attach now to the deliberations of this Conference when the delegates or the universities had to spend so much money in coming forward to assist in this Imperial task. We can therefore take credit that this is a practically spontaneous movement on the part of the universities, slightly encouraged by the Central Government whose duty it was to do so, and I attach therefore greater significance to the deliberations of this Conference than might have been possible if the whole thing had been organised, helped and paid for by the Government of India.



Once more, let me thank you for having cordially responded to our invitation and for having come here in such large numbers at such considerable personal sacrifice. The greatest, the most monumental work that I consider this Conference to have done is the resolution unanimously passed recommending to the universities that it is desirable in the opinion of this Conference that an Inter-University organisation should be established for the promotion of higher education and research. I shall not go into details but on the central point, on the important vital principle as to whether it is necessary in the interests of higher education and research there should be such an organisation every member felt equally the importance of the existence of such an organisation and I feel sure the universities will cordially respond and support the views of their delegates although when those delegates were sent up here they had no mandate from the universities that such an organisation should be built up. We hope for very great things from the existence of this organisation and I wish good luck to the efforts of this Conference and let me express the hope that this organisation will be brought into being without any very great delay.

There are one or two points which I think I may bring to the notice of the representatives of the universities, which struck me when I was considering the question of higher education and university education, both in relation to education proper, as well as in relation to the subjects themselves on our agenda, the improvement of the resources of this country, particularly agricultural resources. Members of this Conference must have had their attention already directed to the circumstance that higher education is becoming more and more provincialised and that with the Reforms and the legitimate pride which each province is taking in asserting its own autonomy, its own authority, its own importance, new problems are arising which await solution. Very soon I believe in the matter of the recruitment of many of the services it is just possible that the provinces will become autonomous. How soon it is impossible to say, but it is quite clear that sooner rather than later that will be the achievement. I am not going to argue whether it is desirable or not. It is a fact and has a bearing on the question of standards. There have been two schools of thought all along, one insisting upon the expansion of higher education and the other upon efficiency and a high standard, and the Indian universities as a whole have been, rightly or wrongly, attaching greater importance to the development and expansion of higher education in the interests of the country than to the need of efficiency, not that the need of efficiency was sought to be neglected or minimised, but of the two factors greater importance was attached to the other, and possibly the multiplication of university degrees and the content of university degrees on a large number was developed and encouraged by the various universities with a view to encourage higher education. It had a meaning and significance at one time in upper India when there was only one university which catered to her needs, but now I foresee that with the development of provincial autonomy, with the weakening of central authority in certain respects and with direct recruitment by provincial Govern-

ments it is not a matter of such great significance. Whether you call a particular standard of education and its attainment as necessary for a degree does not make any great difference, so long as qualified students can get entrance into the various services in a province. I am only making a suggestion that the universities may look upon this question in a different light because it is immaterial so long as Ministers have control over recruitment in the provinces and the tendency to recruit within the province develops as it is bound to develop whether you call a standard an intermediate or pass degree standard. The cognate question or inter-allied question is that inasmuch as that is the tendency, it may perhaps be possible for the universities to insist upon a fairly high standard for their general degrees or honours degrees as the case may be, because these degrees would be a passport to the central and all-India services and would also be a means of recognition by all the India universities as well as the universities abroad. I only put forward this as a possible reason for the question being approached from a new angle.

The other point is that it is equally the duty of the universities as well as the Government to have a census of their university graduates and the occupations they are filling and the universities should have some general idea of the possibilities of expansion of recruitment for industrial and other activities which are likely to absorb the graduates who will be their product in future years. I know the Government of India have been blamed for not bringing the question of an undue multiplication of the numbers of university graduates and their inability to find a career before this Conference. It is not that I have lost sight of the problem. I am having materials collected for the purpose of helping the people of India with a knowledge of the exact position, but the materials are not ready, and I hope therefore the universities will help Government in securing the necessary information. I lay special emphasis for this reason: those that argue against the limitation of the numbers of graduates have been met in the past and are being met in the present with the argument: "How can you restrict the number because as education expands the number of primary institutions must expand, then the secondary schools must expand. There would therefore be a necessity for graduate teachers. The number of first class colleges must consequently increase in numbers and expand. These are all mutually inter-dependent." The argument has great meaning but it is minimised by the unfortunate fact that although it may be true, if he had a programme which could be supported by the representatives of the people, providing expansion within a definite period of years there is none such at present. As a matter of fact we are finding that neither the existing colleges and schools nor those likely to be started in the near future will be in a position to absorb the growing numbers. Mr. Bhoré was telling me a few days ago that it was pitiable to see students who have specialised in various branches of knowledge in Europe coming back to India and finding absolutely no career open to them. It is possible that the universities if they should have before them some clear idea of the requirements of their own province would within a

measurable period of time so adjust their standards as to be able to give advice to parents and students in what directions their energies might be directed, so as to be fruitful to them as well as to the country at large.

The third point is this:—The necessity of some high standard being approximated to by the various universities and the fact that in future the Government of India will be interested in requiring the universities to develop that high standard so as to be able to meet their needs. I have already spoken of the provinces finding employment for a certain number. The Government of India too can provide for a limited number. I had this difficulty of standard before me and pointed it out when I attended the Engineering Conference and some proposals were formulated for the purpose of attaining a common standard in engineering education. I was told that the Railway Board finds it difficult to know exactly what the standards are and in the interest of the students of the universities it is desirable that some attention should be paid to the requirements of the Government of India.

The fourth point is of extreme importance, *viz.*, higher research and higher education in the field of the material development of the resources of this country. I will not frighten the conference, but I am not satisfied, speaking for myself and not as a Member of the Government of India for the time being, that we shall be secure and self-supporting unless we increase our agricultural production considerably, and one of the points that struck me as soon as I took over charge in 1920 was the point brought to my notice by the Agricultural Branch, that if it were only possible to induce the country to recognise the importance of scientific research, apart from questions of increased production, a good deal of waste may be avoided. I tried to form an Entomological Department but in this difficulties of finance stood in my way. The enormous destruction and wastage going on in this country by the ravages of insect pests and fungi are so large that we cannot have too much of research in entomology and mycology. We have to look to botanists in connection with cotton research as well as other agricultural products and one thing struck me forcibly that perhaps more could be done by the universities in the direction of developing the study of botany and the allied sciences, upon which the whole of the future of the agricultural industry so largely depends. Only the other day a provincial Government asked me to look for a research expert from outside India. I looked over the list of all the pending applications and I asked whether I could recommend anyone to that Government from within it. It was with great regret that I had to attempt to recruit from outside India.

I have taken the liberty of taking up your time because I feel that the universities can help by insisting upon the affiliation of only such colleges as are properly equipped as well as by promoting the study of subjects on which the prosperity of this country so largely depends.

I believe you have passed a resolution thanking the Cambridge University for the alterations which they have accepted in their

regulations to meet the Indian point of view. Our thanks are really due to those authorities for the help they have rendered, and I hope that Oxford will be able to join Cambridge in the line the latter has taken.

I hope your labours in this and other directions will bear fruit. I wish you a happy and safe return to your homes with a weakening of the prejudice (if any) against Simla and those living here. (Loud applause.)

## APPENDIX B.

### Notes supplied to the delegates on items of the agenda.

*Item No. (i) (a).—The Appointment and Conditions of Service of whole-time University Teachers.*

This subject has been suggested for discussion under the following heads:—

1. The method of selecting and appointing University Professors, Readers and Lecturers. (Madras.)
2. The salaries and conditions of service of University Professors, Readers and Lecturers. (Madras.)
3. Salaries. (Dacca.)
4. Provident Fund. (Dacca.)
5. Recruitment of staffs from abroad. (Dacca.)
6. Possibility of reciprocal arrangements between Indian Universities regarding notice of leaving and appointment—especially for Professors and Readers, and also regarding Provident Fund, Furlough and other leave. (Punjab.)

Closely connected with it is—

*Item No. (i) (b).—The Exchange of University Teachers.*

1. Exchange of Teachers. (Dacca.)
2. Joint arrangements for inviting Teachers from abroad. (Dacca.)
3. The Exchange of Professors, Readers and Teachers between the different Universities. (Delhi.)
4. Short time Exchange of Teachers and Scholars. (Allahabad and Benares.)
5. Transfer and Exchange of Professors. (Benares.)
6. Exchange of Professors and Lecturers for short periods. (Mysore.)

---

*Item No. (ii).—The Exchange of Library Books.*

An All-Indian Conference of Librarians was held at Lahore in January 1918. This Conference recommended that the principle of inter-borrowing of books between libraries of all kinds should be adopted as far as may be practicable. For this purpose it recommended the division of India into circles. The recommendations of this Conference were not carried out owing firstly to difficulties of organisation and secondly to the political changes of 1921 when 'libraries' became a provincial transferred subject.

It is for consideration whether Universities can co-operate in library matters. Every University will deem it necessary to maintain an adequate Library for its own staff and students for whose use the great majority of the books must be at any time available. The possibilities of mutual help therefore narrow themselves down to:—

- (a) The exchange or gift of superfluous library matter. Some of the older and more established Libraries may be able to assist the younger Universities in this manner;
- (b) The temporary loan of valuable works for research scholars and teachers. This might result in co-operation between a limited number of Universities for the purchase of more expensive or more highly technical works of reference.

The experience of the results of the Librarians' Conference shows that if circles for inter-borrowing are created they must be small.

---

*Item No. (iv).—The Equivalence of Indian University Examinations.*

This subject has in various forms been suggested by several Universities, e.g.,

1. The standardisation of Degrees. (Dacca and Punjab.)
2. The desirability of securing uniformity of standard in the examinations of Indian Universities for the Bachelors degrees, especially as regards the Honours, and the means to be employed to attain this end. (Nagpur.)
3. The desirability of securing uniformity of standard in specific subjects of the Matriculation Examination of Indian Universities or its equivalents. (Nagpur.)
4. Equalisation of the standard of the Matriculation Examination all over India. (Punjab and Delhi.)
5. The standardisation of all University Examinations so as to secure a maximum standard of ability and efficiency in all graduates turned out by the Universities. (Delhi.)
6. The possibility of obtaining more uniformity of standard in the courses of study for similar degrees in the different Universities. (Lucknow.)
7. Equivalence of standards. (Allahabad.)
8. Mutual recognition of degrees and examinations by Indian Universities. (Benares.)
9. Recognition of attendance and work at a University by other Universities qualifying for M.A. and M.Sc. degrees. (Mysore.)

Certain specific methods for achieving such standardisation have also been suggested for discussion:—

- (a) The holding of joint examinations in certain subjects in order to avoid expense. (Delhi.)
- (b) The desirability of erecting some central machinery for facilitating the appointment of external examiners; especially with regard to the feasibility of appointing the same person as co-examiner in a given subject of a given examination for a number of Universities—the papers of each University to be set in each case by the University's own examiner, but the joint co-examiner to examine say 50 answer books for each University, and the examiner or examiners of the individual University to adopt when marking the standard set by the co-examiner in the 50 answer books examined by him. (Nagpur.)
- (c) The creation of a co-ordinating Board to ensure the preservation of one uniform standard of examinations for all Universities in India. (Delhi.)

---

*Item No. (v).—The Substitution of University Bureaux for Students' Advisory Committees.*

*Extracts from paragraphs 89 and 92 of Lytton Committee's Report.*

“89. We suggest the establishment by each Indian university of a bureau specially staffed and equipped for the purposes:—

- (1) of supplying students wishing to pursue their education abroad with all the information, advice and assistance which they may require;
- (2) of supplying the foreign University authorities with the kind of information regarding the students which will enable them to make their selection from the applications forwarded.

“This Bureau should be administered by the University and should be advised by a Board consisting mainly of persons with recent knowledge of the various British universities. The expenses of the staff should be met by a special grant from Government to the University for the purpose. These University Bureaux would take the place of the existing Advisory Committees. By this means we hope that in time every university in India will be brought into direct communication with every university in the United Kingdom, and the student could pass direct from his Indian University to the British University to which he secures admission without the intervention of any Government official.”

“92. Early in each academic year the Indian University Bureaux would forward to the Secretaries to the Delegacy for Oriental Students at Oxford and the Inter-Collegiate Indian Students' Committee at Cambridge a list of the students desiring admission in

the following October, with full particulars of the qualifications of each and a list of the Colleges or alternate Universities for which they have expressed a reference. This procedure should, we think, enable the authorities at Oxford and Cambridge to make their selection in time for the students who have not been selected to gain admission elsewhere."

2. The proposal to substitute University Bureaux for the present Advisory Committees has met with general acceptance by Local Governments and Universities. This decision may be endorsed by the Conference. It is suggested that a uniform title, *e.g.*, University Students' Information Bureau, be adopted.

3. Some doubt, however, has been expressed as to the suitability of the procedure suggested by the Committee in the second extract.

It is questionable whether the English Universities would welcome a change of system which would inevitably tend to increased correspondence and reference. The following extract illustrates the procedure which one university proposes to adopt under the new system:—

"When a student, to provide alternatives, applies for admission to more than one university, he should address his application to all of these with a request that each of them should communicate to the University Advisory Committee its decision in regard to him by cable, the cost of the cables to be paid by the student. He will then decide which university he prefers to join and inform by cable all the universities concerned of his decision."

It is more than questionable whether English Universities would agree to bear the cost of cabling to a number of Indian students, who may or may not decide to accept their offers of admission, in the hope of recovering the cost of the cables from the students: and it is certain, that in the absence of any machinery to compel them to do so, many students would not take the trouble or go to the expense of cabling to all the universities whose offers they did not accept.

4. The Lytton Committee foresaw this difficulty and therefore made the suggestion which appears on the agenda as:—

*"The constitution of a Central University Agency in London."*

*Extract from paragraph 92 of Lytton Committee's Report.*

"It will be necessary, however, for each Bureau to employ an agency in London to receive from Oxford and Cambridge and forward the applications of these students to other Universities in the order of preference which they have themselves expressed and to inform them where they are admitted. We are unable to say whether all the Indian Universities would be willing to be re-



presented by a single agency as we have had no opportunity of consulting them. A single agency would obviously be the best arrangement and the one which would be most acceptable to the British Universities, but we are obliged to leave it to the authorities of the Indian Universities to decide whether they prefer to act independently or in concert."

The majority of Universities recognise the necessity for the maintenance of some central agency in London. The recommendation of the Lytton Committee was made on the assumption that the Indian Students Department would no longer undertake this work, though the Committee recognised the need for an official agency in the High Commissioner's office for the disbursement of Government scholarships, the supervision of Government scholars and assistance of other Indian students.

It has been suggested by one Local Government that the new Universities Bureaux should continue to use the existing organisation, which might in future be termed the Education Department of the High Commissioner's office, till they have had an opportunity of consulting as to the form which any non-official central agency in London should take.

---

*Item No. (vi).—The Recognition of Indian Examinations in the United Kingdom.*

*Extract from paragraph 28 of the Lytton Committee Report.*

"We were impressed by the difficulties and confusion arising from the present lack of uniformity in recognising Indian University examinations and qualifications at the Universities of the United Kingdom. For example, one British University, under certain conditions, exempts from its preliminary examination a student who has taken a first-class in the Intermediate Arts Examination of certain Indian Universities, but does not recognise for this purpose the final B.A. degree of the same universities, unless the student has passed with first or second class honours; while other British Universities do not recognise the first-class Intermediate of an Indian University, but accept the final B.A. degree either with or without conditions. Others again recognise the Indian Intermediate irrespective of class obtained, and one or two accept the Indian Matriculation examinations. This variety of procedure is a source of infinite trouble and difficulty, and the time has certainly arrived when the question of equivalence of the courses in the two countries should be studied by some competent body with a view to establishing greater uniformity of practice."

2. The following statement mentions the exemptions allowed in the matter of admission examinations by the Universities of the United Kingdom. Some of the exemptions are coupled with conditions, which have not however been brought out for the sake of brevity.

Name of University.	Privileges allowed.	Indian Examinations.	Colonial and other Examinations.
1. Oxford . . .	Exemption from Responsions.	An approved degree of an approved University in Arts or Science with certain subjects taken after two years' study, qualifies for the status of a junior student who is admitted as a fourth term student at the University. A first class or second class honour's degree qualifies for the status of a senior student, who is admitted as a fourth term student and excused moderations. (For detailed information, see Appendix I.)	Certain Matriculation, School leaving and other examinations. (Certain European countries, South Africa, Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand, Canada and Hong Kong.)  Two years' study at a University qualifies for the status of a junior student. A degree taken after three years' study qualifies for the status of a senior student.
2. Cambridge . . .	Exemption from several parts of the Previous Examination.	A first class honour's degree (or a second class honour's degree if taken with certain subjects) taken after not less than three years' study at an approved University secures exemption from the Previous Examination and admission as a second, third or fourth term student as the University may in each case decide. (For detailed information see Appendix II.)	The Matriculation Examination (Australia, Tasmania, New Zealand and South Africa), an examination qualifying for admission to a European University or the Egyptian Government Secondary Education Certificate Examination.
3. London . . .	Exemption from the Matriculation Examination.	A degree or in the case of matriculates over 19 years of age a special London University examination.	A degree or in the case of matriculates over 19 years of age a special London University Examination.
4. Scottish Universities.	Exemption from the Preliminary Examination.	The Intermediate Examination of a recognised University in Arts or Science.	Any examination qualifying for admission to a degree course of a University.
5. National University of Ireland.	Exemption from the Matriculation Examination.	No Indian qualification entitles to this privilege.	The Senior Public Examination or the Matriculation Examination of the Matriculation Board of South Africa.
6. Wales . . .	Exemption from the Matriculation Examination.	The Intermediate Examination in Arts or Science of an Indian University.	The Examination qualifying for a degree course of a University of the Secondary School Certificate Examination of the Transvaal Education Department.
7. Belfast . . .	<i>Ibid</i>	The Matriculation Examination of an Indian University.	The Matriculation Examination of the Universities of South Africa.
8. Dublin (Trinity College).	<i>Ibid</i>	The Intermediate, or the B. A. Examination of an approved University entitles to credit <i>pro tanto</i> for the first academic year.	The Matriculation Examination of the Universities of South Africa.
9. Durham . . .	<i>Ibid</i>	The Intermediate Examination of a recognised Indian University.	An equivalent examination.
10. Bristol . . .	<i>Ibid</i>	The Intermediate Examination in Arts or Science of an approved Indian University for admission to the corresponding Faculties. The Matriculation Examination with the Intermediate Examination in Arts for the Faculty of Medicine. The Matriculation Examination for the Faculty of Engineering.	Any examination recognised as equivalent to the Matriculation Examination of any University in the United Kingdom.

Name of University.	Privileges allowed.	Indian Examinations.	Colonial and other Examinations.
11. Northern Universities (Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, Sheffield, and Birmingham).	Exemption from the Matriculation Examination.	The Intermediate Examination in Arts, Science, or Medicine of an approved Indian University.	Any examination recognised as equivalent to Oxford Responsions, Cambridge Previews, etc. The Secondary School Certificate Examination of the Egyptian Ministry of Education.

3. Our normal entrance test (*i.e.*, the Indian Matriculation Examination) is not, except in one instance, recognised in the United Kingdom. Attention has been drawn to the standards of the Indian University Examinations in certain recent interpellations in the House of Commons. There is a growing demand for the introduction of certain British University Examinations which command universal respect, *e.g.*, the London University Examinations and the Oxford School Certificate Examination. The Cambridge Local examinations are already held in this country, but are chiefly attended by pupils of European schools.

#### Appendix i.

### UNIVERSITY OF OXFORD.

#### Statute relating to Junior and Senior Status.

#### III.—ON INDIAN UNIVERSITIES.

[Statt. Tit. II Sec. VIII.]

1. Any student of an Indian University who shall have pursued at that university a course of study prescribed by it and extending over two years at the least, and shall have obtained the Degree of Bachelor of Arts or Bachelor of Science at that university, may be admitted to the status and privileges of a junior student, provided that such Degree and such university shall have been approved by the Hebdomadal Council. No Degree shall be approved for the purposes of this clause which does not include the study of English and, in addition, of two of the following languages, Latin, Greek, French, German, Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, Pali, Classical Chinese, of which two either Latin or Greek or French or German must be one.

2. Any student of an Indian University who shall have pursued at that university or, should the Hebdomadal Council in his case so approve, at more than one university, a course of study prescribed by it and extending over three years at the least, and shall have obtained at that university a Degree with first or second-class Honours, may be admitted to the status and privileges of a senior student, provided that such Degree and such university shall have

been approved, for the purpose of this clause, by the Hebdomadal Council.

3. The status and privileges of a junior student shall be as follows:—

- (a) The term in which he is matriculated shall be reckoned, for the purposes of any provisions respecting the standing of members of the university, as the fourth term from his matriculation.
- (b) A junior student shall not be required to pass Responsions.
- (c) A junior student admitted to this status in and after Michaelmas term, 1922, shall be entitled to supplicate for the Degree of Bachelor of Arts if he shall have passed the First Public Examination and kept statutable residence for six terms, and either—
  - (1) shall have obtained a place, or his name shall have been placed as *ægrotat*, in the class list of an Honour School of the Second Public Examination; or
  - (2) shall have satisfied the examiners in the Second Public Examination in the Final Honour School of Natural Science in Chemistry, Part I; or
  - (3) shall have satisfied the examiners in the Second Public Examination in the Final School of Agriculture or of Forestry; or
  - (4) having obtained Honours in the First Public Examination, shall have passed the Second Public Examination; or
  - (5) shall have satisfied the provisions of *Statt. Tit. VI. Sect. I. D. section 3, clause 15.*

No junior student shall be entitled to supplicate for the Degree of Bachelor of Arts unless he shall have satisfied the provisions of this sub-clause.

4. The status and privileges of a senior student shall be as follows:—

- (a) The term in which he is matriculated shall be reckoned, for the purposes of any provisions respecting the standing of members of the university, as the fourth term from his matriculation.
- (b) A senior student shall not be required to pass Responsions or any part of the First Public Examination as a condition for the Degree of Bachelor of Arts.
- (c) A senior student shall be entitled to supplicate for the Degree of Bachelor of Arts if he shall have kept statutable residence for six terms, and either (*i*) shall have obtained a place, or his name shall have been placed as *ægrotat*, in the class list of an Honour

School of the Second Public Examination; or (ii) shall have satisfied the examiners in the Second Public Examination in the Final Honour School of Natural Science in Chemistry, Part I; or (iii) shall have satisfied the provisions of *Statt. Tit. VI.*, section I.D. Section 3, cl. 15.

No senior student shall be entitled to supplicate for the Degree of Bachelor of Arts unless he shall have satisfied the provisions of this sub-clause.

5. Any person who desires to become a senior or junior student under the provisions of this Statute shall send his application through an officer of a College or Hall or of the Delegacy of Non-Collegiate Students, or of the Society of Oxford Home-Students, to the Registrar of the University, and shall at the same time produce all necessary certificates and information in support of his application. If the application is granted, he shall pay to the university chest, through the Assistant Registrar, an admission fee either of five pounds if he register as a senior student, or of two pounds ten shillings if he register as a junior student. If at the time when the application is granted he has not yet been matriculated, this fee shall be paid within fourteen days of matriculation; if he has been matriculated, it shall be paid within fourteen days from the date of the granting of the application. Any person who makes his application later than four weeks after his matriculation shall pay, if his application is granted, an additional fee of one pound.

6. Any person who has been granted permission to be admitted as a senior or junior student, and who does not pay the required fee within the time prescribed in the preceding clause, shall on admission pay an additional fee of one pound. If he fails to pay the required fee before the Saturday in the eighth week of the full term next following that in which he was granted permission to be admitted as a senior or junior student or was matriculated, whichever happened later, the grant shall lapse, and shall not be renewable without the consent of Convocation.

7. It shall be the duty of the Assistant Registrar to keep a sufficient record of the members of the university who have the status and privileges of a junior or senior student respectively.

#### Appendix ii.

### UNIVERSITY OF CAMBRIDGE.

#### AFFILIATED STUDENTS.

**New Regulations to be substituted for the existing Regulations as from 1st January 1925.**

1. Graduates of universities, which have on the recommendation of the Council of the Senate been approved for the purpose

by Grace of the Senate, shall be entitled to admission to the privileges of affiliation, provided that they submit certificates showing that they have attended classes in such a university for a period of not less than three years, and that they produce either—

- (a) evidence of graduation with First-Class Honours, or a record which, in the opinion of the Council of the Senate, is equivalent to First-Class Honours<sup>1</sup>; or
- (b) evidence of graduation with Second-Class Honours (or a record which, in the opinion of the Council of the Senate, is equivalent to Second-Class Honours<sup>2</sup>), provided that they have passed, in one or more of the examinations by which they have qualified for their degree, in English, two other languages, one of which is either Latin or Greek, and Mathematics.

2. A student admitted to the privileges of Affiliation shall be entitled to any or all of the following privileges:—

- (a) to be exempted from the previous examination;
- (b) to reckon the first term kept by residence as the second, third, or fourth term of his residence, for the purposes of all provisions respecting the standing of candidates for Tripos Examinations or for Degree Examinations in Medicine, Surgery, or Music, and respecting the standing of candidates for Degrees, other than the ordinary B.A. Degree or Degrees conferred under the Regulations for Research Students;
- (c) on producing evidence that he has passed such examinations as may be approved by a Special Board connected with a Tripos, to be allowed to proceed to a part or section of that Tripos under the same conditions as though he had passed another part or section of a Tripos; and, if he shall obtain honours therein, to be admitted Bachelor designate in Arts on the completion of residence for the requisite number of terms, provided that—
  - (i) if the examination or examinations as to which evidence is produced are in a subject or subjects other

---

<sup>1</sup> In the case of approved Universities in the United States of America, the Council of the Senate will in general accept, as such a record, evidence that a student can be regarded as having graduated in the first sixth of his class (that is, all the students of his year), and also that he showed exceptional ability in some subject.

<sup>2</sup> In the case of approved Universities in the United States of America, the Council of the Senate will in general accept, as such a record, evidence that a student can be regarded as having graduated in the first half of his class (that is, all the students of his year).

than that which the Tripos is concerned, the consent of the General Board of Studies shall be obtained in each case;

- (ii) if a student is allowed under this regulation to proceed to a part or section of a Tripos in respect of which the regulations make different provisions according to the part or section of a Tripos which a student has already passed, the Special Board shall determine which of such provisions shall apply;
- (iii) application for admission to this privilege is made to the Registry before the end of the student's first term of residence;
- (iv) if this examination is taken before the last of the terms which the candidate is required to keep in order to qualify for the Degree of Bachelor of Arts, the candidate shall produce a certificate of "diligent study" for the residue of such terms.

3. (a) If a student admitted to the privileges of affiliation wishes to reckon for any purpose the first term kept by residence as the second, third, or fourth term of his residence, in accordance with the foregoing Regulation 2 (b), application should be made to the Registry for the registration of such allowance.

(b) If a student admitted to the privileges of affiliation has, in accordance with the foregoing Regulation 2 (b), reckoned for any purpose the first term kept by residence as the second, third, or fourth term of his residence, as the case may be, he shall be required so to reckon his first term for all purposes.

4. In the case of any student claiming to be admitted to the privileges of Affiliation, a certificate of having fulfilled the prescribed conditions, signed by the Registrar or other competent authority of the student's university, shall be presented for registration to the Registry in the student's first term of residence, and a fee of £2 shall be paid at the same time to the Registry for the university chest.

5. Any certificate of having fulfilled the prescribed conditions may be accepted for registration at a time later than that above specified, provided that in every such case an additional fee of £1 shall be paid to the Registry for the university chest.

6. Students claiming to be admitted to the privileges of Affiliation shall be required (a) to have fulfilled all the prescribed conditions before matriculation, (b) to matriculate and to pay the usual fee of £5, and (c) to pay the capitation tax in respect of each term allowed under Regulation 2 (b).

*Item (x) (a).—Place of Indian Vernaculars in the Curricula of Indian Universities.*

Name of important Indian vernaculars.	NUMBER AND NAMES OF UNIVERSITIES AT WHICH PRESCRIBED AS AN OPTIONAL SUBJECT IN THE EXAMINATION FOR—		REMARKS.
	B. A. (pas) degree.	M. A. (pas) degree.	
An Indian vernacular.	1 A modern Indian language or literature at the Benares Hindu University.	2 A modern Indian language or literature at the Benares Hindu University. Indian vernaculars permissible at the Calcutta University.	An Indian vernacular is a compulsory examination subject for the B. O. L. degree of the Punjab University. The Arts Faculty of the Delhi University comprises a Department of Persian and Urdu and a Department of Sanskrit, Hindi and Bengali.  The Arts Faculty of the Nagpur University comprises a Department of Arabic, Persian and allied vernaculars and a Department of Sanskrit and allied vernaculars.  The Arts Faculty of the Allahabad University comprises a Department of Arabic and Persian and allied vernaculars and a Department of Sanskrit and Prakrit languages.
Urdu . . . . .	8 Calcutta, Madras, Bombay, Patna, Dacca, Allgarh Muslim, Osmania and Mysore.	3 Madras, Bombay and Dacca.	Urdu is a compulsory subject in the B. A. Examination of the Allgarh Muslim University. It is the medium of instruction at the Osmania University.
Bengali . . . . .	3 Calcutta, Patna and Dacca.	1 Dacca.	
Burmese . . . . .	2 Calcutta and Rangoon.	1 Rangoon.	
Gujerati . . . . .	1 Bombay . . . . .	1 Bombay.	
Hindi . . . . .	3 Calcutta, Patna and Osmania.	..	
Marathi . . . . .	3 Madras, Bombay and Osmania.	2 Madras and Bombay.	
Tamil . . . . .	3 Madras, Osmania and Mysore.	1 Madras.	
Telugu . . . . .	3 Madras, Osmania and Mysore.	1 Madras.	

*Item No. (xi) (c).—The Proposal to form some Permanent Inter-University Organisation.*

The need for co-ordination in the work of universities in India, is emphasised by the Calcutta University Commission in Chapter



L, paragraphs 46—53 of their report. The Commission, writing before the introduction of the reformed system of government, recommended that the work of co-ordination should be undertaken by the Government of India. The Government of India did in fact by the creation of the Central Advisory Board of Education attempt to provide an agency to which questions of general policy might be referred. This body was, however, of a purely advisory nature, and, though it included three Vice-Chancellors of Indian Universities, it did not deal solely or even chiefly with university questions. Its advice was tendered to the Government of India and through that authority to local Governments. It was closed as a result of the recommendations of the Government of India Retrenchment Committee.

For the work of co-ordination as contemplated by the Calcutta University Commission no agency exists in India. The function of such an agency is considered by the Commission to be the encouragement of specialisation by different universities, more especially in the higher branches of technology, in order to avoid waste of effort and to make the best use of the funds available, and the promotion of research through co-operation.

Since the report of the Commission the establishment of some inter-university organisation has been recommended by three separate authorities:—

(i) The Congress of the Universities of the Empire held in 1921 passed the following resolution:—

“ That in the opinion of this Congress it is desirable that the universities of the various Dominions of the King overseas should arrange for periodical meetings of their representatives.

“ To this resolution also effect had been given; in Canada by the Conference of Canadian Universities; in Australia by the establishment of the Advisory Committee of Australian Universities; and in South Africa, where, since the Congress of 1912, the single university of the Cape of Good Hope had been replaced by the four universities of South Africa, Cape Town, Stellenbosch, and Johannesburg, by the establishment of the Joint Committee.”

The Indian delegates to the Congress passed the following resolution:—

“ 1. That Sir Michael Sadler, K.C.S.I., C.B., etc., be elected to represent the Indian Universities upon the Council of the Bureau of Universities of the British Empire.

“ 2. That this meeting recommend to the universities of India that an association or a committee of representatives of the different Indian Universities be formed with the object of dealing with questions affecting their mutual and common interests.

“ In connection with the second resolution, it was suggested that such an association, if formed, should go into the question of certain difficulties which may arise owing to the conditions of admission of students to certain courses and examinations of the universities of the United Kingdom not being suited to the qualifications which students from Indian Universities can present.”

The Universities Bureau of the British Empire addressed the Government of India in March last asking what steps could be taken to give effect to the second resolution.

(ii) The Lytton Committee on Indian students in England in paragraph 100 of their report write:—

“ We have pointed out in Chapter II that much inconvenience and uncertainty is now caused by the lack of uniformity in the recognition by British Universities of Indian Examinations and courses of study. We hope that the Indian University authorities will take steps at an early date to establish an Inter-University Board as recommended by the Calcutta University Commission for the purpose of co-ordinating the courses of study in India and securing uniformity in their recognition abroad. Such a body when formed would also be of great service in securing common action by the Indian Universities in the matter of representation in the United Kingdom to which we have referred in paragraph 92 above.”

(iii) The League of Nations had addressed the attached letter (*vide* Appendix) to the Government of India in which they suggest the formation of a National Committee on Intellectual Co-operation.

Finally more than one university in submitting suggestions for the agenda of this Conference had assumed or proposed the institution of some central agency.

It will be seen from the foregoing proposals that the functions suggested for such an agency are:—

- (1) to act as an inter-university secretariat and bureau of information;
- (2) to facilitate the exchange of professors and students;
- (3) to assist in the co-ordination of university work, more especially research;
- (4) to publish a journal of Indian research;
- (5) to discuss and report on the equivalence of Indian University examinations;
- (6) to obtain recognition for Indian degrees in other countries;
- (7) to appoint representatives of India at Imperial or international conferences on higher education.

## LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

*Geneva, 29th January 1924.*

At its first session, held in August 1922, the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation considered the position of intellectual work in the various countries. It noted that since the war this position had everywhere become extremely difficult, and that certain countries, which had suffered directly as a result of the war and the economic crisis which ensued, were in particularly serious straits. It emphasised the urgent necessity of coming to the assistance of such countries and also, in a general way of promoting intellectual interchanges of all kinds, more especially the exchange of publications and the interchange of professors and students.

With the encouragement of the third Assembly, the Committee devoted a whole year to the consideration of this problem, and, on the basis of practical experience, drew up a systematic scheme of action, which it finally determined during its second session held at Geneva from July 26th to August 2nd, 1923. The basis of the scheme is the formation of national Committees on intellectual co-operation in the various countries. The International Committee thinks that these committees would provide the best machinery for organising mutual intellectual assistance and promoting interchanges. In the Committee's opinion, this organisation which has been first set up in those countries which suffered most heavily through the war, should subsequently be extended to those in which intellectual life is in a more satisfactory position.

At its meeting on September 10th, 1923, the Council welcomed the formation of these national committees which it regarded as containing "the germs of a promising organisation, which is entirely in conformity with the principles of the League of Nations and will entail little expense." The fourth Assembly also approved the scheme, and, at its meeting on September 27th, 1923, adopted, among other resolutions the following:—

- (1) "The Assembly is of opinion that National Committees should also be established in those countries which have already organised intellectual co-operation on definite lines and in a different way.
- (2) The Assembly requests the Council to ask the Governments of the Members of the League of Nations to be good enough to lend their moral and financial support to these National Committees—if they have not already done so—and to authorise the Committee on Intellectual Co-operation to receive, from any institution or private persons interested in the work, funds destined for this purpose."

This second resolution, calling for action on the part of the Council, was approved by the latter at its meeting held on December 13th, 1923. The Council took the opportunity of congratulating the Committee on the remarkable results which it had achieved. It referred principally to the results of the third plenary session of the Committee, which had just been held in Paris from December 5th to 8th, 1923, and had been attended by delegates of those national committees which had so far been established on a definite footing.

A list of these Committees is attached, together with the " Suggestions relative to the organisation of national committees on intellectual co-operation " adopted at that session, and the text of an appeal on behalf of the National Committees which the International Committee has recently issued.

In pursuance of the resolutions quoted above, I have the honour, on behalf of the Council, to request your Government to be good enough to consider the possibility of forming a National Committee in your country, or to mention any institution which might be consulted by the International Committee with a view to the formation of such a committee, and to lend its moral and financial support to this national committee when it has been formed.

I should be much obliged if you would kindly inform me of any decisions reached by your Government on this subject, and I will duly communicate such decisions to the Members of the Council.

I have the honour to be,

*Secretary-General.*

---

**SUGGESTIONS RELATIVE TO THE ORGANIZATION OF NATIONAL COMMITTEES ON INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION**

*adopted at the Third Plenary Session of the International Committee on December 5th, 1923.*

1. The aims of the National Committees on Intellectual Co-operation shall be as follows:—

- (a) To act as intermediaries between the intellectual organisations in their respective countries and the International Committee appointed by the Council of the League of Nations;
- (b) To assist in the enquiry on the conditions of intellectual life undertaken by this Committee;
- (c) To transmit, either to the secretariat of the International Committee, or directly to the other National Com-

mittees concerned, the more urgent requests of intellectual institutions and workers in their respective countries, especially as regards books and instruments, travelling facilities and inter-university exchanges;

- (d) To comply as far as possible with requests of the same nature which they may receive through the secretariat of the International Committee or directly from the other National Committees.

2. The National Committees shall themselves determine their relations with their Governments and their rules of procedure and composition. Their constitution shall be governed by their own views and by the conditions and possibilities in each country. In countries in which several bodies are at work in the field of intellectual co-operation, they shall be requested to form one Committee if possible; they shall in any case agree to appoint a common delegate to represent them in their relations with the International Committee. It is desirable that each National Committee should include representatives of the following bodies:—

- (a) Institutions or associations which have already been created for the encouragement of intellectual co-operation at home or with foreign countries;
- (b) Organisations concerned with the various manifestations of human thought (academies, learned societies, literary societies, artistic societies, etc.);
- (c) The universities; either particular universities or national inter-university organisations;
- (d) The National Libraries, Bibliographical Institutes and offices for the exchange of publications;
- (e) The professional associations or the national federations of intellectual workers.

3. Each National Committee shall appoint one of its members to take charge of correspondence with the secretariat of the International Committee and with the other National Committees. The name and address of this member, together with full details in regard to the composition and working of the National Committee, and all communications or proposals which the latter may desire to make, shall be sent to the secretariat of the International Committee, which will publish them in the *Bulletin of the International University Information Office*.

## APPENDIX C.

## Resolutions passed by the Universities' Conference held at Simla from 19th to 23rd May 1924.

ARRANGED IN ORDER OF PROGRAMME (p. iii).

*The Appointment and Conditions of Service of University teachers. (Item i.)*

1. That whatever may be the appointing authority, University teachers should be selected by a small selection committee which in the case of major appointments should contain experts who are not teachers or officers of the University or of the colleges under its jurisdiction. (See page 24.)

Method of Selection.

2. That such committee should consist of the Vice-Chancellor and representatives of the executive and academic bodies in addition to external experts in the case of major appointments. (See page 24.)

3. That it is desirable that the total number of members of such a committee should not ordinarily exceed nine. (See page 24.)

4. That it is desirable that in order to secure the best men available, University teachers should have security of tenure and that appointments should be permanent, with an age limit of 55 or 60 years; in order, however, to safeguard the interests of the Universities, such appointments should, except in the case of experienced men who have already gained distinction in their subject, be in the first instance for a term of three years and be subject to confirmation at the end of that period. (Page 24.)

Length of Service.

5. That the foregoing arrangements should not exclude the establishment of short-term appointments in special cases. (Page 25.)

6. That in the opinion of the Conference there should be a mutual understanding between universities to the effect that whole-time University teachers should not ordinarily be at liberty to determine their appointments without giving six months' notice. (Page 26.)

7. That it is desirable that University teachers be exempted from language tests, except when such tests have a direct bearing on the work for which they have been appointed. (Page 25.)

Exemption from Language Tests.

8. That in view of the disparity of conditions the Conference does not think that it is either possible or desirable to make any recommendations regarding salary or leave for University teachers, but it regards it as desirable that this matter should be considered by any permanent inter-university organisation which may be formed. (Page 25.)

9. That it is desirable that there should be a provident fund for whole-time permanent teachers and officers of every university to which the persons concerned and the universities should contribute. (Page 26.)

10. That it is desirable that the contribution of the subscriber should not be less than  $6\frac{1}{4}$  per cent. (one anna in the rupee) and that of the University not less 10 per cent. of the salary in each case. (Page 26.)

11. That this Conference recommends for the favourable consideration of any permanent inter-university organisation which may be established, the foundation of a common provident fund for Indian universities on lines similar to, though not necessarily identical with, those of the Federated Superannuation Fund of the British Universities. (Page 26.)

12. That the Government of India be requested to apply the provisions of the Provident Funds Act of 1897 to the Provident Funds of Indian universities established by the Legislature and exempt contribution so made to them from payment of income-tax. (Page 27.)

13. That this Conference approves on principle the exchange of teachers between different universities, the details being settled in every case by the universities concerned. (Page 27.)

14. That in the opinion of this Conference it is desirable that universities in India should combine to invite distinguished teachers from abroad to deliver courses of lectures at different centres; and that the further consideration of this question should be referred to any permanent inter-university organisation that may be founded. (Page 28.)

*Libraries. (Item ii.)*

15. That universities should facilitate the issue of books and manuscripts to professors of other universities under such safeguards as may be necessary, though it is not practicable to make any recommendation with regard to the exchange and gift of books among Indian universities. (Page 28.)

16. That the India Office, the Government of India and the Provincial Governments should supply copies of all their publications free of cost to each university in India. (Page 28.)

Free supply of Government Publications.

17. That the libraries of the Imperial Government should be accessible wherever possible to professors of Indian universities. (Page 28.)

Admission to Government Libraries.

*The constitution of a Central Advisory Board for Scientific Research.*  
(Item iii.)

18. That it be recommended to the Government of India, that with a view to promoting co-operation among Indian universities in higher scientific studies and research and to advising the Government of India from time to time generally with regard to the promotion of scientific research in India, a central advisory board for scientific research be constituted in India comprising the heads of scientific departments of the Government of India and a representative of science nominated by each of the Indian universities and by the Indian Institute of Science, with power to co-opt representatives of other recognised institutes of science not affiliated to any university. (Page 35.)

Constitution and functions of the Board.

19. That it is not desirable to have only a single Journal of Science for the whole of India but that there should be all-India journals dealing with special branches of knowledge, and (i) that efforts should be made to utilize or combine existing organs of publication and to develop them into publications having an all-India basis, and (ii) that the Central Advisory Committees for Scientific Research should be entrusted with the task of co-ordinating scientific publications in India and recommending to Government cases where financial assistance from the State would be desirable. (Page 37.)

Publication of Scientific Journals.

20. That the Central Advisory Committee for Scientific Research be asked to consider whether the records of the Indian Museum (a journal of Indian Zoology), the records of the Botanical Survey of India, Memoirs of the Geological Survey of India and the Agricultural Journal of India, now issued by Government, should not have on their editorial boards expert representatives of the various universities and whether the scope of these journals should not be enlarged. (Page 37.)

21. That the Government of India be requested to remit the payment of customs duty on scientific apparatus and chemicals imported for the use of universities and other approved educational institutions. (Page 38.)

Exemption of Scientific apparatus and chemicals from customs duty.



*Lytton Committee's Report. (Item v.)*

22. That the substitution of University Students' Information Bureaux for students' advisory committees is desirable, provided that two or more universities may, if they so desire, form a combined bureau. (Page 10.)

23. That the constitution of the University Students' Information Bureaux is a matter for final determination by the Universities. (Page 10.)

24. That (a) the proposed University Students' Information Bureaux, when formed, may use the existing organisation in the United Kingdom; and that

(b) the question of forming a separate central agency in London for Indian universities may be deferred till further experience has been gained of the working of the proposed University Bureaux. (Page 36.)

*The New Statute of Oxford University. (Item vi.)*

25. That this Conference desires to represent to the University of Oxford the serious disability imposed on Indian graduates by the new Statute requiring as a qualification for admission to the status of a junior student that a candidate must have taken Latin, Greek, French or German for his degree. (Page 39.)

*University Training Corps. (Item vii.)*

26. That this Conference recommends to the military authorities that examinations for A and B certificates be instituted in the university training corps. (Page 22.)

27. That the system of allotting Commissions in the university training corps should be revised. (Page 22.)

28. That some central body should be created for the distribution of information about university training corps and that all battalions of university training corps should be kept in touch with one another. (Page 22.)

29. That more money should be allotted to the university training corps for training camps and that the universities should supplement these funds. (Page 22.)

30. That some efforts should be made to ensure closer working between the university training corps and the battalions of the Territorial force. (Page 22.)

- Sapper Companies and Medical units. 31. That where the material is available, permission should be given to start Sapper Companies and Medical Units. (Page 22.)
32. That Anglo-Indians should be permitted to enter university training corps. (Page 22.)
- Participation in inter-army competitions. 33. That facilities should be extended to university training corps to take part in inter-army competitions and rifle meetings. (Page 22.)
- Recognition of corps work for University examinations. 34. That this Conference recommends to Indian universities that the holding of A and B certificates be taken into account in assessing the value of an appearance at an examination. (Page 22.)

*Modern Languages in University Curricula. (Item x.)*

- Indian vernaculars. 35. This Conference is of opinion:—
- (a) that composition in a modern Indian language should be prescribed as a compulsory subject at the matriculation or admission examination to Indian universities and at the Intermediate examinations in Arts and Science;
  - (b) that a modern Indian language and literature should be recognised as an optional subject at the Intermediate in Arts, Bachelor and Master of Arts examinations. (Page 23.)
36. That in the interest of those students taking an Honours or Post-graduate degree in Science or Arts, facilities should be provided by Indian universities for the study of French and German. (Page 23.)

*The Constitution of an Inter-University Board. (Item xi.)*

- Functions of the Board. 37. That it is necessary to have a central agency in India:—
- (a) to act as an inter-university organisation and bureau of information;
  - (b) to facilitate the exchange of professors;
  - (c) to serve as an authorised channel of communication and facilitate the co-ordination of university work;
  - (d) to assist Indian universities in obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations in other countries;
  - (e) to appoint or recommend, where necessary, a common representative or representatives of India at Imperial or International conferences on higher education;

- (f) to act as an appointments bureau for Indian universities;  
 (g) to fulfil such other duties as may be assigned to it from time to time by the Indian universities. (Pages 29-32.)

38. (i) That the Board should consist of one representative appointed by each university (Page 32);

(ii) That the members shall ordinarily hold office for three years but during the first triennial period one-third shall retire at the end of one year, and one-third at the end of the second year, the allocation to be made by lot (Page 33);

(iii) That the Government of India may nominate from time to time a representative to attend meetings of the Board in an advisory capacity. (Page 33.)

39. That the Board shall decide where its permanent headquarters shall be; but pending such decision its office shall be at the headquarters of the Government of India. The Board shall meet at such centres as may be decided by the Board from time to time; the Board shall meet at least once a year. (Page 33.)

40. (i) That the cost of maintaining the Board be met by equal contributions from the universities;

(ii) that the Government of India and the provincial governments be requested to make grants towards the expenses of the Board. (Page 34.)

41. That the travelling allowance of the Board at its first meeting should be defrayed by the Government of India. (Page 34.)

42. That on the Board coming into existence the Government of India be requested to intimate to the International Committee of the League of Nations on Intellectual Co-operation that the proposed inter-university organisation should be recognised as an institution which the International Committee should consult with a view to the formation of an Indian National Committee. (Page 34.)

43. That in the opinion of this Conference economy in university finance and increase in efficiency will be rendered possible by the co-ordination of post-graduate studies in Indian universities. (Page 36.)

44. That the recommendations of the Committee on the equivalence of examinations and the amendments moved at the Conference be forwarded to the inter-University Board for report to the next Conference. (Page 43.)

45. That the Inter-University Board, when constituted, should consider whether it is necessary that the Government should take some steps, legislative or otherwise, to prevent the sale and use of bogus degrees in India. (Page 43.)

Bogus degrees.

46. (i) That it be a recommendation to local governments that grants made to universities be ordinarily block grants;

Grants to Universities.

(ii) that the Inter-University Board, when established, be requested to consider the question of the financial relations of the universities with local governments. (Page 43.)

47. That the Conference requests the representatives of each university to nominate a member to serve on a provisional committee to meet at Simla immediately after the conclusion of the Conference for the purpose of making to the universities further detailed suggestions with regard to the formation of an Inter-University Board, on such subjects as (i) the date by which the reports of the universities in response to the resolutions of the Conference should be received; (ii) the initial financial requirements of the proposed Board, and (iii) the practical arrangements to be made for the first meeting of the Board including the place of its first meeting. (Page 41.)

Provisional Committee.

48. That the Conference requests the Government of India to forward the resolutions of the Conference and of the provisional committees relating to the proposed Inter-University Board to the Indian universities, and if the majority of the universities agree to these resolutions, to make arrangements in accordance with the conclusions adopted by these universities, for the first meeting of the Inter-University Board. (Page 41.)

Procedure.

49. That the cordial thanks of this Conference of the Universities of India be offered to the Hon'ble Sir Narasimha Sarma for the very great service which he has rendered to the Indian universities by summoning the Conference, and by his courteous and able conduct in the Chair; and that the warm thanks of the Conference be also accorded to the Hon'ble Mr. Richey for his services in making arrangements for the organisation of this Conference and to Mr. Rushbrook Williams as its Secretary. (Page 43.)

Vote of thanks.

## APPENDIX D.

**Minutes of the meeting held on May the 24th, 1924, of the Provisional Committee appointed by resolution 47 of the Universities' Conference.**

1. Mr. J. A. Richey, Educational Commissioner, reported that the following delegates had been appointed as members of the Provisional Committee by the Universities' Conference:—

1. Principal H. C. Maitra . . . Calcutta University.
2. Mr. V. G. Kale . . . Bombay University.
3. Dr. E. M. Macphail . . . Madras University.
4. Sir John Maynard . . . Punjab University.
5. Dr. N. R. Dhar . . . Allahabad University.
6. Mr. A. B. Dhruva . . . Benares Hindu University.
7. Mr. N. S. Subba Rao . . . Mysore University.
8. Mr. E. A. Horne . . . Patna University.
9. Mr. A. Hydari . . . Osmania University.
10. Dr. L. K. Hyder . . . Aligarh Muslim University.
11. Mr. L. G. Owen . . . Rangoon University.
12. Dr. R. K. Mukerji . . . Lucknow University.
13. Mr. P. J. Hartog . . . Dacca University.
14. Dr. H. S. Gour . . . Delhi University.
15. Rai Bahadur V. R. Pandit Nagpur University.

2. All the members of the Committee were present except Mr. N. S. Subba Rao, Mysore University, who was unavoidably absent, but concurred in the findings of the Committee, and Dr. H. S. Gour, Delhi University, who was also unavoidably absent.

3. Sir John Maynard, Punjab University, was elected to the Chair.

---

Resolution 47.—That the Conference requests the representatives of each University to nominate a member to serve on a Provisional Committee to meet at Simla immediately after the conclusion of the Conference for the purpose of making to the universities further detailed suggestions with regard to the formation of an inter-university board on such subjects as (1) the date by which the reports of the universities in response to the resolutions of the Conference should be received, (2) the initial financial requirements of the proposed board, and (3) the practical arrangements to be made for the first meeting of the board, including the place of its first meeting.

Resolution 48.—That the Conference requests the Government to forward the resolutions of the Conference and of the Provisional Committee relating to the proposed inter-university board to the Indian universities, and if the majority of the universities agree to these resolutions, to make arrangements in accordance with the conclusions adopted by these universities, for the first meeting of the inter-university board.

4. The Committee resolved to suggest that replies from the universities on the resolutions of the Conference relating to the constitution of an Inter-University Board should be received by December the 1st, 1924.

5. It was recognised that the proposed inter-university board, if constituted, would frame its own budget. But in order to give to the universities a clear view of the functions contemplated for the inter-university board and of its probable expenditure, the following draft estimates were framed:—

*Recurring (average).*

	Rs.	Rs.
Whole-time Secretary (on Rs. 600—50—700)	7,800	
Stenographer (on Rs. 100—10—200) . . . . .	1,320	
Clerk (on Rs. 70—5—80) . . . . .	900	
Three menials (Rs. 45 p.m.) . . . . .	540	
Provident Fund at 10 per cent. . . . .	1,056	
Travelling allowance of staff . . . . .	1,000	
Rent of office . . . . .	1,000	
Postage, stationery and contingencies . . . . .	2,000	
Printing charges (exclusive of cost of printing Indian Universities' Hand Book) . . . . .	1,000	
Purchase of books for a library of reference dealing with university education . . . . .	1,384	
	18,000	18,000

*Non-recurring.*

*Initial equipment and cost of first issue of Indian Universities Hand Book:—*

	Rs.	Rs.
Duplicator . . . . .	1,500	
Typewriter . . . . .	400	
Furniture . . . . .	1,100	
Printing of Indian Universities' Hand Book . . . . .	3,000	
	6,000	6,000
<b>GRAND TOTAL</b>		<b>24,000</b>

*N.B.*—It was suggested that a supplement to the Handbook with corrections might be issued in each of the two years succeeding the first year of issue, so that a new edition would not be required till the third year.

6. If the universities agree to the constitution of the proposed inter-university board on the lines contemplated, the *maximum* contribution from each university, if all fifteen universities join in the formation of the board, will be Rs. 1,600 per annum, which would

be reduced proportionately by the amount of any grant made by the Government of India to whom an application for a grant should be addressed in accordance with the decision of the Conference.

The Committee suggest that each university should guarantee an annual contribution of a maximum amount of Rs. 1,600 for a term of three years with effect from April the 1st, 1925, and that an advance payment of not less than Rs. 100 should be made by each university on February 1st, 1925, to meet certain preliminary expenses.

7. The Committee suggest that the first meeting of the Inter-University Board should be held in Calcutta, if possible, in February next and not later than March 1925.

H. J. MAYNARD,

*Chairman.*

**BUREAU OF EDUCATION**

**INDIA**

---

**OCCASIONAL REPORTS**

**No. 14.**

---

**Some Experiments in Indian  
Education**



**CALCUTTA: GOVERNMENT OF INDIA  
CENTRAL PUBLICATION BRANCH  
1927**



Government of India Publications are obtainable from the Government of India Central Publication Branch, Imperial Secretariat Building, 3, Government Place, West, Calcutta, and from the following Agents:—

EUROPE.—OFFICE OF THE HIGH COMMISSIONER FOR INDIA,  
42, GROSVENOR GARDENS, LONDON, S.W. 1.

And at all Booksellers.

INDIA AND CEYLON.—PROVINCIAL BOOK DEPOTS:

**MADRAS**:—Office of the Superintendent, Government Press, Mount Road, Madras.  
**BOMBAY**:—Superintendent, Government Book Depot, Town Hall, Bombay.  
**SIND**:—Library attached to the Office of the Commissioner in Sind, Karachi.  
**BENGAL**:—Office of the Bengal Secretariat Book Depot, Writers' Buildings, Room No. 1, Ground Floor, Calcutta.  
**UNITED PROVINCES OF AGRA AND OUDH**:—Office of the Superintendent of Government Press, United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, Allahabad.  
**PUNJAB**:—Office of the Superintendent, Government Printing, Punjab, Lahore.  
**BURMA**:—Office of the Superintendent, Government Printing, Burma, Rangoon.  
**CENTRAL PROVINCES AND BHRAR**:—Office of the Central Provinces Secretariat, Nagpur.  
**ASSAM**:—Office of the Superintendent, Assam Secretariat Press.  
**BIHAR AND ORISSA**:—Office of the Superintendent, Government Printing, Bihar and Orissa, P. O. Gulzarbagh, Patna.  
**COORG**:—Office of the Chief Commissioner of Coorg, Bangalore.  
**NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE**:—Office of the Manager, Government Printing and Stationery, Peshawar.

Thacker Spink & Co., Calcutta and Simla.  
 W. Newman & Co., Ltd., Calcutta.  
 E. Cambrey & Co., Calcutta.  
 S. K. Lahiri & Co., Calcutta.  
 The Indian School Supply Depot, 308, Bow Bazar Street, Calcutta, and 226, Nawabpura, Dacca.  
 Butterworth & Co. (India), Ltd., Calcutta.  
 Rai M. C. Sarcar Bahadur & Sons, 80-2A, Harrison Road, Calcutta.  
 The Weldon Library, 17, Park Street, Calcutta.  
 Standard Literature Company, Limited, Calcutta.  
 Association Press, Calcutta.  
 Chukerverthy, Chatterjee & Co., Ltd., 13, College Square, Calcutta.  
 The Book Company, Calcutta.  
 James Murray & Co., 12, Government Place, Calcutta. (For Meteorological Publications only.)  
 Roy Chaudhury & Co., 68/5, Stussa, Road, North Calcutta.  
 Higginbotham & Co., Madras.  
 V. Kalyanaram Iyer & Co., Madras.  
 P. R. Rama Iyer & Co., Madras.  
 Rochouse and Sons, Madras.  
 G. A. Nateson & Co., Publishers, George Town, Madras.  
 The Modern Stores, Salem, Madras.  
 Bright & Co., Trivandrum.  
 The Booklover's Resort, Taikad, Trivandrum, South India.  
 V. S. Swaminathan, Bookseller, West Tower Street, Madura.  
 E. M. Gopalakrishna Kone, Pudumandapam, Madura.  
 Vijapur & Co., Vizagapatam.  
 Thacker & Co., Ltd., Bombay.  
 D. B. Taraporevals, Sons & Co., Bombay.  
 Sunder Pandurang, Bombay.  
 Ram Chandra Govind & Sons, Kalbadevi, Bombay.  
 N. M. Tripathi & Co., Booksellers, Princess Street, Kalbadevi Road, Bombay.  
 R. B. Umadikar & Co., The Bharat Book Depot, Dharwar.  
 Proprietor, New Kitabkhana, Poona.  
 The Manager, Oriental Book Supplying Agency, 15 Shukrawar, Poona City.  
 R. S. Gondhalekar's Book Depot, Publisher and Bookseller, Budhwar Chawk, Poona City.  
 Managing Director, Co-operative Bookstall, Booksellers and Publishers, Poona City.  
 The Standard Bookstall, Karachi, Quetta, Delhi, Murree and Rawalpindi.  
 J. Ray & Sons, 43, K. & L. Edwardes Road, Rawalpindi.  
 The Standard Bookstall, Quetta.  
 The Standard Book Depot, Lahore, Lucknow, Nainital, Mussoorie, Dalhousie and Ambala Cantonment.

Karsandas Narandas & Sons, Surat.  
 Mangaldas & Sons, Booksellers and Publishers, Bhaga Talao, Surat.  
 Mrs. Radhabai Atmaram Sagoon, Kalbadevi Road, Bombay.  
 A. H. Wheeler & Co., Allahabad, Calcutta and Bombay.  
 The Karachi Book Depot, Karachi.  
 N. B. Mathur, Supdt., Nazir Kanun Hind Press, Allahabad.  
 The North India Christian Tract and Book Society, 18, Clive Road, Allahabad.  
 Ram Dayal Agarwala, 184, Katra, Allahabad.  
 Manager, Newal Kishore Press, Lucknow.  
 The Upper India Publishing House, Ltd., 41, Aminabad Park, Lucknow.  
 Munshi Seeta Ram, Managing Proprietor, Indian Army Book Depot, Juhi, Cawnpore.  
 Rai Sahib M. Gulab Singh & Sons, Mufid-i-Am Press, Lahore and Allahabad.  
 Rama Krishna & Sons, Booksellers, Anarkali, Lahore.  
 Puri Brothers, Booksellers' and Publishers, Katcheri Road, Lahore.  
 The Tilak School Bookshop, Lahore.  
 The Standard Bookstall, Lahore.  
 Manager of the Imperial Book Depot, 63, Chandni Chowk Street, Delhi.  
 Oxford Book and Stationery Company, Delhi.  
 Supdt., American Baptist Mission Press, Rangoon.  
 Proprietor, Rangoon Times Press, Rangoon.  
 The Modern Publishing House, Ltd., 30 Phayre Street, Rangoon.  
 The International Buddhist Book Depot, Post Box No. 971, Rangoon.  
 Burma Book Club Ltd., Rangoon.  
 Manager, The "Hitavada," Nagpur.  
 Bhisey Brothers, Booksellers and Stationers, Sitabdi, Nagpur.  
 S. C. Talukdar, Proprietor, Students & Co., Cooch Behar.  
 Times of Ceylon Co., Ltd.  
 The Manager, Ceylon Observer, Colombo.  
 The Manager, The Indian Book Shop, Benares City.  
 B. C. Basak, Esq., Proprietor, Albert Library, Dacca.  
 The Srivilliputtur Co-operative Trading Union, Ltd., Srivilliputtur (Satur, S. I. R.).  
 Banwari Lal, Esq., Pakariya Street, Pilibhit, United Provinces.  
 The Manager, Educational Book Depot, Jubbulpore.  
 Raghunath Prasad & Sons, Patna City.  
 Dandekar Brothers, Indore City.  
 The Hyderabad Book Depot, Chaderghat, Hyderabad (Deccan).

## FOREWORD.

The five articles in this volume have this in common that they are all first-hand accounts of experiments which are proving successful. As such they may serve to encourage other workers in the field of Indian education to face the difficulties which confront the educational reformer. The first three articles deal with experiments in the Dalton system in Indian schools, the fourth is an account of a rural school and training class run on novel lines and the last is a description of a very complete system of school medical inspection in a town of some thirty thousand inhabitants. The articles are printed in the form in which they were received. An introductory note on the Dalton system has been added, as the authors of the first three articles assume a knowledge of it which may not be common to all readers.

J. A. RICHEY,

*Educational Commissioner,  
with the Government of India.*

DELHI,

*12th November, 1926.*

## CONTENTS.

	PAGE.
1. A Note on the Dalton Plan by the Educational Commissioner . . . . .	1
2. The Dalton Method in the Shillong Government High School, by the Revd. Oliver Thomas, Headmaster . . . . .	6
3. A Report on the Working of the Dalton Plan in the Armenitola High School, Dacca, by Mr. T. J. Collins, Headmaster . . . . .	26
4. The Dalton Plan adapted to the Teaching of Plural Classes in a Primary School, by Srijut Sarat Chandra Goswami, Superintendent of the Normal School, Jorhat . . . . .	40
5. A Training School for Village Teachers, Moga, Punjab, by the Revd. A. E. Harper, Principal . . . . .	56
6. The Medical Inspection of School Children at Simla, by Major J. R. D. Webb, O.B.E., I.M.S., Medical Officer of Health, Simla . . . . .	77

## A NOTE ON THE DALTON PLAN.

The Dalton Plan takes its name from the Dalton High School, Massachusetts, where it was first introduced by its originator, Miss Helen Parkhurst. A full description of the Plan will be found in Miss Parkhurst's book "Education on the Dalton System."

The Plan may be described as an attempt to organise the work of a large secondary school in accordance with recent tendencies in educational theory and practice. Education now tends to lay stress on the individual child as opposed to the class as the unit of teaching. Methods of class instruction have, since the time of Herbert, been developed to a very high standard of efficiency. But all systems of class teaching have certain serious defects inherent in the very nature of class teaching. Firstly, the rate of progress of the class during each lesson period and during each school year is regulated by the pace of its slower members: secondly, the initiative rests throughout with the teacher. The questioning, for example, is all on the side of the teacher while the same amount of time is spent by each pupil in the study of each subject. The better organised, the better disciplined the class, the less scope is there for originality on the part of any particular pupil and the less account is taken of individual aptitudes.

Noteworthy attempts to break away from the rigidity of the class system have been made by Dr. Montessori and by the pioneers of the "free discipline movement," while the "project method," which extends the unit of learning beyond the single lesson period, is also designed to encourage initiative on the part of the pupils. Although the followers of Dr. Montessori have achieved a certain success with small and backward children, all attempts to introduce individual teaching for older children in large schools have hitherto broken down over difficulties of organisation.

The Dalton Plan attempts to incorporate the better features of these modern movements in the work of the secondary school.

The first advantage to which it may lay claim should go far to disarm the criticisms of conservative teachers: it does not upset the class system of the school and it can be introduced piecemeal. Let us assume that it is proposed to make a modest beginning by introducing the new method for the teaching of three subjects only, history, geography and science, in the Middle Department. The first step is to prepare three rooms to serve as laboratories in these subjects. To the history room will be transported all the textbooks, library books, maps, charts, etc., which will be useful to pupils of the Middle Department in the study of history. The geography and science laboratories will be similarly equipped. The next step is to decide what period of the school time should be devoted to laboratory work. Supposing that twelve hours a week is the aggregate amount of school time ordinarily devoted to these

three subjects, then two hours a day for five days may be transferred to laboratory work, the remaining two hours being reserved for class teaching in these subjects. All the other subjects of the curriculum will continue to be taught as heretofore by the ordinary class system during the remaining periods of each day. The third and most difficult step is the organisation of the laboratory work. The form master will assign to each pupil in his class the work in each subject which he must cover within a fixed period, *e.g.*, a fortnight. The subject matter of the assignments given to every pupil in a class should be identical though, as explained hereafter, considerable latitude is permitted in the standard of difficulty of different assignments. Each assignment should be in the form of a project, *i.e.*, it should be complete in itself and not any arbitrary and artificial task such as the study of so many pages of a text book; for example "The causes of the rise of the Mahratta Power," "The Geography of China," "Pulleys" might form the subjects of assignments. The assignment which must be written or typed should, in addition to naming the subject, contain questions and instructions to guide the pupils in their work, including references to the pages of text books and the names of other books bearing on the subject of the assignment. In order to allow for the different aptitudes and interests of the children, alternative assignments covering the same project may be given. The simplest method is to give two grades of assignment in each subject in each class. Grade "B" is the minimum amount of work which should be covered even by the most backward pupil; the same project treated more fully will form the "A" assignment, and will only be undertaken by those pupils who are strong in that subject. It will rest with the boy himself, though he will naturally be largely guided in this matter by his master, to decide whether he will contract for the "A" or "B" assignment in any one subject. If, for example, he is strong in science and weak in history and geography, he may take on the "A" contract in science and the "B" contracts in the latter two subjects. If at the end of the fortnight it is clear that the "A" work was beyond him, he will be content with the three "B" assignments for the next contract. This contracting by the pupil to cover the work assigned to him is one of the essential features of the Dalton Plan. It throws the responsibility for completing the task on the pupil who has promised to fulfil his contract. In some schools an actual form of contract is signed by each pupil and handed over to the teacher.

But it would be unfair to expect the pupil to fulfil his contract if he were also not given a freehand to work at it as it seemed to him best. We now reach the central feature of the Dalton Plan. The boy having assumed his contracts now enters on the fortnight's work in which he is to complete them. At the beginning of the two hours' laboratory period he enters whichever of the three laboratories he likes; he decides, for example, to begin with geography. On entering the geography room he may find some other boys of his class there. It is open to him to join them in their work. This

system of group working is also an essential feature of the Dalton Plan. He will find in the room all materials that he will need for his work. He will also find a geography teacher sitting at a desk to whom he may take any problem which arises for solution. There is no need for him to stay in the room when his interest in the subject has flagged. He may then proceed to either the history or the science room. In short the time of each pupil during the laboratory periods is at his own disposal provided only that he works in one or other of the three laboratories and is not disturbing the work of the other pupils. Whereas under the class system he may have had to devote six hours a week to arithmetic for which he has a natural bent and the same number of hours to history and geography which he finds difficult, he may, under the Dalton Plan, complete his arithmetical assignment in three hours and transfer the three hours saved to his weaker subjects.

At the same time some daily measure of time and work is necessary if only to warn a boy when he is getting behindhand with any one of his contracts. Various devices are used for this purpose. A simple method is the following. Each assignment is divided into units of approximately equal lengths, *e.g.*, five weekly units. Outside each laboratory is hung a chart on which the names of all the boys are entered with blank columns for units opposite to the names. When a boy leaves the laboratory, he draws a line across one or more blank columns opposite to his name on the chart, thus indicating the number of units he has just completed. In addition to the laboratory charts, it will add considerably to the interest of the children if separate cards are supplied to each of them similar in form to the laboratory charts but with the names of the subjects entered in the first column. This card is filled in by the boy in the same way as the laboratory chart by drawing a line through the units opposite to the subject which he has just studied. While the plan is in its early stages, it may be of advantage to have the entries on the boys' cards certified by the teachers in charge of the laboratories. The proper fulfilment of the contracts is tested by the form master either by requiring the boys to record notes of their work in the form of answers to questions supplied in the assignment, or by tests in the form at the end of each assignment period, or preferably by both means.

Finally, and this is a most important point, no home work is required in laboratory subjects. If a boy finds that he cannot complete his contract in any subject in the laboratory in the time at his disposal, he is at liberty to work at it at home. But the assignments should be so drawn up that it should be unnecessary for him to do so unless he wastes his time in school.

The foregoing short description of the Dalton Plan would be incomplete if answers to some of the more obvious criticisms that suggest themselves were not offered. These answers are derived from the experience of headmasters and teachers who have tried the plan.

In the first place, how does the plan affect discipline? At first it is admitted that there is a certain amount of confusion owing to boys attempting to enter laboratories which have already their full complement of students, caused also by unnecessary talking by the more light-hearted boys in corridors and laboratories, etc. But even in England it is found that this phase is soon over and it is unlikely to be so acute in India, where discipline is much more easily maintained owing to the genuine desire of most of the boys to succeed in their work.

*Secondly*, is there not a temptation for boys to neglect those subjects which are distasteful to them? The methods by which such neglect is checked, *i.e.*, the laboratory charts and pupil cards, have been described and it is of course the duty of the form master to keep an eye on the work of his form. As a matter of fact, it is often found that a boy first tackles the subject in which he is most backward, reserving for his easier moments his favourite subjects.

*Thirdly*, the drawing up of assignments is undoubtedly a matter of some difficulty. It will be realised that this difficulty only exists in the earlier stages under the new system. In a year or two a set of standard assignments for each class in each subject is evolved, which may of course be modified from time to time in the light of experience, but which will relieve teachers of this initial responsibility. Actual sets of standard assignments have now been published for use in English schools though, except as models of the form which assignments should take, they will probably be of little use in Indian schools.

*Fourthly*, until the assignments have become standardised, until both boys and masters are accustomed to working under the new system, the Dalton Plan undoubtedly makes a serious demand on the teachers. Apart from the great care needed in drawing up suitable assignments and explaining them clearly to the boys before they undertake their contracts, the work of allotting suitable assignments to each member of his form and of checking their progress from their notes and by periodical tests requires a genuine interest on the part of the teacher not only in the subjects which he teaches but also in the capacities of individual pupils. The task of supervising laboratory work, though it will naturally be distributed amongst those teachers who are specialists in the various laboratory subjects, is in itself sufficiently arduous. Any one who has supervised preparation time in the school when boys of different ages and at different stages of progress ask for help from the supervisors will realize that this requires more of a master than the same period spent in ordinary form work.

Mr. G. A. Small, I.E.S., Inspector of Schools, Assam, makes several suggestions based on his practical experience of the working of the Plan in Assam schools:—

- (a) The boys should bring up units of work for correction, not whole assignments, otherwise the teacher is overwhelmed with masses of correction at the end of the assignment period.

(b) No new assignment should be given to any boy in any subject until his previous assignment in all subjects is passed by the subject teachers, exceptions to this rule must receive the headmaster's sanction.

In spite of these and other difficulties Mr. Small says " I do not think any teacher who is interested in his work and has tried the Dalton Plan would willingly go back to ordinary class methods. He gets to know his boys personally and finds that dealing with their individual difficulties, though tiring, is more interesting than dealing with them as a class."



## THE DALTON METHOD IN THE SHILLONG GOVERNMENT HIGH SCHOOL.

One of the commonest arguments used by the critics of the Dalton method in Indian schools is that it is impracticable. The atmosphere of an Indian school and of an Indian home, it is said, is so different from that of England and America that the method is bound to be a failure. Moreover the paucity in the Indian vernaculars of books of reference and books of general interest for young people, the fact that the reading of books other than school textbooks is, for various reasons, uncommon, and the further fact that the education of boys in the upper classes is conducted through the medium of a foreign tongue seem, at first sight, to justify this contention very much. While it is conceded that the brighter boys coming from well-to-do-homes may derive some benefit from the Dalton Method many fear that the effect of such a method on dull, slow boys and on boys who have to be compelled to study at every point, is bound to be bad. It is further argued that the method, in order to be successful, demands accommodation and apparatus on a scale impossible except in a very few favoured schools.

It is nevertheless a fact that the method can be made a very real success even where the conditions seem, from every point of view, to militate against its introduction. It would be difficult to find a school where conditions for the introduction of the Dalton Method are less favourable than the Shillong Government High School. In its provision has to be made for the education, not only of Bengalees and Assamese, but also of boys belonging to eight or ten different Hill Tribes all speaking different languages. In none of these languages is there a literature worthy of the name. The richest of them, Khasi, has not a hundred books all told, whereas most of them are limited to a few reading primers and some portions of the Bible. Most of these languages are not recognised by the Calcutta University even for translation purposes with the result that these boys, in addition to being taught through the medium of English, have to learn another tongue to serve as a vernacular for examination purposes. Again, few of the parents of these boys are in a position to give their sons any help at home. The majority of them are poor cultivators who themselves have had little or no education, and, if it is true that the greatest impetus to study is to live in the company of studious people, it will be seen that very little help can be got for the Dalton Method from the home life of the majority of the Hill boys.

For the last twelve years the question of increased accommodation has been urgent in the Shillong School. On this point Inspectors, Directors of Public Education, Ministers, and Governors are of our mind, and it is calculated that at least eleven extra classrooms are required to provide the school with the accommodation it needs. Scarcity of funds alone has delayed the provision of the required additional accommodation.

From no point of view, therefore, is the school exceptionally well fitted for the introduction of the Dalton Method. And yet, in spite of all these disadvantages, the method, as modified to suit our needs, has been an unquestionable success.

Practically everybody interested in education is discontented with things as they are. The curriculum is undoubtedly too confined to purely literary subjects. It needs broadening. It needs to include subjects which will enable the boys to take a far greater interest and pleasure in the world around them and in the course of everyday events. Its tendency is to estrange boys from village life without creating in them an appreciation of the resources and possibilities of real culture in village life, and equipping them to utilize those resources and culture.

But however much we may desire to modify and change the curriculum most of us have to accept the curriculum as laid down for us by the powers that be. But even with the present curriculum a great deal can be done by the adoption of better methods. Important as the question of subject matter undoubtedly is, and urgent as the need is to lead our pupils to fields of study which will demand more real thinking and create an attitude to problems and to life which will enable them to preserve, develop, and utilize the culture and resources of life round about them, it is nevertheless true that almost any subject matter can be made the means of enlightenment, inspiration, and mental and spiritual discipline and development, provided the method of study adopted trains the boys into the right attitudes.

It is from this point of view that the Dalton Method is of the highest service. What are we aiming at in all our educational work?

We wish, in the first place, to enrich the lives of our pupils and to open to them the doors of the untold wealth which the literatures of the world possess. We wish, not only to prepare them for life but to prepare them against life, *i.e.*, to give them means and resources of cultural and spiritual development which will enable them to rise superior to the poverty of the conditions in which so many of them must live.

We wish, too, to give them a mastery of the mechanism of learning so that they may know where to obtain the information which they need and how to adapt that information to the solution of the problems which they may have to face alter on in life. This involves the need of teaching our pupils the effective use of the books and sources of information. It implies their introduction to a far wider range of books and problems than the ordinary text-book method allows.

Various efforts have been made in the Shillong school from time to time to remove the obvious defects of the old system of class-teaching. In order to ensure regular study throughout the year in the place of fitful bursts of cramming just before the terminal and the final examinations the system was once tried

of giving daily marks for work tested and done in class and of adding the percentage of marks thus gained throughout the year to the percentage of marks gained in the final examination of the purposes of proportion. Again, in order to do away with the waste of time involved in keeping back in the same class for another year a boy who had failed in one particular subject, an attempt was made, on the suggestion of the Director of Public Instruction, to promote boys by subjects, *i.e.*, a boy might be in Class VIII in English in which he was strong, and in Class VI in Mathematics, in which he was weak. But whatever merits or demerits such a system might have had it was found impracticable in a school where so many interests had to be served to arrange a time-table in such a way as to permit of this being done.

Three years ago, *i.e.*, in 1923, it was decided to introduce a very modified form of the Dalton Method into the school. The history of the experiment will be of interest if only to show that the spirit of the Method can be followed even if the letter cannot be carried out in every detail.

In education, as in religion, it is of utmost importance to distinguish between the letter and the spirit. Nothing would be easier than to reproduce all the mechanism of the Dalton Method and yet miss its essential spirit. The Method involves such a revolution in education that we must not be surprised if teachers who have been trained in quite another atmosphere and who have never seen the Dalton Method successfully worked out are sceptical and afraid of its introduction. The success of the Method depends so much upon the enthusiasm and spirit of the teacher that it is of the utmost importance that he should be wholeheartedly convinced of its value and converted to its point of view.

The Dalton Method is itself a development, the result of a series of experiments and improvements conducted over a series of years. Moreover, it is a method capable of considerable modification according to the circumstances of the school into which it is introduced. In introducing it into the Shillong High School I was more concerned, during the first year, with leading the teachers to see what was being aimed at, and with helping them to get the new point of view than with anything else.

The form which the experiment took was, therefore, to introduce a very modified form of the Dalton Method. Eight classes were selected for the experiment, *viz.*, three sections of Class VII, three sections of Class VIII, and two sections of Class IX.

1. Monthly assignments were prepared and given to the boys which aimed at:—

- (a) indicating to the pupils the amount of work they were expected to do in a month,
- (b) pointing out the essential and important things to be mastered and the difficulties that would, probably, be encountered,
- (c) demanding real preparation and thought.

2. Two periods a day were given over to free study. During the first year no attempt was made to establish Subject Laboratories. Each class remained in its own room during the periods of free study. During these periods there was no class teaching. The pupils were at liberty to take up any subject they liked while the teacher in charge was ready to help the boys with the difficulties they could not solve. The same teacher was not in charge of the same class throughout the week, but the teachers were so arranged that during the week the pupils would get the help of teachers who were experts in all the various subjects studied.

3. Nor was the group system as yet introduced but a monthly examination was provided as substitute for the time being. Class-teaching, however, gradually underwent a definite change. More time was spent in testing the boys and in finding out what their difficulties were. It was found unnecessary to do in class all the work that used to be done. As a result the efforts could be confined to real difficulties and the teacher found it was possible to cover more ground.

It may be argued that there was very little of the Dalton Method about this, but the results of the experiment were, nevertheless, very valuable.

In the first place, it gave the teachers valuable experience in the preparation of assignments. These assignments were presented to me every month for inspection and criticism. They were further modified and improved in the light of actual experience from month to month. The effort to look at the work to be done from the point of view of the pupil rather than that of the teacher was in itself a valuable discipline of thought, while the teacher was compelled by failure to put more care and thought into the planning of his work. The assignments were often very imperfect and it would have saved the headmaster much time and trouble if he had undertaken the preparation of the assignments himself. But the temptation to do this was resisted. So much in the Dalton Method depends upon the ability of the teacher to put himself in the place of his pupils and to plan out his assignments well that I should have been perfectly satisfied if we had got nothing more out of the first year's experiment than this experience in the preparation of assignments.

But a great deal more was gained. It gave a new point of view to the pupil as well as to the teacher. It shifted the responsibility for progress to some extent at least from the shoulders of the teacher to that of the pupil. The pupil saw clearly before him the course of study that he had to follow; he was given a definite idea of the amount of work he was expected to do within a stated time: he found that he had to prepare in anticipation of the lesson to be given by his teacher: and, finally, he came to look upon his teacher from a new angle, *i.e.*, as a helper in trouble instead of as a driver.

No one could help noticing the difference in the atmosphere during the periods of free study as compared with that of the ordinary classes. Everybody was hard at work and there were three

reasons for this. First, each student was busy with work of his own choice. Secondly, he was out to get all the help he could from his teacher. Third, he found that many of his problems could be easily solved when tackled in co-operation with two or three of his fellow-students. The teachers, too, soon found that at no time in the day were they so hard at work as during the Dalton periods.

At the end of the year when we met as a body of teachers to discuss the year's work we found that more work had actually been covered than in previous and that the experiment had been too valuable to return to the old methods. But it was also felt that, if we were to go on with the method it would be necessary to introduce Subject Laboratories as soon as possible.

The Subject Laboratories were introduced in the following year. If our accommodation had permitted and if our teachers had had the necessary qualifications we would have arranged the following Laboratories:—two for English, one for Bengalee and Assamese, one for Khasi, one for each of the following, Algebra, Geometry, Arithmetic, History, Geography, and Sanskrit. We were compelled, however, to be content with eight only and as we had not enough teachers with the necessary qualifications to have three Mathematical Laboratories arranged according to subjects we had to be satisfied with the following:—one Laboratory for English, Bengalee, and Assamese: another for English and Khasi: three Mathematical Laboratories arranged by classes, *i.e.*, one for Class VII, one for Class VIII, and one for Class IX: and one each for History, Geography, and Sanskrit.

For these Laboratories we had neither special apparatus nor books. What books and apparatus we had, *viz.*, Geographical and Historical maps, charts, and pictures, Geographical apparatus, reference books and dictionaries we put out in the various Laboratories. But they were far from being equipped as an ideal Laboratory should be equipped.

During the periods set apart for the Dalton Method, *i.e.*, during the last two periods of the day the boys were given freedom to go to any of the Laboratories they liked. This freedom, however, was a freedom within limits. In the first place before starting work each class gathered in its own class-room for roll-call, and at the close of the day before dismissal it returned again for a final roll-call. Moreover it was made clear to the boys that they would have to spend at least three quarters of an hour in the first Laboratory chosen before they would be allowed to leave for another Laboratory. As the Laboratories are meant for study and not for testing, which takes place mainly in the periods set apart for class-teaching, it was held that at least three quarters of an hour should be devoted to a subject if any real work was to be done. At the close of the three quarters of an hour a bell was rung and the boys were at liberty to go to another Laboratory at any time they liked. It has been found from experience that the majority of the boys are ready for a change after three quarters of an hour. Still, many go on for another

fifteen or twenty minutes and make a change then, and some are found, especially in Mathematics, devoting the whole of the two periods to the one subject.

One of the great fears in the minds of parents and others was lest the boys should abuse the freedom given and play truant during the periods devoted to free study. Efficient checks have been provided against this possibility. In every class-room, after the roll-call, the number present in each class is recorded on the Blackboard. Later on when the boys from the different classes have settled down to work in the various Laboratories the number from each class is further recorded and changed as boys come and go. For instance, the Blackboard in Geography Laboratory held in Class VII-B room may have the following written on it:—

Class VIIB.	No. present	25
9A . . . . .		12
9B . . . . .		3
8A . . . . .		5
8B . . . . .		2
8C . . . . .		0
7A . . . . .		6
7B . . . . .		0
7C . . . . .		8
	TOTAL	36

The Headmaster, or the Assistant Headmaster, goes round the various Laboratories for supervision, etc., two or three times a day, and, without any trouble is able to check the number of boys present with the number on the roll. The plan has been found a most simple and efficient check upon any possible truancy.

The introduction of the Subject Laboratories was an immediate success. Every visitor to the school was impressed by the unmistakable atmosphere of study in the Laboratories. The teachers were pleased both with the quantity and the quality of the work done, and the gratifying thing was that the boys spent most of their time in studying the subjects in which they were weakest.

During the third year still another step forward was taken and class graphs, according to subjects, were introduced and the work of the boys was recorded as it was finished and tested. These graphs proved of the greatest utility. They enabled the teacher to see clearly how his pupils were getting on and which of his pupils specially needed his help and guidance. They revealed to the pupils themselves where they stood with reference to their work and to other pupils. They proved an incentive to more rapid and efficient work. They called for better and more thorough testing. As a result of the introduction of these graphs every boy in the school was found to have completed his assignments for the year by the

month of November. This meant that the whole of the work set out for the year had been covered and revised. It meant that every boy had covered the whole of the course and not simply such parts of it as he himself had decided were of importance from an examination point of view.

A study of the promotion results of the school for the last three years bears eloquent testimony to the value of the Dalton Method, the more so when the difficulties we have to contend with and the type of pupil we have to cater for are kept in mind. In 1923 the percentage of pupils promoted to the next class was 70 per cent. In 1924 the percentage had risen to 80 per cent., while in 1925, 87 per cent. of the pupils were promoted. In addition to this far more work was covered and undoubtedly better done.

The fourth year has seen the introduction of the Individual Graph and the extension of the Dalton Method to the Matriculation Class (Class X). Hitherto it had been felt unwise to subject so important class to an educational experiment of this sort and the class was allowed to go on along the old lines. But the results in the other classes showed such a marked improvement as the result of the introduction of the new method that at the end of 1925 it was unanimously decided by the teachers that the Dalton Method should be extended to Class X as well.

In the same staff meeting it was also decided to introduce the Individual Graph from the beginning of 1926. The Glass Graph recorded the work of a class in one subject only and while it enabled the teacher to see how the whole class was getting on in any one particular subject, and which of the boys were lagging behind and in need of special help, it did not show how each boy stood with regard to his work as a whole. The Individual Graph records the month's work of each boy in every subject, and since a boy is not allowed to start on the second month's work until the *whole* of the first month's has been done the Individual Graph is already proving a boon both to the boy and the teacher who is thus able to direct the boy more carefully as to the more effective use of his time.

As a result of the extension of the method to Class X an extra room has been made available for the purposes of Subject Laboratories so that now we have the following Subject Laboratories:—

English . . . . .	2 rooms.
English and Khasi . . . . .	1 room.
Mathematics . . . . .	3 rooms (including the School Hall equal in size to 2½ ordinary rooms).
Sanskrit and Bengalee . . . . .	1 room.
Arabic and Assamese . . . . .	1 room.
History . . . . .	1 room.
Geography . . . . .	1 room.

The following actual figures are a fair indication of the way in which boys generally exercise their choice in the matter of Subject Laboratories :—

	May 5th 1926.	May 7th 1926.
English . . . . .	73	86
Mathematics . . . . .	133	103
Geography . . . . .	35	35
History . . . . .	26	19
Sanskrit and Bengalee . . . . .	30	28
Arabic and Assamese . . . . .	5	8

These figures vary, of course, from day to day, but the above figures are a fair average of what is found most days.

### *Assignments.*

Assignments are prepared as follows:—In the month of November the course of study for the following school year, which begins early in February in this school, is carefully worked out.

The year's work is divided into nine assignments, which includes one final revision assignment for November and part of December. Each assignment gives the work expected from the boys in one month, and is further divided into four weekly periods, consisting of three units per week. Three years' experience in the preparation of assignments has given the teachers a fairly accurate idea of how the work can be planned out to ensure even working throughout the year. As the units are completed the boys go up to the teachers to be tested and if the work is found satisfactory the class and the Individual Graphs are filled in accordingly.

### *Specimens of Assignments.*

#### ENGLISH.

Class VII. May 1926—4th week. Text Book: The English Dalton Course by John Eades.

#### 4th Week.

##### 1st Unit.

1. Read the story carefully, and be able to tell the whole of it in your own words.
2. Be able to explain the following:—handsome, intelligent, tenaciously, peculiar, stubbornly, the would-be murderer, conspired, scheme.
3. Suppose the dog could have spoken; write down what you think he would have said, when the groom came to chain him up.



4. Put the coachman's confession in his own words. Begin in this way:—

The coachman confessed afterwards, and said, "I knew that my master had a large sum of money . . . . ."

$\frac{3}{4}$  Unit.

1. Learn how to spell all the words in the last paragraph, beginning, "The mastiff."
2. Write out the following in your best hand writing:—  
This story of the mastiff shows the ability of some dogs to understand human speech.

4. Unit.

Read carefully through the piece, and then be ready to answer the following:—

- (a) What is the length of a full grown whale? Measure the distance of strides.
  - (b) In what ways is a whale different from a fish?
  - (c) How does a whale feed?
  - (d) What helps him to float?
  - (e) What does he do, when he wishes to sink?
  - (f) Why does he rise to the surface?
  - (g) Describe the uses of the whale's blow-hole.
  - (h) Why is the blow-hole closed under water?
2. Explain these words:—Scales (what other meaning has this word?), jolly-boat, distinctly, stunned.
  3. Write down the names of as many creatures living in the sea, as occur to you.
  4. Learn how to spell all the words in the last paragraph, beginning, "As soon as he dives."

$\frac{1}{2}$  Unit.

Make references and enquiries, with a view to finding out why a cork floats on water, and a pen-knife sinks.

#### ADDITIONAL ENGLISH.

Class X. May 1926—1st Week. Text Book: Smiles' Self Help. India in Song.

1st Week:—Rhetoric.

1st Unit.

1. Explain and illustrate by examples:—  
Pleonasm; periphrasis; tautology; circumlocution.
2. Name the different kinds of diffuseness in the following:—  
(a) It was the privilege and birthright of every citizen and poet to rail aloud and in public.

- (b) They returned back again to the same city from whence they came forth.
- (c) Cromwell left behind him a name not to be extinguished but with the whole world.

3. Express the sentences in q. 2 omitting all superfluous words and expressions.

2nd Unit:—Smiles' Self-Help—Chapter I, 5 pages.

*N.B.*—Read the whole chapter several times before attempting to answer the following questions:—

1. "Heaven helps those who help themselves." Explain the maxim and illustrate it by an example from your own life.
2. Why is the worth of a state dependent on the worth of the individuals composing it? What is your duty in this respect?
3. Give the substance of paragraph 4th (National progress, etc.).

3rd Unit:—Composition and General knowledge:—

1. What do you know of the recent Calcutta riots? What were the causes of this outbreak?

Can you give any suggestions to prevent these riots in future?

2. Distinguish between:—

Disappointed of and disappointed in, to go to school and to go to the school; he did not do half his work and he did not half do his work; a doctor's gown and cap and a doctor's gown and a cap.

#### ENGLISH.

Class X. May 1926—1st and 2nd Weeks. Text Book: Calcutta University Selections.

1st Week.

1st Unit:—Physical Courage—paragraphs 21 to 24.

1. Explain the following phrases and use them in sentences of your own:—

Unnatural cruelty; loyalty to duty and forgetfulness of self; voluntary submission; call of duty and reflected glory.

2. Give the causes that stimulate physical courage.
3. "Our share in these deeds must not end in the reading." What does the writer expect you to do when he makes this remark?
4. What is, according to the author, most shameful and what is most desirable?

2nd Unit:—Moral Courage—Mottoes and paragraphs 1-2.

You have read 'Physical Courage.' Now you are going to read 'Moral Courage' of the same author. Before beginning to read the piece think out what sort of courage should be called 'Moral Courage.' Then go through the whole piece several times and see whether you have been able to anticipate the writer even in some respects.

1. Distinguish between Physical Courage and Moral Courage.
2. Give the meanings of the following words and phrases and frame sentences with them: Sinews of goodness; high-water mark; braces; inspires with fortitude.

Q. What is meant by 'Sinews of War'?

3. Explain the mottoes fully:

3rd Unit:—Poetry—Elegy—Stanzas 13 to 15.

1. Turn into prose order all these stanzas.
2. Parse 'unroll (13) Waste (14)' and 'that' (st. 15).
3. Explain—spoils of time; dauntless breast; inglorious Milton.
4. What is the leading idea of these stanzas?
5. What do you know of Hampden, Milton and Cromwell?

2nd Week.

1st Unit:—Moral Courage—paragraphs 3, 4, 5 and 6.

1. How does the author define 'Moral Courage'?
2. Show how moral courage is superior to physical courage?
3. Whom can you call 'almost a perfect man'?
4. Give the antonyms of the following:—  
approve; noble; accept; consent; rough.

2nd Unit:—Moral courage—paragraphs 7, 8 and 9.

1. How do people generally, and young people particularly, look upon moral courage, and why?
2. In what does the nobility of Ram and of Arjun consist?
3. What do you know of Galileo? What does his life teach you?
4. Give the meanings of the following and frame sentences with them:—  
overvalue; unflinchingly; depreciate; suppleness of limb; objects of ridicule; accord with; heretical.
5. Can you give an example of Moral courage from your own life?

3rd Unit:—Poetry Elegy—stanzas 16 to 19.

1. Turn into prose order stanzas 16, 17 and 18.
2. Give the leading idea of these 3 stanzas.
3. Cite an instance from Indian History to illustrate the following:—"Wade through slaughter to a throne."

## 4. Explain the following:—

- (a) Applause of listening senates.
- (b) Struggling pangs of conscious truth.
- (c) to Quench the blushes of ingenuous shame.
- (d) Muse's flame.
- (e) The noiseless tenor of their way.

## 5. Distinguish between command and commend; ingenous and ingenious.

## GEOGRAPHY.

Class VII. May 1926.

## 1st Week.

1. (a) How does a mountain help rainfall and a desert prevent it?

(b) What makes the Western portion of the Deccan have lower temperature than the eastern in summer?

2. The Deccan lies in the Torrid Zone but its temperature is not very high; What is the cause of that?

3. Name the Provinces which are outside the monsoon region.

## 2nd Week.

1. Classify the people of India and their languages in a form shown below and learn them:—

Family or stock: Races of people: Provinces: Languages spoken: inhabited.

2. What is the total population of India? Draw a population map of India. Name the places that have the densest population and that have the least and account for such a difference.

(page 126.)

3. In form given below write notes on the religions in India and learn them:—(page 127).

Religion: People who practise it:

## 3rd Week.

1. What is the main occupation of the people of India? What does that depend upon? How is cultivation carried on in places where rainfall is deficient?

2. Write notes on the agricultural products in a form shown below and learn them:—(pages 128 to 132).

Products: Regions where they grow: Condition of the soil or Climate.

3. Draw maps showing the chief products. (Two maps to be drawn and some of the products to be shown on each map) page 131

## 4th Week.

1. Write notes in a form shown below on the mineral products and learn them:—

Minerals: Where found: Chief Centres:—(page 132).

2. Draw a map to show the areas where the chief minerals are found in abundance (page 131).

3. In a form below write notes on the important manufactures and learn them:—

Agricultural products: Where manufactured:

## GEOGRAPHY.

Class VIII. May 1926.

## 1st Week.

1. What is the condition of the Climate of the British Isles? Explain clearly the causes that affect their climate.

2. What portions of the British Isles have the most agricultural products? Name the important timbers and crops.

3. Name the chief fishing stations, and the chief centres of different minerals.

## 2nd Week.

1-2. Name and find the centres of the different manufactures of Great Britain and Ireland.

3. What are the chief exports and imports of Great Britain? What does the nature of these exports and imports indicate?

## 3rd Week.

1. Name the chief sea ports of Great Britain and find their positions.

2. (a) What are the chief means of communication?

(b) Explain briefly the form of Government of the United Kingdom.

3. (a) Name the races from which the people of Britain descend.

(b) Compare the population of the British Isles with that of India.

(c)  $\frac{3}{4}$  of the people of Britain and only  $\frac{1}{10}$  of that of India live in towns; how do you account for it?

## 4th Week.

1. Name some of the largest towns and find their positions.

2-3. Name and find the positions of the chief possessions of Britain in the world.

*Practical Exercises.***1st Week.**

1-2. Draw an annual rainfall map of the British Isles put in arrows to show the directions of winds.

3. Name on the back of the map the regions of heavy and low rainfall. State reasons for the difference.

**2nd Week.**

1-2. Draw a vegetation map of the British Isles and show therein the chief coal fields and some of the most important manufacturing towns.

3. Write notes on the back of the map explaining the vegetation regions, coal fields, and connection of the manufacturing towns with the coal fields.

**3rd Week.**

1-3. Draw a simple political map of the British Isles and show therein the positions of the important rivers and the chief towns as far as possible. All the writing in the map should be in print type.

**4th Week.**

1-2. Copy the map on p. 269.

3. Examination.

---

**Text Book History of India for Junior classes by E. Marsden.**

**HISTORY.**

Class VIII. March 1926. 1st and 2nd weeks :

**1st Week:** Indian History, Chapters 42, 43 and 44.

*1st Unit:*

Q. 1. Give an account of the third Carnatic War or describe the struggles between the English and the French for supremacy in Southern India from 1744—1763. What was the result of that long struggle?

*2nd Unit:*

Q. 2. What do you know of Mirjafar? Who became the Nawab of Bengal after Mirjufar?

Q. 3. What led to the struggle between Mirkasim and the English? Give an account of it.

*3rd Unit:*

Q. 4. Draw a map of India to illustrate the three Carnatic wars.

**2nd Week:** Reading lesson—Chapter 45.

*1st Unit:*

- Q. 1. When and between whom was the treaty of Allahabad concluded? What were the terms of the treaty?
- Q. 2. Give an account of the career of Robert Clive in India?

*2nd Unit:*

- Q. 3. Write what you know of Clive's reforms.
- Q. 4. What do you mean by the Dewani? When was the Dewani of Bengal, Behar and Orissa granted to the East India Company?

*3rd Unit:*

- Q. 5. Draw a map of British India after Clive.

April 1926. 3rd Week.

**3rd Week:** Reading lessons 51—53.

*1st Unit:*

- Q. 1. How long was Warren Hastings Governor General of India? Why was the Regulating Act passed? What were the changes introduced into the affairs of the E. I. Co. by the Regulating Act? What difficulties had Hastings had with his new council? Who was Nandakumar? Why was he hanged? What two wars did Hastings make when he was Governor General.

*2nd Unit:*

- Q. 2. Give a short account of the First Maharatha War. What did the English gain by this war? Write a note on the Treaty of Salbye.

*3rd Unit:*

- Q. 3. What led to the 2nd Mysore War? How and when was it concluded?

## GEOMETRY.

**Class VII.** April 1926. Text Book: A School Geometry by Hall & Stevens.

*1st Week:*

- (a) Define Perimeter, Vertex, hypotenuse, median, and  
(b) explain the following terms: Equilateral, equiangular, regular.
- Name the different triangles with diagrams of each of them.

3. Into how many parts can a triangle be divided? When are two triangles said to be equal in all respects? (Look up p. 17.)

*2nd Week:*

1. Learn Theorem 4 and write it out using different letters. (1 unit.)
2. Do Exercises on p. 19. (2 units.)

*3rd Week:*

1. Learn Theorems 5 & 6, and hence prove that if a triangle is equilateral it is also equiangular and the *vice versa*. (1 unit.)
2. Of how many clauses does the enunciation of a theorem consist, and what are they? What do you understand by an 'axis of symmetry' and an 'indirect method of proof'? (1 unit.)
3. Work out Exercises on p. 21. (1 unit.)

*4th Week:*

1. Enunciate and prove theorem 7. (1 unit.)
2. Note that the two triangles are equiangular to one another when the three sides of the one are severally equal to the three sides of the other. Show also by a diagram that the converse is not necessarily true. (See p. 25.) (2 units.)

GEOMETRY.

Class VIII. March 1926—3rd and 4th Weeks. Text Book: A School Geometry by Hall & Stevens.

*3rd Week:* Theorem 17 and 18.

1. (1) From the enunciation of each of these two theorems, find out the hypothesis and conclusion.

(2) State the necessary conditions on which two triangles are to be proved identically equal. (1 unit.)

2. (1) Why is not Theorem 18 classified along with Theorems, 4, 7 and 17?

(2) State the properties of a triangle relating to:—

(a) The sum of its interior angles.

(b) The sum of its exterior angles. (1 unit.)

3. Enunciate two theorems in which from data relating to the sides, a conclusion is drawn relating to the angles. (1 unit.)



*4th Week:*

1. (1) How can you show that in the classification of triangles with regard to angles Theorem 16 is assumed?

(2) Enunciate two theorems in which from data relating to angles, a conclusion is drawn relating to sides. (1 unit.)

2. (1) What is a parallelogram? Show the "Squares", "rectangles" and "rhombuses" are also parallelograms.

(2) Learn the proof of the theorem 20. (1 unit.)

3. What conclusion do you arrive at:—

(a) if two sides together be equal to the third.

(b) if the sum of any two is less than the third. (1 unit.)

## ALGEBRA.

Class VII. April 1926. Text Book: Matriculation Algebra  
by K. P. Basu.

*Exercises 4—8.**1st Week:*

1. Learn the names of the different pairs of brackets. (Look up p. 13.)

2. Illustrate by examples a binomial and a multinomial expression, and show the difference between  $\sqrt{ab}$  and  $\sqrt{a}b$ .

3. Go through the examples given on pages 13 and 14, and do Exercise (4).

*2nd Week:*

1. Explain a like and an unlike term, and also a homogenous expression.

2. What do you understand by a positive and a negative quantity? Illustrate your answer with examples.

3. Work out Exercise (5).

*3rd Week:*

1. Note that the sum is positive or negative as the quantities added together are either positive or negative. (1 unit.)

2. Read carefully the examples given and work out Exercise (6). (2 units).

*4th Week:*

1. Learn the rule for adding positive and negative quantities. (Look up p. 26.)

2. Work out Exercise (7).

3. Do Exercise (8).

## ALGEBRA.

Class VIII. March 1926—1st and 2nd Weeks: Text Book: Matriculation Algebra by K. P. Basu.

1st Week: Formulæ and their applications:—

1. (1) Explain the statement, "A formula is the most general expression for any theorem respecting numerical quantities".

(2) What is the general rule of finding the square of an Algebraical expression?

(3) How much will you add to or subtract from each of the following sums in order to make it a perfect square:—

(a)  $a^2 - 12ab$

(b)  $4x^2 + 9y^2$

(c)  $16m^2 + 8m$ .

(d)  $1 - 2mn$ .

(e)  $25 + 100x$  (1 unit).

2. Work out all the sums of Exercises 22 and 23. (2 units.)

2nd Week:

1. (1) The Square of the sum of difference of two numbers is equivalent to the square of the 1st number with twice the product of those two numbers *plus* the square of the second number.

(2) The Symbolical Expression of the above truth is:—

$$(a \pm b)^2 = a^2 \pm 2ab + b^2.$$

(3) The Square of any quantity either positive or negative is always positive.

(4) Prove the following:—

(a)  $a^2 + b^2 = (a + b)^2 - 2ab$ ; or  $(a - b)^2 + 2ab$ .

(b)  $a^2 - b^2 = (a + b)(a - b)$ .

2. (a) When an expression is the product of two or more expressions, each of the latter is called a factor of the former.

Explain this by Examples.

(b) What is an Elementary factor? (1 unit.)

3. Work out all the sums of Exercise 24. (1 unit.)

## ALGEBRA.

Class X. May 1926. Text Book: Matriculation Algebra by K. P. Basu.

1st Week: Ratio and Proportion.

I. Read article 1.

(1) From the definition of "the ratio of two quantities" mark that (a) the two quantities must be of the same kind, (b)

the ratio is always an abstract number, fractional or integral

(2) Mark the following:—

- (a) Terms of a ratio.
- (b) Ratio of less inequality.
- (c) Ratio of greater inequality.
- (d) Ratio of equality.
- (e) Inverse ratio.

II. Prove that a ratio of less inequality is increased and a ratio of greater inequality is diminished by adding the same number to both its terms. Give a concrete example.

III. What do you understand by the following:—

- (1) Compound Ratio.
- (2) Duplicate Ratio.
- (3) Triplicate Ratio.
- (4) Subduplicate Ratio.
- (5) Subtriplicate Ratio.

*2nd Week:*

- (1) Exercise 93. Go through the examples worked out in the book.
- (2) Nos. 1, 2, 4, 6—10.
- (3) Nos. 11—20.

*3rd Week:*

- I. (a) When are four quantities said to be proportionals?
- (b) Note the following:—

- (1) Extremes and means of a proportion.
- (2) Fourth proportional, third proportional, mean proportional, continued proportion.

II. (a) Prove that the product of the extremes is equal to the product of the means. This is 'the greatest truth' of proportion, for, by the application of this, we can find the fourth term of a proportion when the other three are given.

(b) Exercise 94. Nos. 1—10.

III. (a) If  $a:b::b:c$ , prove that  $a:c::a^2:b^2$ .

(b) Prove the operations Invertendo, Alternando, Componendo, Dividendo, Componendo and Dividendo.

*4th Week: Exercise 95.*

- (1) Nos. 1—5.
- (2) Nos. 8, 9, 10.
- (3) Nos. 12, 13, 15.

The story of the introduction of the Dalton Method in the Shillong Government High School is the story of a development towards the Dalton ideal as experience has led us on. No attempt has been made to force the pace or to force the teachers to adopt methods of which they disapproved. The enthusiasm of the teachers and their appreciation of the spirit of the Method are essentials without which very little is possible. Gradually we have moved forward as the need for improvement and better methods suggested themselves and though we still have a considerable way to go before the Dalton Method, in all its purity, is completely followed—if such a day will ever come—we are satisfied that we have found a method the educational value of which is of the highest. None of the teachers now desires a return to the old method of class-teaching. Their endeavour, rather, is to turn even the periods devoted to class-teaching into something more of the nature of conferences of teacher and pupil, and to be guides and helpers of their pupils in those very things which they find difficult.

To sum up, among the main benefits we have derived from the Dalton Method the following are worthy of consideration:—

1. It demands from the teachers careful and thorough preparation in advance, otherwise it will be impossible to produce such assignments as are required.
2. It does away with a great deal of the evils arising in Indian schools from breaks in the school course due to holidays and leave. The work set out for the month is expected to be done whatever interruptions may come.
3. It has helped to solve the problem of discipline. When boys gather by choice in a Subject Laboratory, to study a subject they feel they need help in and in which there is an expert capable of helping them just when and where they need help, there is produced an atmosphere of study and unwillingness to suffer interruption.
4. The boys are given a new motive for study.
5. The boys are gradually taught the use of liberty.
6. Boys strong in some subject and weak in others are able to devote more time to their weak subjects.
7. The relationship between pupils and teachers is changed.
8. Far more work and better work is being done.

## REPORT ON THE WORKING OF THE DALTON PLAN IN THE ARMENITOLA HIGH SCHOOL, DACCA.

The Dalton Plan was introduced into the four top classes of this school at the beginning of the session of 1925. The subjects brought under the plan were English, Bengali, Mathematics, History, Geography and Optionals. The optional subjects are Sanskrit, Arabic, Hygiene and Additional Mathematics. A candidate for the High School Examination can choose one from among these to complete his number of subjects.

The morning was devoted to English, Mathematics and Bengali; the afternoon to History, Geography and Optional. The last hour of the day was reserved for special lessons if necessary as well as for Drawing and Drill (see time-table).

The contracts were made out for a month and contained 160 units of work. The unit of work adopted was as much as a boy of average ability could accomplish in a class period, that is about 45 minutes. The unit for mathematics, however, was different. It was as much as a boy of average capacity could perform in an hour. The number of units in the various subjects were:—

English . . . . .	60
Bengali . . . . .	20
Mathematics . . . . .	20
History . . . . .	20
Geography . . . . .	20
Optional . . . . .	20
	160

English comprised Prose, Poetry, Essay Writing, Translation and Re-translation and Grammar. Mathematics comprised Arithmetic, Algebra and Geometry.

The distribution of the units was based on the difficulty of the subject, its importance in the Examination, and the amount of time devoted to it in class before the Dalton Plan was introduced.

There was no special Home Work or preparation. The contracts were so made as to include about 2 hours' work out of class daily.

The work of the students was checked and recorded by means of graphs. When a student had finished a unit or units of work in any subject he took it to the instructor who tested him on the work submitted, and if satisfied initialled on the contract the units finished. The number of units done in a day was entered on a subject-graph kept by the instructor. A student's general progress was recorded by another graph (class-graph) which showed the progress of each pupil in all subjects combined. This graph was kept by the

Head Master who saw at a glance the general progress of each pupil (Specimens of contract, subject-graph and class-graph attached).

### *Application.*

Every teacher knows how difficult it is to get pupils to work steadily and regularly. A great number of pupils believe that it is waste of labour to study in the early part of the session. They imagine that everything they learn will be forgotten and must be done again immediately before the examination. There is also the idea that the year is long and a little extra labour towards the end will make them all right. Hence most of them go through the course in a perfunctory and unsatisfactory manner. They never try to retain what they learn, trusting to a few weeks intensive study when the examination comes in sight. They study solely for the examination, and forget most of what they have read directly that ordeal is over.

A great deal of this slackness is due also to sheer laziness. Many parents, too, take little interest in the progress of their children. Some are even quite content to have their sons at school, caring little, whether they work or not. To them it is sufficient honour to have their sons study in a High School.

This disinclination to steady and regular work was considerably less this year than in previous sessions. Though many students could be got to work only against arrears, the majority worked regularly all the year round and at the end of the year only three pupils out of about 120 failed to complete the course, and these in one subject only.

A great incentive to regular work was the graphs. In class a boy can neglect his work without attracting much notice, and it is impossible to convince him of unsatisfactory application. In the Dalton Plan his neglect is glaring.

A shirker can of course still shirk, but he is alone and he becomes conspicuous. If he falls too far behind he becomes an object of quiet amusement to the other students. This he cannot endure for long. He ends in either working or leaving school.

It is only just, however, to state that many boys are heavily handicapped in the prosecution of their studies, especially in this school which is situated in a poor locality. A great number have illiterate parents and poor homes. Such pupils cannot compete with the children of professors, doctors, munsiffs, etc., who live in a cultured environment. This fact accounts for the amazing difference in intelligence and ability that is found among the students of the same class in High Schools in Bengal. There were several students in school who I knew worked as much as twelve hours a day throughout the year and yet, owing to this handicap were unable to progress satisfactorily.

Another sign of the improvement in application was the fact that when a half-holiday was given, the students of the Dalton Classes were not keen to avail themselves of it. Many remained on till the

usual closing hour. In the evenings also there was no hurry to leave and many worked on long after the closing hour.

There is, therefore, no doubt but the Dalton Plan encourages the development of steadiness and persevering labour.

### *Home-Work.*

There is no part of a teacher's duty so unpleasant as that relating to home-work. A teacher in any of the top classes has generally between 60 and 100 exercises to examine daily which may occupy three or four hours of his time out of class. Many of these *khatas* are so carelessly and slovenly done that it is almost impossible to correct them, and nearly all need the presence of the pupils at the time of correction, if any benefit is to be obtained. When the exercises are returned the pupils never look over their corrections unless compelled to do so. There is, therefore, practically, no return for all this labour.

Firmness on the part of a teacher in this matter leads to unpleasantness. The teacher becomes unpopular, little conspiracies are formed to give him as much annoyance as possible, and sometimes anonymous letters are written to the Head Master. Quite apart from this, firmness is of little avail, for shirkers can always evade the consequences of neglect of home-work by remaining absent a day or two, or longer if necessary.

Something has to be said perhaps from the pupils' point of view. A boy who fails to do his home-work through no fault of his own receives no consideration. It is always assumed that he is shirking and is liable to a scolding or punishment. It is almost necessary to accept no excuse for the omission, or omission would become very general. There is also the likelihood of pupils' getting too much home-work. Each teacher who visits a class gives what he thinks is a reasonable task. The total may be beyond the pupils' capacity. The result of this is total neglect, or the whole task carelessly and slovenly done, or the task of an exacting teacher performed and the rest neglected.

No definite work was set to be done at home in the Dalton Plan, it was included in the contracts; several times during the year we called in the various classes to ascertain the manner in which they worked out of class. The replies to our inquiries were frank and truthful, and more or less what we had expected. We discovered that when pupils felt inclined or when circumstances were favourable good work was done. Sometimes the pupils worked up till quite a late hour at night. At others they retired early or omitted study altogether. Headache, fatigue after a big game, illness of a member of the family, attendance at a wedding, necessity of escorting a lady of the family on a visit—these were given as reasons for the curtailment or omission of work at home. We felt convinced from these discussions that the pupils worked regularly and honestly and the quality of the work was good because done willingly. This I think is one of the advantages of the Dalton Plan. If for any rea-

son a pupil is prevented one day from putting in the average amount of work, he can always make up the shortage on another, or on a holiday. All the unpleasantness and difficulties connected with home-work disappear and both teachers and pupils are the happier for it. Cases have come to our notice where students worked all day on Sunday to make up for a day's absence.

### *Teachers' Work.*

The plan has increased the work of the instructors during school hours. But they have got rid of the useless drudgery of examining exercises out of class. These are not examined in the presence of the pupils. Of the eight teachers connected with the plan, 6 are engaged from 10-45 to 4-15, with half an hour's break at the recess. The others remain in their laboratories for about  $2\frac{1}{2}$  hours. The work of a teacher out of class now consists in the preparation of contracts and the maintenance of the various graphs. The contracts are very important and great thought and labour are essential to their proper getting out. The teachers working the plan here prefer it, notwithstanding the extra work it entails for the simple reason that all the unpleasantness and worries accompanying the teaching of a class no longer exist.

### *Conduct.*

Usually faults of a grave nature are rarely committed in school. Indirect disobedience, shirking, talking and inattention in class, lies of excuse, abusive language, and fits of temper—these are the offences most frequently committed. Though they are not serious they may often develop into serious incidents and have often done so with inexperienced teachers. Such faults practically disappeared from the Dalton classes, the fact being that there was no necessity or temptation to commit them. The teachers and students worked in a friendly spirit and there was no unpleasantness of any kind.

### *Absentees' Work.*

In a school of 12 teachers it may be assumed that for 100 days in the year work is carried on with one member of the staff short. This is more serious than it appears and causes much disturbance and derangement. If an absentee's work was confined to one class only, the matter would be simple. But teachers as a rule visit more than one class. The class cannot be left to itself in the absence of the teacher; neither can it be dismissed. A member of the staff has to take charge of it. This puts extra work on one who has already enough to do, while the class gains little or nothing.

This difficulty has completely vanished. When a teacher is absent the students are notified and advised not to attend his laboratory unless they have work that does not require his help. Those who cannot work without him should concentrate on other subjects for that day. Work, therefore, goes on almost as usual even in the absentee's laboratory.



*Progress.*

The average percentage of marks obtained by the classes in each subject for the last five years was worked out, and compared with the percentages obtained at the Annual Examination at the end of 1925. The results were as follows:—

	Average for 5 years.	Average 1925.
<b>CLASS X.</b>		
English . . . . .	39.9	41.0
Mathematics . . . . .	47.8	35.1
Bengali . . . . .	47.9	54.0
History . . . . .	38.0	37.9
Geography . . . . .	43.8	42.0
Optional . . . . .	46.0	49.0
<b>CLASS IX.</b>		
English . . . . .	38.6	42.4
Mathematics . . . . .	38.3	49.2
Bengali . . . . .	45.5	53.0
History . . . . .	41.8	46.3
Geography . . . . .	40.5	49.0
Optional . . . . .	47.0	53.2
<b>CLASS VIII.</b>		
English . . . . .	43.5	49.1
Bengali . . . . .	43.7	45.1
Mathematics . . . . .	40.7	36.6
History . . . . .	42.6	47.7
Geography . . . . .	43.6	45.5
Classics . . . . .	39.9	38.5
<b>CLASS VII.</b>		
English . . . . .	44.7	47.5
Bengali . . . . .	40.8	52.7
Mathematic . . . . .	45.6	44.8
History . . . . .	39.3	38.4
Geography . . . . .	45.4	46.2
Classics . . . . .	48.8	38.5

*Note.*

1. *Class X.*—Weak, especially in Mathematics. Were unable to complete mathematics contracts; contracts had to be made easier.

2. *Class IX.*—Above the average. Worked the Dalton Plan as single class in 1924.
3. *Do. VIII.*—Weak all round.
4. *Do. VII.*—A class of average ability.

*Arranged according to subject, the percentages were—*

*English.*

Class	X	.	.	.	.	39.9	41.0
"	IX	.	.	.	.	38.6	42.4
"	VIII	.	.	.	.	43.5	49.1
"	VII	.	.	.	.	44.7	47.5

*Bengali.*

"	X	.	.	.	.	47.9	54.0
"	IX	.	.	.	.	45.5	53.0
"	VIII	.	.	.	.	43.7	45.1
"	VII	.	.	.	.	40.8	52.7

*Mathematics.*

"	X	.	.	.	.	47.8	35.1
"	IX	.	.	.	.	38.3	49.2
"	VIII	.	.	.	.	40.7	36.6
"	VII	.	.	.	.	45.6	44.8

*History.*

"	X	.	.	.	.	38.0	37.9
"	IX	.	.	.	.	41.8	46.3
"	VIII	.	.	.	.	42.6	47.7
"	VII	.	.	.	.	39.3	38.4

*Geography.*

"	X	.	.	.	.	43.8	42.0
"	IX	.	.	.	.	40.5	49.0
"	VIII	.	.	.	.	43.6	45.5
"	VII	.	.	.	.	45.4	46.2

*Optional.*

"	X	.	.	.	.	46.0	49.0
"	IX	.	.	.	.	47.0	53.2

*Classics.*

"	VIII	.	.	.	.	39.9	38.7
"	VII	.	.	.	.	41.8	38.5

English and Bengali show a decided improvement. In the case of Bengali there is perhaps no cause for surprise. But it is otherwise with English. Most teachers and Head Masters who have discussed the plan with me were of opinion that English could not be taught by this method. If, however, the method of teaching English in class is considered, it will be obvious that it has serious defects. In every branch of the subject the teacher devotes practically all the time to explanation, the students getting little or no practice. The Dalton Plan is almost the reverse of this.

The results in Mathematics has been an equal surprise. With the exception of Class IX the percentage in every class is below the average. It was generally believed that this subject lent itself to the Dalton System more than any other subject; yet the results here seem to point to the contrary. English and Bengali, of course, depend to a great extent on memory work while mathematics needs reasoning, and it may be that the power of memory is more developed in Bengali students than the reasoning faculty.

History was formerly an optional subject, hence only those boys who had a taste for it took it as a subject in the final examination. It was made a compulsory subject in 1925 and every student has now to appear in it.

Classics was compulsory till 1924. It is now optional. The practice in this school is to compel every student in VII and VIII to study the subject. When they come to Class IX, they are at liberty to drop it in favour of another subject. The tendency is to drop classics. The following figures show the number of students who appeared in classics since it was made optional.

1924	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	6
1925	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	5
1926	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	.	2

This accounts for the difference in the average percentages.

The optionals are Additional Mathematics, Hygiene, Sanskrit and Arabic. The course in these is a two years' course, and students make their choice when they arrive in Class IX.

#### *'A single class on the Dalton Plan.*

At the suggestion of Mr. West, the Principal of the Teachers' Training College, one of the junior classes was worked as a single class on the plan. In this case one teacher had charge of all the subjects, and the same room was used throughout the day, the pupils not leaving it. In every other respect it was the same. That is, there was no set time-table and the pupils studied each subject as they felt inclined.

The class was started by a research student of the Training College who conducted it for four months. After the summer vacation (June) a member of the staff took over the class.

The results of this class were much better than anticipated. It was believed that the children, being so young,—the average age of the class was  $8\frac{1}{2}$  years—would not make the same progress as if taught by the usual class method. The results however proved the contrary as the following will show:—

English . . . . .	46.5	64.5
Mathematics . . . . .	49.7	53.3
Bengali . . . . .	50.3	58.7
History . . . . .	51.1	56.4
Geography . . . . .	51.8	52.1

I believe the difference is the result of application and the steady working of the whole course. In the junior classes breaks through absence retarded a boy's progress to a greater extent than it does in the senior classes.

This class has done so well that I have allowed them to continue the plan this year also in Class V under the same instructor.

#### *Attendance.*

There was a slight improvement in the attendance also. The average daily percentage of attendance for the four classes working the Dalton Plan was 86.5 while for 1924 for the same classes the attendance was 83.3.

ARMENITOLA GOVERNMENT HIGH ENGLISH SCHOOL, DACCA.

CLASS VII.—HISTORY.

Assignment—March (192 ).

Subject.	Item.	Matter.	Units.	Signature.
		<p>You have seen how the early Hindus becoming dissatisfied with the Hindu religion adopted Jainism (58) and Buddhism (57). Some dynasties followed the Hindu religion while others were Buddhists. Buddhist monks and kings preached their religion to all parts of the then known world (58) and for some centuries it had great influence over the people of India; yet it had to yield again to Hinduism, which with the help of the <i>religious reformers</i> (99) of the time gradually regained its influence on the people (97). From this time the history of India is the history of Hinduism as we know it to-day. Has there been any more change in the religion? Have you heard of any religious reformer of the modern times?</p>	2½	
		<p>You have now reached the final stage of the First period (Hindu) of Indian History. So much is uncertain in this ancient period that only great movements and periods can be marked out. You will do well to recapitulate the names of the great dynasties and also the names of the noted kings along with their dates.</p>	1½	
		<p>After the death of Harshavardhan the whole of Northern India became split up (76) into a number of States (<i>cf.</i> বাক উত্তিহাস 112—24). Learn the history of these states and also that of the states of Southern India (79). You will find that these states were not on good terms (80) with each other. Their jealousy and rivalry made them an easy prey to a foreign power. But this rivalry helped the growth of literature (95—96). From this time the history of India is mixed up with the history of the Mussalmans. Learn the life and teachings of Mahomed.</p>	2	
		<p>The kingdom of Gazni (81) was a source of danger to Hindusthan. Sabaktagin and his son Sultan Mahmud plundered India (81—83). The Hindu Rajahs of Northern India esp. Prithvi Raj and Joychandra could not unite (88—91) and so one by one (99) these kings were defeated by the Mussalmans. The Hindus of Southern India also suffered the same fate (86—7).</p>	1	

Subject.	Item.	Matter.	Units.	Signature.
		Be prepared to answer the following:—		
	1	Narrate the story of Mahomed's life (74—75).	½	
	2	What do you know of the conquest of Sindh by the Mussalmans?	½	
	3	Describe the different Hindu States of Northern India after the death of Harshavardhan.	½	
	4	What do you know about the rise of the Rajputs? Name the different classes of Rajputs (77).	1	
	5	What do you know of the Rastrakutas?	½	
	6	What do you know of Ghazni (80)? Why did Sabaktagin invade India?	½	
	7	Describe fully the invasions of Sultan Mahamad of Ghazni. What was the effect of his attacks? (cf. लोक इतिहास pp. 127—137.)	2	
	8	Trace the history of different states of Southern India (87).	1	
	9	Describe the quarrel of Prithvi Raj and Joy Chand (cf. लोक इतिहास pp. 137—145). How did Prithvi Raj try to check the Mussalmans? Why did he fail? Describe the gradual steps by which the whole of Northern India was conquered by the Mussalmans (92).	2	
	10	Describe the character of Mahamed Ghori.	½	
	11	Trace the changes in the Hindu religion of the pauranic age.	2½	
		Describe the life and teachings of the Hindu Reformers (99—100).		
	12	What do you know of Albaruni?	½	

ARMENITOLA GOVERNMENT HIGH ENGLISH SCHOOL, DACCA.

CLASS VII—MATHEMATICS.

Assignment III—March (192 ).

Subject.	Item.	Matter.	Units.	Signature.
Arithmetic		<b>FIRST PERIOD.</b>		
		<i>Topic: Fraction of Concrete Quantities.</i>		
		The method has been clearly explained in the examples worked out in arts. 148 and 149 of S. K. Ganguly's Arithmetic.		
	1	Read arts. 148 and 149 of S. K. Ganguly's Arithmetic.	½	
	2	Work out the alternate ones of the sums 37—65 of Ex. 110.	1	
Algebra		<i>Topic: Addition.</i>		
		Before you begin, read the Chapter on Positive and Negative quantities (page 16 of your book). For any help necessary you are to come to me in groups. Then you are to familiarise yourself with the following things which you will get in <i>chapter III</i> of your book (page 20).		
		(i) <i>Addition of a positive and a negative quantity.</i>	½	
		(ii) <i>Subtraction of a positive quantity and a negative quantity.</i>	½	
	1	Work out all the sums of Ex. XII.	1	
Geometry	1	Work out Nos. 1, 2, 4, 5 of the exercises given in page 19 after Theo. 4.	2	
		<b>NOTE.</b> —Problem টির অর্থ ভাল করিয়া বুঝিয়া লইয়া সুলভ করিয়া figure আঁকিবে; তারপর যেই সব Proposition পড়িয়াছ তাহা ব্যবহার করিতে পার কি না লক্ষ্য রাখিয়া কাজ আরম্ভ করিবে।		

Subject.	Item.	Matter.	Units.	Signature.
		<b>SECOND PERIOD.</b>		
Arithmetic		<i>Topic: One Quantity as a fraction of another of the same kind.</i>		
		The method of procedure in the case of sums of this type has been explained in art. 150.		
	1	Read the section so that you may be able to work out sums of the above type.	$\frac{1}{2}$	
		NOTE.—To express <i>one quantity as a decimal of another</i> , first of all express the former as the <i>vulgar fraction</i> of the latter, and then reduce this vulgar fraction into a <i>decimal</i> .		
	2	Work out sums 1—10 of Ex. 111 (Ganguly's Arithmetic).	1	
Algebra . . .	1	For the addition and subtraction of <i>like</i> and <i>unlike</i> terms read arts. 30 and 31.	$\frac{1}{2}$	
	2	Rules for the removal of brackets have been given in art. 32. Read the section so that you may apply these rules in the sums of the next example.	$\frac{1}{2}$	
	3	Work out <i>all</i> the sums of Ex. XIV.	1	
Geometry . . .	1	Read and prepare Theo. 5.	2	
		<b>THIRD PERIOD.</b>		
Arithmetic . . .	1	Work out sums 11—32 of Ex. 111 (Ganguly's Arithmetic).	$1\frac{1}{2}$	
Algebra . . .	1	Work out sums 1—17 of Ex. XVI (S. C. Basu's book).	$1\frac{1}{2}$	
		NOTE.—Addition করিবার সময় একই রকমের terms গুলি পর পর नीচে রাখিবে এবং <i>like terms</i> ও <i>unlike terms</i> -এর দিকে লক্ষ্যটিক রাখিয়া যোগ করিবে।		
Geometry . . .	1	Read and prepare Theo. 6.	2	



FOURTH PERIOD.

Arithmetic . . .	1	For revision you will now take up Ex. 117 which contains many interesting sums.	
		Work out sums 1—10 of Ex. 117.	1½
Algebra . . .	1	Work out sums 18—27 of Ex. XVI.	1½
Geometry . . .	1	Read and prepare Theo. 7.	1½
		NOTE.—Theo. 4 এর; Theo. 7 এ প্রবেশ করি।	½
		<i>Instruction.</i>	
		(1) Directions as usual.	
		(2) Do co-operative work.	

## THE DALTON PLAN ADAPTED TO THE TEACHING OF PLURAL CLASSES IN A PRIMARY SCHOOL.

1. **Introduction.**—The principles of the Dalton Plan have been fully explained in the main body of this work. And it has also been shown how the Plan is working in Assam High Schools. The purpose of this article is to show how the Plan has been used and that with success, to solve one of the most perplexing problems of rural education.

2. **The main problem of Primary Education.**—The problem is stated simply; though it was after much groping in the dark, and with great labour and thought, that some solution was possible to be found.

Our villages are mostly scarce of population; so that the vast majority of village schools have an enrolment of from 30 to 40 pupils; and these pupils spread over the five years of a Primary School Course. Neither can this period be conveniently shortened; for even with this length of time in School, the Primary School Boy can hardly master all the rudiments of scholastic knowledge that is essential in the scheme of things in rural life.

And, the resources of the Local Bodies who control Primary Education are so limited that it is unthinkable for any reasonable time to come that they will be in a position to give more than one teacher for this number of scholars.

And, this one teacher—ill equipped and meagrely paid as he is—has got to face the problem of teaching five classes in a course of multifarious subjects.

Add to this: admissions throughout the year, irregular and unpunctual attendance, complexity of the Sanskrit alphabets and conjoined letters, want of accommodation and equipment in the school and it will not take long to be realised that the task of teaching a Primary School becomes almost a hopeless one.

3. **The problems to be faced.**—And it was to such a task that Mr. Cunningham, our Director of Public Instruction, set me to find a solution. So long ago as in 1917 he wrote:—

“ Attention has been given to the important matter of training the teachers in the conduct of plural classes. This is a matter in which action has to move in advance of experience. \* \* \* \* The first thing to be done is to deal with the charge of two classes at a time. General principles in regard to the conduct of the classes and a suitable arrangement of the routine having been so arrived at by experience, the problem of the teacher who has to deal with three classes at a time may be considered. From this the School (that is, the Normal School) may proceed to deal with the most difficult question of all, that of a teacher who has to manage a complete school by himself, without any paid assistance.”

(Note of Inspection on the Jorhat Normal School, dated the 24th July, 1917.)

And again, in the Quinquennial Review of Education for Assam for 1917-1922, Mr. Cunningham remarked as follows:—

“ The task of teaching the simplest course is more than complex enough. Ordinarily the village school master, ill found in vitality and learning and depressed by poverty, is in sole charge of five classes or sections which he has to instruct in all the subjects of a varied course. There is no fixed date of admission. Pupils come in month by month according to caprice or the influence of their horoscopes. The lowest class, a class in which numbers are high, is a collection of little groups, each at a different stage of advancement. And there are four classes above this. \* \* \* \*

Again “ with an attendance of 70 per cent. on the average, which sinks lower during seasons of flood and fever, the teacher is faced by a different selection of his pupils every day. Unpunctuality adds to his difficulties.” (Page 61.)

And the Director suggested that in the training of teachers, “ the text books are much less importance than the practising schools. \*

\* \* \* The school must break from tradition in its own classes, getting clear away from the conventions of text books which presuppose one class, one teacher, a regular and punctual attendance, clocks in the school and the home and so forth.” (Inspection Note, dated 8th August 1920.)

And he enjoined upon us in most serious words “ to put ourselves in the teacher’s place, to face his difficulties of ignorance and conservatism; of poor pay; indifferent health; poor quarters; poor equipment of the school, instead of the individual or class, as the unit; of large numbers and many classes; of admissions at all times of the year, and of unpunctual and irregular attendance in a timeless country side. So doing, we shall realise that Froebel and the rest can be but names to him.” (Quinquennial Review.)

It was with such remorseless pressure in official reports and in private conversations that Mr. Cunningham squeezed out the little educational theory that I managed to gather in the Training College; and set my shoulders, like that of an unwilling bullock, to this work. And I had of course to muster as much grace as I could command, and put myself to it. I am now glad that I did so, and grateful to him that he drove me into it.

**4. Two broad divisions of lessons.**—It is evident, and had at once to be recognised, that a single teacher could not teach more than one class at one and the same time. It therefore follows that the boys must be left to themselves the greater part of the school-day to pick up such scraps of learning as they can manage. What the teacher can do, and must do, is a sort of general supervision. “ That is, he is to be more or less a task-master.”

The logical sequence was to divide every subject of study into two broad lines—namely, the portions in which direct teaching by the teacher is essential; and secondly, the ones in which the pupils can go on with the work with only occasional aid from the teacher. In the outcome we got a division of the school-lessons somewhat like what is given in the following statement:—

Names of subjects.	Lessons where teacher's attention is essential.	Lessons which the pupils can mostly learn by themselves.
1. The alphabets, counting and writing in the Infant Class.	Teacher must teach the names of the alphabets, show the proper way of writing them, and teach counting with seeds, sticks, etc.	The beginners can practise the hand on letters engraved on wood. When some letters have been learnt, children can copy them with seeds and afterward on slate.
2. Arithmetic . . .	New rules are to be explained by the teacher always.	Examples on rules already learnt can be worked out by the boys themselves.
3. Copy writing . . .	From Class II and above the teacher need only give the copy-slips, and supervise generally.	The boys do the writing by themselves.
4. Dictation . . .	In Classes II and III dictation is to be given by the teacher; and the correction is also to be made by him.	In class IV, a boy may dictate occasionally; correction can be left mostly to the children.
5. Composition, letter writing, etc.	Teacher's teaching is necessary.	But class IV boys may do a great lot by themselves.
6. Tables . . .	Only general supervision by the teacher is necessary; but he must correct when the boys finish writing.	Boys should recite them in common outside the school, and build them under teacher's directions.
7. Mental Arithmetic . . .	Teacher should set the problems, and occasionally explain; also examine answers.	With a suitable book, a boy may often be asked to set problems to his fellows.
8. Reading and Literature.	For correction of reading, and explanation of difficult passages, teacher's presence in class is necessary.	Boys should do silent reading, find out difficult words, copy them; Class IV should be taught to make abstracts also.
9. Geography . . .	The Teacher should explain the terms, and teach boys to draw and read maps.	After sometime, boys can draw maps, find out places, and mark them.
10. Drawing . . .	Teacher should show correct way to draw, put copies on Black Board, and correct.	Boys may procure leaf and other specimen for drawing; and drawing is generally left to the boys themselves.

Names of subjects.	Lessons where teacher's attention is essential.	Lessons which the pupils can mostly learn by themselves.
11. General Knowledge	Teacher should supplement information gathered by boys; should also examine short descriptions written by boys.	Boys may collect things for study; should find out the qualities of such things; and write short descriptions.
12. Hand work and gardening.	Only general guidance of the teacher is necessary.	Boys should do the work by themselves.
13. Kasrat	Teacher's presence is always necessary.	Though a boy may be asked to command occasionally.

5. **Two sittings of the school.**—From general consideration, it is apparent that the younger the pupil the more the teacher should pay heed to him. From the above division, this truth emerged with greater emphasis. It was at once seen that the lessons for the infants required constant attention from the teacher; and the higher the class the more could they be left to themselves.

But the infants had not enough work to engage them throughout the five-hours school-day; and from considerations of physical and mental development it was not desirable that they should have.

In our schools, however, the opposite is the rule. The higher the class the more attention and time the teacher pays to it. And even though the infants have only a little to do in the school, they have to sit out the whole day in expectation of some odd moments which the teacher may be able to spare from what he and his inspectors think to be more important works in the higher classes.

The result is that they spend most of the time doing nothing, and get tired and listless; and the atmosphere of the school, which should be cheerful and active, turns into dead and dull lifelessness for them. Is it to be wondered at, that in such circumstances, boys learn to dislike school and abhor school-learning, and their guardians get tired of sending children to school and take them away from it? Year after year, reports on Public Instruction have therefore to mourn that less than 50 per cent. of scholars get beyond the lowest infant class; which means that schooling had not the least effect on them, except possibly to teach them hating learning for ever in life.

This state of things had to go. But what were we to do? It was suggested that possibly the infants might be kept for only a part of the school-day in school. This appeared to be a reasonable thing to do. So the school-day, from 11 to 4, was divided into two sittings:—the morning sitting from 11 to 1½; and after an interval of 30 minutes, the afternoon sitting from 2 to 4.

The infant classes are given all their lessons in the morning sitting, and at about 1½ they are dismissed. The higher classes,

as far as practicable, are given for the morning sitting such lessons as they can be expected to do by themselves. (*Vide* statement given in paragraph 4.)

In the afternoon sitting there are only three classes; and about half the number of children, belonging to the lowest classes and mostly the noisy element, is eliminated. The teacher can now with comparative ease, take up these classes in such lessons as demand his more direct and careful attention. He gets less noise, less pupils, more space, and more steady attention; and all these make for more solid work.

This method is working completely satisfactorily in our practising schools; and we have always been able to promote the infants to higher classes after one year's teaching, and sometimes even in six or eight months.

After a careful examination of this system, Mr. Cunningham wrote on August 8th, 1920:—

“The Practising Schools meet at 11. In School I, classes, IA and IB get particular attention in the early part of the day. At 1-40 the schools dismiss. Class I does not come back. For the rest of the day the master is free to attend, without distraction, to the upper classes. This is an excellent arrangement.”

**6. Principles for framing routine for the teaching of plural classes.**—In other ways also we were satisfied that these simple innovations gave very good results. And as result of these experimentations, the following simple principles emerged, for framing routine for primary schools, with one, two, or three teachers; in fact whenever a single teacher may be required to take more than one class. These are:—

- (i) *Two school sittings.*—The earlier sitting is to be for 2 to 2½ hours. In this sitting the lowest two sections are given all their lessons, and are then dismissed; and the higher three classes work by themselves under general supervision of the teacher. The later sitting is for another 2 or 1½ hours, when the higher classes are given the lessons requiring direct teaching.
- (ii) *Division of lessons into two groups.*—All the school subjects may have two broad divisions of lessons: namely, lessons requiring direct teaching, and lessons requiring only general supervision from the teacher. The lessons have to be so arranged in the Routine that at any given time the teacher may have only one lesson requiring direct teaching.
- (iii) *Combination of classes.*—For the above purpose, in many lessons, classes II and III, III and IV, and IA and IB may be combined. Lessons on General Knowledge, Geography, Story-telling, Letter-writing, Mental Arithmetic, Dictation, etc., will be found to be amenable to such treatment.

(iv) *Broad division of school-day into four periods.*—Ordinarily, in schools, the duration of class periods is for 45 or 50 minutes. And the Handbooks on School-Method prescribe 20 to 35 minutes for children. A discussion of merits or otherwise of such division of time is out of place here. What concerns us is that in an ordinary village Primary School to try to keep to such minute divisions of time is both impracticable and injurious. Impracticable, because for one thing, the village does not know a clock: that small part of it which does, uses it as a sign of respectability or of urbanity. Injurious because, if we want to adhere to such division, it is found in experience, that the lessons cannot be properly finished.

What is to be done, therefore, is to divide broadly the school-day into 4 periods. So long as the lessons fixed for the first period are not properly done, children are not allowed to begin the lessons of the second period; and until they finish the lessons of the second period, they do not take up lessons of the third period; and so on.

This principle allows of much flexibility in the routine. Sometimes all the lessons are finished a few minutes earlier, and some times a few minutes later. But if the lessons have been properly arranged, there is hardly a difference of more than a quarter of an hour.

A copy of the routine, now being worked out in our Single Teacher Primary School, is appended as illustrating the above principles.

**7. Individual work.**—These methods were good so far as they went. But they did not go to the root of the matter. The outer difficulties were perhaps solved; but the inner ones, those that really mattered, remained. We could perhaps satisfy our Inspectors, but we were not satisfied ourselves.

When the boys were left to themselves to work, much dis-organisation and noise would occur. Some boys finished their work, or half did it, too early; and they started the mischief. The teacher would be disturbed every other minute, when he was taking some other class by some boys coming up for correction, by others asking for more work, and by others again by preferring petty complaints, and by the rest by making noise out of sheer exuberance of spirit.

This was very perplexing; and at one time we were led to think that such disturbances were inevitable concomitants of circumstances in a school where one teacher had to minister to the scholastic needs of a jumble of little children at such multifarious stages of intellectual development.

But a solution was waiting, though we knew it not. In 1922 and 1923, the Dalton Laboratory Plan was being discussed in England and America; and its echo reached us faintly in this distant corner. It was in a private conversation that Mr. Cunningham first threw down a hint that perhaps there lay a solution. But with the

characteristic distrust of a timid mind for anything novel, I felt that the Dalton Plan was perhaps all right for schools in a rich and prosperous country, where teachers were proud of their position, had sufficient of the world's goods, and where both children and guardians understood and valued education. But for such poor specimens of schools, as of ours: well, the less said the better; forgetting the teaching of Psychology that eagerness to learn and to do is the most characteristic mark of childhood all over the world, and that the human mind finds the completest satisfaction at the result of activities obtained by its own effort.

Fortunately Mr. Small happened to be at Shillong at the time. He was then Inspector of the Surma Valley Division. In a private talk he told me casually that it was then a year that he had been experimenting with the Dalton Plan in the Sylhet High School, and that with encouraging results.

This put heart in me. I sent for details from the Sylhet High School; and read the literature I had over again.

A few weeks after this Mr. Small took transfer to the Assam Valley Division, and he was soon at Jorhat. The Jorhat High School soon caught his enthusiasm, and they started Dalton Work in their school.

Fortunately for us, I had at that time as Headmaster of my Single Teacher Practising School a youngman of intelligence—Srijut Adyanath Sarma—who was not afraid of an innovation. He consulted me and got hold of the central principle of the Dalton Plan, namely Individual Work, and made out an assignment for one week for his Class IV boys; and set them to work.

It worked like magic. So far as the teacher was concerned, Class IV was practically eliminated. The children got the week's work; and when the teacher would be busy with other classes, they would go on working their assignment, till he was free to attend to them. The disturbances and the noise vanished; and there appeared an atmosphere of real work. The teacher's work became less tiring, less irritating, and more fruitful, though by no means less heavy.

The work was critically examined by the Inspector of Schools, and seen by the Director of Public Instruction. They expressed themselves satisfied. We got courage to proceed with the experiment; and the result I give in Mr. Small's words:—

“One great benefit that will be derived from a system of this nature is that the writing out in advance of the work to be done in a definite period of time will aid the teacher in systematic teaching and in apportioning his time regularly throughout the year. It will help him to avoid a slackening of work in the early months of the year, and a hurried cram before the Promotion Tests. The other benefit is that, as soon as the boys in Class IV become accustomed to working mainly by themselves, as the boys here have evidently become, the teacher is relieved to that extent of class work, and is enabled to



devote the time gained to the lower classes, which have hitherto been comparatively neglected."

(Inspection Report, dated September, 1924.)

**8. The Dalton Plan adapted to the work of Primary Schools.**—I believe, I can now usefully add a word as to how the Assignments for our Primary Schools are prepared. I need not give any detail; since the regular method of preparing assignments is well-known. I can therefore, conveniently be brief; and I shall only note the variations from the ordinary Dalton Method.

- (i) The Dalton Plan Assignment is a contract of one month's work. We prefer to give one week's work at a time. For children, it is not wise to give too much to be done at once.
- (ii) The contract idea is absent from our work; the children are not required to sign any contract.
- (iii) Our assignments are not too detailed; neither are they the simple enumeration of the lessons. We steer a middle course. General indication of the work to be done is given. Things which the children are apt to overlook are put in the assignments; such as, difficult words, common errors in spelling, things to be committed to memory. But no attempt is made to explain things in the assignment itself; the boys have to get all their explanations from the teacher.
- (iv) In Assamese we have only a few reference books; and these few even are not accessible to Primary School Boys. So that reference to other works than the Text Books is almost non-existent. The teacher helps when necessary.
- (v) General lessons to elucidate difficult portions, to explain new rules (of Arithmetic, etc., and to supplement information form about half the school work.
- (vi) Written works to be shown to the teacher are separately put in the Assignments, easily to catch the eyes of both teacher and taught.
- (vii) Extra work is given to those pupils who finish their month's work (not week's) before time. This is sometime put in the assignment; but very often is given by the teacher orally.
- (viii) Unless a boy can do his month's work, he is not usually allowed to proceed to the next month's work; but full discretion is allowed to the teacher to deviate from this principle in special individual cases.
- (ix) We use only one graph, namely the individual graph. All the work is marked on this graph, which is in manuscript.
- (x) Markings on the graph is given in three colours—red for good, green for fair, and blue for middling work; bad work is not accepted.

- (xi) Over and above this graph-marking, marks are also given for some class works.
- (xii) In giving Individual Work, it should be borne in mind that the assignments are to be such as can be worked out by all the boys of average merit belonging to a particular class. The duller ones may take more time; but all the work should usually be within their capacity.

A sample assignment and a graph are appended to this note in way of illustration.

Work on this method is given in Class IV only; but the principle is followed in Class III and Class II as well, though not with such details. These classes are given lessons for the day beforehand, and they can go on with their work, when the teacher is busy otherwise than in their class.

I want to add one word. Let no one imagine that the teacher has a good time of it, while the boys are left to work by themselves. Far from it. He has got to be very busy indeed, and to have very watchful eyes to be able to run this work smoothly. The only difference is that his work now keeps all the children busy, while in old ways he used to busy himself all right, but could keep only a few boys busy at one time. That the conditions of work in an atmosphere where every one is doing something are infinitely better than in an ordinary school does not require stating.

**9. Co-operation and assistance from the pupils.**—My note perhaps will not be complete if I omitted to mention how the children are made to co-operate and help in the teaching work. The Monitorial Principles are of course well known all over the educational world. So I shall be brief.

These principles are :—

- (i) Discipline the boys in fixed habits about sitting, standing, keeping their books and other belongings in proper way and in their fixed places, *e.g.*, leaving shoes and umbrellas neatly arranged in the verandah. This adds to the beauty of the place and generates an atmosphere of orderliness, where work and system appear to be the general rule.
- (ii) Give the children enough of work to do. When all the set work is finished, which however must not happen very often, they can draw as they like, write what they please. For this the slate is the most useful instrument a child can possess. When a class is in want of this sort of work even, they can go out and play. They must in no case be allowed to sit idle and loiter in the class. For this purpose some simple devices are of much value. They are briefly noticed in a subsequent paragraph. (Paragraph 10.)
- (iii) Institute the Class Captain System. The Captain should be made responsible for work, discipline, and distribu-

tion of and storage of articles required for his class; *e.g.*, pens, seeds, writing books, etc.

(iv) Let boys help, question, and explain to one another in the difficult lessons.

Boys can be formed into groups of two, and each pair may be allowed to prepare their lessons together and examine each other.

In Dictation, a boy can occasionally dictate. In Geography a class can study the map together. In recitation, one boy can lead and the rest follow.

Thus in a hundred ways, an alert teacher can keep the school engaged and make it instinct with life and joy. Care should be taken that one and the same boy is not made into a sort of unpaid pupil-teacher.

10. **Equipment.**—I have now to add a word about our equipment, lest some reader may imagine that we are working under conditions that are unavailable for our rural schools.

Nothing of the sort; except that our teachers are better qualified than the ordinary run of village school-masters. This had necessarily to be; for, to conduct an experiment, a better type of man than those who would follow the Rule of Thumb arrived at by such experiment have always been granted.

Our enterprise in the direction of elaborate equipment was cut short by the same pitiless Mr. Cunningham, who would not allow us to raise our head to the sky, when our work lay on this mundane earth. He allowed us the minimum equipment that might be always available for our village schools.

We allow each teacher two good black boards, and also good white chalk to write with. The outlay is not extravagant, and yields excellent results. The necessity is obvious.

Each school is provided with a series of text books, and one set of maps, consisting of the District, the Province, India, and the Empire. Some of those supplied are made in the Normal School; but each teacher under training are required to make a set of these maps along with other manual works.

Children sit upon Dharis and write upon ground desks. The teacher is given a table and a chair; and there are a few shelves for books, etc.

The house is of the standard size adopted for Assam Vernacular schools.

Other equipment we have. But they are all hand made and cheap, or cost nothing. Among them are sticks of various lengths and sizes, seeds, card board boxes obtained gratis from some friendly shop-keeper, blank cards (for Arithmetic Work), playing cards for counting and arithmetical games, writing slips, bamboo-handles for pencils, reed pens, sand, and such other articles which may be had everywhere for the mere looking for.

All these are pressed into our service; how, of course is a different matter; and will not be attempted in this note. But I think

that all teachers who have to do with such work are more or less familiar with this sort of method.

11. **Results.**—I shall now conclude with a brief statement of results achieved. One of the standing problems of Primary Education is the very low—less than 50 per cent.—promotion from the lowest section to the next higher section or class. In the words of Dr. Thomson, "The figures show that only about 14 pupils in every 100 survive from Class IA to Class IV." The majority of the remaining 86, it is to be feared, must lapse into illiteracy. The small percentage promotion from Class IA to Class IB less than 50 per cent. is also a matter which calls for serious attention from all inspecting officers."

(a) *Promotion.*—The following figures will tell their own tale. Those who are acquainted with our primary schools know that boys remain in the lowest class for 2, 3, and 4 years, and still do not know the alphabets. In our schools, in 4 to 6 months fresh boys, having no previous knowledge of a single letter, are enabled to read and write simple words. This however relates more strictly to another method the method of teaching the alphabets—and may be left over from this note.

Year and School.	Number admitted into Class IA 1st year.	PROMOTION FROM CLASS.				Completion of Five Years' Course.
		IA to IB 2nd year.	IB to II 3rd year.	II to III 4th year.	III to IV 5th year.	
1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1920.						
School I . . . . .	4	4	4 & 3	6	5-2	2
School II . . . . .	13	13-3	10 & 1	11	7	7
1921.						
School I . . . . .	4	4-1	3 & 8	9-3	6-2	4
School II . . . . .	9	9 & 2	10 & 2	10 & 5	13-6	6
1922.						
School I . . . . .	3	3 & 1	4 & 3	6-3*	3-2	1* Promoted from Class II to Class IV.
School II . . . . .	5	3 & 7	8 & 3	10-4	6	...
1923.						
School I . . . . .	3	3 & 3	6 & 4	10-1	...	...
School II . . . . .	13	11 & 3	13 & 1	14 & 1	...	...
1924.						
School I . . . . .	2	2 & 5	6 & 2	...	...	...
School II . . . . .	13	12 & 4	15 & 1	...	...	...
1925.						
School I . . . . .	8*	7	1* Promoted direct to Class II.	...	...	...
School II . . . . .	11	10 & 6	...	...	...	...

N.B.—(1.) & denotes new admission into a class from another school.

— denotes transfer from a class in the middle of the year or after promotion.

(2.) Some boys take admission so late as September, October, and even November.

The above record, I venture to believe, is unique for any primary School.

(b) *Regular attendance and punctuality.*—This is another problem for a primary school. Figures show that average attendance is about 84 per cent. in the Practising Schools. For the whole of the Province it is 70 per cent. Ours is not a very good record. Many of the boys attend from neighbouring villages; and even in the town many guardians are apt to be somewhat slack in the matter of attendance of their children who are sent to primary schools. Besides absence for festivities at home or in the village, and for sickness during the rains is pretty common all over the country.

We have troubles about punctuality; but probably less than in a village school. Strictness has been found to be a good remedy.

An attendance record hung up in the class-room is a good encouragement for regular attendance. Such boys as are present throughout the month are marked with an asterisk.

The teachers often enquire after a boy when he happens to be absent for more than 2 or 3 days together. This also produces good result.

(c) *Interest of scholars.*—In the general criticism of the Dalton Plan, it is said that boys do not read even under the fear of the rod; how can they be expected to work when left to themselves. Apart from the fact that it is a mistake to suppose that in the Dalton Method of work boys are left to do what they please, the above statement has perhaps good logic, but bad psychology to support it. I have found in these two years that boys are more eager to learn when given Individual Work. And I have noticed a few boys working in the half-hour's recess to complete their month's assignment in time.

(d) *Opinions of Inspecting Officers.*—Lastly, I may be permitted to quote the following remarks to show how the system is working in the judgment of competent and none too lenient critics:—

After about ten week's work under this plan, Mr. Cunningham wrote:—

“Time permitted of a visit to only one of the Practising Schools—the one-teacher school. The work was excellent, the methods most interesting. Everytime I come here, I find that further progress has been made with reference to my note of 24th July 1917.” (Inspection Report.)

On 20th September 1924, Mr. Small wrote:—

“In March, an experiment was commenced in Practising Schools Nos. I and II on the lines of the Dalton Plan.

The boys of Class IV have the work for a week given them in advance, and are allowed to complete it at their own time, merely approaching the teacher for assistance, when

necessary, and bringing him the completed work for correction, testing, and marking.

During my present inspection, I examined the work that has been done during the last few months by the boys of Class IV under this system; and am glad to be able to say that it was distinctly creditable both in quantity and quality. All the work was neat and clean, hand-writing was good, and in general the standard reached was above the average." (Inspection Note.)

After more than a year Mr. Small again gave a thorough inspection to these schools. As he was then conducting the practical examination of the teachers under training, he was enabled to examine each boy very thoroughly in all the subjects. And he wrote the following in December 1925:—

“ The modified Dalton Work being done here is most successful.

The disturbance caused in the school by the continual change of teachers during the practical examination did not appear to affect the children in Class IV at all.

They were all quietly engaged in their own work, seldom even looking up at the visitors to their room.

If similar method can be introduced throughout the Division the work of our village school teachers will be very considerably simplified.” (Inspection Report.)

*Daily Routine of Practising School No. 1, Jorhat, 1926.*

Day.	Class.	1st period about 1½ hours from 11 a.m.	2nd period about 1½ hours from 12½ p.m.	3rd period about 1½ hours from 2 p.m.	4th period about 1 hour from 3¼ p.m.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Monday	IV	Geography	Writing and General Knowledge.	Reading	Mental Arithmetic and Kasrat.
	III	Arithmetic	Drawing and General Knowledge.	Dictation and Reading.	Reading and Kasrat.
	II	Object Lesson	Arithmetic and Reading.	Writing	Mental Arithmetic and Kasrat.
	IB	Reading	Arithmetic and Writing.	.....	.....
	IA	Letter-formation.	Tables and Reading.	.....	.....

Day.	Class.	1st period about 1½ hours from 11 a.m.	2nd period about 1½ hours from 12; p.m.	3rd period about 1½ hours from 2 p.m.	4th period about 1 hour from 3½ p.m.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Tuesday	IV	Arithmetic	Dictation and General Know- ledge.	Drawing and Reading.	Reading and Kasrat.
	III	Arithmetic	Writing and General Know- ledge.	Reading .	Geography and Kasrat.
	IB*	Writing	Reading and Arithmetic.	.....	.....
	II*	As on	Monday.	Dictation	Tables and Kasrat.
	IA	Reading	Letter forma- tion and count- ing.	.....	.....
Wednesday	IV	Arithmetic	Letter writing and General Knowledge.	Reading .	Geography and Kasrat.
	III	Accounts and Tables.	Gardening and Hand-work.	Composition .	Reading and Kasrat.
	II	General Knowledge.	Recitation and Arithmetic.	Writing .	Reading and Kasrat.
	IB	Arithmetic	Writing and Reading.	.....	.....
	IA	As on	Tuesday.	.....	.....
Thursday	IV	Arithmetic	Gardening and Handwork.	Composition .	Reading and Kasrat.
	III	Geography	General Know- ledge and Letter Writ- ing.	Reading .	Arithmetic and Kasrat.
	II	Reading	General Know- ledge and Arithmetic.	Drawing .	Dictation and Kasrat.
	IB	Drawing	Tables and Re- ading.	.....	.....
	IA	Tables	Reading and Writing.	.....	.....

Day.	Class.	1st period about 1½ hours from 11 a.m.	2nd period about 1½ hours from 12½ p.m.	3rd period about 1½ hours from 2 p.m.	4th period about 1 hour from 3½ p.m.
1	2	3	4	5	6
Friday	} IV III II IB IA	From 11 to 1.		From 2 to 4.	
		Reading and Manuscripts Reading.	Tables, Bazar Accounts, General Knowledge and Kasrat.		
		Arithmetic and Writing . . .	Mental Arithmetic, Reading, and Kasrat.		
		Gardening and Recitation . . .	Play, Tables, Reading and Kasrat.		
		Tables and Reading . . .	.....		
Seed Work and Writing . . .	.....				
Saturday	} IV III II IB & IA	From 11 to 2.			
		Arithmetic, Dictation and General Knowledge,	Story-telling.		
		Mental Arithmetic, Reading and General Knowledge.	Ditto.		
		Transcription, Arithmetic, Drawing.	Ditto.		
Clay model, General Knowledge, Action song.	Ditto.				

**ASSIGNMENT FOR CLASS IV FROM 8TH FEBRUARY TO 13TH  
FEBRUARY 1926.**

*Practising School No. I.*

*Literature.*—1. "Invasion of Assam by the Ahoms." I shall give you a model lesson on reading on Monday. You shall have to read to me on Wednesday, when I shall explain the difficult portions.

2. Note the following spellings and the meaning of these words. (Here follows a list of words.)

3. Learn the meaning of the following words and phrases.

4. Consult map and find out the following places:—Burma, Patkai hills, Kaliabar and Dimapur.

5. On Saturday, show me the answers to the following questions written on the slate:—

From what place the Ahoms did originally come? What district lies to the east of Sibsagar? What is the name of the hills to the east of Assam? Where is the kingdom of Pung? Who was the first king of the Ahoms? Who among the Ahom kings gave the largest gifts to Brahmans and Pandits? Who was Turbak?

*Poetry.*—I have explained to you the poem called Larakal (boyhood); On Friday, render it into prose before me; I shall ask.



*Hand Writing.*—Take a copy slip from me; and write. Must avoid scribbling.

*Dictation.*—Take dictation from page 14 of the lesson for this week. The Captain of Class III will dictate. I shall correct and mark.

*Essay.*—We have already discussed Railway in class. Write a short description on the lines already given.

*Arithmetic.*—Do all the sums of Examples 20 and 21 on slate; those I have marked should be worked out in book.

*Mental Arithmetic.*—On Friday I shall explain the hints by which you can easily find out how from the price of a seer, the price of a maund should be calculated. In the beginning you must work out on the slate the price of a maund, when the price of a seer is Rs. 1-9-6.

*Tables.*—Learn 15 and 20 and 16 and 20; and write on slate. I shall question.

*Accounts.*—Take an account sum from me and work out; if time permits, I shall explain how abstract account is to be made.

*Geography.*—Read about the Sibsagar district from the Bhugol-path. Draw a map, mark the three sub-divisions, all the important places given in the book, showing the thanas in red. Show me on Saturday, when I shall question you.

*Object Lesson and General Knowledge.*—I have already talked to you about the railway. Write out and show me what a junction and a station is.

You have already learned something about Potato; write out and let me see what you know about it.

*Drawing.*—Procure of leaf of jack-fruit tree; draw in natural colour.

*Hand Work.*—Take scissors and paper from me and cut out two envelopes and a fan.

*Work to be Shown to Teacher.*

1. Exercises on literature.
2. Hand writing.
3. Dictation.
4. Essay.
5. Note on object lesson, etc.
6. Arithmetic sums.

## A TRAINING SCHOOL FOR VILLAGE TEACHERS, MOGA, PUNJAB.

That we learn mainly through experience is accepted as a truism. But children in school seldom have opportunity to acquire knowledge in this way. Educational psychology has taught us that children learn best through active experience attended with satisfaction; and a growing number of educators are making practical use of this principle in the class-room. The traditional formal methods of teaching stand condemned because they do not conform to the known processes of learning. Progressive teachers are finding it practicable to introduce the activities and situations of real life into the class-room and help the children to learn by doing.

At Moga in the Punjab is a school which whole-heartedly accepts this common-sense principle. It rules in the life of the school, and conditions all the teaching. It is not uncommon to find the conception of the importance of learning through active experience recognized in the extra-curricular activities of a school, such as the Boy Scouts, the Junior Red Cross, the games, and the literary societies. It is commonly accepted that the way to teach a boy to be trustworthy, is to give him opportunities to act in a situation which requires trustworthiness. The way to teach him to use his mother tongue effectively is to guide him in his participation in literary activities in which he strongly desires to excel. But schools are still rare in which arithmetic is taught by means of situations which require its use, or history is taught in close connection with the problems and present needs of the pupils. At Moga, the ideal is to teach as much as possible of the formal subject-matter through projects undertaken by the boys. In so far as this ideal is realized, interest in studies is neither artificial nor external; it is whole-hearted and purposeful, because it is engendered by activities chosen and planned by the boys themselves. The results of the teaching and the life of the school are shown not only in the mastery of facts, but in the growth of habits of study and thoughtful judgment, attitudes of independence, initiative and helpfulness. In other words, the boys at Moga are prepared to meet life, because they meet real, rather than artificial, experiences in the school.

The authorities at Moga do not conceive of this type of education as limited to the class of pupils taught at this school, but as applicable to all schools. They consider that it is the right of each child to be given the type of education that will afford the fullest and richest development of his personality. Moga is a revolt against the idea that the training of the hand and the training of the brain, are the work of two different educational institutions. We must take into account a whole boy, a boy with

hands and feet as well as brains. In describing his great school, Sanderson of Oundle says:—

“Creative education demands that schools should be brought into harmony with the community life, and should take part in the industrial and economic life.”

“I would make the suggestion that we must not keep the life of school too much separated from the working life of the community. . . . . When boys and girls go home, even to the humblest home, their parents should find that some part of the school life is associated with their own life and work. This principle should modify the kind of work done in schools, so that when boys leave school they should have already taken part in the work which they go out to do.”

“Is the education for dominance and possession destined to survive? Should not service be the ideal for all schools creativeness and not possession? If so, then account must be taken of this ideal in educational reform.”

*Purpose of the School.*—The Training School for Village Teachers is situated at the town of Moga, Ferozepur District, Punjab. It is a rural community middle school with a normal training department and a primary school for practising and demonstration purposes. There are four years in the primary school, four years in the middle school and one year in the normal course. It was started by the Punjab Mission, Presbyterian Church in the U. S. A. as part of its work for the uplift of the out-castes of the Punjab who are turning to Christianity in great numbers. The work is now under the direction of a board in which the Indian Church shares the responsibility equally with the Mission. The responsibility for the education of these village Christians is a heavy one. The purpose of the school at Moga is to prepare selected village boys for the leadership of their own communities. The majority of the students who finish the course become teachers of village schools.

The school plant consists of about 55 acres of land, 45 of which are under cultivation, with three wells, two silos and stables for cattle. The buildings consists of a main school building with 9 well-lighted class rooms, an agricultural and industrial room, a main hall, library, and office; 3 hostels; quarters for married students; teachers' houses; headmaster's house, principal's house; and a model village school building. The value of the present plant is about Rs. 1,75,000.

The staff consists of 3 missionaries, the principal, his wife, and the vice-principal, the headmaster who is theologically trained, 3 teachers with S. V. certificates, four Moga trained and Government certificated teachers; one trained agricultural master, a carpenter and a tailor who teach village home industries and one woman teacher for the women's school. As practically all the needs of the school are met by student labour, there are only three servants

employed—a gardener who helps supervise the primary boys' work in the fields, an old man as assistant gardener, and one sweeper.

The enrolment of the school is about 150, of whom about 25 are in the Normal Class, and the remainder are about equally divided between the Middle and Primary departments. Practically all the pupils are boarders. They have nearly all come from extremely poor homes, and usually the parents give little or nothing toward the cost of their education. There are indications, however, that these people are beginning to appreciate the value of education for their children, and are showing themselves more willing to help towards the boys' expenses. The boys come from all over the Punjab, and a few, by special permission, are admitted to the Normal Class from other provinces outside the Punjab. The pupils are mainly Christians, though non-Christians are admitted. A women's school is maintained for the wives of the married students, and other women of the compound.

*History of the School.*—The school was founded by the Rev. R. H. Carter, M.A., and owes much to his wisdom and educational ideals. His plan was to establish a school for village boys with a training class attached, a school in which the boys would live under simple village conditions, do their own cooking and washing, and receive, in addition to a good general education, especially suited to village needs, practical training in agriculture and ordinary village trades. The purpose of this industrial training was partly to keep the boys in touch with village conditions and to make them an economic asset to their community, partly to disabuse their minds of the idea that an educated man should not work with his own hands, and partly to enable them while at school to contribute as much as possible toward their own education.

These ideals had been partly realized when Mr. Carter had to return to America for family reasons and the Mission selected W. J. McKee, C.E., M.A., to carry on his work. About this time the Frazer Commission on Village Education was visiting India and calling attention to the necessity of improvement in rural education. The Punjab Mission planned an advance along these lines. After special study during his furlough in America, Mr. McKee took over charge in 1920. The school now entered upon a new era of development. New educational methods were introduced; the courses in agriculture and simple village trades definitely worked into the curriculum, and normal training established on an entirely new basis, resulting in the production of a new type of teacher and rural worker, which has given Moga its reputation. Mr. McKee's success as an educator was recognized by Government, and he was awarded the silver Kaiser-i-Hind medal, for his services to rural education, in 1922. In 1924 Mr. McKee was compelled for family reasons to return to America, and the present principal took over charge. Mr. Carter had returned to Moga in 1923, and has since shared the management of the school. He is now Vice-Principal.

Moga owes much to the encouragement and support of the Department of Education of the Punjab. The school is recognized as an experimental school, and is allowed freedom to work out a curriculum suited to rural conditions, and to use methods often radically different from those of the traditional school. The requirements of the educational code are, however, fully met. Candidates are sent up for the Vernacular Final Examination, and the percentage of students passing has been excellent. A special examination based on the Moga normal course syllabus is given to the normal class graduates, and a special certificate, recognized as practically equivalent to the Junior Vernacular training certificate, is granted. The percentage of successful candidates has been always excellent; in 1925 and 1926 it was 100 per cent. A grant-in-aid is given for the main school and the normal class as well as for the agricultural department and a grant was given on the main school building. Beyond this, the Director of Public Instruction and the officers of the educational department have given much appreciated help through their advice and interest.

It may not be out of place at this point to quote some recent remarks of distinguished visitors, for the purpose of showing how much the school owes to the interest of Government officers. The school is proud to have some small share in the remarkable progress in primary education of the last few years in the Punjab.

*From the Inspector of Schools.\**

With a view to affording my colleagues an opportunity to study the up-to-date and practical methods of teaching literary and vocational subjects I invited the members of the Divisional Educational Conference to assemble at Moga on 23rd, 24th and 25th November. On the 24th they all visited this fine institution and Mr. Harper very kindly showed them round the farm, the trades workshop and the classes. They closely studied the teaching of Class I to satisfy their doubts about the practicability of the project method in teaching reading. I am glad to record that they all went back eminently satisfied. The vocational training both in agriculture and trade work was a treat which they all enjoyed immensely.

I need hardly add my measure of praise for the good work done by this good institution. It is an object lesson to those who have eyes to see and are interested in rural education.

27th November 1925.

*From Two Governors of the Punjab.*

Having heard so much of the school I was most anxious to pay it a visit. I need hardly say that I have been most interested,

---

\* S. B. Sardar Bisan Singh, B.A., J.E.S., Divisional Inspector of Schools, Jullundur Division.

and am glad to find how much the school has been inspiration both to Government Officials and to Missionaries from other parts of India.

26th January 1924.

I need not say that I was particularly interested, not only in the working of the project method of education, but also in the methodical instruction given in agriculture. The former must go far to relieve education of its purely routine aspect, and must add a great vitality and stimulus to its processes. The latter is the first effort of the kind I have had the opportunity of seeing in the Punjab, and I have not the smallest doubt that it is of the highest value. I wish the school and its management every success; it seems to me that it is a pioneer in work which we might with advantage extend in the Punjab.

21st July 1925.

*The Curriculum.*—The experiments at Moga are directed toward evolving a type of education which will succeed in village schools. The curriculum with which we are working is described in the definition adopted by an all-India conference on rural education held at Moga in 1922; i.e., “A Rural Community Middle School is a school which seeks to use the activities and valuable interests of the village as means for educating rural boys and girls for more abundant living and service in their communities. All the work of these schools, including the vocational or practical work, should be closely related to the pupils’ village environment and so far as possible should grow out of it. The vocational work should not be a separate entity but should be an integral part of the curriculum, enriching it and having as its constant aim, (along with the other work of the school), the bettering of present village conditions. Such a school differs from an industrial one in that it is concerned with a broad curriculum and the uplifting of the community through enriched and consecrated personality, while the latter has as one of its principal aims the training of pupils for a definite trade through which they may become self-supporting members of the community.”

The curriculum which is being evolved is based so far as possible upon the worthwhile interests of village boys. The change in the curriculum are, however, being made gradually, and the ordinary course of study is covered in addition to the new curriculum material. The enrichment of the curriculum is along the lines of nature study, health education, hand-work, practical mathematics, more reading and composition, etc. The teachers strive for a minimum of memorizing text-book material, and a maximum of observing, discovering, constructing, judging Moga boys are taught to live a real life in the world in which they find themselves.

A critical observer has thus commented upon the class work. “I have been asked several times after describing the agricultural and trade work carried on in Moga, what curtailment had to be made in the ordinary curriculum to allow of this being done. It

will probably come as a surprise to many to be told that not only are all the demands of the Punjab curriculum met with very excellent results but that a great deal more is covered. And this is very largely the result of the Project Method which is adopted throughout the school."

*Learning by Doing.*—The school endeavours to use those methods of teaching which are based on recent results of the scientific study of educational processes. The so-called "project method" is not used exclusively, but the effort is made to have the point of view on which this method is based, control our teaching as far as possible. For example, we endeavour to present the fact to be learned in a situation that is, as nearly as possible, like a situation in out-of-school life. Dr. Dewey has said:

"When a pupil learns by doing he is re-living both mentally and physically some experience which has proved important to the human race; he goes through the same mental processes as those who originally did these things. Because he has done them he knows the value of the result, that is, the fact. A statement, even of facts, does not reveal the value of the fact, or the sense of its truth—of the fact that it is a fact. When children are fed only on book knowledge one 'fact' is as good as another; they have no standard of judgment or belief."\*

Take for example a boy reading in his text-book that 8 kanals make one ghamao. When he does an example, he is apt as every teacher knows, to substitute 4 or 6 for 8. The fact as he read it in the book did not stand for anything that goes on outside the book. It is just one fact of many that he reads and that may or may not stay in his memory. But the Moga boy who calculates the size of his field plot in kanals and ghamaos, and with his class divides a big piece of land into plots, one kanal in size, *knows* that 8 kanals make a ghamao. He would laugh at anybody suggesting that 4 kanals make a ghamao. The difference in the two cases is that the average school boy "*has a result without the activity of which it is the result.*" To the Moga boy the fact is the result of an experience.

Again, a boy who has tried to memorize a table of weights, may be confused when asked the number of chattacks in half a seer; and not be greatly disturbed by his mistake. But when he and his class-mates are running a real shop in the school-room, he suffers for his mistake. Tables which are *used*, are quickly learned. In the regulation school, the boy who gets six sums out of ten correct is doing passing work in his class. He has learned that the teacher is satisfied with that quality of work. His aim is to please the teacher, and six to nine times right, out of ten, pleases the teacher. But at Moga he quickly learns that if only eight out of ten transactions were correct, the class shop would soon be bankrupt. So the boys set 100 per cent. accuracy as their own standard. They know the value of the arithmetic fact. Arithmetic to Moga boys is a real part of their life.

---

\* Schools of To-morrow, by John Dewey.

The above is a fair example of the principle which guides our efforts to improve teaching methods. Whenever it is possible, we teach through the use of a project, that is, an activity in which pupils whole-heartedly engage, because they themselves have purposed and planned it. The rôle of the teacher in these activities is that of a guide and friend rather than an autocrat. He helps the boys to choose activities that are rich in educational value. He helps them to carry out their purpose efficiently, to gather and master the necessary information, to learn good habits of work, to complete their project, make a permanent record of it, and judge of its success.

Since one of the essential factors of a project is its spontaneity, we cannot have a fixed "project curriculum." Often projects are repeated, but they must always be chosen by the new class. Illustrations of typical projects used at different times will help to make clear the method, and give some idea of the development of the curriculum. The village home project was used most successfully in the first half of Class I, for several years. The vegetable shop project as described, was the activity of Class IV, in 1925-26. The project on Moga School is being taken up by Class V in 1926, while the hospital project was carried out by Class VI in 1925-26. Three of the following descriptions are taken from the report of a visitor to the school\* :—

*The Village Home Project.*—"The children plan to build an actual house of the same materials as are used in houses in the Punjab and big enough to be played in, *i.e.*, about 5' x 4' x 3'. The construction of the house soon confronts the pupil with the need of certain skills. The length, breadth, thickness and height of the house have to be determined. This involves understanding and using certain units of measurements, *e.g.*, foot, yard, etc. As the house is made of sun-dried bricks which are made by the boys themselves, the need of counting and estimating the number of bricks required arises, and thus arithmetic begins.

From the beginning the children hear stories about the home and the desire to read these and similar stories, as well as to read, on the blackboard and elsewhere, the information necessary in carrying on their activity, leads on naturally to reading. The need for writing the various facts and figures and labelling the various prices of furniture which will be made later, leads on to the need for acquiring this skill. The plan of the house and the utensils used involve drawing, and the provision of doors and windows, gives the teacher his opportunity to teach simple hygiene, ventilation, lighting, etc. The preparation of models of the various pieces of furniture and utensils required in a house motivates the hand-work and provides ample opportunities for discussion on the food we eat, its value and quality, the materials used in the house, what it is that makes a home attractive and comfortable, etc., etc. When I visited the school in January the school session was in its eighth month and I discovered that even then the curriculum requirements for

\* Report by the Rev. Oliver Thomas, Shillong, Assam.



the year had been covered and in arithmetic, writing, reading, composition, had been surpassed, while a number of very valuable activities had been engaged in and information obtained which the ordinary curriculum does not expect."

*The Vegetable Shop Project.*—"The main project of class IV is the Village Shop. In Moga this is not a play project, though even as play a project of this sort can be made most valuable. In Moga, however, the village shop is a reality for the boys are in charge of the shop which sells the vegetables obtained from the garden plots. In order to run the shop well the boys have had to do a great deal of investigation as to the way shops are run in the bazaar, how the goods are cared for, how bazaar accounts are kept, how profits are computed, what articles are required in a shop, how goods are ordered and conveyed and how paid for when ordered from a distance, etc., etc.

The demands of the shop have led the boys to build a mud brick house about 6' x 6' x 6', complete with a door, to serve as a place to store their goods, and business is carried on just in front of the building. The shop is opened about half-an-hour before school opens and continues open for an hour, and then is re-opened after school closes. Two boys, in turn, look after the shop each day.

Every evening boys who have vegetables to sell bring their vegetables to the shop where they are weighed and priced according to the bazaar rate which the boys find out once a week. A careful account is kept of every transaction. In one book the names of the sellers, the goods sold, the quantities and value of the vegetables, are entered. In another a similar account of the vegetables disposed of is kept. These accounts are made up at the end of the month and a statement made to the Headmaster who hands over to each boy the amount due to him. The various vegetables are sold to the school mess, the families of the teachers, married pupils and the missionaries, and if any are left unsold they are taken to the bazaar by the boys and sold there. All the sales are carried on in actual cash.

These boys get a very practical knowledge of money, of weights and measures. They are provided with ample material for most interesting arithmetical calculations which fully cover the prescribed course. The business of shop-keeping suggests innumerable topics for composition of different kinds from business letters to advertisement of wares, descriptive accounts of business life, essays on vegetables, their utility, food, value, diseases, etc., etc.

As shopkeepers, the pupils are interested in a wider world than that of the village. So geography of the outside world becomes a subject of considerable interest. Methods of transport, trade between different parts of the province and between one province and another, the varying products of different parts of the country and the reasons for the differences, are all matters of real interest.

I also noticed that these boys were keen readers. In addition to the prescribed Reader, the boys made ample use of the literature

published in the vernacular, with which the Punjab seems to be well supplied. (Lahore alone publishes four children's magazines!)

*Moga School Project.*—The boys of Class V have undertaken a study of their school from its beginning to the present date. They wanted to find out why and when and by whom the school was started, what the ideals of the founders were, and how these ideals have been developed. They are gaining an historical sense and a perspective of time which many pupils do not acquire until much later in life. Many former pupils have been called in and interviewed, and their stories compared and an attempt is being made by the class to write a history of the school that will be authentic. The class also make models of the early and present buildings. They will study the values of property and buildings and the cost of maintaining the school. They intend to make a comparative study of the hygienic conditions of the early days and the present, listing the diseases in the school, and if possible finding why certain diseases have been prevalent. They hope to list all the places in India from which pupils and visitors have come to Moga School, studying the routes of travel, mileage, cost of journeys, rivers crossed, etc., etc. As the geography of Class V is India, this work secures interest and purpose for their required study of that subject.

A large amount of practice in penmanship has been secured through writing letters for information, and recording the facts in their note books. Each pupil keeps his own Project Book, and there is also a special class project book in which various pupils who are selected by the class, write contributions. The pupil writing the best composition on the subject has the honour of copying it into the permanent class book. A large amount of arithmetic and geography has been used in measuring land and buildings and making up costs for the records.

This class is developing a loyalty to the school, and a realization of the ideals of the founders which they could get in no other way. Their study of the cost of their education will give them an appreciation of its value that we hope will lead to a deeper consecration of their lives to the service of God and their fellow men.

*Hospital Project.*—“ Perhaps the most interesting and the most valuable project of all was that of Class VI, *i.e.*, the Moga Hospital (This Hospital by the way, is a remarkable institution in the charge of an Indian Assistant Surgeon, Rai Bahadur Dr. Mathra Das, who has made a name for himself throughout the Punjab and the neighbouring provinces as an eye specialist. It has accommodation for 1,400 in-patients, and in the busy season as many as 150 cataract operations per day are performed). The boys of Class VI got interested in the Hospital and were allowed to visit it and study its work. As a result they have opened a little dispensary in their own class room where under the guidance of the teacher, who formerly studied compounding, simpler ailments of the school boys are treated. The table and almirah for this dispensary were planned and made by the boys themselves. The medicines used are bought out of their pocket money, and the small contributions made to their

**Dispensary Poor Box.** They have made a study of common diseases and the method of treatment; they have undergone a course of First Aid; they have studied drugs, their history and the countries they come from; they have found ample material for their arithmetic and taken a keen interest in working out the percentages and averages of patients in the Moga Hospital from different parts of India, and the diseases they suffer from; and in estimating prices of drugs, etc. They have had experience in careful weighing of small quantities and in the use of liquid measures. They have written careful accounts of their work, and of what they have learnt. They have drawn excellent charts of the human body. They have drawn maps of the world showing the places the chief drugs come from and the methods of transport, and have studied the geography of these countries. The variety of nationalities represented in the Moga Hospital—Kashmiris, Pathans, Sikhs, Mohammadans, Hindus, etc., gives a splendid starting point for the study of the history of these peoples. They have searched the vernacular papers and collected the information into a book.

The day I spent in this class I found the school boys requiring treatment waiting in a queue, and one boy acting as clerk and filling in the forms, which had been prepared by the class, with the name of the patient, his disease, and the prescription given in consultation with the teacher. Another boy did the dispensing, and a third boy dealt with sores. Some of the boys were preparing patients' forms, one boy was preparing a form to record the height and weight of the class, and another was attending to the register of patients. The remainder of the class was engaged in a weekly stock taking and preparing a list of drugs to be ordered. The actual quantities required, with their cost, were written on the blackboard. The cost of the drugs required amounted to As. 12 pies 6. The teacher, thereupon, got the boys to work out by the unitary, proportion, and multiplication methods, the cost for a year at 12 annas 6 pies per week.

It was a great pleasure being in the class and seeing the keenness of the boys and the evident interest and pride they took in their work. The class room, too, reflected the interest of the boys for the walls were covered with diagrams, charts, maps, and pictures, prepared or collected by the boys."\*

Other projects that have been successful in supplying motives for learning may be mentioned. The Post Office project in Class III develops great interest on the part of the pupils. Practically all the requirements of the Government Code are met by means of this project, and much additional worthwhile information and certain desirable attitudes are secured. A banking project, a postal map of India project, making a map of Ferozepur District, the raising of fowls, the study of cotton or some other special product, have all been useful projects. Motives for short projects are constantly arising. Christmas, Easter, Basant and other special days or seasons afford opportunities for pupil activities. Making toys and gifts

\* NOTE.—The Junior Red Cross have kindly supplied much of this material.

for others, writing letters of Christmas greetings, making decorations for school, etc., are all teaching opportunities when through the boys' own purposing, planning and executing, there is created greater interest in the work of the school and the complete co-operation of the boys is won.

*Other Methods.*—All the teaching is not done by projects. Drill and memorizing are not neglected though they are made interesting and vital if possible. Formal methods are often resorted to. Teachers, here as elsewhere, show varying degrees of skill, and do not always grasp the principle or live up to the ideals. Moga is continuing to experiment with and to adopt methods based on educational psychology. Mr. McKee's investigations in the psychology of handwriting were very helpful in improving the teaching. Mr. McKee also worked out an adaptation of the story method for teaching beginning reading. Through the use of this method, all the pupils of Class I during the past three years have completed the work of the year with but one exception, and more than half of Class I pupils finish two years work and pass into Class III. Further investigations of the psychology of arithmetic and reading are planned for the improvement of our methods of teaching these subjects.

Intelligence tests are made use of in grading pupils, permitting some to advance more rapidly, and eliminating a very few who are found unable to profit by further education. Through the kind co-operation of the Department of Psychology of Forman Christian College, these tests have been administered by students trained under Dr. Rice. The test used has been Dr. Rice's Hindustani Binet-Performance Scale.

*Life and Work of the School.*—The same educational principles prevail in the general arrangements and management of the school. As in the class-room, so in the outside activities, responsibility is placed upon the boys. Each must contribute his share to the common good. The life is kept as simple as possible and close to village conditions. The boys do their own cooking, washing and mending. They care for the cattle and keep the grounds in order. The class work and the outside work are correlated. The field work is related to class studies through nature study in the Primary and agriculture in the Middle, through composition, account keeping, etc. The knowledge gained through the carrying on of village trades is made use of in the making and repairing of articles for the school or the farm, in preparing drawings of implement, etc., and in the study of village social problems.

The students themselves take a large degree of responsibility for the general management of the school. The Panchayat is the governing committee of the student body. They are elected annually by the boys from among themselves. The Panchayat handles many cases of discipline and arranges other affairs related to school life. The boys also elect a Food Committee who purchase the food, keep accounts and assign to the different boys the daily duties of cooking. Each boy gives about one day out of 20 for

cooking. There is also a Committee for Caring for the Sick, a Committee on Sanitation and Hygiene, a Committee on Lighting. The elections are democratically conducted and the boys make very wise choices. The election is preceded by discussion in the classes, on the qualities requisite for leadership.

\* The summer schedule of the school is as follows:—

Rising bell . . . . .	5-15 A.M.
Morning prayers . . . . .	5-45 A.M.
Classes . . . . .	6-15—8-15
Recess . . . . .	8-15—8-30
Classes . . . . .	8-30—9-30
Morning meal . . . . .	9-30—10-00
Classes . . . . .	10-00—12-00
Rest . . . . .	12-00—2-00 P.M.
Study period . . . . .	2-00—4-30
Work period . . . . .	4-30—6-00
Games and Recreations . . . . .	6-00—7-30
Evening meal . . . . .	7-30—8-00
Evening devotions in charge of pupils	8-00—8-15
Study period . . . . .	8-15—9-30

In the winter schedule the classes are from 10 A.M. to 3-30 P.M.

The work of the farm is largely done by students. One and a half hour a day are given by each boy to outside work. In addition, each class, from Class IV through the Middle and including the Normal, gives one full day a week to work outside of the class room. The morning of this day is given to agricultural work and at least part of the afternoon to trade work. In this way, a continual supply of labour is made available for the farm and gardens.

The School has a garden of nine acres. Each pupil from Class V up has a garden plot 35 × 35 feet. The remainder is worked as a school plot by the boys of the Primary classes under the guidance of the gardener. The school also has 36 acres of farm land, about half of which is devoted to dry farming. Class V cares for a large piece of land as a class. Each boy from Class IV up is given 1/6 of an acre of land under well irrigation. Some of the dry farming land is also given to pupils. The remainder of the land is worked by all the boys for par at labourers' wages. The younger boys are paid wages according to their earning capacity.

The plots are worked on a project basis. Each year the agricultural instructor draws up a detailed list of the plots with the possible earnings from different products. The boys then choose the crops they wish to grow. Each boy personally is responsible for his plot, but the whole work is of course under the general supervision of the agricultural instructor. A variety of crops is grown such as wheat, maize, oats, cotton, grain, mustard, etc., together with the ordinary garden vegetables.

Boys are given definite agricultural instruction and are taught to use both the agricultural implements ordinarily in use in the

villages and improved implements suitable to the country. They are also taught the care of cattle and the securing and storing of fertilizing products.

Every boy is expected to accept the idea that no work which may be necessary for the maintenance of the life of the school is a disgrace. Each one must be ready to do any work on the farm or in the school. The dignity of labour is constantly taught. The staff set an example to the pupils by keeping gardens themselves and being willing to help also in any work that may be necessary. The graduates who return to the school point with pride to buildings they have helped to erect, trees they have planted and developments of the school in which they have shared.

The teaching of village home industries is also partly on a project basis. Our ideal is that a boy who completes the course will be able to take care of minor repairs on his home, and make and mend his clothing, and be able to teach the village community gainful occupations supplementary to their field earnings. In Class IV the boys learn to make a kurta, a pair of pajamas and a cap. In Class V they make baskets and various products from reeds (*sarkanda*) such as rope, screens (*chicks*), etc. Class VI make articles for the village home and village school, such as sun-dried bricks, doors, stools, blackboards, etc. Most of the mud plastering of the roofs of the school buildings is done by pupils. Class VII and VIII and the Normal Class learn simple iron work in order to make and repair farm tools. The Normal Class also learn book-binding and cover all the school books used, as well as do some work for other schools.

*Self-Help at Moga.*—It has always been the custom in this school for boys to contribute to the cost of their education by their labour. From an educational point of view, however, this required labour did not yield all the returns in character development which we thought possible. We have therefore introduced a new plan of self-help, which has now been in operation a year and a half. The guiding rules of the plan are as follows:—

(1) The pupils, from the youngest primary boys to the normal class pupils, handle actual money which they have earned. (2) All the boys keep account books and know where they stand financially at any time. (3) The boys are paid only *actual value* of the work done. (4) Every boy pays a definite sum monthly toward his school expenses. (5) No pocket money is given to pupils. (6) Industry is encouraged by giving to the most trustworthy pupils special jobs. (7) Pupils are not allowed to receive pocket money from outside sources.

Before inaugurating the plan, a thorough study was made of the cost of education at Moga. The estimates excluded all capital expenditure for land, buildings, etc., but included all annually recurring expenditures, as salaries of staff (including missionaries), servants, school supplies, repairs of buildings, agricultural and trade work expenses, etc. These expenses were divided among three groups of pupils, *i.e.*, Primary, Middle and Normal, and the

cost of educating a pupil in each of these departments was calculated. From this was deducted the Government grant. It was found that each Primary pupil was costing the Mission Rs. 12 to Rs. 14 per month, each Middle pupil, about Rs. 17 per month, and each Normal pupil, about Rs. 23 per month.

A study of the actual earning power of pupils showed that there were four possible kinds of earnings, *i.e.*, (1) profits from the customary  $\frac{1}{8}$  acre of farm land, from the garden plots, 35 x 35 feet; (2) earnings from trade work; (3) earnings from general labour, as work in school gardens or school fields, repairing of school buildings, running errands, caring for cattle, etc., etc. For such work the pay was according to bazaar wages, 4 annas for eight hours' work for the smallest boys up to 10 annas for eight hours' work for the largest pupils; (4) earnings for special work like that of night watchman, care-taker of tools, etc. Each boy also earns for cooking as he takes his turn in regular order.

Part of the above study was made class-room work in arithmetic by some teachers, and pupils worked out costs, gross and net earnings of the garden and field plots. The rates for labour were fixed and made known to the boys. They are given individual cash books in which they record all items of labour and the rates, each item then being signed by the instructor or monitor in charge, or the person for whom the work is done. Even Class I Primary boys are taught to keep their accounts with a series of marks, until they learn to write well enough to keep their books in regular order. Class IV keep the account of vegetables brought by the older boys to the shop.

The older boys keep detailed accounts of the expenditures and receipts from their plots. Every field and garden plot is a pupil's individual project, undertaken on the same conditions as if rented from a land owner, and money earned is actual net profit. The boys pay to the school rent for the land, tools, and irrigation. They also pay for seeds and manure. These accounts are carefully kept both by the boys and the instructor and are balanced monthly. The following is a typical monthly account taken from the ledger of April and May 1925:—

<i>Debit.</i>	RS. A. P.	<i>Credit.</i>	RS. A. P.
Maize seeds . . .	0 4 0		
Labour (in cash) . . .	0 5 0		
Manure . . .	0 4 0		
Labour . . .	0 1 6		
Water rent . . .	0 4 3		
Land rent . . .	0 1 6		
Tool rent . . .	0 1 6		
	<hr/>		
	1 5 9		<hr/>
	<hr/>		0 0 0
May . . .	0 0 0	Maize Crop . . .	2 0 3
	<hr/>		<hr/>

From their earnings, all pupils pay school fees as follows:— Class I, II and III, Re. 1 to Re. 1-8 per month; Class IV, Rs. 3 to Rs. 4 per month; Middle Classes, Rs. 4-8 to Rs. 5 per month; and the Normal Class, Rs. 5 per month. The balance of their earnings they spend as they please. Industrious boys are able to earn a reasonable amount of spending money.

An essential feature of the scheme is that all the work of account-keeping is considered part of the class-room work in arithmetic and writing. We give a whole day, the first of the month, to the making up of accounts in the class-room. But let no one think that this is wasted time from an educational point of view. It provides the most vital teaching possible in arithmetic. We have perfect "life situations" in the class-room. The necessity for 100 per cent. accuracy in this work has greatly helped in stimulating accuracy in all the arithmetic study.

After much experimentation in the class-rooms a satisfactory form of accounts has been worked out, which saves much book-keeping. The teacher keeps the class record in this form, but the pupils do the actual reckoning.



CLASS VII.

Name.	INCOME OF PUPIL.				EXPENDITURE.		
	Trade work.	Agricultural work.	General Labour.	Total Income.	Trade work.	Agricultural work.	School Fees.
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.
Pupil A . . .	October . . .	3 2 6	0 7 0	3 9 6	...	...	4 8 0
	November . . .	5 14 6	0 5 6	6 3 9	...	...	4 8 0
Pupil B . . .	October . . .	3 16 8	0 11 6	4 10 9	...	...	4 12 0
	November . . .	5 7 6	0 5 6	5 13 0	...	...	4 12 0
Pupil C . . .	October . . .	5 3 6	1 5 0	6 8 6	...	...	4 12 0
	November . . .	8 12 0	1 5 0	5 1 6	...	...	4 12 0
Pupil D . . .	October . . .	2 15 6	2 4 0	5 3 6	...	...	5 0 0
	November . . .	0 5 0	5 4 9	1 12 0	...	...	5 0 0

CLASS VII—continued.

Name.	ACCOUNT OF PUPIL.				BALANCE DUE PUPIL.				Remarks.
	Previous Debt.	Advance during month.	New Advance.	Total Expenditure.	Balance due School.	Due Pupil.	Paid Pupil.	Still due Pupil.	
	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	Rs. a. p.	
Pupil A .	October .	...	...	4 8 0	0 14 6	...	...	...	
	November .	0 14 6	...	...	5 8 6	...	0 13 0	0 13 0	...
Pupil B .	October .	...	...	4 2 0	0 1 3	...	...	...	
	November .	0 1 3	...	...	4 13 3	...	0 15 9	0 15 9	...
Pupil C .	October .	...	...	4 12 0	...	1 12 6	1 12 6	...	
	November .	...	...	...	4 12 0	...	0 5 6	0 5 6	...
Pupil D .	October .	...	...	1 0 0	6 0 0	1 0 0	0 3 6	0 3 6	...
	November .	1 0 0	...	...	6 0 0	...	1 5 9	1 5 9	...

Some have feared that this system would produce a mercenary spirit in the boys. If you call it mercenary to expect pay for work you might be unfavourably impressed by the business-like manner in which the boys bring their account books to be signed for most of the work they do. But we do not call a workman mercenary when he asks pay for his work. A better test of the attitude produced by the self-help plan is, I think, to be found in the use the boys make of their money, when they are free to spend it as they please. The payments toward the pastor's fund, and other church contributions by the school, have increased as the boys gained confidence in this scheme and in their ability to pay their fees and small necessities month by month. They also give generously to outside causes. It was encouraging to see their happiness on Golden Rule Sunday, when the boys (in addition to contributions from the staff) surprised us all by subscribing Rs. 106-12-9 to Near East Relief. This all came out of their earnings. One boy stood up and said, "As this is a matter of food for these poor people, I propose that we do our cooking free for a month and pay that Rs. 45 into this fund." This was enthusiastically voted by all.

There have been difficulties. Occasionally pupils are tempted to cheat and give false accounts. A spirit of covetousness may also be shown. The influence of the teachers, and talks in the school assembly help to keep the boys straight. It must be remembered that such temptations will assail these boys in life. Their presence in the school life is an opportunity to guide and help the pupils. The conscious resisting of such temptations builds true honesty.

We have observed many excellent results from the self-help. The academic standing of the school has not suffered. Indeed the cleverest and most industrious boys in their studies, usually earn the most money, too. Willingness to work, thrift in expenditure, and the spirit of responsibility and independence are growing.

One of the students, at the end of the school year, gave the following estimate of the value of self-help:—

- (1) We have found that learning (*tahlim*) and work (*kam*) are one. Life is not only reading books but also learning to take care of yourself.
- (2) By this work we learn to appreciate what our parents have done in providing for us.
- (3) By work we become strong in body and are then more able to work whole-heartedly for Christ.
- (4) A hand-working man honours other men who work hard and is honoured by them too.
- (5) In India nine out of ten men work in the fields for a living. We cannot be in real sympathy with the majority of our fellow Indians until we know how to work in the fields.
- (6) Since earning my own money and paying fees I feel more honour and self-respect. I think all the boys feel this

way. When we had the opportunity to give to the Near East Relief we were proud that we could give money which we had earned ourselves.

*The Normal Course.*—The culmination of the training is found in the normal course. The course covers one year, but is very thorough. The following is the syllabus:—

Observation and Practice of Teaching.

Principles of Teaching.

Child Psychology.

Methods of Teaching Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, Hygiene, Geography, etc.

Rural Social Problems.

Religious Education.

Agriculture.

Village Home Industries.

Village School Management.

This scheme, though departing considerably from the Government curriculum, has been approved by the Department of Education.

All the courses studied by the Normal Class are based upon a simplified but thorough study of the applications of psychology to teaching method. Students are trained in the observation and study of children and are helped to determine the general principles of teaching from their own observation and practice. The practice of teaching is stressed throughout the year. The students do a large amount of independent reading, and learn to think and plan, rather than slavishly follow a mechanical routine.

One of the most interesting subjects in this course is that on social problems, which includes a study of the various problems of the Indian village, economic, physical, social, educational, moral and spiritual. Methods of helping in the solution of these problems, the place of the school as a community centre, the ways in which the teacher can help to uplift the village, co-operative societies, their organization and value, etc., are studied, and students are taken out to study actual conditions in the villages round about and to suggest methods of improvement. In this way the students are prepared for moral leadership.

The observation of village conditions and actual practice in schools is considered the most necessary and valuable part of the year's work. For in addition to the observation and practice of teaching in the practising school the students begin early in the year to make a study of educational conditions in village communities. Groups are taken regularly to village schools within motoring distance, to make a survey and report to the class. These reports were made the basis of class discussions. Near the end of the year if training the entire class are taken into the heart of a mass move-

ment district, where they live for two weeks, organizing and maintaining new schools, teaching in established schools, beginning community work, and carrying on their studies and class discussions on the basis of their experience.

*Religious Instruction.*—The education given at Moga is definitely religious. In his recent careful study of "The Education of India," Mr. Maylew states his conviction that "Indian personality and life, as a whole, will not intimately be affected by an education which is not animated by religion." In so far as Moga is succeeding in its ideals, it is producing results in Christian character and personality.

The whole school is pervaded by a religious atmosphere and religious education is made the main aim of all teaching. Religious teaching is not conceived of as a separate subject of instruction, divided from so-called "secular" education. All the activities and teaching of the school contribute to practical religious education. Right conduct is emphasized as the goal of all the school work. Class projects, co-operative enterprises, field and trade work, community service, etc., are means used in the development of Christian character. In addition, a definite course of religious training is given, which aims (1) to develop the devotional life of the pupils, (2) to teach the essential habits of the Christian life, (3) to secure a thorough knowledge of the Bible. The emphasis of this instruction is upon growth through experience, and projects are often used in the Bible class.

In the school life, the Christian spirit finds expression in many ways. The boys are taught to serve. They help each other, and they learn to help the community. Every Sunday eight or nine groups of students go out to nearby villages carrying inspiration from the school to the wider community, through conducting Christian services and Sunday Schools.

The school strives to enter helpfully into the life of the Moga community. The Headmaster is a member of the Municipal Committee, and is heartily interested in community affairs. During the two weeks that the Normal class spends in the village, practical training in community service is a regular part of their course. This community spirit has recently found expression in a project undertaken by the staff and the pupils. They have opened a school for the depressed classes in the village of Old Moga. Months of preparatory work were required before the people were roused to desire a school. The school is taught by volunteers from the Normal Class and supervised by a committee of teachers. It is planned to secure a regular teacher. The staff and pupils propose to raise the funds among themselves for the support of this school.

*Extension Work.*—The Training School for Village Teachers is central in the Punjab Mission's plant for village education. The inspectors of the village school system come to Moga between tours for advice and instruction. They demonstrate in the village schools under their care the new methods learned at the training school. A

Village Teachers' Institute is held annually at Moga for two weeks. Refresher courses are given, and reports are heard of experiences with the improved methods in the village schools. The majority of these Mission village schools are staffed with Moga-trained men. Three-fourths of these schools use the Moga method of teaching beginning reading, and about forty per cent. make some use of the project method.

The Moga School is frequently called upon to help by giving special demonstrations of new methods. In 1924, Mr. McKee gave a four months' course in English to a group of educationalists from various parts of India. There are now many training schools and village schools carrying on fruitful experiments in rural education. The help and interest of these educational leaders who are co-operating with us have been large factors in the measure of success the school has attained.

The Village Teacher's Journal is published at Moga in English and Urdu editions. Five other vernacular editions are published in different parts of India. This paper is a clearing house for new methods, and records successful experiments being carried out in village day and boarding schools, and normal training institutions. The vernacular editions keep the village teachers alert to new ideas, and offer suggestive plans to be tried out. There are 700 copies printed in English and 600 in Urdu. Many of the subscribers are Government educational officers, and one District Inspector is supplying the journal to all District Board schools.

The Moga school lays no claim to the discovery of the way of success in rural education. It strives to maintain the experimental attitude, which learns from failures as well as from success. In many respects, the school has not succeeded in living up to the spirit of its own ideals. Only a small beginning has been made in evolving a curriculum and methods in reading and arithmetic fitted to the environment and the mental processes of Indian boys, and based upon psychological research. Moga has so far not succeeded in making use of the cultural heritage of India in the education of these boys. The teaching of Indian music and art, the development of more reading material from Indian literature have not yet been attempted. However, in so far as the school has succeeded in using the natural activities and interests of village boys as the basis of the curriculum, and in using the principle of learning by doing as the basis of method, it has secured results in vitality and interest in school work, independence and initiative in thinking, and self-reliance and willingness to serve.

## THE MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN AT SIMLA.

A feeling of dismay is occasioned by the present neglected position of school medical inspection generally in India. This important class of medical work has now been undertaken in Simla, the summer capital of India, by the introduction of a well framed scheme.

Prior to September 1923, this work was not considered one of the duties of the Medical Officer of Health, and no kind of system existed. Simla, with its season population of over 40,000 collected within a restricted area, is perhaps particularly well situated for work of this nature.

With the introduction of the scheme in September 1923, the services of the Municipal Health Department Sub-Assistant Surgeon were utilized. In addition to his other duties, he acted in the capacity of School Medical Inspector, his work being closely supervised by the writer. At first the scheme was confined to the ten primary boys' schools, which schools receive grants-in-aid from the Simla Municipality. The scheme embodies:—

1. A monthly medical inspection of each boy, with a view to the prevention and cure of disease.
2. The assured treatment of affected children.
3. A quarterly report of the above results.
4. A monthly inspection of school premises, followed by a separate report.

*The monthly medical inspections.*—These are carried out at the school premises. Each boy in every school is examined once per month during the school-year (March to December). These examinations are not mere cursory glances, but consist of a systematic over-hauling of each child. The inspection is made by classes, so that the routine work of the school is not interfered with. Each class master attends while his boys are being inspected, in this way he receives instruction in the elements of the examination. The boys are paraded in batches of five or six, stripped ready for inspection. Each boy passes before the Medical Inspector, who first notes the name of the boy, the name of the parent and his occupation, height, weight, chest measurements, general physique, previous illness and family history.

At subsequent examinations, height, weight, chest measurement and general physique are recorded each quarter.

The boy is next rapidly examined from the crown of his head to the soles of his feet. Special attention is paid to cleanliness, skin diseases, ear diseases, deafness, eye diseases, dental diseases, oral sepsis and mental capacity. Following the examination the record for each boy is entered on an index-card. Each boy has his corresponding index card. The index cards are so prepared that each

shows the complete monthly medical record of the child, extending over a period of six years. Further the minimum amount of writing is required for the entries. These are made by figures or by a *plus* or *minus* sign.

An average of two to three minutes is spent on the examination of each child, but at subsequent monthly inspections the healthy children become personally known to the examiner, and are rapidly passed over, while more time is devoted to boys who do not show sufficiently quick improvement under treatment.

*The treatment of affected children.*—This is the crux of school medical work. In Simla, treatment is divided under two headings:—

1. Those boys requiring minor attention such as lack of a bath, requiring a hair cut, teeth cleaning, attention to dirty finger nails, poor physique, etc.
2. Those boys requiring definite medical attention.

For boys falling under the first heading, the class master prepares a list, at the time of inspection, under the direction of the Examiner. This list shows the name of the boy, the affection and the required treatment. It is presented to the headmaster after the examination of the school is completed and he is responsible that these children receive the required treatment before the next monthly inspection. Headmasters guard these lists very carefully and experience shows that action is taken on the recommendations made.

For boys falling under the second heading, a postcard with perforated margin printed in vernacular, is issued to the parents of the child stating whether the child requires treatment at the hospital. These post-cards are prepared from the index-cards at the time of the examination. Acknowledgments of the post-card is received by means of the return to the school of the perforated margin. These are subsequently checked.

On the card the parent is advised that the child has been examined and found to be suffering from a defect and stating the required action. A treat is made clear on the card to the effect that if the child is not medically treated, recommendation for its exclusion from the school will be made to the school authorities, until such time as the child is treated. This post-card is then presented by the parent or by the child itself at the hospital or to a private doctor, who treats the child and notes on the post-card the treatment given. These cards are collected from the hospital and private doctors in Simla at the end of each month, classified according to schools, and the number so collected forms a check on the number of children who have actually received medical treatment. At subsequent examinations, should children be found to require continued treatment, a second post-card, called "Continued Treatment Card" is issued to the parent, such cards are recollected and checked in a similar manner to those as above described.

The treatment recommended for each boy is entered on his index-card at the time of the monthly examination by a *plus* sign. At



subsequent inspections, the examiner sees whether the child has, or has not received treatment and he records this on the child's index-card by either a *plus* or *minus* sign. In the latter case he makes close enquiries why the child did not receive the treatment recommended at the previous month's examination.

*Report on the results of the inspections.*—At the end of each school-quarter, a report is compiled from the index-cards, and these results are embodied in a very comprehensive chart.

These results indicate, under the heading of each school:—

1. The number of children examined.
2. The number of children recommended for treatment.
3. The number of children who actually received treatment.
4. The diseases from which the children were found to be suffering.
5. General remarks on the general health of the boys.

At the end of each school-year, the Medical Officer of Health examines each child's index-card, and from the contained results, he enters his note on the last page of the index-card. This note briefly states the progress or otherwise in the health of the child during the year. This also forms a check on the work executed by the School Medical Inspector.

*Inspection and report on the school premises.*—Such inspections are made by the School Medical Inspector once per month, and are checked by the Medical Officer of Health once during each school-quarter. The results of such inspections are recorded on a quarterly chart, which chart is similar to that used by the Liverpool Corporation. Details of the sanitary condition of each school, with recommendations for improvement of defects are embodied on the chart. These recommendations are repeated each quarter until action has been taken to remedy the defects. In this way many improvements at the schools have been effected.

*Further details and advantages of the system.*—(1) *Eye-sight.*—Those children found, on examination to be suffering from defective vision, are carefully re-examined at the eye department of Messrs. Walter Bushnell, Oculists, Simla, and the necessary spectacles are prescribed. This reliable firm of oculists supply the spectacles at reduced rates. The Municipal Committee has allotted a grant of Rs. 500 to provide spectacles for children whose parents are too poor to buy them. In such cases, the free or part free provision of glasses for the children is ensured, but the merits of each case are carefully enquired into, before such free or part free spectacles are given.

(2) *Dental caries.*—An arrangement has been made with three private dentists of the town, whereby children requiring dental treatment are given the choice of attending one of these three dentists, who carry out the work at reduced rates.

(3) *Vaccination against small-pox, and early isolation of infectious cases.*—Children found either un-vaccinated or requiring re-vaccination are immediately vaccinated by the Municipal Vacci-

nator. A striking example of the advantage of frequent inspection was evidenced in June 1925, when one child was found to be suffering from a modified attack of small-pox. The child was removed from the school direct to the Isolation Hospital and the whole school was re-vaccinated. No further cases of small-pox occurred in the school.

(4) *The general cleanliness of boys.*—At each school a daily inspection is made by the masters; and class marks are awarded. These marks are recorded in a ledger kept at each school. At the end of each school-year the Municipal Committee grant prizes for cleanliness. The regular monthly inspections add an extra stimulus to both boys and masters.

(5) *Goitre.*—This disease is common amongst children in the Simla hills and so routine treatment for the complaint is ensured by regular examination.

(6) *Tonsils and adenoids.*—Early treatment for these defects necessarily ensures an improvement in general physique.

(7) *Educational posters.*—These have been printed in English and vernacular and are hung in the class rooms. Masters utilize these posters for instruction of the boys by the construction of essays, etc.

(8) *Lectures; Cinema performances and plays.*—The Simla Municipality possesses an up-to-date Lecture Hall presented by Her Excellency the Countess of Reading. This hall is known as the "Lady Reading Lecture Hall" and it is a part of the Infant Welfare Centre. It is fitted with the latest model Pathé Cinema and lantern projector which was presented by Mr. Jehangir Madan of Calcutta, and it is also fitted with a stage.

Regular weekly educational lectures, cinema pictures and plays are staged for the school children, who eagerly attend.

By this means, the simple principles of hygiene and knowledge concerning communicable diseases is imparted not only to the boys, but also to the masters.

Such educational activities are found to be of the greatest value.

(9) *Open-air-classes.*—Such classes are regularly held at each school and debilitated children are especially dealt with.

(10) *Drill exercises.*—At the larger schools, the drill master holds regular classes. At the smaller schools the head-masters undertake the regular drilling of the boys.

(11) *Invitations to parents.*—Parents are invited to attend and see the medical inspection of their children as is done in the West.

(12) *Extension of the system to the Indian Hill States surrounding Simla.*—By agreement with the Superintendent, Hill States, this system has been extended to the Indian States immediately surrounding Simla, and special progress has been made by the Bhujji, Koti and Baghal States. The State Doctors make the inspections and regular reports are submitted.

(13) *Co-operation between School work and Infant Welfare work.*  
—All boys and young children attending the Infant Welfare Centre clinics are card-indexed. In course of time, these cards will pass to the schools. Thus a complete medical record of the child will be kept from birth up to the school leaving age.

*Results of the work for the period from September 1923 to December 1925.*

(Results for 1926 are not included as these have not yet been completed.)

For the first quarter ending December 1923, following the introduction of the scheme for the ten primary boys' schools, 67.9 per cent. of children were recommended for some form of treatment, while during the quarter ending December 1924, this figure had been reduced to 33.08 per cent.

For the first quarter ending December 1923, out of those children recommended for hospital treatment 45.9 per cent. actually received treatment, while during the quarter ending December 1924, this figure was 86.03 per cent. Thus after a brief period of 15 months one can readily appreciate that disease incidence amongst these children had been steadily reduced, the cause of this decrease being undoubtedly due to the ensured treatment of the children.

The Municipal Sub-Assistant Surgeon at that time was also in charge of the Infectious Diseases Hospital, consequently at the time of an infectious disease outbreak, such as small-pox, school inspections had to be suspended. This occurred during April and May of 1924 and again in April and May 1925.

Partly on this account, but chiefly because of the success of the scheme for boys attending the Primary classes, the Municipal Committee approached the Punjab Government in March 1925, and recommended that Government may be pleased to extend the system to the classes of all the schools in Simla and to include boys of all standards up to the school leaving age. For this purpose, the Municipality recommended the appointment by Government of a whole-time Sub-Assistant Surgeon to act as School Medical Inspector at Simla. The Punjab Government accepted the recommendations of the Municipality and in early June 1925, a Sub-Assistant Surgeon was appointed to work under the direct supervision of the writer.

From this time 2,270 boys came under supervision. Of these 81 per cent. were at first referred for treatment. 80 per cent. of those referred for treatment received it and in December 1925 the percentage referred for treatment had been reduced to 30 per cent.

*Height, weights, chest measurements and general physique.*—No statistics have ever been compiled in regard to height, weight, chest measurements and general physique for Indian school children.

Such averages for the Indian school child, of all ages at Simla have been compiled.

At six years of age, the average height of the English school child is 3 feet 8 inches, the Simla child is now 3 feet 7.2 inches. The average weight of the English school child is 3 stones 2½ lbs., the Simla child is now 2 stones 13.1 lbs. (*i.e.*, 3.4 lbs. lighter).

The Simla boy now has a chest measurement in expiration of 21.5 inches and in inspiration of 22.2 inches.

At this age 19 per cent. of boys are now of good physique and 81 per cent. of fair physique.

The Simla child maintains a similar height to the English child, up to the age of 14 years. In weight he is generally less throughout the ages. The Simla child reaches half his adult weight at 12 years of age, similar to an English child.

*Defective Vision.*—On examination, 4.1 per cent. Simla children were found suffering from defective vision. All these cases have been corrected with spectacles.

In England and Wales, it is estimated that 10 per cent. of children suffer from visual defects.

In England, difficulty is experienced, in ensuring that children suffering from defective vision will wear their glasses. I have not experienced this difficulty at Simla.

*Dental caries.*—11.4 per cent. of children at Simla, require dental treatment, of these, 0.7 per cent. have 4 or more carious teeth. In England and Wales, no less than 54.6 per cent. of children examined, suffer from dental caries and a large proportion of these have 4 or more decayed teeth.

*Tonsils and Adenoids.*—At Simla, 51.3 per cent. of children were found suffering from enlarged tonsils and adenoids. By treatment this has been reduced to 7.9 per cent. Those remaining now, require operative treatment. Children between the ages of 7 and 12 were mostly affected, and Hindoo children suffered more than Moham-medans and others.

2.8 per cent. of those suffering were mouth-breathers, and 0.2 per cent. had accompanying defective hearing.

It has been recently stated, that 37 per cent. of London School children have adenoids and that 72 to 76 per cent. have enlarged tonsils as well.

*Vaccination against small-pox.*—Not a single school child at Simla escapes vaccination against small-pox. This is a striking comparison with England and Wales, where at least 50 per cent. are unprotected against this disease.

*Goitre.*—By means of the Iodine treatment, the percentage of Goitre cases has been reduced at Simla from 2.5 per cent. to 1.5 per cent. In Berne, Switzerland, it is stated, that in 1881, 80 to 90 per cent. of school children suffered from Goitre. In Western Virginia 9 per cent. are goitreous and in Washington 18 per cent. McCarrison writes, 20 per cent. of the population in the Himalayas suffer from Goitre

*Malaria.*—During 1925 only 4 cases of Malaria were recorded. These were relapse cases. By means of adequate treatment, enlarged spleen incidence has been reduced from 16·4 per cent. to 0·3 per cent.

Anæmia has been reduced from 15 per cent. to *nil*.

*Uncleanliness and skin diseases.*—2·8 per cent. of children were found suffering from actual skin diseases, which by treatment was reduced to 1·7 per cent.

In addition 26 per cent. were found unclean, which figure was reduced to 6·4 per cent.

The general state of the Simla school child in regard to cleanliness, is now very good.

In England and Wales, it is estimated that 16 per cent. of children suffer from verminous conditions of head and body, 9 per cent. from scabies and 10 per cent. from other skin diseases.

*Ear diseases and defective hearing.*—2·7 per cent. suffered from ear diseases and defective hearing, by treatment this figure has been reduced to 0·55 per cent. It is estimated that about 2 per cent. of children in England and Wales suffer from these conditions.

*Girl Schools.*—During 1926, the system has been extended to all the girls' schools at Simla. This work is voluntarily carried out by one of the Lady Doctors of the town and in consequence it is regretted the examinations have not been as regular as in the case of the boys' schools.

To ensure the success of a system, such as that described above, strict supervision is undoubtedly necessary.

One argument against the introduction of such a system for a large city in India is that the large numbers of children would necessarily entail the employment of a costly inspecting staff. From the writer's experience, one intelligent doctor could readily handle 5,000 boys, provided the schools are not too scattered.

Others say that as education is not generally considered compulsory, therefore only a small proportion of the children of school going age would be dealt with.

From a recent census taken at Simla, it is estimated that, with the exception of about 60 boys, all children between the ages of 6 and 11 years attend school.

The Simla Municipal Committee has approached Government, and has recommended that primary education may be made compulsory at Simla.

It is further estimated, that 63·2 per cent. of all boys of school going ages, up to 18 years, attend at Simla.

In consequence, the above system at Simla now deals with practically all boys between 6 and 11 years and the greater proportion of boys of other ages up to 18 years of age.

In conclusion therefore it may be said, that although a feeling of dismay exists generally in India on account of the present neglected position of this work, yet the Simla Municipality congratulates itself that school medical inspection for boys at Simla is equal to that of any town in the West.