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Educational Administration of the Province of Bombay

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An Aid to the Understanding and Appreciation of the
Annual Reports of the D. P. I.

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Educational Administration of the Province of Bombay

For the Examination of Diploma in Teaching recently instituted by the University of Bombay, *Educational Administration of the Bombay Province* is a subject prescribed for a part of Paper III, but no details are given indicating the scope of the subject and the preparation expected from the examinees. This has proved a great handicap both to the pupils and the teachers of the T. D. classes and the following lecture-notes are published for their use particularly.

In prescribing the subject for the T. D. Examination, the expectation of the Board of Studies in Teaching was that the average secondary school teacher should be able to understand and read with some interest the annual reports of the Director of Public Instruction and thus have a fair idea of the educational progress of the Province. As there is no book at present available, which could be recommended to the students, I had to supply cyclostyled copies of the notes of the lectures delivered by me to the students at the S. P. College, Poona, in 1939 and 1940. The lectures were intended to create interest in the subject by supplying the back-ground necessary to understand and appreciate the annual reports of the D. P. I. They are not a criticism of the educational administration — destructive or constructive — and the occasional expression of opinion which has appeared in the course of these lectures is in the nature of statement of facts.

There is little likelihood of a textbook on the subject appearing in the market before the end of December, 1940, and it is hoped that these notes will be found useful by the students who are due to appear for the T. D. Examination in March 1941. — M. R. P.

Plan. The chief merit of this Plan is that the educational worker who gives his word to serve the institution for his life time, on a small salary, is the dominant figure and not he who gives a big endowment. The school is thus controlled by men who are working in the school and who started their life with high ideals. It is true the Plan has not been so successful now as it once was. The fault is not that of the Plan but of those who are working it.

The original idea was that some young men of high qualifications should take the vow of poverty and serve the schools so that others equally brilliant may be induced to imitate. This ideal is still retained and a number of brilliant graduates have been working on what may be regarded as very inadequate salaries, in the institutions run on the Chip- lonkar Plan. But an unhappy tradition has developed in the last thirty years and other graduates not less brilliant, who do not take the vow are paid salaries which are still more inadequate and the life of poverty is forced on them also.

The so-called inadequate salary of life-members has thus become an unattainable maximum for others and this fact has lowered the value of the life-member's sacrifice in the estimation of the public. The life-members have on that account ceased to command the respect which the pioneers of the Plan did ; for the life members are now the best paid persons in the institutions under their control.

In certain places youngmen who had the enthusiasm but not the high qualifications of the promoters of the Chip- lonkar Plan, invited local leaders to cooperate and the school management there, has had a mixed character. The local leaders have been, like the trustees of an endowment, the real managers ; and the workers who agree to serve the institution on a small salary play the second role. The system has, however, worked well for small self-supporting schools which have no ambition of expanding their activities.

There are a few schools which are started by one or more persons in partnership and conducted on business lines. They are good or bad according to the personnel of the management. A good shop brings good profit to the owner and also serves the locality by adequately supplying its needs. A good

proprietary school does the same. But the prosperity of a good shop often brings in a number of competitors and if the customers cannot discriminate between good and bad dealers, these new competitors ruin themselves as well as the pioneer whose success tempted them into the venture. The same thing has happened to proprietary schools. The success of a few has brought in a number of adventurers particularly in Bombay and Ahmedabad and some of the new proprietary schools have been mere fee-collecting offices.

The cure for this lies in three places — in the hands of parents, in the hands of school managers, and in the hands of Departmental officials. When they learn to discriminate between good education and a mere pass in the examination, between solid work and surface decoration, or between good instruction and exhibition teaching, good schools will prosper and bad ones will automatically end. And for this we need discriminating parents, trained teachers, and trained officials; teachers trained in the art and science of teaching, and officials trained in the art and science of inspection and administration.

V. PRIMARY EDUCATION

In early discussions on the educational policy of the newly established British Government in India, the idea of compulsory primary education was conspicuously absent, although one of the first things which Government did in those days was to hold a survey of indigenous education in all Provinces. One note-worthy effort in this direction was what is known as "Adam's Reports." Adam, a British missionary, took a survey of education in Bengal under the direction of Lord William Bentinck and submitted three reports to Government. (These reports are now out of print and not easily accessible.) It seems that in those days every big village had a school and the total number of children learning in those schools was about the same as it was ten years ago; but the quality of instruction was necessarily much inferior, as in those days, there were no fixed courses, the teachers had no training and probably not much education, and there were no suitable

books to read from. The best of the pupils of those schools learned to read religious books, cultivated good hand-writing, and did a certain amount of oral arithmetic and elementary book-keeping. The majority of the pupils probably did not progress beyond the reading stage.

The first effort at organized primary education was made by Christian missions, but their chief objective was to teach the tenets of the Christian religion. The mission schools were on that account not popular. The language difficulty also probably stood in their way. The missionaries could not themselves speak fluently the language of the villagers and the work of instruction had to be entrusted to Indian teachers who were no better than those of other village schools. The missionaries succeeded better in places where they could secure the co-operation of Indians and showed more enthusiasm for secular than religious education. They did it in the city of Bombay and it was the joint effort of the Christian missionaries and Bombay leaders which was responsible for the comparatively better beginnings of Primary education in Bombay than in other Indian Provinces.

The Government of Bombay of course helped a good deal by giving its support to the Board of Education—the semi-official body which guided the educational policy in this Province before the advent of the Department of Public Instruction—but the chief care of Government in this period was the Secondary schools. They were probably hoping that the Indians who received English education in secondary schools would take it to the masses. This they did not do till recently. In the beginning many of the English educated Indians obtained good jobs in Government service and a few earned good income as pleaders, doctors and engineers. They all adopted a standard of life which differed considerably from that of the villagers. Even their dress, their tastes and their manners changed and a wide gulf was created between the ignorant villagers and the Indians who received education in secondary schools. Later when things changed—they did change more rapidly in Bombay—and the educated Indians felt the need of carrying the light of knowledge to others, they also, like Government, concentrated their efforts on secondary education.

primary education with a view to wiping out illiteracy from the Province. The rate of growth of the Secondary as well as the Primary schools, appears to have been keeping pace with the public demand. But in the last decade of the last century there arose a wave of political discontent and as usual its first attack was on the educational policy in vogue. The rise of Japan in the east was partly responsible for this change in the public opinion. In less than 50 years Japan had succeeded in rising to the level of European nations and by 1904 it had come to be recognized as a nation in the front rank. India was at least equal if not superior to Japan in civilization and it was felt that it should not be difficult for India to do what Japan did. The demand for compulsory education was more in evidence and in the history of the educational Policy of the British Government in India, attached to the Government of India's Report on Educational Progress (1912), we find a reference to elementary education being made compulsory in the Baroda State and to the Bill introduced by the Hon'ble Mr. Gokhale in 1911, "making the adoption of compulsion permissive for Municipal and District Board Authorities provided the numbers actually at school reached a percentage (to be fixed by the Governor-General in Council) of the children of school-going age within the locality in question, and provided the local Government concurred in the application of the Act to that particular area." The Bill was, however, rejected. It was held that the mass of opinions collected condemned the Bill as an impracticable measure for an agricultural country where the demand for education was still slender. And in the Government of India's Resolution of 21st February 1913 describing their educational policy, it is observed: "For financial and administrative reasons of decisive weight the Government of India have refused to recognise the principle of compulsory education: but they desire the widest possible extension of Primary education on a voluntary basis." In response to this desire of the Central Government, the Government of Bombay had in that year (1913) resolved to open 500 new schools every year, a resolution which was not carried out.

During the quinquennium 1917-22, Indian aspirations were quickened and in 1917 a programme of compulsory educa-

I. INTRODUCTORY

In 1813 when renewing the charter of the East India Company the British Parliament required the Company to formally accept the responsibility of the education of the people in the parts of India which had come under their influence. Before that date semi-official efforts were made, the two note-worthy illustrations being the Calcutta Madrasa and the Benares Sanskrit College.

The idea at first was to graft modern education on the indigenous system and attempts were made to prepare Persian and Sanskrit translations of some well known books of European authors. The medium of instruction in those days was Persian or Sanskrit.

Simultaneously with the efforts on the part of Government, non-Government efforts by Christian missionaries and native gentlemen were made to impart modern education through English and they were very popular. The note-worthy illustrations in this Province were the Elphinstone Institute which has now developed into the Elphinstone College, and the Free-Church Assembly's Institute which has become the Wilson College, Bombay.

A contest, therefore, arose between these two systems, which was finally decided by Macaulay's minute and Bentinck's resolution of 1835. Government resolved to support and conduct schools and colleges which gave instruction in European literature and European science through English; and a number of Government institutions imparting such instruction were started by Government.

This decision of Government was welcomed by the Christian missionaries but not the action taken by Government in founding their own institutions imparting secular education. The missionaries had hoped to get Government funds for their own schools which aimed at teaching the principles of Christianity as well. Government officials, however, were warned by the Board of Directors of the East India Company to keep aloof from religious propaganda and Government institutions were serious rivals to missionary institutions which were partially deserted in favour of Government institutions.

The medium controversy also changed its aspect in course of time. It soon ceased to be a dispute between Classicists and Anglicists. It was transformed into a controversy between Vernacularists and Anglicists. It was conducted most vigorously in Bombay and also survived much longer, up to 1870 nearly. It was soon revived and since then Vernacularists have been steadily gaining ground.

Since the declaration by Government of their policy to throw all their influence on the side of modern education through English, schools and collegiate institutions teaching English and other subjects through English rose up and prospered. At first the control and organization of education was vested in semi-official bodies. In Bombay it was called the Board of Education, and two prominent Indians on the Board were Bhau Daji Lad and Jagannath Shankarshett. It became necessary, however, to re-enunciate the policy and that was done, in 1854, in the despatch of the Board of Directors of the East India Company. It is known as the Despatch of 1854 or very often as Wood's Despatch. Wood was the grand-father of Lord Irwin, now known as Lord Halifax, the Foreign Minister in the British Cabinet.

The despatch recommended extension of the grant-in-aid system even to missionary institutions provided that the grant was assessed for secular education only. It outlined also what is known as the filtration theory, Government preparing a few highly educated persons (through English) and those persons transferring that education to the natives (through Vernaculars). It also suggested the creation of universities.

In 1855 the Department of Education was instituted with the Director of Public Instruction as the head of the Department. The D. P. I. is responsible for efficiently carrying out the policy of Government and for seeing that the money provided for education is usefully spent. In 1857 three universities were incorporated at Bombay, Madras and Calcutta.

For the convenience of administration the Province of Bombay is divided into four Divisions, Northern, Bombay,

Central and Southern, usually called N. D., B. D., C. D., and S. D.* The D. P. I. is assisted by Divisional Inspectors and their subordinates, the Deputy Educational Inspectors and their assistants. They are expected to visit schools periodically and submit reports to the D. P. I. with recommendations for such grant-in-aid as they think the schools deserve. The D. P. I.'s work has also increased and he has two colleagues to help him, the deputy D. P. I. and the assistant D. P. I.

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The D. P. I. submits a report to Government annually, giving details of the progress made in the year under report. The financial year of Government is from April to March and, therefore, the D. P. I.'s report for 1938-39, the most recent available, tells the story of administration from April 1938 to March 1939. The report has two parts. Part I is the report proper; part II consists of statistical data useful for an administrator for reference. The statistical data comprise the number of educational institutions and their classification according to the Divisions where they are situated, together with information regarding the nature of management, the number of pupils and their classification into boys and girls and the communities to which they belong; as also expenditure incurred indicating its source - provincial revenue, municipal or local board funds, fees, income from endowments and other sources.

The year 1939-40 has ended but the report is not yet out. After the data are collected in the D. P. I.'s office, it takes some time to correct the data, to tabulate the figures and prepare a press copy. The D. P. I. writes his report with this material at hand. Then it is sent to the press and before it is published it has to be approved by Government. All this takes at least 8 months and the new report, if not unduly delayed, may be available in January 1941. It is not a costly volume. The Report proper costs 8 annas and the supplement of statistical data costs a rupee.

* Before 1937 when Sind was a part of the Bombay Presidency, there was a fifth division, called the Sind Division.

It will be instructive to keep a few figures always before one's eyes.

(a) The population of the Province of Bombay. (excluding Sind) according to the census of 1931	18,000,000
Probable increase in 9 years	1,400,000
		Total	19,400,000
(b) The immediate problem before Government is to bring to school all children between 6 and 11 years of age; their number is supposed to be 12.5 per cent of the population	2,400,000
(c) If we suppose that the numbers of boys and girls are nearly equal, we have to provide education for	...	Boys	1,200,000
		Girls	1,200,000
			2,400,000
(d) The number of boys in lower primary standards is			885,000*
(e) The number of girls in lower primary standards is			306,000*

Supposing that three-fourths of the pupils in the lower primary standards are below 11 years of age, it may be said that we have succeeded in bringing to schools about 55% boys and 19% girls of 6 to 11 years of age.

Combining (d) and (e) we may say that we have succeeded in providing schooling to nearly 37% of the children of 6 to 11 years of age.

It will be an increasingly difficult task to bring in the remaining boys to schools for they are probably all left in small isolated villages or belong to very backward communities who would not willingly receive any education; but it will be comparatively easier to bring the number of girls in schools nearer to that of boys, in the next ten years, as a large number of the girls is still in places where boys are already attending schools.

* Taken from the D. P. I's Report for 1933-39.

If we succeed in bringing in at least 300,000 more girls to school in the next ten years *i. e.* about 30,000 more per year, not a very difficult proposition,* we shall have at least 60 p. c. of the children of 6 to 11 years at school and, when they grow up, they will have substantially added to the number of literates. It will thus be seen that we are not now so behind the world as people imagine us to be.

A rather serious obstacle in our efforts to wipe out illiteracy is "wastage" due to stagnation of children in the infant classes. This is best illustrated by the figures given below. If we suppose that the 885,000 boys in the lower Primary schools are evenly distributed over the five classes, Infants class and standards I to IV, each class will have 177,000 pupils. This is an ideal condition not to be found even in the most efficiently managed schools for it means 100 p. c. promotion in each class. Good schools promote about 95 p. c. The actual figures for the different classes are given below :

	Ideal	Actual†	Ratio of the number in a class to that in the preceding one
Infants	177,000	357,000	
Std. I	177,000	162,000	45 p. c.
" II	177,000	147,000	90 p. c.
" III	177,000	118,000	80 p. c.
" IV	177,000	101,000	85 p. c.
Total	885,000	885,000	

It will be easily seen that things are particularly bad in the infant classes and it is suggested by some that this class should go and boys should be admitted directly to standard I after they are 7 years of age. Another view is that specially qualified teachers should be given the classes of infants. A third and probably the most rational view is to restrict admission to the Infant classes to the first three months of a year. That would ensure at least six months' coaching.

* In 1938-39 the increase in the number of girl pupils was 36000.

† Taken from the D. P. I's Report for 1938-39.

11. THE GRANT -IN-AID SYSTEM

The chief function of the Education Department is to carry out the educational policy laid down by Government. Incidentally the Departmental officials collect varied experience and are in some respects best fitted to advise Government in matters educational. We say "in some respects" because the very nature of the work which the inspectors have to do often cultivates in them a narrow out-look and unwillingness to take the risk of experimenting. Progressive Governments, therefore, often prefer to be guided by educationalists who are neither inspectors nor school-masters.

In his work to carry out the educational policy of Government, the Director of Public Instruction creates institutions directly controlled by him and also contributes to the expenditure of those conducted by local bodies or private agencies. In the annual budget sums are set aside by Government to enable the D. P. I. to meet the expenditure incurred by him for conducting Government institutions and also for contributing to the expenditure of non-Government ones. This contribution which is paid by the D. P. I. to non-Government educational institutions is called "grant-in-aid" and adequate distribution of grant-in-aid according to the needs of each institution and its worthiness to receive it, is no easy problem.

The grant-in-aid system in its present form was introduced into India a century ago. It must have been a simple affair in the beginning. For in the Grant-in-aid Code of 1857, a school desiring to have Government grant was asked to apply to the D. P. I. giving information about the school and the amount of grant desired. Government then tried to meet the demand so far as possible. With the increasing number of schools and the increasing paucity of funds it has become impossible to meet the demand even half-way and Government have laid down certain rules for the guidance of inspectors, in what is called the Grant-in-aid Code.

In his Despatch of 1859 to the Government of India, the then Secretary of State observes: "The introduction of this system (the grant-in-aid system) was authorised from a

regard to the impossibility of Government alone doing all that must be done in order to provide adequate means for the education of the natives of India and it was expected that the plan of thus drawing support from local sources in addition to contribution from the State would result in a far more rapid progress of education than would follow mere increase of expenditure by Government, while it possesses the additional advantage of fostering a spirit of reliance upon local exertions and combination for local purposes, which is itself of no mean importance."

Since its introduction in India the system has been put into operation in different forms. The two earliest forms were the salary-grant system and the system of assessing grants by results.

THE SALARY-GRANT SYSTEM

In the salary-grant system, the grant paid by Government is a part of the salary-bill of teachers, provided that the salary paid is suited to the teacher's qualification and does not exceed a certain maximum fixed by Government. The system has certain obvious advantages ; it is easy to ascertain the amount of grant ; there is no interference in the internal management of the institution ; there is every temptation to managers to appoint qualified, well-paid teachers. If the management can be relied upon to provide adequate equipment and supervision, the salary grant-system has every thing in its favour. But if the management be not efficient the work of the institution tends towards mediocrity. Neither the teachers nor the managers care to aim at a higher level of work, for the amount of grant is not affected by it. An unscrupulous management may even show high salaries on paper and pay only what is received from Government. This system is, therefore, recommended only for superior schools or colleges where the staff aspires for academic honours irrespective of salaries gained and the management aims at a high efficiency whether any grant is earned or not. The system is not in operation in this Province now.

The system of payment by results, on the other hand, is best suited to the primary and middle schools where certain

definite achievements can be easily tested. The grant paid to a school is so many rupees per pupil who on examination is found to have attained a certain standard in reading, writing, counting, history and geography etc. The system ensures a certain minimum work for the amount paid and offers inducement to managers to equip the pupils well for the annual examination. Where the qualifications of teachers are low and the management has restricted aims the result-grant system works well, provided it is possible to provide for an efficient examination.

But if the inspecting staff is inadequate and the examination is hurriedly gone through so as to make the examination a gamble, the result-grant system may prove injurious to the work of a school. Even with an efficient examination there is a possibility of the daily work being reduced to cramming for examination. Again it is not fair to judge the preparation of a class with one examination only and the unfairness is enhanced if each year a new inspector appears on the scene. With so many factors outside the control of the management influencing the results of the school and therefore the grant earned, there is a danger of the grants so fluctuating from year to year that the managers cannot be certain of their resources. And this uncertainty tells heavily on the quality of the work done.

THE RESULT—GRANT SYSTEM

This system has further disadvantages. Under this system a school teaching advanced class pupils will get more grant than the one catering for the backward classes ; *i. e.* those who need it less will get more ; and those who need it more will get less. The system is likely also to produce a sort of antagonism between the managers and inspectors, the former trying to hoodwink the inspector and the latter trying to foil the manager's effort. The system was not in operation for a long time but when it was, cases were discovered of schools sending their good pupils to each other in order to increase the number of passes and therefore the amount of grant earned. The system is positively harmful to higher institutions where education has more than one aim, passing the examination being the least important. It is

likely to be unfair in the lowest classes where an efficient test cannot be easily held. For the upper primary and middle school classes, however, it can be used with some success provided certain precautions are taken.

THE COMBINED SYSTEM

Under the Combined system the grant of a school is assessed on the basis of the annual results and a part of the grant is paid to the teacher as his salary in proportion to the number of successful pupils in his class. This system has the advantages of the salary-grant system and the result-grant system. It was used for assessing the grants for primary schools in this Province, for a number of years, before 1900.

THE CAPITATION GRANT SYSTEM

The Capitation grant system is a crude method of assessing grant-in-aid on the basis of the number of pupils attending a school. Its only advantage is that it offers an incentive to school-managers to attract more pupils to schools, and is best suited to schools in backward tracts or to those catering for the backward class pupils. Alone the system would lead to very unfair distribution; schools in progressive localities which are full would draw a large share of grant, without any effort from the management; while those in backward localities would be starved. But the Capitation grant system is often used as a check to prevent wastage which is likely to occur in what is known as the Proportionate system.

THE PROPORTIONATE SYSTEM

In the Proportionate system Government agree to pay a certain proportion of the expenditure incurred by a school. Grants are paid at present according to this system for primary schools in Municipal and Local Board areas. To the Municipalities Government pay half the expenditure incurred by them and to the Local Boards, two-thirds. This system is very good for encouraging local effort. For a similar reason it is used for helping school-buildings and school-equipment. If a school-management provides a new building for its (secondary) school, Government would pay one-fourth of the cost, provided certain conditions are satisfied. And here the capitation system reserves as a useful check. A small school with only about 200

pupils, munificently endowed by a rich patron, may plan a building worth Rs. 200,000 and request Government to contribute Rs. 50,000, or Rs. 250 per pupil. A class-room for 40 pupils would then cost Rs. 10,000 which is the cost of about five rooms of an ordinary school building. Government would not in this case make a grant of Rs. 50,000 but only Rs. 10,000, or Rs. 50 per pupil.

The grants to the secondary schools are apparently based on the Proportionate system, but a careful reading of the Grant-in-aid Code would indicate that that was not desired by the framers of the Code. In secondary schools efficiency is the chief thing to be aimed at and the grant is to be determined after taking into account the qualifications and salaries of teachers, the results of examinations, the quality of instruction, extra-mural activities of the school, provision for physical exercise, manual training, visual instruction, laboratory work, daily attendance, discipline and the general tone of the school. The amount to be paid, however, is not to exceed 33% of the total expenditure or 50% of the local resources, fees included.

Like all other systems of grant-in-aid the capitation system as well as the proportionate system are susceptible to fraud. School managers may attract more pupils by foul as well as fair means or have bogus attendance in some months of a year to increase the year's average and thus earn more grant under the capitation system. Under the proportionate system there is the temptation to produce receipts for unspent amounts or present inflated salary bills. An efficient audit and vigilant inspection are, therefore, necessary for adequate distribution of grant-in-aid.

In all the systems of distributing grant-in-aid, excepting the salary grant system, there is an annual re-assessment of grant and this is a disturbing factor in the efficient management of an institution. A progressive school likes to be sure of the present before it plans for the future and for this it must feel sure of its income from fees and Government grant. This latter may not increase, but there should be no possibility of its reduction owing to the vagaries of examiners and inspectors.

THE FIXED PERIOD SYSTEM

For this reason, there has been (in this Province) introduced for secondary schools, a system which is called the *Fixed Period system*. Under this system grant is assessed not annually but periodically on the application of the school management. Once it is assessed it remains at that figure for years, until it is re-assessed. It is thus not increased, but it is also not decreased unless the school markedly deteriorates and the Inspector feels bound to revise the grant-in-aid on his own initiative. And as it leaves to the school management freedom in internal administration this system has been by experience found to be the best for secondary schools.

In the administration of grant-in-aid new inexperienced officials often lose sight of the fact that the so-called grant-in-aid is really Government's contribution to the spread of education. The Government and private bodies are working together for a common cause, uniting their resources for the purpose. So far as funds permit it is the duty of Government to pay the maximum grant permissible and it is wrong to use the power to pay grants for rewarding or punishing educational institutions. "In practice," says J. A. Richey, the Commissioner of Education with the Government of India (1923), "the maximum grant permissible is usually given, if the funds at the disposal of the Department permit it. reduction being made only for gross deficiencies after due warning given. The practice appears to be reasonable. Schools are not likely to be improved by having their grants reduced; and to treat the grant as a reward is unsound both in theory and practice. It is very desirable that the managers should know what grant they are going to receive, and that fluctuations should be avoided."

III. ON THE ROAD TO PROGRESS

Whatever might have been the condition in other parts of India, there can be no two opinions that the beginnings of modern education in this Province were on sound lines. The Deccan was not much known for Persian scholarship and the Sanskrit Pandits were largely eclipsed by the saint-

poets of Maharashtra. There was a general recognition of the fact that Marathi † was a well-developed vernacular and the opinion was put forward that Marathi could be used with success as a medium of instruction in higher learning. The experiment was tried for several years, till 1870, when it was finally abandoned. Classes giving instruction of post-matriculation standard were conducted for some years and it was probably expected that this Vernacular college would cater for those who could not afford instruction at the Deccan College which was affiliated to the University of Bombay and where the medium of instruction was English. Books on scientific subjects, written in Marathi, between 1840 and 1870, can still be seen in libraries where such collections are preserved. The experiment was, however, abandoned because the Vernacular college would not attract good students and the anglicised teachers had not the required perseverance and patience.

But this abortive experiment apart, the Government of Bombay, whether in the days of the East India Company or later, were keen on giving good Vernacular education to a child before he joined a secondary school. When there were not many English schools in the Province, boys generally completed their 5th and even 6th Vernacular standard before joining an English school; but when the tendency grew to begin English education earlier, the Education Department insisted that a child shall not join an Anglo-Vernacular school before completing the Fourth Vernacular standard. It is a wholesome rule and is in force even now, although it has been often enforced with a rigor amounting to absurdity. §

Even as early as 1850, the difficulty of securing suitable text-books and trained teachers for the Vernacular schools was envisaged and steps were taken to overcome them. The train-

† The lectures were addressed to students whose mother tongue was Marathi. The statement made here would however be true if Kannada or Gujarati be substituted for Marathi.

§ Inspecting officers sometimes object to the admission of a pupil from the sixth or seventh Vernacular standard to an A. V. School, on the ground that the pupil had not passed in all heads in the Fourth Vernacular standard, although he was promoted to the higher classes.

ing of the primary teachers was in this Province put on a sound footing and a deserving compliment was given to the primary schools of this Province, by the Hortog Committee* when it pointed out that the wastage in the Primary schools of the Province of Bombay was the least.

The work of the Anglo-Vernacular schools was also in sound hands, except for a very short period when unqualified Europeans were placed in charge of some high schools. Some of our famous head-masters belong to the period 1860 to 1890. At first the high schools were few and were mostly controlled by Government. Later when private agencies came into the field, a high standard was established by the New English School, Poona. It is true there was no provision for the training of secondary teachers till 1905, and between 1905 and 1922 it was just enough to meet the needs of the Government high schools. Even now in respect of trained teachers in secondary schools, this Province is behind Madras, U. P., and the Punjab; but in high schools knowledge counts more than training and the enthusiasm of the brilliant men who entered the teaching profession between 1880-1910, (following the example of Chiplonkar, Agarkar, Tilak) more than made up the deficiency caused by the absence of training.

This bilateral progress of education — Vernacular as well as English — was in consonance with the spirit of the Educational Despatch of 1854. It said: "It is neither our aim nor desire to substitute the English language for the Vernacular dialects of the country. We have always been most sensible of the importance of the use of the languages which alone are understood by the great mass of the population. These languages and not English, have been put by us in place of Persian in the administration of justice and in the intercourse between the officers of Government and the people. It is indispensable, therefore, that in any general system of education, the study of them should be assiduously attended to, and any acquaintance with improved European knowledge which is to be communicated to the great mass of the people whose circumstances prevent them from acquiring a high

* This Committee was appointed in 1927, by the Simon Commission, to inquire into the condition of education of India and the extent of the fitness of the people for another step in constitutional reforms.

order of education and who cannot be expected to overcome the difficulties of a foreign language, can only be conveyed to them through one or the other of these Vernacular languages." The despatch obviously visualised two kinds of high schools; one with the English medium preparing the pupils for admission to universities or similar institutions of post-matriculation standard, and the other with the Vernacular medium for those who would stop their education at the matriculation stage. Unfortunately this fact was soon forgotten, and once the idea of conducting a Vernacular college was abandoned, no attempt was ever made to establish Vernacular high schools and Vernacular education has stagnated at the V. F. stage.

The principle embodied in the above excerpt from the Despatch of 1854 is known to Indian educationalists as the *filtration theory*. It was hoped that, as in a filter, knowledge imparted to the higher classes would gradually percolate to the lower classes of the society. The hopes have been fulfilled so far as urban areas are concerned; but no conscious attempt has been so far made to carry education to the pupils in rural areas who cannot get education of the post-V. F. standard unless they migrate to towns and learn English, or to those "who cannot be expected to overcome the difficulties of a foreign language".

The university education in Bombay also appears to have proceeded on sound lines and admission to that effect was made in the Report of the Indian Universities Commission of 1902. After that year, however, the University authorities have cared more for quantity than quality and, at least at present, the University of Bombay is not in the front rank in the matter of scholarship and research.

The education in Bombay, as a part of Indian education was reviewed in 1882, 1902 and 1927. The Report of the Education Commission of 1882 popularly known as the Hunter Commission is a bulky volume, but deserves to be carefully studied by all who would plan reform in education, particularly secondary education. Its survey is complete, and its suggestions are the most thought-provoking. The Report of the Universities Commission of 1902 is already thrown into the back-ground by the Report of the

Bombay University Reform Committee (1926). The Hartog Committee's Report (1927) does not go much beyond statement of facts but is a very useful document for the comparative study of the progress made in the different Provinces and in the country as a whole.

Bombay education as such has also been studied and reported upon by (i) the Chandavarkar Committee of 1921 who discussed the problem of compulsory education, (ii) the Vishweshvarayya Committee of the same year who discussed the problem of technical education, (iii) the Hesketh Committee of 1929 which considered the coordination of the primary and secondary curricula, (iv) the Munshi Committee on physical education, of the same year, and (v) the Bombay University Reform Committee referred to above. As a result of the Chandavarkar Committee, was passed the Primary Education Act of 1923 and as a result of the University Reform Committee was passed the Bombay University Act of 1928. The other three reports are rotting on Secretariat shelves and are not even remembered. Even the Primary Education Act of 1923 and the Bombay University Act of 1928 have proved unsatisfactory. Since 1937 four committees have made reports on certain aspects of Education. They were committees on Physical Education, on Vocational Education, on the Training of Primary Teachers and Adult Education. We shall refer to them later.

Each one of these nine reports, however, discusses only one aspect of education isolated from others and that detracts considerably their value from the practical view point. It is now time for a comprehensive survey of all aspects of education or else, in these days of democracy, certain aspects of education only are likely to receive undue attention at the cost of others, according to the leanings of the party in power. The danger is particularly great in this Province which in the last 40 years had no Director of Public Instruction of outstanding ability; or if there was one, he did not stay long enough to make himself known as such. Long term planning for unchanging ideals and dogged perseverance in the face of difficulties have been conspicuous by their absence and the history of the last twenty years has been a story of an administration influenced by personal likes

and dislikes, of plans made and abandoned. The Education Department of the Province of Bombay has been living at present on its past reputation rather than its recent achievements. A comprehensive inquiry into all aspects of education, like that of the Hunter Commission of 1882, but restricted to the Province of Bombay may help to give a new orientation to the educational policy and prove a great help to the Ministers of Education by serving as the guiding star in their plans of educational reconstruction.

IV. SECONDARY AND HIGHER EDUCATION

The Education Department has very little to do with the administration of the University. It conducts certain colleges, and contributes to the expenditure of others. But the colleges are inspected by the University, not by the Department; the courses of studies are prescribed and examinations held by the University; the Department has no hand in this work. Indirectly, however, the Department has much to do with the University. Certain resolutions of the University Senate have to be approved of by the Chancellor who is the head of the Provincial Government, before they are given effect to and in this matter the D. P. I.'s opinion is generally considered before a decision is given. But his chief association with the University is through the Secondary schools.

The Secondary schools have grown rapidly in the last forty years. In 1900 only about 3000 candidates appeared at the Matriculation Examination, *i.e.*, there were less than 100 schools preparing students for that examination. In April last the number of schools was over 500 and the number of candidates appearing at the Matriculation Examination, a little over 23,000. These figures include schools and candidates in Indian States and Sind which are not now under the jurisdiction of the Bombay Education Department. But the figures are telling enough to show that the number of secondary schools and that of pupils have increased five to six times what they were forty years ago and, as a result, the average level of secondary schools has gone down, although the schools which

were good before have continued to be good now; and among the new additions the number of good schools is not negligible. But the increasing competition, the financial pinch, the difficulty of getting qualified teachers and of retaining them in service, the comparatively backward environment of pupils and the isolation of the new schools from centres of education are serious handicaps in the way of maintaining a high standard in a secondary school and at least a half of the high schools in the Province are at present labouring under one or more of these handicaps.

The Department of Education has been always conscious of these tendencies and have, according to its lights, tried to prevent the land-slide, but always without success. Its first measure in this direction was to maintain a Government high school, well-equipped and well-staffed, in each district town, that it may serve as a model for others to copy. And from about 1912 to 1918 large sums were spent on Government high schools for maintaining trained staffs, for good buildings and hostels, for ideal equipment and for visual instruction, excursions, etc. That secured good high schools for the district towns, but the model presented became too costly for others to copy. Moreover Government could not long ignore the demand of backward communities for good education and had to reserve some seats in their high schools for pupils of these communities and thus permit some adulteration of attainments. Secondly, as a result of the political disturbances of 1905 to 1910, the heads of schools were deprived of a good deal of their freedom and they could not or would not act on their own initiative. And a school can never be a model school if its headmaster is labouring under an inferiority complex. This measure of retaining a good model in each district for others to copy, already stands discredited.

The second measure of the Department was to enforce regulations with rigor. But efficiency cannot be retained by regulations only. Advice to be strict in promotions and admissions, careful scrutiny of leaving certificates and result-sheets, have their value only if the alleged slackness is involuntary. But the advice is as good as lost on those who adopt these devices,

unwillingly perhaps, to overcome the hardship of financial stringency. The Education Department has not been unaware of this and from 1912 to 1922 when the Department had adequate funds at its disposal the schools got good grants-in-aid and that helped the older schools at least to maintain a high standard of work.

But things again began to change with the increasing financial difficulties of Government, and while it is easy to criticise the Education Department for its lapses, it is not easy to suggest a way out of the difficulty. Hence the suggestion in an earlier lecture for a comprehensive inquiry into all aspects of education, the financial aspect included.

The Secondary education in India is often described as the weakest link of the educational chain and one must admit that there is much truth in it. The chief reason for the situation is that the Education Department has, at least in the last forty years, failed to note the difference between the Secondary schools in England and those in India. To the former only a select-third of the children from Primary schools are admitted, and suitable avenues are provided for the remaining two-thirds; while in India every one who would have education beyond the elementary standard has to go to a secondary school *i. e.* a school where English is a compulsory subject. It becomes, therefore, very difficult for the average secondary school in India to maintain a high standard.

Under these circumstances the so-called recognition of a school by the Department has little intrinsic value. It is not what it is believed to be, a hall mark of quality; in not a few cases it is like the Government's stamp on a currency note, which makes a piece of paper pass for the real coin. In the list of recognized schools are to be noticed some which would do honour to any educational system; among the rest there are schools which are a constant source of anxiety. But they are all classed together, receive the same treatment from officials, have the same privileges and duties to perform, and are expected to maintain the same high standard.

The problem is very complex and it is not our aim here to criticise the secondary schools or the treatment meted to them by the Education Department. But the secondary schools are the training grounds for future leaders and will be always judged by their out-put in that respect. It is complained that that out-put has been small and if the complaint be true it should be possible for the teachers of young India to put their finger unerringly on the defect.

The Secondary schools of this Province are mostly grant-aided institutions. Government have from the beginning held the view that those who want Secondary education should pay for it; Government would only set the standard and, funds permitting, contribute towards the expenditure. It is an antiquated ideal; for in these days when States are governed by the vote of the people, good secondary education has ceased to be an ornament and has become a necessity. It was expected that the popular Ministers of Education who had the education portfolio since 1920 would realise this fact and adequately provide for good secondary education. But obsessed by the urgency of wiping out the illiteracy of the Province, the Ministers of Education have been sacrificing the interests of secondary schools. The grants-in-aid paid to these schools have been reduced and an increasing burden has been thrown on the fee-paying parents.

Secondary education has ceased to have the utilitarian value it once had when English-knowing persons were much in demand; and public attention is pointedly directed to certain defects of secondary education, real or imaginary. That the education is too literary, that it does not train the eye and the hand as much as the memory and arguing power, that the study of modern Indian languages is neglected in favour of ancient Indian languages, that school instruction is isolated from the pupil's life, are all real defects. That it is not patriotic enough, that the children are becoming godless and immoral, that it is getting too costly, are imaginary defects; for in these matters the home and the street are more powerful agencies of instruction than the school. That the furniture is bad, that the equipment is poor or library-facilities are non-existent are true in some cases, false in others. But

the real defect is that we have lost sight of the purpose of secondary education—nation-building education—and failed to provide alternative avenues for those who are by aptitude or environment unable to profit by it.

Secondary schools which are not under the direct control of Government may be classified as :—

1. Municipal or Local Board schools
2. Schools managed by Christian missionaries.
3. Schools created out of endowments and managed by committees of the trusts.
4. Schools conducted on the Chiplonkar Plan.
5. Schools conducted by managements which are an admixture of 3 and 4.
6. Proprietary institutions.

The Municipal and Local Board schools are similar to those of Government in their nature of management. At one time when Local bodies had not shouldered the burden of expanding Primary education, they could divert a good share of their revenue to the secondary school; but now they are, for financial reasons, forced to neglect the interests of secondary education for the expansion of Primary education. The communal and political squabbles in certain local bodies have occasionally affected the management of their secondary schools. Sometimes an uneducated chairman of a school-board has created troubles by bossing over the head-master. The future of these schools is not very happy unless the Education Department protects them by special supervision and financial help. But for the present most of the Municipal and Local Board schools* are tolerably well-managed institutions.

Christian missionaries did not have much footing in this Province and except in Bombay City the missionary schools are of little importance now. At one time they were centres of missionary activities, for securing converts to Christianity; that aspect of their life is nearly absent now and

* There are Local Board schools in Sind; but there is none at present in the Province of Bombay.

perhaps on that account, they are not as well financed from home as they once were. Still there is a good number of these schools scattered over the Province. It is difficult to say what their future is to be, for it is in the hands of foreigners, all the missions being foreign missions. Very probably the control will gradually pass into the hands of Indian missionaries and the work will have concentrated in a few centres only. The missionary schools, even in their decadent state have preserved good educational ideals and owing to more intimate contact with the west they can still continue to be pioneers in village improvement ; for the missionaries can more easily set aside caste, class and religious prejudices than either the Hindus or the Muslims can.

A number of schools, particularly in Sind and Gujrat, are created out of endowments made by philanthropists, and the income of these schools consists of interest on the endowments, Government grants and fees. The first is a constant factor, the second has now been on the downward slope, while the cost of education has increased. These schools have now been experiencing a pinch which is only partially relieved by a rise in fee rates. Except the few schools which used to have a large surplus like those endowed by certain Parsee trusts, most of these committee managed schools have been experiencing acute financial difficulties.

The Deccan and Karnatak are comparatively poorer divisions, and there would have been but few private schools here, if they were to be created out of endowments. The Chiplonkar Plan helped these divisions to overcome the difficulty. Vishnushastri Chiplonkar, B. G. Tilak and G. G. Agarkar, in 1880, gave effect to their idea of starting a school and serving in it for twenty years, on a small salary. Men who took the pledge were called life-members. This Chiplonkar Plan is similar to that of the Jesuits but differs from it in that the life-members of the Chiplonkar Plan do not subscribe to the other Jesuit ideals about celibacy, private income, etc. The outstanding illustrations of institutions worked on this Plan are those of the D. E. Society and the S. P. Mandali, Poona. The Sarvajanic Education Society's institutions at Surat come nearest. A number of high schools in the Deccan and Karnatak are conducted on this

But by 1857, the Government of Bombay had taken up the work of extending Vernacular education and in his despatch of 1859 the Secretary of State writes: "Measures for the extension and improvement of Vernacular education had been sometime in progress, with more or less activity, in different parts of India, when the home authorities, in 1854, declared their wishes for the prosecution of the object in a more systematic manner, and placed the subject on a level, in point of importance, with that of instruction to be afforded through the medium of the English language." And in the D. P. I.'s report for the year 1857 appears a letter from Mr. Hope, the then Educational Inspector of Gujarat, in which he emphasizes the importance of compulsory education. "Government desire, I presume, to give the great mass of the people an education suited to their station, to enable them to detect fraud in the books of the money-lender and village accountant, and escape imposition in the sale of their produce. It desires also to accomplish this without a large outlay. If for this purpose no means but persuasion are to be used, and schools, whether Government or indigenous, are to be established, abolished and perhaps re-established, according to the changeful inclinations of the people, then the whole strength of the present, or even a larger, supervising staff will be required for many years to come and the end, if obtained at all, will only be so in an unequal and imperfect manner, and after the lapse of some generations... (Therefore) let an Act be passed, to be declared in force from year to year in such towns and villages as appear to the educational authorities most ready for and in want of schools, and rendering those places liable to a certain assessment for the entire expense of supporting them...It may be objected that this system involves compulsion which cannot be safely used. I reply unhesitatingly that it can."

The then D. P. I., Mr. Howard, did not accept Mr. Hope's view but he also admitted that "centuries must elapse before Primary instruction on a really national scale would be provided by the people if they were left to themselves."

Soon after this, however, the Department of Education itself started and conducted some Primary schools, and at least till 1890 there was no vocal demand for compulsory

tion was announced by the Bombay City Municipality to make the City of Bombay literate by 1937. But compulsion was introduced in all parts of the city in January 1940 and decades may lapse before the ideal of all-literate Bombay City is achieved. In 1918 the late Mr. V. J. Patel introduced in the Bombay Council a bill similar to that of Mr. Gokhale, but restricting its scope to Municipalities only. The Bill was passed and compulsion was introduced in three big Municipal areas—Surat, Satara and Dhulia. It does not appear, however, that they have been on that account much ahead of the Municipalities which aimed at educational expansion on voluntary basis as was desired in the Educational Policy of 1913. First it takes time to make compulsion effective and its effects can be noticed only when the illiterate adult population is largely replaced by the literate youngsters. Constant migration of the residents is another handicap; men who learn to read and write often leave their homes to find employment elsewhere and this exodus reduces the literacy percentage. Things would have been rosier if provision for adult education were made simultaneously with the introduction of compulsory school attendance; that was not done.

In 1923 was passed the Primary Education Act under which the control of Primary education was transferred to local bodies *i. e.* Municipalities and District Local Boards and they were allowed to introduce compulsion, with the previous sanction of Government, if they paid one-third of the increased cost. This meant, however, that Government had to find two-thirds of the additional cost and that they were not able to do. This provision of the Act therefore has been almost a dead letter and compulsion has not made much headway in the Province.

But compulsion or no compulsion, Primary education has continued to expand and the number of school-going children has nearly doubled since 1917. (Vide Page 30).

We shall not try to explain here the phenomenon that the rate of growth in the number of school-going children showed, from 1923 onwards, a steady decline till the year 1937-38 when again the number leapt up as high as in 1921-22. The causes of that decline may be various. It may be that

the new schools were mostly situated in rural areas and therefore were not as full as the city schools usually are; it may be that there had been greater drafting to the Anglo-Vernacular schools and the upper classes of Primary schools were not in those years as full as they used to be; it may be that the steady decline is an indication of the inefficient management of the local bodies who had the control of Primary education since 1923; it may be that we had in 1922 reached the stage from where started the decreasing return for our efforts till 1937, when the advent of Provincial autonomy again gave a new impetus and the figure suddenly rose up to 51,000. But the fact remains that in 20 years (1917 to 1937) the proportion of pupils attending schools to total population went up from 4 to 7.5 per cent.

The number of pupils in Primary schools	Increase	
	Total	For year
In 1912... 517,369		
17... 570,354	52,985	or 10,600
22... 798,508	228,154	or 45,600
27... 984,726	186,218	or 37,200
1932... 1,143,808	159,108	or 31,800
998,325*		
37... 1,140,299	141,974	or 28,400
38... 1,191,509 51,210
39... 1,322,668 131,159

It is customary to take the number of school-going children of all ages as 15 p. c. of the total population of whom 7.5 p. c. will be boys and 7.5 p. c. will be girls. Of the 7.5 p. c. who are at present attending schools, 5.7 p. c. are boys and 1.8 p. c. are girls and this is again a confirmation of the statement made in the first lecture that a wise Department of Public Instruction would for a few years concentrate its efforts and resources on bringing more girls to schools in places where the boys are already attending in large numbers. It will be comparatively easier and more paying.

In recent years the sky of Primary education has been clouded by the dissatisfaction of teachers in respect of their

* This figure excludes Sind and is taken here because from April 1937 Sind became a separate Province.

salaries. We shall not here enter into the discussion of that question but it may be noted that the teachers' salary bill is 90 p. c. of the expenditure of Primary education, and there is an obvious conflict between teachers' salaries and expansion of Primary education. We have succeeded in bringing to school 1,000,000 children; we have yet to bring in 1,000,000 more and as Government have to spend Rs. 8 per pupil, the additional cost to Government per year will be Rs. 8,000,000 and the local bodies will have to find Rs. 4,000,000. If teachers' salaries are raised the cost to Government as well as local bodies will increase and the problem of finding the required funds will be still more difficult.

The salaries of Primary teachers were, before 1919, very low, the average salary per teacher being Rs. 15 p. m. In 1922 Government suddenly raised the salaries and the average went up to Rs. 33 p. m. Government soon realised the financial implications of the step and since then by some method or another the average salary per teacher has been maintained below that figure in the last 16 years. In 1922 Government spent Rs. 9,800,000 on Primary Education; which was also the Government's contribution in 1937. This means that the Department could bring in 400,000 more children to school without spending a rupee for them. And that was done by steadily lowering the teachers' salaries. That trick cannot be played much longer without causing serious damage to the quality of instruction and it seems impossible to avoid levying a special educational cess if primary education is to be made compulsory and universal.

To avoid this unpleasant step or at least to delay it so far as possible various methods are suggested :

1. The Primary course should extend over 4 instead of 5 years, pupils being admitted to schools only after they are 7+. That saves a teacher in big schools and makes the work of one teacher schools lighter.
2. The teachers should work for eight hours a day instead of six and conduct two schools of 3½ hours a day, instead of a school of 5 hours a day. Even if the

teachers be paid 33% more for their extra work, the number of pupils will be doubled, at one-third of the usual cost, and, it is believed, without substantially affecting the quality of instruction imparted.

3. The average number of pupils per teacher is 34 ; it could be made 40 without doing harm to the pupils.
4. In small villages, schools may have only 3 standards instead of 4.

These are all make-shift devices suggested to avoid additional taxation ; and very probably they will all be adopted hereafter when the Education Department realises that the public would no longer tolerate the slow rate of progress which has placed India last in the literacy ladder of civilized nations.

In 1937, when the Congress party accepted office, it gave a prominent place in its programme, to the liquidation of illiteracy at an early date and while the party was in office large scale campaigns for adult education and plans for more primary schools received special attention of the Department of Education. In his Report on Public Instruction for the year 1938-39, the D. P. I. writes :

“ The increase of 2,790 aided Primary schools is a striking feature of the year which sets a land-mark in the history of private enterprise. As many as 2,389 of these schools were opened under the scheme of liquidation of mass illiteracy which was launched by Government during the year. A sum of Rs. 400,000 was ear-marked for financing the scheme of voluntary aided schools. The intention underlying the initiation of the scheme was to encourage the establishment of approved schools by local initiative and by the effort of voluntary agencies in villages with a population of less than 700.....It is gratifying to note that the response from the public in the matter of putting the full machinery of the scheme into operation was spontaneous and that the provision of Rs. 400,000 made for the purpose was not only utilised in full but an additional allotment of Rs. 22,000 had to be found during the year for the purpose. There is thus a net work of schools in smaller villages in all the districts of the Province.”

This has led to the phenomenal increase of 131,000 in the number of pupils attending Primary schools, in the year 1938-39. It will be noticed that it is almost the same as was achieved in the quinquennium 1932-1937, and this has shown the possibility of achieving our ideal—universal literacy in a measurable period—at a comparatively smaller cost. If this rate of increase can be maintained for about ten years practically all children of school-going age will be attending schools in 1950 and the census figures of 1961 will show for the Province of Bombay a literacy percentage comparable to that of the advanced nations of the world.

VI. EDUCATION OF GIRLS

“The education of girls remains to be organised” says the resolution of the Government of India (Educational Policy) of 1913, and it is a clear admission of neglect of an important branch of education, for a full hundred years since 1813 when the East India Company publicly assumed responsibility of the education of the people of the newly acquired territory. To a certain extent this was inevitable. Whatever was the tradition of ancient India, when the country fell into the hands of the British the people were apathetic even about the education of boys and in respect of girls' education they evinced determined opposition. Owing to the monetary value of English education their attitude towards boys' education slowly but progressively changed; but although active opposition to girls' education soon disappeared, general apathy in the matter continued to the end of the last century. About 20 years ago when they talked of making Primary education compulsory, it was generally proposed to restrict compulsion to boys only. Compulsory education for girls was not considered necessary. The changed out-look which we notice today resulting in the rapid increase in the number of school and college going girls is a very recent development.

In his report, for the year 1857-58, the then D. P. I., writes: “There is not in this Presidency the strong prejudice against female schools (that is found elsewhere). Government, aware

of the delicacy of the subject, have not taken active measures to promote female education and the efforts that have been made are entirely attributable to the voluntary exertions of enlightened individuals, chiefly natives." And that attitude of Government remained unchanged to the end of 1937. As against the 19 high schools for boys conducted by Government there was but one high school for girls under Government management (at Ahmedabad), and the primary education of girls has been progressing at a snail's pace. In fact it would be correct to say that the story of girls' secondary education in this Province is a story of private enterprise in the field of girls' education. Firstly it was the Christian missions and later some local associations who shouldered the responsibility, the most note-worthy effort being that of Prof. D. K. Karve and his Widow's Home.

In or about 1885 the Government of Bombay launched a valuable experiment in girls' education. They started a Girls' high school in Poona but instead of conducting it themselves, they entrusted its management to local leaders who formed themselves into a Society, now called the Maharashtra Girls' Education Society. The staff was supplied by Government and other expenditure was met by the Society from fees and subscriptions. This dual management was considered necessary to secure the confidence of the public which was rudely shaken by the missionary activities which, it was believed, were carried on with Government's connivance if not with positive encouragement. It is a pity Government did not think of starting similar schools in other district towns, at least between 1910 and 1920 when they had large funds at their disposal which they spent in trying to make boys' high schools model institutions. It is true that even in 1915, the Superintendent of the High School for Indian Girls Poona, had reported that it had been difficult to secure an adequate number of girls in the top-classes to form one full division; but it was in that very year that Prof. Karve launched his Indian Women's University. Government could with advantage start girls' high schools on the Poona model at Nadiad, Surat, Dhulia, Nasik, Belgaum, Bijapur, etc. with a fair amount of success and if they had done it, at

least in the case of secondary education of girls almost a parity in numbers would have been established by now.

The Government of India's Resolution of 1913 rightly observes: "The immediate problem in the education of girls is one of social development. The existing customs and ideas opposed to the education of girls will require different handling in different parts of India. The Governor General in Council accordingly hesitates to lay down general lines of policy which might hamper local Governments and administrations, and has preferred to call for schemes from each Province." It is not known if any scheme was submitted by the Government of Bombay; and yet any one could have seen that in 1913 time was ripe in this Province for a big effort in girls' education, particularly in the field of secondary education. Every district high school for boys had to admit a number of girls, because there was no girls' high school in the locality. In 1917 there were 840 girls reading in boys' high schools; and in 1937-38, out of the 25,494 girls in secondary schools as many as 7,230 were reading in boys' high schools. If 200 be regarded as a good number for a girls' high school, there was a need of four girls' high schools in 1917 and thirty-six in 1937-38.

One may ask: "Social ideas might have handicapped girls' Secondary education; the practice of early marriage probably stood in the way of girls' attending high school classes. But unlike in North Indian Provinces, there was no purda in the Province of Bombay and there was no reason for the girls' Primary education lagging considerably behind that of the boys." The correct reply to the question would probably be: "The progress of Secondary education has a great influence on the progress of Primary education. The growth of boys' Secondary schools in the last 40 years no doubt indicates increasing demand for boys' Secondary education; but probably the attempt to satisfy that demand has also tended to increase it. The boys from Secondary schools when they return to their towns or villages, by their appearance, conduct and information, create in the locality a craving for education, and that influences attendance in Primary schools. Very probably the comparatively small number of

girls' secondary schools has had an adverse effect on the attendance of girls in Primary schools." There is reason to think that the pioneers of education in India, knowingly or unknowingly, did the right thing in first devoting their attention to Secondary education and for a time allowing Primary schools to go without special attention of Government.

* * *

When discussing girls' education, considerable attention is usually devoted to the need of differentiating the curricula of girls' schools from those of boys' schools and the advantages and disadvantages of co-education. They are problems in girls' education all over the world. The peculiar problem which an administrator has to tackle in Indian Provinces, and therefore in the Province of Bombay, is that caused by the increasing disparity in the numbers of school-going boys and girls. The disparity was inevitable thirty years ago when the education of girls was an admittedly neglected field; but in these days when increasing enthusiasm for girls' education is evinced everywhere, one would expect gradual tendency towards filling in the gap. Let figures describe the situation.

Numbers of boys and girls in Primary schools in—					
	1917	1922	1927	1932	1937
Boys (In thousands)	508	611	786	881	814 *
Girls ,,	145	187	223	262	324 *
Total ,,	653	798	1009	1143	1138 *

* This number does not contain the figures for Sind.

There had been roughly an increase of 490,000 pupils receiving instruction in Primary schools, in the twenty years from 1917 to 1937. But of this increased number about 300,000 were boys and 180,000 were girls. And, therefore, the disparity in 1917 had been increased by 120,000. It was 363,000 in 1917; it was 490,000 in 1937. The increase was about 35 p. c.

In Secondary education also, out of the total increase of 50,000 pupils (excluding Sind), between 1917 and 1937, attending secondary schools 27,000 are boys and 23,000 are

girls ; or the disparity in 1917 had been increased by 4,000 or about 10 per cent.

Even in western countries where woman has been steadily capturing the jobs usually regarded as man's jobs, the number of college-going girls is much smaller than that of college-going boys. But it is generally admitted that so far as Primary and Secondary education are concerned, they are as much necessary for girls as for boys. This view is accepted also in India, but there has been no conscious attempt to secure that end. In the race of education, girls have been far behind boys and the impetus given to education in recent years has widened the distance. Hence the suggestion is made in the introductory chapter to concentrate for a few years a good part of our resources on girls' education. Some would advocate greater attention being paid to girls' education even at the cost of boys' education, if that be necessary. Their argument is that an educated mother influences the education of the children in the family more than an educated father.

The question of coeducation also has its administrative side. In India, a girl does not need any persuasion to prefer a girls' school to boys' school. If she does not do it now, it is not because she prefers coeducation, but because the girls' school is less efficient. Girls' schools are small uneconomic units and cannot maintain qualified staffs without liberal help from Government or public and that is not forthcoming. The problem of coeducation is, in India, economic rather than educational and the economic aspect of the problem will influence the minds of future educationists. The problem, therefore, is not of girls attending boys' schools, but of boys being admitted to girls' schools in order to secure fuller classes and larger fee-income. In places where the numbers of boys and girls are not big enough for running two efficient schools, with ordinary means, one has to vote for a mixed school whatever one's views may be regarding coeducation. One would say : "Girls must have education ; in separate schools if possible ; with boys' in boys schools, if necessary."

VII. TRAINING OF TEACHERS

When the Board of Education in Bombay started its work it had to face a two-fold difficulty - absence of suitable books and absence of trained teachers - and the Board immediately started preparing suitable books and training teachers for classes of small children. There were no training schools or colleges in those days, and the work of training was entrusted to some schools in charge of select head masters. Junior teachers worked in these schools and learnt the art of teaching. They were called pupil teachers, and the schools where they worked were called normal schools.

Training colleges for Primary teachers were established about the year 1870 at Poona, Ahmedabad and Dharwar. Young men of 16 who had passed the Vernacular Final Examination *i. e.* the examination held at the end of the Vernacular course of six or seven years were selected by the Deputy Educational Inspectors of each Division and sent for training. They had to pass a test before admission to a Training college and there was a further selection of teachers at the end of each year of the training course. There were thus four types of teachers working in Primary schools: untrained, First year certificate holders, Second year certificate holders and Third year certificate holders. More than 50 p.c. were untrained teachers.

The course of the training colleges provided both general education of post-V. F. standard and training in the art and science of teaching. The Second and Third year trained teachers were, as a rule, highly qualified persons who could stand comparison with good Matriculates in all heads except English. And that fact was reflected in the efficient conduct of Primary schools in the Bombay Presidency, before 1923 *i. e.* before the above arrangement was disturbed in order to keep down the salary-bill of Primary teachers. Since 1901 efforts were made to increase the percentage of trained teachers, but the profession was so ill-paid that young men preferred to go to an A. V. school rather than to a training

Curiously enough, the Province which showed such eagerness to secure trained teachers for Primary schools exhibited unpardonable neglect in respect of the training of Secondary teachers. Up to 1905 there was no institution for the training of Secondary teachers, and when a training college for Secondary teachers was started in Bombay it was inadequately equipped and staffed. Even here the seats were mostly reserved for the teachers of Government high schools. There has been the s. t. c. examination held by Government, for over 50 years, but the teachers are expected to prepare themselves for it. The training of Secondary teachers in Bombay may, therefore, be said to begin with the institution of the B. T. degree in 1922 and the affiliation of the Government institution (which was started in 1905) to the University of Bombay. From that year Government reserved in the college only 10 seats for teachers in Government high schools, and gave the remaining to teachers in non-Government schools. But the College admitted only 60 teachers per year and consequently the supply of trained teachers was so inadequate that in a census of trained teachers in the high schools of this Province taken in 1932 it was discovered that there was on an average only one trained teacher per high school and the demand for increased accommodation at the Training College was becoming more and more pressing.

The relief came in several directions. In 1933 the Secondary Training College, Bombay, provided accommodation for 100 instead of 60; in 1934 a Training College was started at Kolhapur, in 1938 at Baroda and in 1939 at Belgaum. There is thus provision for the training of about 400 teachers per year which is a little more than the vacancies likely to occur among the graduate teachers in high schools by retirement, resignation or death. For the present, however, a number of untrained teachers who have been working in high schools for several years have been seeking admission to Training Colleges and a number of B. T.'s are absorbed in schools which are still not full high schools. The small superfluity of training provision is, therefore, not experienced at present and if secondary schools continue to grow as rapidly as they have grown in the last ten years the superfluity may not be noticed for a decade or longer.

But all these years there had been no provision for the training of Matriculates and Undergraduates who formed about half the number of teachers in Secondary schools. They could of course appear at and pass the S. T. C. examination, but there were no places where they could learn the principles of education and practice teaching under qualified guidance. Three years ago Government introduced the practice of recognising classes for the training of teachers desiring to appear at the S. T. C. examination and such classes have been working at Poona, Bombay, Jalgaon, Nasik, Surat. In 1939 the University of Bombay instituted a Diploma in Teaching, mainly for the undergraduates and the plan is similar to that of the training provided in the Vernacular Training Colleges. The candidates appearing at the T. D. examination have to pass in certain subjects of general knowledge as well as in Principles of Education and Practice of Teaching. It is too recent a development to deserve any comments at this stage.

The University of Bombay has also instituted a degree for Research in Education (M. Ed.) and three candidates have so far submitted their thesis and obtained the degree. All these steps have been in the right direction and considerable improvement in teaching, based on observations in India, is expected in the next decade.

VIII. SPECIAL RESPONSIBILITIES

The British Government brought in its train a number of Britishers to India, some of whom stayed on and were domiciled in India. It was necessary to provide for the education of their children, whether of mixed or pure parentage, and the Government of Bombay make a good contribution to the schools of these Anglo-Indians and Europeans, which are also attended by the children of British officers and British employees of the British firms in India. Compared to the amount spent by the Department of education for the education of Indian children, that spent on the education of

Anglo-Indian children is disproportionately large and is on that account a target of criticism. But if one remembers the origin of the burden and notes that it will not grow hereafter, one may gracefully reconcile oneself to it. It may also be noted that Government's contribution though heavy is only 35 p. c. of the total expenditure incurred by the managers of the Anglo-Indian and European schools.

It is again not unlikely that even this burden will disappear in a few decades. The Anglo-Indians and domiciled Europeans, whatever their origin, now belong to the Indian soil and are Indians in every respect. With the change in the nature of the Government of India, they will cease to have the favoured treatment which they got till now and will soon feel the need of attending Indian schools, with Indian children, to avoid being treated as aliens. When that happens, the schools for Anglo-Indians as such will be unnecessary and will disappear. Till then the Government of Bombay must pay annually Rs. 350,000 for the education of about 5000 Anglo-Indian and European children, or Rs. 70 per child, per annum, which is about eight times what Government spend for an Indian child in an aided Anglo-Vernacular school.

Next in the order of importance come the Mahommedans, now called Muslims. In the beginning they would not attend English schools which imparted secular education only. As a result of that attitude the Muslims were gradually displaced from Government service of which they had a large share so long as Persian was a court language. Muslim leaders became aware of the situation about fifty years ago and they attacked it in two directions. They persuaded Muslim masses to discard the idea of not attending schools where Muslim religion was not taught, and to seek modern education in modern schools. They also influenced Government to give to the community special privileges as regards remission of fees, scholarships and reserved seats in institutions where accommodation was limited. The Muslims, therefore, came to be regarded as a backward community, although they were never a backward community in the Province of Bombay, Sind excluded.

Muslims are, however, a poor community and thanks to the rich philanthropists among them they have been fast progressing. Their progress at the Secondary and the Collegiate stages is not yet commensurate with their proportion in the population of the Province; but at the Primary stage even Muslim girls appear to be taking to education with zeal. It may not be long before they discard purdah and attend high schools and colleges in large numbers.

There is an aspect of Muslim education which merits some attention. The Muslims of the Province of Bombay speak the language of the division in which they reside; but influenced by the propaganda of North-India Muslims they have been slowly but steadily taking to Urdu. Like the English knowing Indians, the Urdu-knowing Muslims have secured some material gains, the most important being the idea of oneness among the Muslims of all Provinces of India. But they have on that account allowed their education to suffer. Quite a large number of Muslim children learn in ordinary A. v. schools with Hindu children where Urdu is of little avail to them; but in Primary schools they are made to learn Urdu and bilingual education at this stage has an adverse effect on the intellectual development of children. But the Muslims appear to welcome the handicap and it would be futile to make any comment on the situation at this stage.

Government have also maintained special Secondary schools called the Anglo-Urdu high schools for the benefit of the Muslim children who would be taught through Urdu. The schools are, however, thinly attended and are a burden to educational finance. But they are retained as a concession to Muslim opinion.

Education of the backward Hindus cannot be regarded as a special responsibility for they form 80 per cent of the population. Their education is the main problem and when that is solved we shall have solved the problem of illiteracy. But it has been the practice to treat the education of backward Hindus as a special responsibility in contrast with the education of the advanced classes among the Hindus.

The backward Hindus are grouped into two main divisions, Intermediates and Backwards. The Intermediates include all Hindus who are not classed as advanced and who are not untouchable or do not belong to hill tribes. The Backwards consist mainly of the untouchables and the aborigines. The backwardness of these classes is due particularly to their rural residence and poverty. A large majority of them live in villages where there are no schools and are too poor to send their children to towns or bigger villages for education. The number of rich men among them is too small to be appreciably helpful in accelerating their progress. They are given concessions in the matter of remission of fees, scholarships etc. but they are too inadequate for their numbers and their education so far has been neglected. There is probably a third reason for their backwardness, their inferiority complex. Styled as backward and treated as inferior, the children begin to feel, even at an early age, that they are an uneducable lot.

This complex has, of course, its origin in the social conventions of the Hindus, but it is accentuated by the practice of the Department of Education, of always referring to Hindus as if they are three distinct communities, advanced, intermediate, and backward. The achievement of the advanced group creates a feeling of satisfaction leading to the unconscious neglect of the other two groups. The following table taken from the D. P. 's report for 1937-38, illustrates this.

Community	Population	Percentage	Pupils	Percentage of pupils to population
Hindus advanced	1,313,744	7.2	307,889	22.4
„ intermediate	10,536,967	58.8	640,936	9.1
„ backward	3,752,221	21.0	155,802	4.2
Hindus total	15,602,932	87.0	1,104,627	7.1
Muslims	1,583,259	8.8	187,523	11.8
Parsees	85,662	0.5	18,966	22.1
Christians	267,460	1.5	43,571	16.3
Others	377,005	2.2	48,714	12.9
Total	17,916,318	100.0	1,403,401	7.8

It will be seen from the table that of the different communities that make the population of the Bombay Province, the most backward community is the Hindu, being solely responsible for the low average of 7·8 per cent. As among the Hindus, there must be among the Muslims and Christians, advanced, intermediate and backward sections but nobody ever thinks of giving separate statistics for them, because unlike among the Hindus the advanced sections are not treated, among the Muslims and Christians, as separate communities. This practice must cease and instead of treating the education of backward Hindus as an off-shoot of the educational problem, it must be treated as *the problem* of the Province as a whole is to mark any advance.

There can, however, be no objection to treating the education of the depressed classes as a special responsibility ; for they have special handicaps not shared by others. Considered as untouchables and forced to live in segregated areas, not permitted to have even the ordinary amenities of life, the depressed class pupils have not the environment necessary for educational pursuits. The fact was recognized by Dr. R. P. Paranjpye when he was the Minister of Education in 1921 and he started in Poona a hostel for the depressed class students, where they got free lodging, free boarding and all the necessaries of a student without having to pay for them and without raising their standard of living so high as might make them dislike their homes. The hostel has been a great blessing to the depressed classes and similar hostels are now started in other places.

It may not be irrelevant here to refer to an incident that took place 82 years ago, in 1858. A depressed class pupil sought admission to the English school in Dharwar (a Government institution) but was refused admission on the ground that it would scare away other pupil of the school. The case was referred to the Government of Bombay and then to the Government of India for final orders, for in those days all power was vested in the Governor General in Council. Bombay Government were instructed to admit the boy whatever the risk, for the Queen's Proclama-

tion would not permit any discrimination on account of caste, creed or colour. The reply was probably received too late, and it is not known if the boy ever attended the school. For over 60 years no uniform practice was adopted in this respect. It was again Dr. Paranjpye who asked all grant-aided institutions to admit depressed class boys on terms of equality or be prepared to lose grant-in-aid. Admission to these students is now nowhere refused, although in villages they are still made to sit away from other pupils.

Besides these responsibilities which have received due recognition from the Education Department if not also adequate attention, there are others which have received but partial recognition and almost no attention. Among these the first in importance is the responsibility for the education of the blind and the deaf-mute. The Department has been aiding the half a dozen schools conducted by non-Government agencies, but it has not shown any further interest in the problem. There is no indication that the Department has ever thought that it must do something for the sickly or the sub-normal children. The idea probably is that the problem could be considered only after education was provided for all healthy and normal children.

The Department has again shown little interest in the education of the adults which is a two-fold problem: (a) making illiterate adults literate and (b) continuing the education of the educated. This latter may be left to private agencies, but the former must be undertaken by the Education Department. Education of the adults is as important as the education of the children of school-going age, if the Province is to wipe out illiteracy in a measurable period.

Government have again not provided continuation schools for those who have to stop education at the age of 14, after passing the V. F. Examination, and accept service or start some business of their own. A boy of 15 accepts a job in a printing press and can rise further only if he has opportunities to learn the work of the press. These are provided, elsewhere, in continuation schools. In India the boy is left to himself.

At one time technical, industrial and medical training was provided to young men who were not able to pass the Matriculation Examination and 40 years ago boys who had completed their fifth or sixth A. V. standard were admitted to the V. J. Technical Institute, Diploma courses at the College of Engineering and the B. J. Medical School. As the number of applicants increased, instead of providing more institutions of that type, or making a selection on the basis of a special test, the admission was restricted first to Matriculates, then to F. Y. A's and I. Sc.'s, depriving thereby the non-Matriculates, of the opportunities of receiving useful education. It is the business of Government and the Department of Education to provide a number of avenues of education not only for those whose progress is uninterrupted but also for those whose progress is interrupted because of poverty or absence of aptitude for a particular course.

There are a few trade schools teaching carpentry, printing, tailoring, weaving etc.; examinations are held annually in these courses and certificates awarded to the successful candidates by the Director of Industries. But the work of instruction is not properly organized and the number appearing at these examinations is negligibly small.

IX. RECENT DEVELOPMENTS

In 1937, the new Government of India Act was put into operation and complete autonomy was introduced in the place of diarchial Government. The Cabinet Ministers held their offices not by the sufferance of the official bloc, but on account of the majority their party commanded in the Legislative Assembly. They had certain ideals before them and had the power necessary to give effect to those ideals. And like all new Governments who would overhaul administration to suit their ideas the new Government which came into power in August 1937 appointed committees to report on certain problems of administration. It will be remembered that in 1921 when the diarchial form was first introduced, the then Minister of Education also had appointed two committees, the Chandavarkar Committee on Primary Education and the

Vishweshwarayya Committee on Technical Education; and later Ministers also appointed the Setalvad Committee on University Reform, Munshi Committee on Physical Education and Hesketh Committee on the Coordination of Curricula. The new Minister of Education similarly appointed committees to investigate and report on—

1. Physical education - Kvalayanand Committee*
2. Vocational Education - Joshi Committee*
3. Adult Education - Manshardt Committee*
4. Training of Primary Teachers - More Committee*
5. Uniformity of Textbooks - Pavate Committee*

This procedure of appointing ad hoc committees is very defective. Such committees often contain persons who have little direct knowledge of the question under investigation and they effect a compromise even on principles; and once the report is submitted to Government, the members cease to take any interest in the problem reported upon by them. Their recommendations are on that account impractical, fantastic or even misleading. A better plan is to have a permanent panel of men and women, well-known workers in the field of education, and then form committees from among them. There will then be members of any particular committee, who will have worked on other committees before and be able to speak with confidence at least on certain aspects of the question under discussion. In the absence of such a provision, it is no wonder that the reports of these committees often lie idle on secretariat shelves.

Of the five committees mentioned above, the fifth has not completed its work yet. The rest have submitted their reports. The first committee happily narrowed down its sphere to the physical education of school-going children and made suggestions which could be immediately given effect to. Its main suggestions were:—

(i) A college of physical education should be started to supply qualified physical education directors to secondary schools.

(ii) Short-term training should be given to all secondary school teachers.

* A Committee is often named after the Chairman of that Committee.

(iii) Full share of grants on amounts spent on physical education should be paid to schools.

(iv) Itinerent teachers should be appointed for training the Primary school teachers in the art of conducting games in Primary schools.

(v) Physical culture institutes conducted by private bodies should be recognised.

(vi) All this work should be entrusted to a Board of Physical Education.

Practically all these recommendations have been implemented by now and physical training in schools is being put on sound foundations.

The Joshi Committee's Report has not been an equal success chiefly because its recommendations could not be implemented without revolutionizing the existing system and one never likes to do it. A new order must always evolve out of the old by continuous changes which do not cause panic. The committee's recommendations were :

1. Elementary education should be imparted through purposeful activities.
2. All should have basic education of 7 years.
3. The secondary course should consist of 4 years, two years of general education and two of specialised training.

English has a place in this scheme and it is not pointed out how the Matriculation standard could be reached in four years. But the chief defect of the report lies in its omission to consider the financial provision that should be necessary if an attempt be made to give effect to the recommendations. Two recommendations of the Report are however being tried; vocational training is provided as an optional course, from A. V. standard IV, and experiments are conducted regarding the possibility of imparting elementary education through spinning, a purposeful activity.

The Adult Education Committee's Report is perhaps the best from theoretical view point but its recommendations

being idealistic were of little use in the adult education drives inaugurated in Bombay City and elsewhere in 1938-39.

* * *

The More-Committee's Report makes a number of practicable suggestions and Government have accepted some of its recommendations. Its main observations and recommendations are:—

1. The general education of a Primary teacher is of a very low standard and he should have at least three year's education of post-v. F. standard before he is appointed as a teacher or admitted to a training college.

2. A training certificate should be awarded to these teachers after two continuous years' training; the three types of certificates should go.

3. The standard of v. F. and of admission to a training college should be the same for men as well as women.

4. The teachers already in employment who are untrained or have only a year's training should have two and one year's additional training respectively.

5. The schools intended to give post-v. F. education should be called Lokashalas and a Lokashala certificate should have the same value as that of the Matriculation certificate without English.

6. No untrained teachers should hereafter be confirmed in service.

Of these six recommendations Nos. 2, 3, 4 and 6 are accepted by Government and put into operation.

* * *

The Congress Government also inaugurated some valuable experiments. The Wardha scheme is being experimented upon in certain compact areas with a view to introducing it in all parts of the Province if the results of the experiment are found to be encouraging. All the girls' middle schools have been converted into full high schools and it is proposed to convert some of the boys' high schools also into girls' high schools or training colleges for Primary teachers. Five Government high schools have been converted into Vocational high schools where it is intended to give pupils

sound general education as well as specialized training in Agriculture, Commerce or Machine-work. It would be premature to offer comments on these schemes which have been just a year old.

X—EDUCATION AND THE STATE

We shall not here discuss the evolution of modern State, from its crudest form to its present development into an organization shouldering manifold responsibilities for the welfare of its people, education being one of them. It should, however, be noted that our present notions regarding the functions of the State have a recent origin. About two hundred years ago the State had little to do directly with the educational institutions. Enlightened kings and governors patronised learning by showing great regard for the learned persons, and gave them occasional rewards or monthly salaries. Educational institutions and their directors received royal protection and enjoyed certain privileges. But the educational institutions were as a rule independent of any control from the State.

The gradual transfer of political power from the few to the many needed reorientation of the State policy in education and the ideas promulgated by the writers of the period of the French Revolution of 1789, made such reorientation most urgent. Widening of the franchise required widening of facilities for education and the advent of the printing press had made it possible. It was demanded that the State should assume the responsibility of at least imparting elementary education to the people of the land, that they may be able to take a more enlightened view of the affairs of the State and be able to exercise their right of voting with understanding.

Once it was decided to give up the attitude of aloofness and to recognise education as an important function of the State, the first inevitable step was "elementary education for all and, in order to ensure it, compulsory school-attendance between certain age limits." The lower limit for compulsion is generally put at 6+ and the upper limit at 14+; this latter is being gradually raised in some coun-

tries to 16+. (This rise in the age of compulsion is often intended to artificially reduce the number of unemployed youngmen).

Although the State has now undertaken to provide education of some sort to all children, both boys and girls below a certain age, in England and America the burden of financing it is not wholly shared by the State. Persons and localities that want education are expected to pay a part of the cost and the burden of financing educational institutions is borne by the State, local bodies, and the parents of the pupils who seek education. This last source is naturally absent in the case of schools where compulsory attendance is demanded. On the continent, particularly in France and Germany, the cost is wholly borne by the State and the fee-paying parents if fees are collected.

The practice of throwing a part of the burden on the pupil and his parent, which has been an economic necessity, is often defended on the ground of social justice. The elementary education, they say, is a necessity; one cannot live without it in the modern world. Therefore, it is proper that the State should provide it for all and pay for it from the State revenue. But the secondary and higher education are extra amenities, if not luxuries, and those who want them must be willing to pay for them, the State undertaking to provide free education only to the few gifted pupils who are too poor to pay fees. With the rise in the age of compulsion the argument is losing its force so far as secondary education is concerned, but the fiction is still retained that higher education is a privilege of the few who can afford to pay for it.

The promoters of modern education in India were naturally influenced by the opinion prevalent in England, but the reflection of that opinion was, as a rule, visible in India long after it was acted upon in England. Not unoften has it occurred that the views which were discarded in England as too antiquated were championed in India by the British officials. The need of compulsory attendance was being debated upon in India in 1910 when it was in operation in England for over 30 years. Secondary education is still regarded, in India, as something which only a few may need, and it is argued that those who need it must be prepared to pay the

full cost of it. Thus in the last twenty years when in English secondary schools the number of free places has gradually increased from 25 to 40 per cent and more, the Government of Bombay forced their secondary schools to raise the fee-rates by 50 to 100 per cent.

Good secondary and higher education are expensive undertakings and, instead of throwing the whole of their burden on State revenues, it is a good policy to make those who can, pay for it. But it is necessary for a modern State to recognise that good secondary education is an important nation-building asset and a progressive nation which aspires to be in the front rank must provide not only elementary education for all but also good secondary education for those who show an aptitude for it. This is indirectly implied in the demand for rise in the age of compulsion.

There is at present in India, and therefore in this Province, a sort of conflict of interests, the advocates of the elementary, secondary, and higher education pushing forward their claims, forgetting that a national system of education requires simultaneous development of all branches. With the spread of elementary education, an increasing demand for good secondary schools is bound to appear and the State must be prepared to satisfy it. The idea of likening the educational system to a pyramid with a wide base of elementary education, and an apex of higher education is too antiquated now. The educational system ought to be a high road from the elementary to the higher stage with numerous branches on the way so that as soon as a boy or a girl is able to make a choice it should be possible for him or her to follow it up.

The educational system in India is roundly attacked by all—the man in the street, members of legislatures, ministers of education and vice-chancellors of universities. The usual indictment is that “the system has ceased to be the *open sesame* for Government service which it once was; it is too heavy, there being proportionately a larger number in secondary schools and colleges than in elementary schools; it does not produce men with character, well-equipped for the hard life which they have to lead; it does not create scholars of repu-

tation ;" and so on. These are all real defects perhaps but they are not inherent in the system. They have got in owing to the changed environment. The problem can be solved not by mere redistribution of courses, "by overhauling the whole educational" structure as they sometimes put it, but by adjusting the environment to the education imparted and imparting such education as may be more useful in the new environment ; by providing larger opportunities of employment to those who are educated and, (in addition to the education already available) providing such education as would make the youth better fitted to profit by the opportunities already available.

It is not by itself an easy problem ; it is further complicated by prejudices developed in the last hundred years in favour of and against certain types of schools and curricula. Careful planning and slow but steady execution of it alone will help us to evolve a new order.

* * *

Complete control of educational institutions by the State, it is sometimes argued, endangers the freedom of these institutions. The State is often tempted to use its power for moulding the course of instruction and the mental attitude of young men in a particular way. This has been done in Germany in the last ten years and schools have been used as centres for anti-Jewish and pro-Nazi propaganda. Soviet Russia has used its power over schools to spread communist and anti-religious doctrines. Such things are not known in England or U. S. A. because, it is argued, education in these countries is financed both by the people and the State and the State has, therefore, much less control over the educational institutions. He who pays the piper will order the tune.

The argument is not wholly correct. In India the secondary schools and colleges are supported by the fee paying parents more than by Government grants and yet Government control over the educational institutions in India is tighter than probably in Nazi Germany. They do not as a rule use schools for propagating any particular doctrines,

but even that, was done about 30 years ago for inculcating loyalty-doctrines among the teachers and the pupils. The difference noticed between Germany and England is not so much due to the distribution of the burden of educational finance, but to the saner public opinion and sound traditions of the British people, established over centuries. These British traditions have exercised wholesome check not only on the officials in England but also on the British officials in India.

DATES TO REMEMBER

- 1813 The British Parliament, by an enactment, imposed on the British East India Company, the responsibility of the education of the people of India under its jurisdiction.
- 1835 Macaulay's Minute favouring the use of English as the medium of instruction in secondary schools and collegiate institutions, and Bentinck's resolution to support only such schools and colleges.
- 1854 Educational Dispatch from the Board of Directors, popularly known as Wood's Dispatch.
- 1855 Creation of the Education Department.
- 1857 Incorporation of the Universities of Bombay, Madras and Calcutta.
- 1882 Appointment of the Education Commission—Hunter Commission.
- 1902 Appointment of the Indian Universities Commission.
- 1911 Gokhale submitted to the Central Legislature a Bill permitting Compulsory Primary Education in Municipal areas with certain provisos—The Bill was rejected.
- 1913 Enunciation of the Educational Policy by the Government of India.

- 1918 Patel submitted to the Bombay Legislative Council a Bill permitting Compulsory Primary Education in Municipal areas.—The Bill was accepted.
- 1921 Appointment of a Committee—Chandavarkar Committee—to report on the feasibility of making Primary education compulsory in the Province of Bombay.
- 1923 Primary Education Act was passed and Local Bodies were allowed to take control of all existing Primary schools with permission to make Primary education compulsory if they so desired, Government contributing 50 to 66 per cent. of the expenses.
- 1925 Appointment of the Bombay University Reforms Committee.
- 1927 Appointment of the Hartog Committee—a sub-committee of the Indian Statutory Commission, to report on the educational advance in India.
- 1937 Advent of Provincial Autonomy.
- 1937 Mr. Gandhi voices his ideas on Indian education, later formulated as the Wardha Scheme.
- 1937-38 Appointment of committees to report on :—
- (a) Physical Education.
 - (b) Vocational Training.
 - (c) Training of Primary Teachers.
 - (d) Adult Education.
- 1939 (a) Bombay Government starts large scale experiments on the Wardha Scheme.
- (b) Bombay Government convert five of their high schools into Vocational high schools.