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EDITOR: E. DENISON ROSS, C.I.E., Ph.D., Director.

BULLETIN
OF
THE SCHOOL OF ORIENTAL STUDIES,
LONDON INSTITUTION

ERRATA

- p. 72. *For* "Gradually I perceived that my spirits were coming back" *read* "Gradually the feelings came back to my numbed heart".
- p. 73. *For* "his daughter A-kuei" *read* "his niece A-kuei".

various movements which ultimately led to the foundation of this institution and a record of the opening ceremony by His Majesty the King.

In the Charter of Incorporation, it is provided that the "purposes of the School are to be a School of Oriental Studies in the University of London to give instruction in the languages of Eastern and African peoples, ancient and modern, and in the literature, history, religions, and customs of those peoples, especially with a view to the needs of persons about to proceed to the East or to Africa for the pursuit of study and research, commerce or a profession". The practical side will in no way prejudice the development of the purely academic aims of the School, for it is intended that it shall become a centre of Oriental research, and that students of the most advanced type may be attracted

which is spoken, though seldom correctly, by thousands of English men and women daily during their sojourn in that country, should so rarely be an object of serious study outside the small band of those who seek for rewards. Hindustani is a rich language and is capable of expressing the most varied shades of meaning. It possesses a large and growing literature covering almost every branch of thought, and many fine poets have written and are writing in it to-day. Undoubtedly many men and women in India would find their days hang less heavily on their hands had they such an engrossing hobby as the serious study of Hindustani to fall back upon.

It is by no means universally recognized that a beginning of this, as of all Eastern languages, can best be made at home. This is, of course, self-evident in the case of travellers, but it also applies to those who intend to reside in an Eastern country. For, apart from considerations of climate, which in most Oriental countries tend at the outset to reduce the energies, it is certainly the case that during the first year or so of residence in a totally strange country, a man's time is fully occupied in learning his new duties and in adapting himself to unwonted surroundings. Such are not the conditions in which to embark on the acquisition of a new language. On the other hand, if the newcomer arrives with a definite linguistic stock-in-trade, if he has mastered the alphabet, the rudiments of grammar, and even a limited vocabulary of the language spoken in the country of his adoption, he is not only able to adapt himself more readily to the new conditions but also to profit in a far greater measure by the language teaching which may be available locally, than one arriving without such equipment.

It may now be confidently presumed that with the creation of this School a fuller recognition will be given to the importance of Oriental studies, and that with this recognition better prospects will be held out both in the academic and in the practical spheres of activity; and it is to be hoped that the facilities now offered will bring about a marked and permanent increase in the number of Oriental students, and that the common interests, both human and literary, which have hitherto reposed on all too slender foundations may be correspondingly strengthened.

E. DENISON ROSS.

to be met with in languages written with an alphabet; yet one year's serious study of Chinese, combined with enthusiasm and courage, will take any average mortal deep into the literature, feeling, and mentality of the Chinaman. As Mr. Fisher, President of the Board of Education, said in a recent speech: "Every little scrap of knowledge, however superficial, however it may be collected, like the food the birds pick up in the forest, is worth something." If everyone who expressed a desire to learn Chinese were told that that language contained 50,000 characters, of which a vast number are strange to the best educated Chinaman, he would very naturally feel discouraged. If, on the other hand, he were told that the mastery of a few hundred characters would enable him to read and enjoy the Confucian Analects with the aid of a translation, he might be encouraged to embark on the study of this wonderful language, and realize the keen pleasure and intellectual gain which this study provides.

But none of the other languages taught in this School offer such difficulties as Chinese and Japanese. Malay, for example, is simplicity itself as far as grammar is concerned, while Persian, in spite of its unfamiliar alphabet, is an easy language to acquire.

In War-time all are busy, and there is practically no such thing as a leisured class. But when the War is over, thousands of men and women who have been actively employed will find themselves without an occupation, and among them are many who have shown themselves gifted in languages. It is hoped that some of these will ultimately find their way to the School of Oriental Studies and there discover an object of lifelong study.

The absence of proper incentives is the other main cause of the dearth of students of Oriental languages—for no prospect of a livelihood could reasonably be held out to anyone taking up these subjects in the past. Positions commanding a decent salary in the various Universities in England did not number in the British Isles a dozen all told, and the encouragement of language study in the Civil Service and in the Army has never been sufficient to arouse general enthusiasm. It is especially this want of practical encouragement that has so long delayed the establishment in this country of a School of Oriental Studies.

In this connexion attention may be drawn to the study of Hindustani. It is greatly to be regretted that a language which is understood throughout the length and breadth of India, and

THE ORIGINS OF THE SCHOOL OF ORIENTAL STUDIES

THE Director of the School of Oriental Studies has invited me to contribute to this first number of the *Bulletin* a sketch of the history of the foundation of the School. The present article has only the modest ambition of supplying to the future historian of the School certain references, dates, and facts indispensable for his task.

Professor T. W. Arnold¹ states that the first School for Oriental Languages in London was the Oriental Institution, Leicester Square, established in 1818 by John B. Gilchrist² under the patronage of the East India Company, mainly for teaching Hindustani to medical students, and that it ceased to exist soon after 1826; and that in 1825 Dr. Robert Morrison,² the Chinese scholar (whose library was left to University College), founded a language institution in the City for teaching Chinese, Sanskrit, and Bengali, but that the Institution came to an end in 1828.

At University College, founded in 1826-8, Chairs of Hebrew, Oriental Literature, and Hindustani were established at an early date. At King's College, founded in 1829-31, Oriental Languages and Literature were taught from 1833 onwards. Further information in regard to the history of the Oriental departments at these two Colleges is given in the Appendices to the Reay Report.³

¹ See Report of Committee appointed by the Treasury (and presided over by Lord Reay) to consider the organization of Oriental Studies in London, with . . . Appendices, 1909 (Cd. 4560). Price 1s. 4d. The Report is hereinafter referred to as the "Reay Report". The evidence was published as a separate volume (Cd. 4561), price 2s. 8d.

Professor Arnold's memorandum on previous efforts to create an Oriental School is printed as Appendix III (b) to the Report, pp. 45-8. The first schools for Oriental languages in the British Empire appear to have been the College at Fort William (1800-1854), of which Gilchrist was the first principal, and the East India College at Haileybury (1806-1857), a secondary school with seven teachers for Oriental languages, also established by the East India Company.

² See articles in the *Dictionary of National Biography* on Gilchrist and Morrison.

³ See Appendix V to Reay Report, pp. 65-6, Memorandum by Dr. (now Sir) Gregory Foster and Dr. A. C. Headlam. For information in regard to the teaching carried on up to the date of foundation of the School of Oriental Studies see the annual Calendars of University College and of King's College.

here by the opportunities offered for guidance in their studies. We shall in this way provide in one institution both for the practical and the literary branches of language study. It is hoped that we may attract in large numbers private individuals who will study what we teach for its own sake. The encouragement of the amateur of Oriental subjects must be one of the important features of this School. For until the number of amateurs of these studies is vastly increased, it is impossible that an intelligent knowledge of those distant countries with which England is so intimately connected should be widespread. There is no reason why Oriental learning should remain the monopoly of a few enthusiasts in the East and a handful of students in the West. Oriental studies have as much right to a place in the ordinary scheme of education as any of those studies which now command universal attention.

Two great obstacles have hitherto impeded the spread of Oriental studies: (1) the difficulties which are supposed to attend the acquirement of Eastern tongues; and (2) the absence of proper incentives.

The average Englishman has an exaggerated view of the difficulties which attend the study of Oriental languages as compared with Western tongues: and this is much to be regretted, for, although all Eastern languages have a strange appearance to those who do not know them, it is in practice only the first step that costs. The number of persons who have any idea of the languages spoken by our fellow-subjects east of Suez is lamentably small, and not till such misconceptions are dismissed can we hope for the spread among our own people of that knowledge of the East which is so essential to the happy relations which should exist between European and Oriental races. Further than this, there is no doubt that many persons possess latent gifts for languages, which are never discovered unless they happen to have their enthusiasm accidentally aroused. Some of the greatest scholars in Oriental languages whom the world has produced have begun their studies in a purely dilettante spirit. Notable examples are Sir William Jones, who founded the Asiatic Society of Bengal; George Sale, the translator of the Koran; and Thomas Chenery, the translator of Hariri.

No doubt such languages as Chinese and Japanese, with their picturesque but inexhaustible hieroglyphics, offer difficulties not

On January 24, 1852, Professor H. H. Wilson, Director of the Royal Asiatic Society, in a lecture "On the present state of the Cultivation of Oriental Literature" said: "As long as English society is so incurious with respect to Oriental Literature, it need not be matter of surprise that the numbers and the labours of English scholars should be overshadowed by the much more imposing array of Continental Orientalists" (JRAS., xiii, 1852, p. 214).

At the outbreak of the Crimean War in 1854 it was realized how much the study of Oriental languages had been neglected in England, and Professor Max Müller at that time, and later in 1857 and 1858, with the assistance of Sir Charles Trevelyan, attempted to enlist further support for these studies; in the last-named year they proposed the foundation of an "Institution for the Cultivation of Asiatic Languages". Nothing, however, was done.¹

In May, 1884, Dr. G. W. Leitner founded an "Oriental University Institute" at Woking, but it is stated that it was never attended by any students.² From 1884 the Royal Asiatic Society and its members took an active interest in the matter. On November 19, 1883 (JRAS., n.s., xvi, 1884, p. 38), Professor H. A. Salmoné of King's College read a paper "On the Importance to Great Britain of a study of Arabic", in which he contrasts the small facilities in Great Britain with those in foreign countries possessing Schools of Oriental Studies.

On May 17, 1886, Colonel Henry Yule, in his Presidential Address to the Society (JRAS., n.s., xviii, 1886, p. iv), stated that Mr. H. C. Kay had drawn the attention of the Council to a matter of which they were all too conscious, "the deplorably low ebb at which the study of Eastern languages and literature stands in this country," and had suggested the formation of a Special Committee to consider the causes of and possible remedies for that state of things. The Council of the Society appointed a Committee consisting of General R. Maclagan (as Chairman), Messrs. C. Bendall, F. V. Dickins, H. C. Kay, and T. H. Thornton, with Dr. R. N. Cust and Major-Gen. Sir Frederic Goldsmid, the Honorary Secretary and Secretary of the Society; Sir M. Monier-Williams was added later. The reference to the Committee was of a wide character, on the lines suggested by Mr. Kay, and

¹ See Appendices III (b) and XVI to Reay Report, pp. 45, 154

² See Appendix III (b) to Reay Report, p. 45.

included the following: "to consider the best means for the promotion of Oriental Studies in England." The Committee investigated the number of British appointments in Oriental languages and pointed out that there was a moderate number in England, and a larger number in India, but added: "It is a significant fact, and one far from creditable to us, that at present the supply of properly-qualified Englishmen is not sufficient, and that in order to fill some of the most important of the existing appointments we are obliged to have recourse to scholars trained in foreign seats of learning" (*JRAS.*, n.s., xix, 1887, p. 347). They also stated that the main obstacle was that of endowment (*loc. cit.*, p. 348). The Committee further reported (*loc. cit.*, pp. 715-20) that they did not see their way to recommend an appeal to the Government, either of the United Kingdom or of India, for direct support in the shape of University or School endowment, but they recommended that letters should be addressed to the Governing Bodies of the principal Universities, Colleges, and Schools of the United Kingdom, inviting their assistance, and that similar letters should be addressed to certain City Companies. In the Annual Report of the Society for 1887 (*JRAS.*, n.s., xix, pp. x, xi) and in the Presidential Address by Colonel Henry Yule it was reported that only thirty-one replies had been received, of which the President could only point to one as encouraging, viz., that from the Hebdomadal Council at Oxford. The only material support obtained was a subscription for ten guineas from the Merchant Taylors Company. Yule referred despondently to "the decay or diminution of the pursuit of Oriental studies in this country".

In the course of a discussion (on May 9, 1887) on the Report of the Committee, Professor Salmoné suggested the establishment of a special school in London "connected, if thought advisable, with the Imperial Institute", and the proposal was supported by Mr. Hyde Clarke and Sir Henry Rawlinson (*JRAS.*, n.s., xix, pp. 504-5).

In the following September, Major (afterwards Lieut.-Col. Sir) C. M. Watson, R.E., following Professor Salmoné's suggestion, proposed that a School for Modern Oriental Studies should be established in London in connexion with the Imperial Institute.¹

¹ See Appendix XVI to Reay Report, pp. 153-6, on the History of the School of Oriental Studies founded in connexion with the Imperial Institute, by Professor Wyndham R. Dunstan, F.R.S. See also Appendix V (b) to Report, p. 66.

A new Committee was formed, of which Sir Thomas Wade and Sir Frederic Goldsmid were members. The School was formally inaugurated by a Lecture delivered by Professor Max Müller at the Royal Institution on January 11, 1890, with the Prince of Wales (afterwards King Edward VII) in the chair. As far as can be ascertained the only practical achievement of the School, which had no buildings or permanent income, was to arrange that the teaching in Oriental languages given at University College and at King's College respectively should no longer overlap. It received a donation in 1901 of £5,000 from the Misses Ouseley for the purpose of endowing scholarships in Oriental languages. The operations of the Committee of the School of Modern Oriental Studies of the Imperial Institute were brought to a close at the end of the year 1902, and in 1908, with the approval of the donors, the Ouseley Scholarship Fund was transferred to the University of London.

From 1892 onwards the history of the movement is closely connected with the movement for the organization of the University of London as a teaching University.

Evidence was given on the need for the development of the teaching of Oriental studies before the Gresham Commission on the University, which sat from 1892 to 1894, by Professor Max Müller, Lieut.-Col. Plunkett, R.E., and Dr. J. D. Pollen; and the Commission (of which Lord Reay was a member) reported that a large increase of the funds available for the teaching under the auspices of the Imperial Institute and of University and King's Colleges was necessary to enable the School to perform its task adequately; but this particular recommendation, as seen above, led to no result.¹ The Report of the Commission and subsequent negotiations and compromises between the various bodies concerned led to the passing of the important University of London Act of 1898, and the reconstitution of the University in 1900, in accordance with the Statutes made by the Commissioners under that Act. By the new Act and Statutes the University added to its old functions as an examining body certain powers in regard to the control and organization of higher teaching in the London area, which have been developed by subsequent Acts.

¹ Gresham University Commission, 1894: Minutes of Evidence (C.—7425) and Report (C.—7259), pp. xxxv-vi.

The addresses and speeches at the Anniversary Meetings of the Royal Asiatic Society from 1894 onwards contain frequent references to the proposal to establish in London an Oriental School "on a better basis than the existing one", and the Society formally decided in 1894 to do all in its power to promote the establishment of such a School.¹

In December, 1897, Professor Salmoné read a paper before the Society (JRAS., 1898, April, pp. 212-21) "On the Importance to Great Britain of the establishment of a School of Oriental Studies in London", and moved:

"That the Royal Asiatic Society . . . should take the initiative in bringing about the establishment of a School for the study of Oriental languages in London, and that the Council be requested to consider the best means of carrying out the project."²

The motion was unanimously agreed to.

I have found it impossible in the time at my disposal for the writing of this paper to trace the exact history of the movement at this point. It appears from the Report of the Royal Asiatic Society for 1900 (JRAS., 1900, p. 588) that the Commissioners under the University of London Act of 1898 were asked by the Council of the Society, but refused, to create a Faculty of Oriental Languages, History, and Archæology in the reconstituted University; and for the next five years nothing more seems to have been done.

At the Anniversary Meeting of the Royal Asiatic Society on April 11, 1905 (JRAS., 1905, p. 592), Dr. (now Sir) George Grierson again spoke of the "crying need" for a School of Oriental Studies; and the initiation of the movement which led by consecutive steps to the establishment of the present School took place on November 13, 1905, when the Academic Council of the University of London, on the motion of Dr. A. C. Headlam, resolved to recommend the Senate to adopt the following resolutions:—

¹ Speech by Lord Reay, May 8, 1894 (JRAS., 1894, p. 591).

² I have given the motion, not in its original form, but as amended in accordance with a suggestion by Lord Staunmore and Sir Raymond West, accepted by the mover. Apart from the action taken directly by the Society Professor Salmoné's paper led to the bequest by Major-General J. G. R. Forlong of a sum of £5,000, of which the interest was to be spent by the Royal Asiatic Society on Lectures on the Religions, History, Character, Language, and Customs of Eastern races at the School proposed. Two courses of lectures have already been delivered under this trust at our School.

"That a Committee be appointed to consider the re-organization of Oriental Studies in the University and to suggest a scheme therefor.

"That the Committee consist of (i) Representatives of the Senate; (2) Representatives of the Board of Studies in Oriental Languages; and (3) other persons, with power to communicate with other Bodies."

The Senate adopted the resolutions on November 22, 1905, and constituted the Committee as follows: The Chancellor (Lord Rosebery), the Vice-Chancellor [also Chairman of Convocation] (Sir Edward Busk), Dr. J. B. Benson, Dr. (now Sir) Gregory Foster, Dr. A. C. Headlam, Mr. H. J. Mackinder, Lord Reay, Senators; Professor T. W. Arnold, Sir Robert Douglas, Sir Charles Lyall, Professor J. W. Neill, Professor E. J. Rapson, Professor O. C. Whitehouse, Members of the Board of Studies in Oriental Languages; Sir Arthur Rücker, Principal of the University, Sir Walter Hillier, Mr. (now Sir) Felix Schuster, Mr. Walter Smith, and Dr. A. Cotterill Tupp, with power to appoint two members to represent the City of London College and the London Chamber of Commerce respectively.¹

The Committee invited various public Societies to appoint delegates to confer with them upon the subject of their reference, and a Conference was held on December 11, 1905, at which representatives of the following Societies and Associations were present: British Academy, Royal Asiatic Society, Central Asian Society, China Association, Anglo-Russian Literary Society, the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, London Missionary Society, British and Foreign Bible Society, African Society, and Victoria League.

The Conference recommended the Senate to authorize the Committee to present a Memorial to the First Lord of the Treasury asking him to appoint a Departmental Committee to inquire into the subject, and to receive a deputation. The Senate, on February 21, 1906, adopted a resolution on the lines suggested by the Conference, and approved generally a Draft Memorial submitted by a Sub-Committee of the Conference. The Memorial referred specially to an important paper on Oriental Studies in

¹ The Committee co-opted Mr. Sidney Humphreys, on the nomination of the City of London College, and Mr. J. H. Polak and Dr. H. J. Spenser on the nomination of the London Chamber of Commerce.

England and abroad, published by Professor T. W. Rhys Davids, of University College, in the Proceedings of the British Academy, vol. i, p. 183.¹ It was presented by a deputation introduced by the Vice-Chancellor of the University (Sir Edward Busk) and by Lord Reay to Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman, First Lord of the Treasury, who was accompanied by Mr. Asquith as Chancellor of the Exchequer, and by Mr. John Morley (now Viscount Morley of Blackburn), as Secretary of State for India.

Sir Henry Campbell-Bannerman received the Deputation favourably,² and on April 20, 1907, the Treasury appointed a Committee to consider the organization of Oriental Studies in London with the detailed reference suggested by the Deputation. The Committee consisted of the following: Lord Reay, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E. (Chairman), Lord Redesdale, G.C.V.O., K.C.B.,³ Sir Alfred Lyall,⁴ G.C.I.E., K.C.B., Sir Thomas Raleigh, K.C.S.I., and Mr. A. R. Guest, with Mr. P. J. Hartog as Secretary. On March 30, 1908, Sir Montagu C. Turner was added to the Committee. The Committee examined seventy-three witnesses,⁵ and signed their report on December 23, 1908. They summarized their arguments and conclusions as follows:—

(1) There is urgent need for the provision of suitable teaching in London for persons about to take up administrative or commercial posts in the East and in Africa.

A knowledge of the language, and some preliminary knowledge of the history and religions and social customs of the country to which they are appointed, is essential to such persons. Time will actually be gained, and it will be advantageous in other ways, if the first instruction is given in this country.

(2) To meet the need referred to in the foregoing paragraph, a School of Oriental Studies should be built up from the nucleus of Oriental teaching now existing at University

¹ Read on February 24, 1904.

² For report of the proceedings see the *Times* of December 5, 1906.

³ Died August 17, 1916.

⁴ Died April 10, 1911.

⁵ The witnesses included M. Paul Boyer, Professor in, and now Director of, the *École Spéciale des langues orientales vivantes*, Paris; M. Sylvain Lévi, Professor of Sanskrit at the *Collège de France*, Paris; and Dr. E. C. Sachau, Professor of Semitic Languages in the University of Berlin and Director of the *Seminar für Orientalische Sprachen*, Berlin.

and King's Colleges, and should be incorporated in the University of London. The School should have a constitution similar in its main lines to that of University College. It should possess a name and home of its own.

(3) The School should provide both for living Oriental languages and for classical Oriental studies; but the Committee ask for a grant to be made from Government funds, at the foundation of the School, for living Oriental languages only. The first establishment of the School should be on the scale necessary to meet immediate requirements, and should be extended gradually.

(4) The School should possess a library, of which an important feature would be a collection of modern Oriental books and periodicals, kept up-to-date.

(5) The Committee desire specially to call attention to the *disadvantage* under which in this respect London lies as compared with Paris, Berlin, and St. Petersburg. As England is the country which above all others has important relations with the East, the fact that no Oriental School exists in its capital city is not creditable to the nation.

On September 27, 1909, Lord Redesdale opened a debate in the House of Lords on the subject of the Report of Lord Reay's Committee, in which Lord Morley of Blackburn, then Secretary of State for India, Lord Cromer, and Lord Curzon of Kedleston took part. Lord Morley stated that the Government were in full sympathy with the objects and with most of the detailed recommendations of the Committee.¹ In March, 1910, the Secretary of State for India appointed a Departmental Committee with the following reference:—

To formulate in detail an organized scheme for the institution in London of a School of Oriental Languages upon the lines recommended in the Report of Lord Reay's Committee of 1909.

The members of the Committee were as follows:—

The Right Hon. the Earl of Cromer, G.C.B., O.M. (Chairman)²; the Right Hon. Lord (now Earl) Curzon of Kedleston, G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E.; the Right Hon. the Lord Mayor of London, Sir John Knill, Bart.; the Right Hon. Sir Charles Hardinge, P.C., G.C.M.G.,

¹ For report of the proceedings see the *Times* of September 28, 1909.

² Lord Cromer died on January 29, 1917.

G.C.V.O. (Permanent Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs); Sir Charles Lyall, K.C.S.I., C.I.E., LL.D. (formerly Secretary, Judicial and Public Department, India Office); Dr. (now Sir) H. Frank Heath (Director of Special Inquiries and Reports to the Board of Education; Joint Secretary to the Royal Commission on University Education in London); Mr. P. J. Hartog, Academic Registrar of the University of London, to act as Secretary.

Sir Charles Hardinge (now Lord Hardinge of Penshurst) retired from the Committee on his appointment as Viceroy of India in June, 1910, and was succeeded by the Right Hon. Sir Arthur Nicolson (now Lord Carnock), P.C., G.C.B. (formerly Permanent Under-Secretary of State for Foreign Affairs).

Sir John Knill retired from the Committee on November 9, 1910, and was succeeded in the Lord Mayoralty of London by the following, who have successively been members of the Committee: The Right Hon. Sir T. Vezey Strong, P.C., K.C.V.O., Sir Thomas Crosby,¹ Sir David Burnett, Bart., Sir T. Vansittart Bowater, Sir Charles Johnston, Sir Charles Wakefield, Bart.²

The first question considered by the Cromer Committee was that of a site and buildings for the School. The Reay Committee (Report, p. 29) had stated that the School should be in a central position accessible to students from the City and from the Colleges, and in a Memorandum submitted to the Cromer Committee by the Secretary at their first meeting on March 18, 1910, it was suggested that the London Institution should be considered, and the Committee accepted the suggestion. But the suggestion had already been made in another official quarter before the Cromer Committee had been actually constituted. In order to understand a somewhat complex situation it is necessary to give here a brief account of the history of the London Institution and to mention that a new Royal Commission on University Education in London, under the chairmanship of Mr. (now Viscount) Haldane, had been set up in 1909.

The London Institution for the Advancement of Literature and the Diffusion of Useful Knowledge was first founded under a Royal Charter dated January 21, 1807. The Institution obtained

¹ Sir Thomas Crosby died on April 7, 1916.

² Sir Charles Wakefield's term of office ended on November 9, 1916, and he was not replaced on the Committee.

a site in Finsbury Circus on which it erected its buildings, including a theatre and a library, the architect being William Brooks. In 1821, with the object of securing a steady yearly income apart from voluntary subscriptions, the Institution obtained an Act of Parliament authorizing the Committee of Management to make the share of each Proprietor subject to an annual payment not exceeding two guineas, the share to be forfeited in default of such annual payment.

At the time when the Institution was founded, Finsbury Circus was a fashionable quarter, but during the course of the nineteenth century the majority of the Proprietors had moved to a distance from the City, and a very large number, probably the majority, found themselves unable to avail themselves of the privileges of their membership. On April 12, 1905, the Proprietors appointed a Special Committee to confer with the Board of Management on the position of the Institution.

Various schemes were proposed for the reconstruction or rebuilding of the Institution, of which certain portions were suffering from structural defects which could not be remedied without serious expense. The Board, on March 13, 1908, reported that a crisis had been reached in the position of the Institution: that a considerable sum of money was imperative for urgent repairs, and that in the event of the Proprietors abstaining from a decisive vote or action tending to place the affairs of the Institution on a secure basis interference from outside would almost certainly result. They finally pointed out that the Institution had from the outset been crippled from want of funds.

It was clear that the Board had in their mind that it might be held before long that they were not in a position to carry out their charitable trust, and that their property might therefore go into the hands of the Attorney-General. A scheme for the amalgamation of the Institution with the Royal Society of Arts, originally placed before the Proprietors in 1905, was considered at a Special Meeting, and a ballot was taken on February 15, 1909, on the scheme, in which 322 votes were recorded for and 218 against the amalgamation, but the Board did not think that the support was sufficient to justify them in proceeding with the negotiations. The Corporation of the City of London on February 4, 1909, suggested a working arrangement in connexion with the Gresham Trust as an alternative to the Royal Society

of Arts scheme, and the Town Clerk inquired on February 25, 1909, what were the most pressing needs of the Institution "to prevent its removal from the City of London". At this stage, on March 9, 1909, the Royal Commission on University Education in London informed the Institution that the Commission regarded it as coming within their reference. Lord Aldenham, the President of the London Institution, and Mr. R. W. Frazer, the Principal Librarian and Secretary, furnished a statement to the Commission and gave evidence before them on February 24, 1910, and the Chairman of the Commission suggested that the Institution might be utilized for a School of Oriental Languages or for the study of higher commercial subjects. Lord Aldenham stated that the Proprietors were divided, and that while some of them "regarded with great desire the educational value of the Institution" and would be prepared to do anything and sacrifice anything that they thought would promote education and the original objects of the Institution, others regarded it as a comfortable club, and would oppose bitterly anything that interfered with that; while some again held the "preposterous notion" that the property of the Institution might be sold and the proceeds divided among the members.¹

In June, 1911, the Cromer Committee issued their First Interim Report,² in which they suggested that the site and buildings of the London Institution should, if possible, be acquired for the purposes of the School. The Committee pointed out that the negotiations with the Committee of Management and the Proprietors of the London Institution must finally be conducted by His Majesty's Government, but offered to assist in bringing the negotiations to a satisfactory conclusion. The Report was accompanied by plans drawn up by Professor F. M. Simpson, F.R.I.B.A., showing what additions and alterations should be made in the buildings of the London Institution to adapt them for the purposes of the School, and stated that their cost was estimated by the Committee at from £20,000 to £25,000. The negotiations were conducted between Dr. Heath, acting on behalf of the

¹ See Appendix to First Report of Royal Commission on University Education in London, 1910 (Cd. 5166, price 2s. 3d.), pp. 118-19, 230-3.

² Interim Report of (East India) Oriental Studies Committee (Cd. 5967, price 4d.). The Report is accompanied by Appendices relating to the site and buildings, library, legal constitution, and financial position of the London Institution. It also contains a note on the Berlin School of Oriental Languages

Government, and a Special Committee of the Institution, and were carried out successfully. The Proprietors gave their assent to the scheme submitted to them at a general meeting on March 25, 1912; and the text of the London Institution (Transfer) Bill was issued in May. In the debate on the Second Reading of the Bill in the House of Lords on October 8, 1912, Lord Haldane, then Lord Chancellor, stated on behalf of the Government that a grant of £4,000 would be made to the new School, and that £25,000 would be expended on adapting the buildings of the London Institution for the School. The Royal Assent was given to the Bill on December 13, 1912.

Under the Act the real property of the Institution, *i.e.*, the land and buildings, were vested in H.M. Commissioners of Works for the purposes of and in connexion with the School of Oriental Studies. The funds belonging to the Institution, including £35,000 (nominal) invested in Consols, together with £12,000 and such further sum as the Treasury "might approve" out of moneys provided by Parliament, were placed at the disposal of the Institution (1) for the discharge of all the liabilities of the Institution, (2) for the purpose of paying to each Proprietor a sum of £25 in respect of each share held by him, and for compensating each life member on a corresponding basis,¹ and (3) for the payment of pensions or lump sums in lieu thereof for the benefit of the past and present members of the staff of the Institution and their families as the Committee of the Institution in their discretion might think fit.² Certain books and manuscripts agreed upon by the Commissioners of Works and the Committee of Management of the Institution were retained by the Institution for immediate transference to public institutions determined by the Committee of Management. Under this provision some valuable books and manuscripts were transferred by the Committee to the British Museum, and others to the Library at the Guildhall. The Commissioners were also given power to transfer any property other than real property (including the

¹ Lord Aldenham and twenty-four other Proprietors, including Sir Homewood Crawford, the City Solicitor, and Dr. Edwin Freshfield, the two Proprietors who were chiefly responsible for the movement for retaining the Institution in the City of London, generously handed the sums received by them under the Act (amounting in all to £625) to Lord Cromer and Lord Curzon, for the purposes of the School when founded. The donees formed a trust and transferred the fund to the School shortly after its foundation.

² I have not quoted the exact words of the Act.

library of over 100,000 volumes) vested in them by the Act, to the Governing Body of the School of Oriental Studies upon the establishment of the School. The Act further provided for the creation of a body of persons designated as Continuing Members, who were to be entitled for so long as they desired to the exclusive use of two rooms, the reading-room and smoking-room respectively, and to such use of the library, theatre, and other buildings and property vested in the Commissioners as was in the opinion of the Commissioners reasonable and not calculated to interfere with the main purposes for which the property was intended to be used. The Continuing Members consist of Proprietors and other persons who had certain rights in the Institution when the Act was passed. The Act further provided that the Continuing Members should be subject to the obligation to pay an annual subscription of two guineas to be applied for their own benefit; and further, that if in any year the income derived from subscriptions and any voluntary payments made by or on behalf of the Continuing Members should fall below £170, then at the conclusion of that year the rights of the Continuing Members should be finally determined. There is no provision for the creation of new Continuing Members.¹

The Treasury requested the Cromer Committee to supervise, in conjunction with a representative of H.M. Office of Works, the necessary alterations to be carried out at the London Institution, and sanctioned the employment of Professor F. M. Simpson as architect. They stipulated, however, that the detailed plans should be approved, not only by H.M. Office of Works and the Committee, but also by the representatives of a number of the bodies which would eventually be represented on the Governing Body of the School. This process took some time, and was prolonged considerably by the necessity for entering into negotiations with the owners of large new buildings in course of erection on the east side of the School. Mr. Frank Baines, M.V.O., a Principal Architect of the Office of Works, settled with the owners a party-wall award, and arranged for important concessions to be made

¹ After negotiation, the Office of Works as from December, 1916, vested the whole of this property other than real property in the Governing Body, subject to the condition that the Governing Body should not sell or lend any of the books of the Library without the consent of the "Continuing Members", or failing such consent, of the Office of Works, who are to be the final arbiters in case of disagreement on this matter between the Governing Body and the Continuing Members.

to the School, both in regard to the height of the new building and the use of white bricks in its construction, which prevented the School from being materially affected by loss of light. The plans were finally completed and approved in March, 1914. By that time there was a strike in the building trade and the Office of Works was unable to issue the contract for the building until the following November, four months after the outbreak of the War.

In January, 1914, a City Appeal Committee was constituted under the chairmanship of Sir Montagu Turner, a former member of Lord Reay's Committee, Chairman of the Chartered Bank of India, Australia, and China.¹ In connexion with the work of this Committee, the Lord Mayor, Sir T. Vansittart Bowater, held a Mansion House Meeting on May 6, 1914, in order to raise funds for the School. Lord Cromer, owing to illness, was unable to attend the Meeting, and Lord Curzon of Kedleston moved the following resolution, which was seconded by Lord Reay :—

“That in view of the great imperial and commercial interests dependent on adequate provision being made for instruction in the languages, the literature, and the social customs of Oriental and African countries, this meeting desires heartily to support the scheme for the foundation of a School of Oriental Studies in the City of London.”

Lord Incheape proposed and Mr. Faithfull Begg (as Chairman of the Council of the London Chamber of Commerce) seconded the following resolution :—

“That this meeting desires to commend to the commercial community of the City of London, and to the general public, an appeal for the funds necessary to enable the School of Oriental Studies to be opened in 1915 on a satisfactory financial basis.”

A vote of thanks to the Lord Mayor was proposed by Lord Crewe, Secretary of State for India, and seconded by Sir Montagu Turner.

The City Committee was merged in a larger Committee in 1916, of which Lord Curzon became Chairman, and which includes among others Mr. Asquith, Mr. Austen Chamberlain, Lord Chelmsford, Lord Crewe, Lord Grey of Falloden, Lord Hardinge of Penshurst, Mr. Arthur Henderson, Lord Lansdowne, Mr. Bonar Law, Lord Morley of Blackburn, Lord Reay, and Sir Marcus Samuel, Bart.

¹ Mr. H. R. Beasley acted for a considerable time as Secretary of this Committee and of the larger Appeal Committee referred to below.

The object of the Committee was to raise an *endowment* fund of £150,000. It has secured up to the present about £25,000 in the form of capital, and over £3,000 a year in the form of subscriptions for three or five years. The present Lord Mayor, Sir William Dunn, Bart., although not formally a member of the Oriental Studies Committee like his predecessors in office, has taken a particularly active part in the work of the Appeal Committee.

The view of the Government in regard to the relation of the School to the University of London was affected by the views of the Royal Commission, whose final Report was dated March 27, 1913. As stated above, the Reay Committee had reported that the School should be incorporated in the University. At the date of their Report University College had already been so incorporated (on January 1, 1907), and the Act for the incorporation of King's College had received the Royal Assent; the latter College was incorporated on January 1, 1910. The question was one which closely affected the School, as the Reay Report proposed that it should be built up from the nucleus of Oriental teaching at the two Colleges (see above, pp. 11-12). The Royal Commission, while approving of the proposals of the Reay Committee in general, recommended that incorporation should not take place until the University as a whole had been reconstituted in accordance with the plan which they advocated, and that the School should then form "A University Department of Oriental Studies governed by a Delegacy of the Senate"; in the meantime they recommended that it should be established as a School of the University.¹ The Government endorsed the views of the Royal Commission and requested the Cromer Committee to assist them by preparing the first draft of a Charter, on the lines suggested. Lord Crewe, as Secretary of State for India, applied to the Privy Council for a Charter for the School (see *London Gazette*, February 10, 1914). Various bodies, including the Senate of the University of London, the London County Council, the British Academy, and the Royal Asiatic Society, made representations in regard to the Draft Charter, which finally issued on June 5, 1916.

¹ Final Report of Royal Commission on University Education in London (Cd. 6717, price 2s.), 1913, pp. 262-3 and *passim*. For the views officially expressed on behalf of the Government in regard to the question of incorporation see (1) speech by Lord Morley on September 27, 1909, in the House of Lords; (2) replies to questions by Mr. G. Lloyd and Sir W. J. Collins on March 10, 1910, in the House of Commons.

Under the Charter, Sir John Prescott Hewett, G.C.S.I., C.I.E., formerly Lieutenant-Governor of the United Provinces of Agra and Oudh, was appointed first Chairman of the Governing Body, and its first meeting was held at the Offices of the Board of Education, under the chairmanship of the President of the Board, the Rt. Hon. Arthur Henderson, M.P., on June 22, 1916. At that meeting the present writer was asked to act as Honorary Secretary of the Governing Body, a position which he held until March 19, 1917, when he was obliged to resign owing to the pressure of other duties.

On October 20, 1916, Dr. E. Denison Ross, C.I.E., Keeper of the Stein Antiquities at the British Museum, previously Professor of Persian at University College, Principal of the Calcutta Madrasah, and Officer in Charge of the Records of the Government of India, was appointed Director of the School, to take office on November 1.

On June 30, 1916, the School forwarded to the Senate of the University of London the communication required under Article IX of the Charter before the Governing Body could make the first appointments to the teaching staff. On December 13, 1916, the Senate resolved to transfer, under certain conditions, to the School, as from January 1, 1917, the members of the staffs of the Oriental Departments at University and King's Colleges other than those who did not desire to be so transferred. All the teachers concerned at the two Colleges, except two, accepted the proposals of the School, but it should be pointed out that certain Oriental subjects, e.g. Egyptology, Assyriology, and Hebrew at University College, and Assyriology and Hebrew at King's College, continue to be taught at those Colleges. The Senate on the same occasion decided to transfer on loan to the School books immediately needed for the teaching work of the transferred teachers, and to consider at a later date the question of the transfer of other Oriental books to the School.

The "China Association's School for Practical Chinese", which for some years had carried on teaching successfully in conjunction with the authorities of King's College, resolved, with the concurrence of the Delegacy of the College, to transfer its support to the School of Oriental Studies, and to pay its income, amounting to about £350 a year, to the School, for a period of five years.

On November 28, 1916, the School applied for admission as a School of the University.

A preliminary announcement was issued in December, 1916, and the School opened its doors to students on January 18, 1917.

The charge of the School buildings was formally transferred from Lord Cromer's Committee and the Office of Works to the Governing Body as from January 9, 1917.

On January 29, 1917, Lord Cromer, who had taken so active a part in the promotion of the scheme for the School, died. Lord Curzon of Kedleston, who had been Acting-Chairman of the Oriental Studies Committee since Lord Cromer's illness in 1914, succeeded him as Chairman, and the final meeting of the Committee took place on February 22, 1917. The final Report of the Committee to the India Office was dated March 26, 1917.

On February 23, 1917, the School was formally opened by H.M. the King. An account of the memorable proceedings is given in the present issue of the Bulletin (see p. 23).

To this record I desire to add one final fact. The number of students taken over in January last by the School from the pre-existing institutions was 9, a number much less than the normal owing to the War; the total number of names on the register has now (July, 1917) increased to 125, including many who devote their whole time to their work at the School.

I may perhaps be allowed the privilege of adding to the foregoing sketch a personal note. In the first place I should say that my paper is intended to be read with the Report of the Reay Committee and the Interim Report of the Cromer Committee, to which it is only a supplement; they are both needed in order to see the facts in something like their true perspective. In the second place, I have not attempted any estimate of the services of the many distinguished, able, and unselfish persons who have fought through long years to bring a School like ours into existence, and of whom some have not lived to see the substantial measure of success which it has already achieved. I shall be forgiven if I speak only of Lord Cromer, of whose memory we all think with affectionate veneration; and of Lord Reay and Lord Curzon, who devoted so much time, thought, and energy to the initial and to the final stages, respectively, of the creation of the School. To any of the living who may think that their names or their services ought to have been more

specially recorded, I can only express regret that the scope of this article has made it impossible. I may perhaps, however, express here my sense of the services rendered by the public Press to our School during the last few years; and especially to the *Times* and its "Educational Supplement", the *Daily Telegraph*, and the *Morning Post*, which have given us most valuable support, and have, no doubt, helped largely to educate public opinion.

It is not only against indifference that the advocates of the School have had to struggle, but against a jealousy based on the conviction that the number of students of Oriental languages in this country was bound always to be strictly limited, and that the new School could only exist at the expense of its rivals. The last few months have already proved the futility of that conviction, for the School has grown and increased without taking a single student from another University. It is my own sincere belief (based on analogies referred to in the Reay Report) that the interest created in Oriental studies by our School, with the eight millions of population of Greater London within reach of its doors, will help the older Schools greatly, and will add indirectly but within a short time to the numbers of their students and to their influence.

Our history is desperately longer than it ought to have been. It has taken ninety-nine years to set on foot a School of Oriental Studies on a scale at all adequate to the Metropolis of the British Empire, and even now the School has not the income regarded as a minimum by two Government Committees and a Royal Commission. This unembellished article is not intended as an appeal, so I limit myself here to this statement of the facts, in the hope that many generous readers may communicate with the Chairman or Director of the School forthwith.

Finally, I cannot help thinking with compassion and sympathy of the arrays of Committees and Secretaries who ploughed the sands of public indifference in the past, and despaired (though wrongly) of the commonwealth. If I belonged to the land of the Rising Sun, I should no doubt feel conscious that in writing this article I was offering up a welcome sacrifice to the spirits of the great scholars of the past, Wilson, Cust, Yule, and others, the strenuous advocates of our cause in their own day. May our School become a shrine worthy of their name and fame!

P. J. HARTOG.



THE SCHOOL OF ORIENTAL STUDIES, LONDON INSTITUTION.

THE OPENING CEREMONY.

ON February 23rd, 1917, the School of Oriental Studies, London Institution, was formally opened by His Majesty King George V. The King was accompanied on this occasion by the Queen and Princess Mary, and the Royal Party included the Countess of Airlie, Lady Mary Trefusis, Mr. H. A. L. Fisher, Minister of Education, Lord Hylton, Lord Stamfordham, Colonel the Hon. C. Willoughby, Commander Sir Charles Cust, and Sir Clive Wigram.

The Royal carriage was drawn by four horses, with postilions and outriders in scarlet coats. The route to the city was by way of the Mall, Victoria Embankment, Mansion House, Princes Street, and Moorgate Street. The ancient ceremony of presenting the pearl-handled sword of the City of London took place at the City boundary on the Embankment at the west end of Temple Gardens, the Lord Mayor, who was accompanied by the Sheriffs, presenting the sword in time-honoured fashion.

On the arrival at the School, where a guard of honour had been provided by the University of London Officers Training Corps, their Majesties were received by Lord and Lady Curzon and Sir John Hewett (Chairman of the Governing Body). Proceeding to the Continuing Members' Room, Sir John Hewett presented to the King the following members of the Governing Body: Lieut.-Col. Sir Alfred Pearce Gould (Vice-Chancellor of the University of London), Sir Charles Lyall (Chairman of the Academic Organization Committee of the School), Sir Montagu Turner (Chairman of the Finance and General Purposes Committee of the School and of the Executive of the Appeal Committee), Mr. P. J. Hartog (Honorary Secretary), Dr. E. Denison Ross (Director of the School), and Professor F. M. Simpson (Architect of the new buildings). A procession was formed to the Library, where the opening ceremony was held. As their Majesties entered the Library and proceeded to the dais, the orchestra of Trinity College of Music, conducted by Sir Frederick Bridge (King Edward Professor of Music in the University of London), played the National Anthem.

A distinguished and representative gathering of upwards of 500 persons was present at the ceremony. On the dais with their Majesties were: Sir John Hewett, Monsieur Boyer (Director of the Paris School of Oriental Languages), The Rt. Hon. Austen Chamberlain, M.P., Mr. H. E. Coles, The Marquess and Marchioness of Crewe, Earl and Countess Curzon of Kedleston, The Rt. Hon. Andrew Fisher, The Rt. Hon. H. A. L. Fisher and Mrs. Fisher, Mr. J. W. Gilbert, Sir Alfred Pearce Gould, His Excellency the Japanese Ambassador, Sir John Jordan, K.C.B. (Minister to China), and Lady Jordan, Lieut.-Gen. Sir C. Macready, K.C.B., and Lady Macready, Sir Thomas Mackenzie, The Lord Mayor of London and the Lady Mayoress, His Excellency the Persian Minister, the Russian Chargé d'Affaires, Lord and Lady Sandhurst, The Rt. Hon. and Mrs. W. P. Schreiner, Lord and Lady Sydenham, and their Majesties' suite.

Sir John Hewett, G.C.S.I., C.I.E., addressing the King, said:—

MAY IT PLEASE YOUR MAJESTY: The Governing Body of the School of Oriental Studies, London Institution, desire to express to your Majesty their humble duty on the occasion of the visit which your Majesty has paid us to-day in order to declare these buildings open. Your Majesty has already conferred prestige on the School by becoming its Patron, and this further mark of your interest in its welfare will afford great incentive and encouragement to the Governing Body in the task before them.

The creation of a great School of Oriental Studies in the Capital, adequate to the needs of an Empire which includes nearly four hundred million Orientals, has been long contemplated and too long delayed. Teaching in Oriental languages has indeed been given in London, both at University College and at King's College, for many years past and by scholars of high distinction, but this teaching has been on a scale limited by narrow resources.

Our School has been founded in general accordance with the recommendations of a Departmental Committee of the Treasury, presided over by Lord Reay, and of a Departmental Committee of the India Office, presided over by the late Lord Cromer, and, during Lord Cromer's illness, by Lord Curzon of Kedleston. We have had many helpers, but to these three statesmen our School owes a greater debt than to any others. With the rest of the

nation, we mourn the death of Lord Cromer, in whom our Institution has lost a devoted friend and wise counsellor. It is sad that, though he lived to see the School at work, he passed away before its formal opening.

The Senate of the University of London have consented to transfer to the School the Oriental Departments of University and King's Colleges, and steps are being taken to carry out the terms of the Article of the Royal Charter granted to us which provides that, subject to compliance with the University Statutes, the School shall be a School of the University of London. We regard the inheritance of University traditions as a valuable and important factor in our constitution; and we hope to work in cordial harmony and co-operation with the older Universities, whose Oriental Schools, particularly those at Oxford and Cambridge, have won so high and deserved a reputation. Under the terms of our Charter these Universities are represented on our Governing Body.

The main block of the beautiful buildings which your Majesty has consented formally to open for the purposes of this School was originally designed for the London Institution, a Literary Society founded at the beginning of the last century, which had a long and interesting history. It was with the concurrence of the Proprietors of the London Institution that an Act of Parliament was passed in 1912 transferring their site and buildings to your Majesty's Commissioners of Works for the purposes of the School of Oriental Studies. Parliament also voted a sum of £25,000 for the restoration of these buildings and for the erection of our new block of seventeen class-rooms on vacant ground adjacent to the main block. Your Majesty's Government, the Government of India, and the London County Council have made substantial grants to the School. We consider ourselves especially fortunate in having our home in the centre of the City of London, and we are indebted to the Lord Mayor and the Corporation and to several of the great City Companies for generous support. But while our buildings are unique in character and admirably situated, we are still short of the income necessary to carry on the School on the footing for which it is designed; we trust that this deficiency may quickly be made up from private liberality, and, if necessary, by further aid from public sources.

The main objects of the School may be expressed as follows:—

First, to provide a place where our young men who will presently be engaged in governing or garrisoning the Oriental and African parts of the Empire may learn the languages and study the literature, the religions, and the customs of the peoples with whom they will so soon be brought into contact, and their influence over whom will largely depend upon their familiarity with indigenous character, ideas, and institutions.

Secondly, to offer a training to those who are about to proceed to the same countries to take part in commercial enterprise or other avocations, or for purposes of study and research.

Thirdly, to furnish to the Capital of the Empire a meeting-ground and focus for scholars from the East of various nationalities, where, on their visits to this country, they may be assured of a sympathetic welcome, and find at hand, if they desire them, opportunities for study among those engaged in kindred pursuits.

We wish more especially to emphasize the importance of this School as a centre of Indian studies, and its creation as in some measure a recognition of the great position which India occupies in the Empire.

We take your Majesty's gracious presence as a sign that your Majesty is fully cognisant of and impressed with the importance to the Empire of the study of Oriental and African languages and civilizations on a scale which Great Britain, alone among great countries of the world interested in the East, has not hitherto regarded as necessary; and we have planned that our School shall be at least equal to the Oriental Schools in foreign capitals, and adequate to imperial needs. We propose to teach the languages of eight hundred million people. The imports and exports of the United Kingdom alone with the peoples of whom we are to teach the languages amount to between two and three hundred millions sterling annually. But the magnitude of our scheme cannot be expressed in terms of money or of the mere number of languages taught. Our teaching is only a means to an end. The greatness and solidarity of this vast Empire in its internal and its external relations rest on the comprehension of

and the just and sympathetic dealing with, men infinitely varied in race, religion, speech, character, and upbringing. We believe that the training given in our School will materially contribute to the fuller realization of the nation's ideals in the distant parts of your Majesty's dominions, and to the prosperity and the efficient working of the Empire as a whole. If, with the approval of your Majesty's Government, we are starting our new career at this crisis, it is because we are deeply convinced that the task we have to fulfil, both in view of the War and of the period which will immediately follow, could no longer be safely neglected or delayed.

We desire to express to Her Majesty the Queen our humble duty and sincere pleasure at her presence here to-day. We are well aware of the great interest which Her Majesty has shown in the higher education of women, and we hope that, especially in view of the part which women doctors and other women workers play in the East, Her Majesty will take a special interest in this School. We already have women teachers and women students, and equal opportunities will be given in every way to men and women alike.

We desire humbly to thank your Majesties for your presence to-day to sanction and encourage our great undertaking.

The King, on rising to reply, said :—

MY LORDS, LADIES AND GENTLEMEN,—I thank you for your loyal and dutiful address.

I am glad to be the Patron of the School of Oriental Studies, and it gives me particular gratification to take part to-day in the ceremony of opening this fine building in which the School is henceforth to carry on its work.

I cannot sufficiently emphasize the wide scope and vast importance of that work. The School will afford fresh opportunities of study to those services which have been the pioneer of progress and the instrument of good government in India and Egypt. It will furnish with a fuller technical equipment the pioneers of commerce and industry who in each successive generation undertake the duty of upholding the honoured fame of British trade in the East. Its work will serve to develop the

sympathy which already so happily exists between my subjects and those of my Far Eastern Ally, Japan. But more than this is to be looked for from the School.

If it happily succeeds in imparting to the pupils sent out as teachers of unselfish government and civilized commerce a clearer comprehension of the thoughts and lives of the diverse races of the East, the good effects of that success will extend far beyond the immediate and tangible results. The ancient literature and the art of India are of unique interest in the history of human endeavour. I look to the School to quicken public interest in the intellectual tradition of that great continent and to promote and assist the labours of the students in these departments of knowledge, to the mutual advantage of both countries.

The School is about to open its doors in the midst of an unparalleled crisis in the world's history. For more than two years the peoples of my dominions with loyalty and devotion have vied with each other in offering their blood and treasure for the prosecution of a righteous war. The sense of common sacrifice and common endeavour has drawn us all nearer to one another in feeling and sympathy. Meanwhile we believe that the peaceful labours of this Institution in spreading accurate and scientific knowledge of Eastern life and thought will foster the spirit of loyalty and patriotism and knit together still closer the many nations of my Empire.

I am very conscious of how much we owe to those distinguished scholars and statesmen whose undaunted efforts have largely aided in establishing this School. I deeply regret that one of the most illustrious, Lord Cromer, has not been permitted to see the completion of his share in the work. Had he lived his wise judgment and unrivalled experience would have been of priceless value in council. I recognize and appreciate the debt of gratitude which this School owes to the public-spirited benefactors who have contributed so liberally to its endowment fund. In so doing they have rendered a service to the Empire, and I trust that the beneficence of the community will endow the School with funds adequate to all the demands which may be made upon its teaching capacity.

I now declare the School of Oriental Studies open. May God bless its labours in the advancement of learning, unity, and good government among my people of every race and language.

The Rt. Hon. Earl Curzon of Kedleston, K.G., G.C.S.I., G.C.I.E., Chairman of the General Committee, spoke as follows:—

Your Majesty has taken part, if I may say so, in a memorable ceremony. It marks the end of one period and the beginning of another. For years there have existed means of following Oriental studies, both at King's College and at University College in London, quite apart from the larger efforts which have been made at the old academic institutions of Oxford and Cambridge. But now, for the first time, those efforts are to be co-ordinated, unified, and centralized in the Metropolis of the Empire. Henceforth we shall feel that we are not behind the similar institutions that exist at Paris, at Petrograd, and—if I may say it with bated breath—at Berlin. (Laughter.) Henceforward I hope we shall not be behind those rivals or those enemies in our equipment for that which is an essential part of the duty of the Empire. (Hear, hear.) We place representatives of Oxford and Cambridge upon our Governing Body, and we hope to work in the closest and most cordial co-operation with them. (Hear, hear.)

It is nearly ten years ago since the Committee was formed, under the chairmanship of Lord Reay, which laid down the plan of this School of Oriental Studies. May I add a word to what your Majesty said of Lord Cromer? I cannot exaggerate the debt which this Institution, no less than the Empire at large, owes to that eminent man. (Hear, hear.) He devoted to this purpose all the enthusiasm, assiduity, and organizing capacity which characterized everything he did. Nothing was too small for him to deal with, nothing was too big for him to grasp. His friends and the public will always regard this Institution as one of the lesser monuments to his memory. It will serve—although no such service is needed—to keep alive the memory of that great man, who was a true friend of all Eastern peoples, as well as a great servant of the State. (Hear, hear.)

EAST AND WEST

And now as to the objects of this Institution. I do not look upon it merely as an educational centre, where administrators and soldiers, merchants and missionaries, will learn the languages, study the history, and absorb the customs of the East. That, indeed, is its primary object. We hope to send forth those persons in every sphere better equipped for the work that they

are about to undertake. That work ought to appeal to the City. Nobly as the City has responded to the appeal, splendidly as some of the City Companies have given, I hope that their generosity is not yet exhausted. (Hear, hear.) I confront you with the striking and lamentable fact that, while we are aiming at £14,000 a year, we have at present only £10,500, of which not more than £7,500 can be regarded as permanent, the remainder being subscriptions for a short term of years. What an opportunity there is in the midst of a great war to show that your resources are not exhausted, and to prove the power and vitality of the City by contributing to this great Imperial object!

But in my view this School ought to have much more than a merely instructional or utilitarian value. I hope as time passes this place will become a sort of clearing-house of ideas between East and West—a bridge between the mind and character of Great Britain and those Oriental peoples with whom she is brought into such close contact. The gap that exists between the psychology of the East and West is often spoken of as though it were unplumbed and impassable. My belief is that with every year that passes it becomes less wide and less deep. Bridges are constantly being thrown over it by the common relations of travel, of trade, of diplomacy, of public service, and private business. Let this Institution be an additional bridge. A real understanding between East and West can only be achieved by a knowledge of the character, the life, and thought of those whose physical environment may be so entirely different, and great indeed will be the disappointment of many of us if this place does not bring into closer union what we may describe as the soul of the Eastern and Western world. (Hear, hear.)

THE KING'S TRAVELS

May I say that there can be no happier augury for the success of such a scheme than that your Majesty should have graced this opening ceremony. (Hear, hear.) Your Majesty is the most travelled Sovereign since the days of the Roman Emperor Hadrian. There is hardly one of the countries the languages of which are going to be taught here by Dr. Denison Ross and his capable staff which your Majesty has not visited, and of which you cannot speak with personal knowledge. Circumstances have thrown a good deal of my life into contact with the East, and this I can

truly say, that the intimate acquaintance which your Majesty has acquired with those parts of the world, the sympathy which has characterized every utterance of yours when you have spoken, have been assets of immense and incalculable value to the Empire of which you are the head. I hope that all future Sovereigns of the British Empire will follow your example in this respect, and that we shall all remember that, though the central tabernacle of this Empire is set up here in London, its outer courts are thronged with countless hosts who will continue to look to us in the future, as they have done in the past, for administrative guidance, for inspiration, and for example.

As to what the future of those countries and those peoples will be—what degrees of autonomy or self-government will be either conceded to them or won by themselves, what will be the link that unites them to the centre in the future—none of us can say. But never let it be said that the country which started them forward on the career of constitutional development, of industrial and commercial expansion and moral progress, shrank from the task because it became more difficult or because the end was lost in cloud and mist. Rather may an Institution like this, which your Majesty has opened to-day, be as a wayside inn on the road which East and West will travel together hand in hand in an ever closer and more fraternal union.¹ (Cheers.)

At the conclusion of the ceremony the King and Royal party made a tour of the School and inspected the class-rooms and lecture halls.

¹ On February 26, 1917, the following letter from Lord Curzon appeared in the *Times* and elsewhere :—

“My remarks as Chairman of the Committee at the opening of the new School of Oriental Studies in Finsbury Circus by His Majesty the King suffered from a very regrettable omission—due not to inadvertence, but to forgetfulness—which I should like, with your permission, to rectify. After mentioning the services of Lord Cromer as first Chairman of the Committee, I had meant to say how great is the debt that the new institution owes to our Hon. Secretary, Mr. P. J. Hartog, C.I.E., Registrar of the London University, without whose indefatigable and tactful labours during the past seven years the scheme could not have reached fruition. And, further, I had intended to mention the contribution to the same result of our architect, Professor F. M. Simpson, F.R.I.B.A., who adapted and added to the fine classical structure of the London Institution with equal regard to utility and taste.”

PAPERS CONTRIBUTED

PRE-T'ANG POETRY

BY A. D. WALEY

THE following poems have never been translated before.¹ I have added to my translations only such comments as are indispensable. I hope in a subsequent essay to discuss the importance of pre-T'ang poetry, and to give references to the sources which I have used.

I wish to take this opportunity of thanking Mr. S. H. Ting for the kind and intelligent assistance he has given me in many difficulties.

The Orphan

To be an orphan,
To be fated to be an orphan,
How bitter is this lot!
When my father and mother were alive
I used to ride in a carriage
With four fine horses.
But when they both died,
My brother and sister-in-law
Sent me out to be a merchant.
In the south I travelled to the "Nine Rivers"²
And in the east as far as Ch'i and Lu.³
At the end of the year when I came home
I dared not tell them what I had suffered—
Of the lice and vermin in my head,
Of the dust in my face and eyes.
My brother told me to get ready the dinner,
My sister-in-law told me to see after the horses.
I was always going up into the hall
And running down again to the parlour.
My tears fell like rain.
In the morning they sent me to draw water
I did not get back till nightfall.

¹ Since this was written, a translation of the four poems by T'ao Ch'ien (p. 46) has appeared in Germany.

² i.e. Kiu-kiang in Kiangsi.

³ Shantung.

My hands were all sore
 And I had no shoes.
 I walked the cold earth
 Treading on thorns and brambles.
 As I stopped to pull out the thorns,
 How bitter my heart was!
 My tears fell and fell
 And I went on sobbing and sobbing.
 In winter I have no great-coat;
 Nor in summer, thin clothes.
 It is no pleasure to be alive.
 I had rather quickly leave the earth
 And go beneath the Yellow Springs.¹

The April winds blow
 And the grass is growing green.
 In the third month—silkworms and mulberries,
 In the sixth month—the melon-harvest.
 I went out with the melon-cart
 And just as I was coming home
 The melon-cart turned over.
 The people who came to help me were few,
 But the people who ate the melons were many.
 All they left me was the stalks—
 To take home as fast as I could.
 My brother and sister-in-law were harsh,
 They asked me all sorts of awful questions.²
 Why does every one in the village hate me?
 I want to write a letter and send it
 To my father and mother under the earth,
 And tell them I can't go on any longer
 Living with my brother and my sister-in-law.

Anon., first century B.C.

Cock-crow Song

In the eastern quarter dawn breaks, the stars flicker pale.
 The morning cock at Ju-nan mounts the wall and crows.

¹ Hades.

² The phrase 亂曰, which follows this line, is a formula for introducing the last part of a song and simply means "In conclusion".

The songs are over, the clock¹ run down, but the feast is still set,
 The moon grows dim and the stars are few; morning has come to the world.
 At a thousand gates and ten thousand doors the fish-shaped keys turn;
 Round the Palace and up by the Castle, the crows and magpies are flying.

Anon., first century B.C.

The Golden Palace

We go to the Golden Palace:
 We set out the jade cups.
 We summon the honoured guests
 To enter at the Golden Gate.
 They enter at the Golden Gate.
 In the Eastern Kitchen the meat is sliced and ready—
 Roast beef and boiled pork and mutton.
 The Master of the Feast hands round the wine.
 The harp-players sound their clear chords.

The cups are pushed aside and we face each other at chess:
 The rival pawns are marshalled rank against rank.
 The fire glows and the smoke puffs and curls;
 From the incense-burner rises a delicate fragrance.
 The clear wine has made our cheeks red;
 Round the table joy and peace prevail.
 May those who shared in this day's delight
 Through countless autumns enjoy like felicity.

Anon., first century B.C.

Fighting South of the Castle.

They fought south of the Castle,
 They died north of the wall.
 They died in the moors and were not buried.
 Their flesh was the food of crows.
 "Tell the crows we are not afraid:
 We have died in the moors and cannot be buried.
 Crows, how can our bodies escape you?"

¹ A water-clock.

The waters flowed deep
 And the rushes in the pool were dark.
 The riders fought and were slain :
 Their horses wander neighing.
 By the bridge there was a house.¹
 Was it south, was it north ?
 The harvest was never gathered.
 How can we give you your offerings ?
 Faithfully you served your Prince,
 Though all in vain.
 I think of you, faithful soldiers,
 Your service shall not be forgotten.
 For in the morning you went out to battle
 And at night you did not return.

Anon., c. 124 B.C.

The Eastern Gate.

*A poor man determines to go out into the world and make his fortune.
 His wife tries to detain him.*

I went out at the eastern gate :
 I never thought to return.
 But I came back to the gate with my heart full of sorrow

There was not a peck of rice in the bin ;
 There was not a coat hanging on the pegs.
 So I took my sword and went towards the gate.
 My wife and child clutched at my coat and wept :

“Some people want to be rich and grand :
 I only want to share my porridge with you.
 Above, we have the blue waves of the sky ;
 Below, the yellow face of this little child.”

“Dear wife, I cannot stay.
 Soon it will be too late.
 When one is growing old
 One cannot put things off.”

Anon., first century B.C.

¹ There is no trace of it left. This passage describes the havoc of war. The harvest has not been gathered : therefore corn-offerings cannot be made to the spirits of the dead. For this campaign against the Huns, see Wieger, *Textes Historiques*, i, 478.

The following five poems belong to the series known as the Nineteen Old Poems (古詩十九首), attributed to Mei Shēng 枚乘, second century B.C.

I

Green, green,
The cypress on the mound.
Firm, firm,
The boulder in the stream.
Man's life lived within this world
Is like the sojourning of a hurried traveller.
A cup of wine together will make us glad,
And a little friendship is no little matter.

Yoking my chariot I urge my stubborn horses.
I wander about in the streets of Wan and Lo.¹
In Lo Town how fine everything is!
The "Caps and Belts"² go seeking each other out.
The great boulevards are intersected by lanes,
Wherein are the town-houses of Royal Dukes.
The two palaces stare at each other from afar,
The twin gates rise a hundred feet.
By prolonging the feast let us keep our hearts gay,
And leave no room for sadness to creep in.

II

Of this day's glorious feast and revel
The pleasure and delight are difficult to describe.
Plucking the lute they sent forth lingering sounds,
The new melodies in beauty reached the divine.
Skilful singers intoned the high words,
Those who knew the tune heard the trueness of their singing.
We sat there each with the same desire
And like thoughts by each unexpressed:
"Man in the world lodging for a single lifetime
Passes suddenly like dust borne on the wind.

¹ This poem was obviously written when the capital was at Lo-yang, i.e. during the Eastern Han dynasty, which started in 25 A.D. It cannot, therefore, be by Mei Shēng, who died under the previous dynasty.

² High officers.

Then let us hurry out with high steps
 And be the first to reach the highways and fords:
 Rather than stay at home wretched and poor
 For long years plunged in sordid grief."

III

Turning my chariot I yoke my horses and go.
 On and on down the long roads
 The autumn winds shake the hundred grasses.
 On every side how desolate and bare!
 The things I meet are all new things,
 Their strangeness hastens the coming of old age.
 Prosperity and decay each have their season.
 Success is bitter when it is slow in coming.
 Man's life is not metal or stone,
 He cannot far prolong the days of his fate.
 Suddenly he follows in the way of things that change.
 Fame is the only treasure that endures.

IV

The dead are gone and with them we cannot converse.
 The living are here and ought to have our love.
 Leaving the city-gate I look ahead
 And see before me only mounds and tombs.
 The old graves are ploughed up into fields,
 The pines and cypresses are hewn for timber.
 In the white aspens sad winds sing;
 Their long murmuring kills my heart with grief.
 I want to go home, to ride to my village gate.
 I want to go back, but there's no road back.

V

Cold, cold the year draws to its end,
 The crickets and grasshoppers make a doleful chirping,
 The chill wind increases its violence.
 My wandering love has no coat to cover him.
 He gave his embroidered furs to the Lady of Lo,¹

¹ The Lo Shên 洛神, who is the subject of Ts'ao Chih's famous "Lo Shên Ballad", which was illustrated by Ku K'ai-chih in a roll which now belongs to Mr. Charles Freer of Detroit. Her name is here used generically to mean "the beautiful women of the capital".

But from me his bedfellow he is quite estranged.
 Sleeping alone in the depth of the long night
 In a dream I thought I saw the light of his face.
 My dear one thought of our old joys together,
 He came in his chariot and gave me the front reins.
 I wanted so to prolong our play and laughter,
 To hold his hand and go back with him in his coach.
 But when he had come he would not stay long,
 Nor stop to go with me to the inner chamber.
 Truly without the falcon's wings to carry me
 How can I rival the flying wind's swiftness?
 I go and lean at the gate and think of my grief,
 My falling tears wet the double gates.

Li Ling (*second century B.C.*)

Parting from Su Wu

The good time will never come back again:
 In a moment our parting will be over.
 Anxiously, we halt at the road-side;
 Hesitating, we embrace where the fields begin.
 The clouds above are floating across the sky:
 Swiftly, swiftly passing; or blending together.
 The waves in the wind lose their fixed place
 And are rolled away each to a corner of Heaven.
 From now onwards long must be our parting,
 So let us stop again for a little while.
 I wish I could ride on the wings of the morning wind
 And go with you right to your journey's end.

Li Ling 李陵 and Su Wu 蘇武 were both prisoners in the land of the Huns. After nineteen years Su Wu was released. Li Ling would not go back with him. When invited to do so, he got up and danced, singing:

I came ten thousand leagues
 Across sandy deserts
 In the service of my Prince,
 To break the Hun tribes.
 My way was blocked and barred,
 My arrows and sword broken.

My armies had faded away,
My reputation had gone.

* * * * *

My old mother is long dead.
Although I want to requite my Prince,
How can I return?

Ch'in Chia

Ch'in Chia 秦嘉 (first century A.D.) was summoned to take up an appointment at the capital at a time when his wife was ill and staying with her parents. He was therefore unable to say good-bye to her, and sent her three poems instead. This is the last of the three.

Solemn, solemn, the coachman gets ready to go;
"Chiang, chiang," the harness bells ring.
At break of dawn I must start on my long journey;
At cock-crow I must gird on my belt.
I turn back and look at the empty room:
For a moment I almost think I see you there.
One parting, but ten thousand regrets:
As I take my seat, my heart is unquiet.
What shall I do to tell you all my thoughts?
How can I let you know of all my love?
Precious hairpins make the head to shine,
And bright mirrors can reflect beauty.
Fragrant herbs banish evil smells,
And the scholar's harp has a clear note.
The man in the Book of Odes¹ who was given a quince
Wanted to pay it back with diamonds and rubies.
When I think of all the things you have done for me,
How ashamed I am to have done so little for you!
Although I know that it is a poor return,
All I can give you is this description of my feelings.

Ch'in Chia's Wife's Reply

My poor body is, alas, unworthy:
I was ill when first you brought me home,
Limp and weary in the house.

¹ Odes, v, 10.

Time passed and I got no better ;
 We could hardly ever see each other :
 I could not serve you as I ought.
 Then you received the Imperial mandate :
 You were ordered to go far away to the city.
 Long, long must be our parting :
 I was not destined to tell you my thoughts.
 I stood on tiptoe gazing into the distance,
 Interminably gazing at the road that had taken you.
 With thoughts of you my mind is obsessed :
 In my dreams I see the light of your face.
 Now you are started on your long journey,
 Each day brings you further from me.
 Oh that I had a bird's wings
 And high flying could follow you !
 Long I sob and long I cry :
 The tears fall down and wet my skirt.

Satire on Paying Calls in August

When I was young, throughout the hot season
 There were no carriages driving about the roads.
 People shut their doors and lay down in the cool :
 Or if they went out, it was not to pay calls.
 Nowadays,—ill-bred, ignorant fellows,
 When they feel the heat, make for a friend's house.
 The unfortunate host, when he hears some one coming,
 Scowls and frowns, but can think of no escape.
 "There's nothing for it but to rise and go to the door,"
 And in his comfortable seat he groans and sighs.
 The conversation does not end quickly :
 Prattling and babbling, what a lot he says !
 Only when one is almost dead with fatigue
 He asks at last if one isn't finding him tiring.
 (One's arm is almost in half with continual fanning :
 The sweat is pouring down one's neck in streams.)
 Do not say that this is a small matter :
 I consider the practice a blot on our social life.
 I therefore caution all wise men
 That August visitors should not be admitted.

By Ch'êng Hsiao 程曠, third century A.D.

The Campaign against Wu

(Two Poems)

I

My charioteer hastens to yoke my carriage,
 For I must go on a journey far away.
 "Where are you going on your journey far away?"
 To the land of Wu, where my enemies are.
 But I must ride many thousand miles,
 Beyond the eastern road that leads to Wu.
 Between the rivers bitter winds blow,
 Swiftly flow the waters of Huai and Ssü.
 I want to take a skiff and cross these rivers,
 But alas for me, where shall I find a boat?
 To sit idle is not my desire:
 Gladly enough would I go to my country's aid.

II

He abandons the campaign

In the north-west there is a floating cloud
 Stretched on high, like a chariot's canvas-awning.
 Alas that I was born in these times,
 To be blown along like a cloud puffed by the wind!
 It has blown me away to the south-east,
 On and on till I came to Wu-hui.
 Wu-hui is not my country:
 Why should I go on staying and staying here?
 I will give it up and never speak of it again—
 This being abroad and always living in dread.

By Wei Wên-ti 魏文帝 188-227 A.D. (first Emperor of the Wei dynasty).

The Ruins of Lo-yang

By Ts'ao Chih 曹植 (192-233 A.D.), third son of Ts'ao Ts'ao. He was a great favourite with his father till he made a mistake in a campaign. In this poem he returns to look at the ruins of Lo-yang, where he used to live. It had been sacked by Tung Cho.

I climb to the ridge of Pei Mang Mountain
 And look down on the city of Lo-yang.
 In Lo-yang how still it is!

Palaces and houses all burnt to ashes,
 Walls and fences all broken and gaping,
 Thorns and brambles shooting up to the sky.
 I do not see the old old-men:
 I only see the new young men.
 I turn aside, for the straight road is lost:
 The fields are overgrown and will never be ploughed again.
 I have been away such a long time
 That I do not know which street is which.
 How sad and ugly the empty moors are!
 A thousand miles without the smoke of a chimney.
 I think of the house I lived in all those years:
 I am heart-tied and cannot speak a word.

The Cock-fight

Our wandering eyes are sated with the dancer's skill,
 Our ears are weary with the sound of "kung" and "shang".¹
 Our host is silent and sits doing nothing:
 All the guests go on to places of amusement.
 * * * * *
 On long benches the sportsmen sit ranged
 Round a cleared room, watching the fighting-cocks.
 The gallant birds are all in battle-trim:
 They raise their tails and flap defiantly.
 Their beating wings stir the calm air;
 Their angry eyes gleam with a red light.
 Where their beaks have struck, the fine feathers are scattered;
 With their strong talons they wound again and again.
 Their long cries enter the blue clouds;
 Their flapping wings tirelessly beat and throb.
 "Pray God the lamp-oil lasts a little longer,
 Then I shall not leave without winning the match!"

By Ts'ao Chih.

Regret

When I was young I learnt fencing
 And was better at it than "Crooked Castle".²

¹ Notes of the scale.

² 曲城, Ch'ü-ch'eng. Obviously the birthplace of a famous swordsman, but I have not identified him. There was a place of this name in Shantung.

My spirit was high as the rolling clouds,
 And my fame resounded beyond the world.
 I took my sword to the desert sands,
 I drank my horse at the Nine Moors.
 My flags and banners flapped in the wind,
 And nothing was heard but the song of my drums

War and its travels have made me sad,
 And a fierce anger burns within me:
 It's thinking of how I've wasted my time
 That makes this fury tear my heart.

By Yuan Chi 阮籍, 210-263 A.D.

Taoist Song

I will cast out Wisdom and reject Learning,
 My thoughts shall wander in the Great Void (*bis*).
 Always repenting of wrongs done
 Will never bring my heart to rest.
 I cast my hook in a single stream;
 But my joy is as though I possessed a kingdom.
 I loose my hair and go singing;
 To the four frontiers men join in my refrain.
 This is the purport of my song:
 "My thoughts shall wander in the Great Void."

By Chi K'ang 嵇康, 223-262 A.D.

A Gentle Wind

A gentle wind fans the calm night;
 A bright moon shines on the high tower.
 A voice whispers, but no one answers when I call;
 A shadow stirs, but no one comes when I beckon.
 The kitchen-man brings in a dish of lentils:
 Wine is there, but I do not fill my cup.
 Contentment with poverty is Fortune's best gift:
 Riches and Honour are the handmaids of Disaster.
 Though gold and gems by the world are sought and prized
 To me they seem no more than weeds or chaff.

By Fu Hsüan 傅玄, died 278 A.D.

Day Dreams

When I was young I played with a soft brush,
 And was passionately devoted to reading all sorts of books.
 In prose I made Chia I¹ my standard;
 In verse I imitated Ssü-ma Hsiang-ju.¹
 But then the arrows began singing at the frontier,
 And a winged summons came flying to the city.
 Although arms were not my profession,
 I had once read Jang-chü's war-book
 I shouted aloud and my cries rent the air:
 I felt as though Tung Wu were already annihilated.
 The scholar's knife cuts best at its first use,
 And my dreams hurried on to the completion of my plan.
 I wanted at a stroke to clear the Yang-tze and Hsiang,
 And at a glance to quell the Tibetans and Hu.
 When my task was done I should not accept a barony,
 But, refusing with a bow, retire to a cottage in the country.

By Tso Ssü 左思, third century A.D.

The Desecration of the Han Tombs

At Pei-mang how they rise to Heaven,
 Those high mounds, four or five in the fields!
 What men lie buried under these tombs?
 All of them were Lords of the Han world.
 "Kung" and "Wên"² gaze across at each other:
 The Yüan mound is all grown over with weeds.
 When the dynasty was falling, tumult and disorder arose,
 Thieves and robbers roamed like wild beasts.
 Of earth³ they have carried away more than one handful,
 They have gone into vaults and opened the secret doors.
 Jewelled scabbards lie twisted and defaced:
 The stones that were set in them, thieves have carried away.

¹ For these famous writers see Giles' *Biographical Dictionary*.

² Names of two tombs.

³ In the early days of the dynasty a man stole a handful of earth from the Imperial tombs and was executed by the police. The Emperor was furious at the lightness of the punishment. Yün-mên 雲門 said to Mêng Ch'ang-chün 孟嘗君 (died B.C. 279): "Does it not grieve you to think that after a hundred years this terrace will be cast down and this pond cleared away?" Mêng Ch'ang-chün wept.

The ancestral temples are hummocks in the ground:
 The walls that went round them are all levelled flat.
 Over everything the tangled thorns are growing:
 A herdboyc pushes through them up the path.
 Down in the thorns rabbits have made their burrows:
 The weeds and thistles will never be cleared away.
 Over the tombs the ploughshare will be driven,
 And peasants will have their fields and orchards there.
 They that were once lords of a thousand hosts
 Are now become the dust of the hills and ridges.
 I think of what Yün-mên said
 And am sorely grieved at the thought of "then" and "now".

By Chang Tsai 張載, third century A.D.

Bearer's Song

When I was alive, I wandered in the streets of the capital:
 Now that I am dead, I am left to lie in the fields.
 In the morning I drove out from the High Hall;
 In the evening I lodged beneath the Yellow Springs.¹
 When the white sun had sunk in the Western Chasm
 I hung up my chariot and rested my four horses.
 Now, even the mighty Maker of All
 Could not bring the life back to my limbs.

By Miu Hsi 繆襲, second century A.D.

Four Poems by T'ao Ch'ien 陶潛, 365-427 A.D.

I

Substance, Shadow, and Spirit

High and low, wise and simple, all busily hoard up the
 moments of life. How greatly they err! Therefore I have to
 the uttermost exposed the bitterness both of Substance and
 Shadow, and have made Spirit show how, by following Nature,
 we may dissolve this bitterness.

Substance speaks to Shadow

Heaven and Earth exist for ever:
 Mountains and rivers never change.
 But herbs and trees in perpetual rotation
 Are renovated and withered by the dews and frosts:

¹ Hades.

And Man the wise, Man the divine—
 Shall he alone escape this law?
 Fortuitously appearing for a moment in the world
 He suddenly departs, never to return.
 How can he know that the friends he has left
 Are missing him and thinking of him?
 Only the things that he used remain:
 They look upon them and their tears flow.
 Me no magical arts can save,
 Though you may hope for a wizard's aid.
 I beg you listen to this advice—
 When you can get wine, be sure to drink it.

Shadow replies

There is no way to preserve life.
 Drugs of immortality are instruments of folly.
 I would gladly wander in Paradise,
 But it is far away and there is no road.
 Since the day that I was joined to you
 We have shared all our joys and pains.
 While you rested in the shade, I left you a while:
 But till the end we shall be together.
 Our joint existence is impermanent:
 Sadly together we shall slip away.
 That when the body decays fame should also go
 Is a thought unendurable, burning the heart.
 Let us strive and labour while yet we may
 To do some deed that men will praise.
 Wine may in truth dispel our sorrow,
 But how compare it with lasting fame?

Spirit Expounds

God can only set in motion:
 He cannot control the things he has made.
 Man, the second of the Three Orders,
 Owes his precedence to Me.
 Though I am different from you,
 We were born involved in one another:
 Nor by any means can we escape
 The intimate sharing of good and ill.

The three Emperors were saintly men,
 Yet to-day, where are they?
 P'êng¹ lived to a great age,
 Yet he went at last, when he longed to stay.
 And late or soon, all go:
 Wise and simple have no reprieve.
 Wine may bring forgetfulness,
 But does it not hasten old age?
 If you set your heart on noble deeds,
 How do you know that any will praise you?
 By all this thinking you do Me injury:
 You had better go where Fate leads—
 Drift on the Stream of Infinite Flux,
 Without joy, without fear:
 When you must go, then go,
 And make as little fuss as you can.

II

Moving House

My old desire to live in the southern village
 Was not because I had taken a fancy to the house,
 But I heard it was a place of simple-minded men
 With whom it were a joy to spend the mornings and evenings.
 Many years I had longed to settle here:
 Now at last I have managed to move house.
 I do not mind if my cottage is rather small
 So long as there's room enough for bed and mat.
 Often and often the neighbours come to see me,
 And with brave words discuss the things of old.
 Rare writings we read together and praise:
 Doubtful meanings we examine together and settle.

III

Reading the Book of Hills and Seas

In the month of June the grass grows high,
 And round my cottage the thick-leaved branches sway.
 There is not a bird but delights in the place where it rests:
 And I too love my thatched cottage.

¹ 彭祖, the Chinese Methuselah, who lived from 2255 B.C. to the seventh century B.C.

I have done my ploughing;
 I have sown my seed.
 Again I have time to sit and read my books.
 In the narrow lanes there are no deep ruts:
 Often my friends' carriages turn back.
 In high spirits I pour out my spring wine
 And pluck the lettuce growing in my garden.
 A gentle rain comes stealing up from the east,
 And a sweet wind bears it company.
 My thoughts float idly over the story of King Chou,
 My eyes wander over the pictures of hills and seas.
 At a single glance I survey the whole universe.
 He will never be happy whom such pleasures fail to please!

IV

New Corn

Swiftly the years, beyond recall.
 Solemn the stillness of this fair morning.
 I will clothe myself in spring clothing
 And visit the slopes of the eastern hill.
 By the mountain stream a mist hovers,
 Hovers a moment, then scatters,
 There comes a wind blowing from the south
 That brushes the fields of new corn.

Inviting Guests

I sent out invitations
 To summon guests.
 I collected together
 All my friends.
 Loud talk
 And simple feasting;
 Discussion of philosophy,
 Investigations of subtleties.
 Tongues loosened
 And minds at one.
 Hearts refreshed
 By discharge of emotion!

By Ch'eng-kung Sui 成公綏, third century A.D.

Climbing a Mountain

High rises the eastern peak
 Soaring up to the blue sky.
 Among the rocks, an empty hollow,
 Secret, still, mysterious!
 Uncarved and unhewn,
 Screened by nature with a roof of clouds.
 Times and seasons, what things are you,
 Bringing to my life ceaseless change?
 I will lodge forever in this hollow
 Where springs and autumns unheeded pass.

By Tao-yün 道韞 (c. 400 A.D.), wife of General Wang Ning-chih. The General was so stupid that she finally deserted him.

Tzū-yeh

Popular songs of Soochow, fourth century A.D.

I

At the time when blossoms
 Fall from the cherry-tree,
 On a day when yellow birds
 Hovered in the branches,
 You said you must stop,
 Because your horse was tired:
 I said I must go,
 Because my silkworms were hungry.

II

I have brought my pillow and am lying at the northern
 window,
 So come to me and play with me a while.
 With so much quarrelling and so few kisses
 How long do you think our love can last?

Plucking the Rushes

A boy and girl are sent to gather rushes for thatching
 Green rushes with red shoots,
 Long leaves bending to the wind—
 You and I in the same boat
 Plucking rushes at the Five Lakes.

We started at dawn from the orchid-island:
 We rested under the elms till noon.
 You and I plucking rushes
 Hadn't plucked a handful when night came!

Anon., fourth century.

Song of the Men of Chin-Ling

Marching back into the capital

Chiang-nan is a glorious and beautiful land,
 And Chin-ling an exalted and kingly province.
 The green canals of the city stretch on and on,
 And its high towers stretch up and up.
 Flying gables lean over the bridle-road;
 Drooping willows cover the Royal Aqueduct.
 Shrill flutes sing by the coach's awning,
 And reiterated drums bang near its painted wheels.
 The names of the deserving shall be carved on the Cloud
 Terrace,¹

And for those who have done valiantly rich reward awaits.

By Hsieh T'iao 謝朓, fifth century A.D.

The Scholar Recruit

Now late

I follow the time's necessity:²

Mounting a barricade I pacify remote tribes.

Discarding my sash I don a coat of rhinoceros-skin;

Rolling up my skirts I shoulder a black bow.

Even at the very start my strength fails:

What will become of me before it's all over?

By Pao Chao 鮑昭, died 466 A.D.

The Red Hills

Red hills lie athwart us as a menace in the west,

And fiery mountains glare terrible in the south.

The body burns, the head aches and throbs:

If a bird light here, its soul forthwith departs.

Warm springs

Pour from cloudy pools,

And hot smoke issues between the rocks.

¹ The Record Office.

² i.e. "enlist".

The sun and moon are perpetually obscured;
 The rain and dew never stay dry.
 There are red serpents a hundred feet long
 And black snakes ten girths round.
 The sand-spitters shoot their poison at the sunbeams:
 The flying insects are ill with the shifting glare.
 The hungry monkeys dare not come down to eat;
 The morning birds dare not set out to fly.
 At the Ching River many die of poison:
 Crossing the Lu one is lucky if one is only ill.
 Our living feet walk on dead ground;
 Our high wills surmount the snares of Fate.
 The Spear-boat General¹ got but little honour;
 The Wave-subduer² met with scant reward.
 If our Prince still grudges the things that are easy to give,³
 Can he hope that his soldiers will give what is hardest to give?⁴

By Pao Chao.

Lo-yang

A beautiful place is the town of Lo-yang:
 The big streets are full of spring-light.
 The lads go driving out with harps in their hands;
 The mulberry-girls go out to the fields with their baskets.
 Golden whips glint at the horses' flanks,
 Gauze sleeves brush the green boughs.
 Racing dawn, the carriages come home,
 And the girls with their high baskets full of fruit.

By the Emperor Ch'ien Wen-ti, sixth century.

The Waters of Lung-Tou (the North-West Frontier)

The road that I came by mounts eight thousand feet;
 The river that I crossed hangs a hundred fathoms.
 The brambles so thick that in summer one cannot pass;
 The snow so high that in winter one cannot climb.
 With branches that interlace Lung Valley is dark;
 Against cliffs that tower one's voice beats and echoes.
 I turn my head and it seems only a dream
 That I ever lived in the streets of Hsien-yang.⁵

By Hsü Ling 徐陵, 507-583 A.D.

¹ Hou Yen 侯嚴, first century B.C.

² Ma Yüan 馬援, first century A.D.

³ Rewards and titles.

⁴ Life.

⁵ 咸陽, i.e. Ch'ang-an, the capital.

THIRTY-EIGHT POEMS BY PO CHU-I 白居易

Translated by A. D. WALEY

OF these poems all but three are now translated for the first time. Versions of Nos. 8, 11, and 14 were published by Pfizmaier (*Denkschriften der Kais. Akad. d. Wissensch. in Wien*, vol. xxxvi), but they were so incorrect that I need make no apology for translating these three poems again.

I hope elsewhere to discuss the poet's life and works. Here I will only give the few dates and indications which are necessary as a preface to the poems.

He was born in 772, became a courtier at the capital, was exiled to the South in 815, owing to his persistent attacks on the Government, was recalled five years later, and rose to a foremost place in the State. In 822 he became Governor of Hangchow, and in 825 Governor of Soochow. He died in 846. At Court in the early days he had become acquainted with the handsome Yüan Chên. The friendship lasted till the latter's death in 831, and plays an important part in the poems.

I have unfortunately not had the assistance of an annotated edition. Recently I received from Japan a short selection of the poems, with a few head-notes, but these are singularly irrelevant. I have therefore had to supply my own commentary, rummaging for it in native dictionaries and encyclopædias.

NOTE ON THE METRE OF THE TRANSLATIONS

Any literal translation of Chinese poetry is bound to be to some extent rhythmical, for the rhythm of the original obtrudes itself. If one translates literally, without thinking about the metre of the version, one finds that about two lines out of three have a very definite swing, similar to that of the Chinese lines. The remaining lines are just too short or too long, a circumstance very irritating to the reader, whose ear expects the rhythm to continue. I have therefore tried to produce regular rhythmic effects similar to those of the original. Each character in the Chinese is represented by a stress in the English; but between the stresses unstressed syllables are of course interposed. I have not used rhyme, because it is impossible to produce in English rhyme effects at all similar to those of the original, where the

same rhyme sometimes runs through a whole poem. Also, because the restrictions of rhyme necessarily injure either the vigour of one's language or the literalness of one's version. I do not, at any rate, know of any example to the contrary. What is generally known as "blank verse" is the worst medium for translating Chinese poetry, because the essence of "blank verse" is that it varies the position of its pauses, whereas in Chinese the stop always comes at the end of the couplet.

As in the case of the pre-T'ang poems translated in another article, I have been greatly indebted to the intelligent assistance of Mr. Ting.

早朝賀雪。寄陳山人

1. **An Early Levée: addressed to Ch'ên, the Hermit (IX, 9)**
 At Ch'ang-an—a full foot of snow;
 A levée at dawn—to bestow congratulations on the Emperor.
 Just as I was nearing the Gate of the Silver Terrace,
 After I had left the suburb of Hsin-ch'ang,
 On the high causeway my horse's foot slipped;
 In the middle of the journey my lantern suddenly went out.
 Ten leagues riding, always facing to the north;
 The cold wind almost blew off my ears.
 I waited for the bell outside the Five Gates;
 I waited for the summons within the Triple Hall.
 My hair and beard were frozen and covered with icicles;
 My coat and robe—chilly like water.
 Suddenly I thought of Hsien-yu Valley
 And secretly envied Ch'ên Chü-shih,²
 Who in warm bed-socks dozes beneath the rugs
 And need not get up till the sun has mounted the sky.

禁中寓直夢遊仙遊寺

2. **Being on duty all night in the Palace and dreaming of the Hsien-yu Temple (V, 12)**
 At the western window I paused from writing rescripts;
 The pines and bamboos were all buried in stillness.
 The moon rose and a calm wind came;
 Suddenly, it was like an evening in the hills.

¹ These references are to *Po Shih Wen Chi* 白氏文集, "The Works of Mr. Po."

² Chü-shih 居士, i.e. retired scholar.

And so, as I dozed, I dreamed of the South-West
 And thought I was staying at the Hsien-yu Temple.¹
 When I woke and heard the dripping of the Palace clock
 I still thought it was the murmur of a mountain stream.

過天門街

3. Passing T'ien-mên Street in Ch'ang-an and seeing a distant
 view of Ch'ung-nan Mountain (XIII, 14)

The snow has gone from Chung-nan; spring is almost come.
 Lovely in the distance its blue colours, against the brown of
 the streets
 A thousand coaches, ten thousand horsemen pass down the Nine
 Roads.
 Turns his head and looks at the mountains—not one man!

初與元九別云云

4. The Letter (IX, 9)

*Preface.*²—After I parted with Yüan Chên I suddenly dreamt
 one night that I saw him. When I awoke I found that a letter
 from him had just arrived and, enclosed in it, a poem on the
paulownia flower.

We talked together in the Yung-shou Temple;
 We parted to the north of the Hsin-ch'ang dyke.
 Going home I shed a few tears
 Grieving about things, not sorry for you.
 Long, long the road to Lan-t'ien;
 You said yourself you would not be able to write.
 Reckoning up your halts for eating and sleeping—
 By this time, I suppose, you've crossed the Shang Mountains.
 Last night the clouds scattered away;
 A thousand leagues. the same moonlight scene.
 When dawn came I dreamt I saw your face;
 It must have been that you were thinking of me.
 In my dream I thought I held your hand
 And asked you to tell me what your thoughts were.

¹ 仙遊寺, where the poet used to spend his holidays.

² This is the 題 or "title" of the poem; but it is so long that we should be inclined to call it a preface rather than a title.

And *you* said, "I miss you bitterly,
 But there's no one here to send to you with a letter."
 When I awoke, before I had time to speak,
 A knocking on the door sounded "Doong, doong!"
 They came and told me a messenger from Shang-chou
 Had brought a letter, a single scroll from you!
 Up from my pillow I suddenly sprang out of bed
 And threw on my clothes, all topsy-turvy.
 I undid the knot and saw the letter within;
 A single sheet with thirteen lines of writing.
 At the top it told the sorrows of an exile's heart;
 At the bottom it described the pains of separation.
 The sorrows and pains took up so much space
 There was no room left to talk about the weather!
 But you said that when you wrote this letter to me
 You were staying for the night to the east of Shang-chou;
 Sitting alone, lighted by a solitary candle,
 Lodging in the mountain hostel of Yang Ch'eng.
 Night was late when you finished writing the letter;
 The mountain moon was slanting towards the west.
 Across the moon, what is it lies aslant?
 A single tree of purple *paulownia* flowers—
Paulownia flowers just on the point of falling
 Are a symbol to express "thinking of an absent friend".
 Lovingly you wrote on the back side,
 To send in the letter, your "Poem of the Paulownia Flower".
 The Poem of the Paulownia Flower has eight rhymes;
 Yet these eight couplets have cast a spell on my heart.
 They have taken hold of my this morning's thoughts
 And carried them to yours, the night you wrote your letter.
 The whole poem I read three times,
 Each verse ten times I recite.
 So precious to me are the fourscore words
 That each letter changes into a bar of gold!

[Yüan Chên had been "degraded" to Chiang-ling 江陵
 (modern, King-chow). Lan-t'ien 藍田 and Shang-chou 商州
 were places on the way from the capital (Ch'ang-an) to
 Chiang-ling in Hupeh. The Hsin-ch'ang suburb was south
 of Ch'ang-an.]

喜陳兄至

5. Rejoicing at the arrival of Ch'ên Hsiung (VI, 20)

(Circa 812 A.D.)

When the yellow bird's note was almost stopped,
 And half formed the green plum's fruit,
 Sitting and grieving that spring things were over
 I rose and entered the Eastern Garden's gate.
 I carried my cup and was dully drinking alone:
 Suddenly I heard a knocking sound at the door.
 Dwelling secluded, I was glad that some one had come;
 How much the more, when I saw it was Ch'ên Hsiung!
 At ease and leisure, all day we talked;
 Crowding and jostling, the feelings of many years.
 How great a thing is a single cup of wine!
 For it makes us tell the story of our whole lives.

金鑾子晬日¹

6. Golden Bells (IX, 7)

(Written in 812 A.D.)

When I was almost forty
 I had a daughter whose name was Golden Bells.
 Now it is just a year since she was born;
 She is learning to sit and cannot yet talk.
 Ashamed, to find that I have not a sage's heart:
 I cannot resist vulgar thoughts and feelings.
 Henceforward I am tied to things outside myself:
 My only reward, the pleasure I am getting now.
 If I am spared the grief of her dying young,
 Then I shall have the trouble of getting her married.
 That plan for retiring and going back to the hills
 Must now be postponed for fifteen years!

念金鑾子

7. Remembering Golden Bells (X, 8)

Ruined and ill, a man of two score;
 Pretty and guileless, a girl of three years.
 Not a boy, but still better than nothing:
 To soothe one's feelings, from time to time a kiss!

¹ First birthday.

There came a day, they suddenly took her from me;
 Her soul's shadow wandered I know not where.
 And when I remember how just at the time she died
 She lisped strange sounds, beginning to learn to talk,
Then I know that the ties of flesh and blood
 Only bind us to a load of grief and sorrow.
 At last, by thinking of the time before she was born,
 By thought and reason I drove the pain away.
 Since my heart forgot her, many days have passed
 And three times winter has changed to spring.
 This morning, for a little, the old grief came back,
 Because, in the road, I met her foster-nurse.

納粟詩

8. *The Grain-Tribute*¹ (I, 24)

[Written c. 812, during one of the poet's periods of retirement. When the officials come to receive his grain-tribute, he remembers that he is only giving back what he had taken during his years of office. Salaries were paid partly in kind.]

There came an officer knocking by night at my door,
 In a loud voice demanding grain-tribute.
 My house-servants dared not wait till the morning,
 But brought candles and set them on the barn-floor.
 Passed through the sieve, clean-washed as pearls,
 A whole cart-load, thirty bushels of grain.
 But still they cry that it is not paid in full:
 With whips and curses they goad my servants and boys.
 Once, in error, I entered public life;
 I am inwardly ashamed that my talents were not sufficient.
 In succession I occupied four official posts;
 For doing nothing—ten years' salary!
 Often have I heard a saying of ancient men
 That "Good and ill follow in an endless chain".
 And to day it ought to set my heart at rest
 To return to others the corn in my great barn.

¹ Cf. Pfizmaier, p. 10.

道州民

9. The People of Tao-chou¹ (III, 14)*(Written in 809 A.D.)*

In the land of Tao-chou
 Many of the people are dwarfs:
 The tallest of them never grow to more than three feet.
 They were sold in the market as dwarf slaves and yearly sent
 to Court;
 Described as "an offering of natural products from the land
 of Tao-chou".
 A strange "offering of natural products"; I never heard of
 one yet
 That parted men from those they loved, never to meet again!
 Old men—weeping for their grandsons; mothers for their
 children!
 One day Yang Ch'êng came to govern the land;
 He refused to send up dwarf slaves in spite of incessant
 mandates.
 He replied to the Emperor, "Your servant finds in the Six
 Canonical Books,
 'In offering products, one must offer what is there, and not
 what isn't there.'
 On the waters and lands of Tao-chou, among all the things
 that live
 I only find dwarfish people; no dwarfish slaves."
 The Emperor's heart was deeply moved and he sealed and
 sent a scroll,
 "The yearly tribute of dwarfish slaves is henceforth annulled."
 The people of Tao-chou,
 Old ones and young ones, how great their joy!
 Father with son and brother with brother henceforward kept
 together;
 From that day for evermore they lived as free men.

¹ See Yang Ch'êng, Giles 2363 and 2364. The poet blends the story of 楊成 (second century B.C.) with that of 陽城, died 805 A.D. In another poem Po Chü-i compares his friend Yüan Chên to Yang Ch'êng. Both had been degraded to provincial posts and both distinguished themselves by their clemency. There is little doubt that the present poem also refers to Yüan Chên.

The people of Tao-chou
 Still enjoy this gift,
 And even now when they speak of the Governor
 Tears start to their eyes.
 And lest their children and their children's children should
 forget the Governor's name,
 When boys are born the syllable "Yang" is often used in
 their forename.

廢琴詩

10. **The Old Harp** (I, 6)

Of cord and cassia-wood is the harp compounded:
 Within it lie ancient melodies.
 Ancient melodies—weak and savourless,
 Not appealing to present men's taste.
 Light and colour are faded from the jade stops:
 Dust has covered the rose-red strings.
 Decay and ruin came to it long ago,
 But the sound that is left is still cold and clear.
 I do not refuse to play it, if you want me to:
 But even if I play, people will not listen.
 * * * * *
 How did it come to be neglected so?
 Because of the Chi'ang flute and the Ch'in flageolet.¹

五絃

11. **The Harper of Chao**² (II, 8)

The singers have hushed their notes of clear song:
 The red sleeves of the dancers are motionless.
 Hugging his lute, the old harper of Chao
 Rocks and sways as he touches the five chords.
 The loud notes swell and scatter abroad:
 "Sa, sa," like wind blowing the rain.
 The soft notes dying almost to nothing:
 "Ch'ieh ch'ieh," like the voice of ghosts talking.
 Now as glad as the magpie's lucky song:
 Again bitter as the gibbon's ominous cry.

¹ Barbarous modern instruments.

² Cf. Pfizmaier, p. 35.

His ten fingers have no fixed note:
 Up and down—"kung," "chih," and "yii".¹
 And those who sit and listen to the tune he plays
 Of soul and body lose the mastery.
 And those who pass that way as he plays the tune,
 Suddenly stop and cannot raise their feet.

* * * * *

Alas, alas that the ears of common men
 Should love the modern and not love the old!
 Thus it is that the harp in the green window
 Day by day is covered deeper with dust.

縛戎人

12. The Prisoner (III, 18)

(Written in 809 A.D.)

Tartars² led in chains,
 Tartars led in chains!
 Their ears pierced, their faces bruised, they are driven into
 the land of Ch'in.³
 The Son of Heaven⁴ took pity on them and would not have
 them slain.
 He sent them away to the south-east, to the lands of Wu and
 Yüeh.⁵
 A petty officer in a yellow coat took down their names and
 surnames:
 They were led from the city of Ch'ang-an under escort of an
 armed guard.
 Their bodies were covered with the wounds of arrows, their
 bones stood out from their cheeks.

¹ Tonic, dominant, and superdominant of the five-note scale. 徵 should, I think, be pronounced "chih", not "chi". K'ang Hsi gives the pronunciation 陟里切知上聲. The first clause suggests "chi", but the second corrects this to "chih" in the rising tone. This is the current pronunciation. Giles gives "chi", Couvreur "tcheu", i.e. chih. Van Aalst also gives "chih".

² 戎人: in other parts of the poem the terms 虜, 蕃, and 吐蕃 are used. The Tibetan conquerors of E. Turkestan are meant. I have chosen the word Tartar for convenience.

³ i.e. Ch'ang-an, the capital.

⁴ The Emperor.

⁵ i.e. the districts of Soochow and Shao-hsing.

They had grown so weak they could only march a single stage a day.
 In the morning they must satisfy hunger and thirst with neither plate nor cup:
 At night they must lie in their dirt and rags on beds that stank with filth.
 Suddenly they came to the banks of the Kiang and remembered the Chiao-ho:¹
 With lowered hands and levelled voices they sobbed a muffled song.
 Then one Tartar lifted up his voice and spoke to the other Tartars,
 "Your sorrows are none at all compared with *my* sorrows."
 Those that were with him in the same band asked to hear his tale:
 As he tried to speak the words were choked by the anger that blazed in his heart.
 He told them: "I was born and bred in the town of Liang-yüan.²
 In the frontier wars of Ta-li³ I fell into the Tartars' hands.
 Since the day the Tartars took me alive forty years have passed:
 They put me into a coat of skins tied with a belt of rope.
 Only on the first of the first month might I put on my Chinese dress.
 As I put on my coat and arranged my cap, how fast the tears flowed!
 I made in my heart a secret vow I would find a way home:
 I hid my plan from my Tartar wife and the children she had borne me in the land.
 I thought to myself, it is well for me that my limbs are still strong:
 And yet, being old, in my heart I feared I should never live to return.

¹ 交河, "The Junction of Rivers," the ruins of which town stand near Turfan, at the modern village of Yarkhoto (for photos see Stein, *Desert Cities of Cathay*). During the previous century Chiao-ho-ch'êng had been the headquarters of the Chinese military protectorate of E. Turkestan; but at the time when this poem was written the whole Tarim basin and even parts of the Chinese provinces Kansuh and Shansi were occupied by the T'u-fan 吐蕃 (Tibetans).

² 凉 or 梁原, north of Ch'ang-an, near Chung-pu 中郿.

³ The period Ta-li, 766-780 A. D.

The Tartar chieftains shoot so well that the birds are afraid
to fly:
From the risk of their arrows I escaped alive and fled
swiftly home.
Hiding all day and walking all night, I crossed the Great
Desert:¹
Where clouds are dark and the moon black and the sands
eddy in the wind.
Frightened I sheltered at the Green Grave,² where the frozen
grasses are few:
Stealthily I crossed the Yellow River, at night, on the thin ice.
Suddenly I heard Han³ drums and the sound of soldiers
coming:
I went to meet them at the roadside, bowing to them as
they came.
But the moving horsemen did not hear that I spoke the Han
tongue:
Their captain took me for a Tartar-born and had me bound
in chains.
They are sending me away to the south-east, to a low and
swampy land:
No one now will take pity on me; resistance is all in vain.
Thinking of this, my voice chokes and I ask of Heaven above,
Was I spared from death only to spend the rest of my years
in sorrow?
My native village of Liang-yüan I shall not see again:
My wife and children in the Tartars' land I have fruitlessly
deserted.

¹ The Gobi Desert.

² 青塚. The Grave of Chao-chün 昭君, a Chinese girl who in 33 B.C. was "bestowed upon the Khan of the Hsiung-nu as a mark of Imperial regard" (Giles). Hers was the only grave in this desolate district on which grass would grow. One tradition places it near Ta-t'ung Fu on the north frontier of Shansi: according to another story she was buried on the banks of the Amur, in Manchuria. But our poet evidently thinks of her grave as being on the western frontier, for if the fugitive had been coming into China from the north he would not have crossed the Yellow River. According to a poem by Li Po, Chao-chün was carried off to Khotan 于闐. I fancy Po Chü-i's geographical conceptions were rather vague. Several of his poems deal with this story, e.g. "The Green Grave" and "Chao-chün's Village". There is a Nō play on the subject by Komparu Ujinobu (1313-1401), see *Yōkyoku Hyōshaku*, ix, 63.

³ i.e. Chinese.

When I fell among Tartars and was taken prisoner, I pined
 for the land of Han:
 Now that I am back in the land of Han, they have turned
 me into a Tartar.
 Had I but known what my fate would be, I would not have
 started home!
 For the two lands, so wide apart, are alike in the sorrow
 they bring.
 Tartar prisoners in chains!
 Of all the sorrows of all the prisoners mine is hardest to bear!
 Never in the world has so great a wrong befallen the lot of
 man—
 A Han heart and a Han tongue set in the body of a Turk.”¹

夢仙詩

13. The Man who Dreamed of Fairies (I, 4)

[This poem is an attack on the Emperor Hsien-tsung, 806-20 A.D., who 好神仙 “was devoted to magic”. A Taoist wizard told him that herbs of longevity grew near the city of T'ai-chou. The Emperor at once appointed him prefect of the place, “pour lui permettre d'herboriser plus à son aise” (Wieger, *Textes*, iii, 1723). When the censors protested, the Emperor replied, “The ruin of a single district would be a small price to pay, if it could procure longevity for the Lord of Men.”]

There was once a man who dreamt he went to Heaven:
 His dream-body soared aloft through space.
 He rode on the back of a white-plumed crane,
 And was led on his flight by two crimson banners.
 Whirring of wings and flapping of coat-tails!
 Jade bells² suddenly all a-tinkle!
 Half-way to Heaven, he looked down beneath him,
 Down on the dark turmoil of the world.
 Gradually he lost the place of his native town:
 Mountains and water—nothing else distinct.

¹ I use the word Turk as a translation for 吐蕃 simply for convenience and do not commit myself to any ethnological theory. The Japanese commentator writes, “Just now (1895) I regret to say that a European heart and tongue in the body of a Japanese is no uncommon sight.”

² Read 鑾.

The Eastern Ocean—a single strip of white;
 The hills of China—five specks of green.
 Gliding past him a host of fairies swept
 In long procession to the Palace of the Jade City.
 How should he guess that the children of Tzū-mên¹
 Bow to the throne like courtiers of earthly kings?
 They take him to the presence of the mighty Jade Emperor:
 He bows his head and proffers loyal homage.
 The Emperor says: “We see you have fairy talents:
 Be of good heart and do not slight yourself.
 We shall send to fetch you in fifteen years,
 And give you a place in the Courtyard of Immortality.”
 Twice bowing, he acknowledged the gracious words;
 Then woke from sleep, full of wonder and joy.
 He hid his secret and dared not tell it abroad,
 But vowed a vow he would live in a cave of rock.
 From love and affection he severed kith and kin.
 From his eating and drinking he omitted savoury and spice.
 His morning meal was a dish of coral-dust;
 At night he sipped an essence of dewy mists.
 In the empty mountains he lived for thirty years
 Daily watching for the heavenly Coach to come.
 The time of appointment was already long past,
 But of wings and coach-bells—still no sound.
 His teeth and hair daily withered and decayed;
 His ears and eyes gradually lost their keenness.
 One morning he suffered the Common Change,
 And his body was one with the dust and dirt of the hill.
 Gods and fairies! If indeed such things there be,
 Their ways are beyond the striving of mortal men.
 If you have not on your skull the Golden Bump’s protrusion,
 If your name is absent from the rolls of the red Terrace,
 In vain you learn the “Method of Avoiding Food”;
 For nought you study the Book of Alchemic Lore.
 Though you sweat and toil, what shall your trouble bring?
 You will only shorten the five-score years of your span.
 Sad, alas, the man who dreamt of fairies!
 For a single dream misled his whole life.

¹ i.e. the Immortals.

兩朱閣

14. The Two Red Towers (IV, 3)

(A Satire against Clericalism, c. 809 A.D.; cf. Pfizmaier, p. 50)

The Two Red Towers
 North and south rise facing each other.
 I beg to ask, to whom do they belong?
 To the two Princes of the period Chēng Yüan.¹
 The two Princes blew on their flutes and drew down fairies
 from the sky,
 Who carried them off through the Five Clouds, soaring away
 to Heaven.
 Their halls and houses, towers and pavilions they could not
 take with them;
 So these were turned into Buddhist temples, planted in the
 world of men.
 In the tiring-rooms and dancers' towers all is silent and still;
 Only the willows like dancers' arms, and the pond like
 a mirror,
 When the flowers are falling at yellow twilight, when things
 are sad and hushed,
 One does not hear songs and flutes, but only chimes and bells.
 The Imperial Patent on the Temple doors is written in letters
 of gold;
 For nuns' quarters and monks' cells ample space is allowed.
 For green moss and bright moonlight—plenty of room provided;
 In a hovel opposite is a sick man who has hardly room to
 lie down!
 I remember once, when at P'ing-yang² they were building
 a great man's house,
 How it swallowed up the housing space of thousands of
 ordinary men.
 The Immortals³ are leaving us, two by two, and their houses
 are turned into temples;
 I begin to fear that the whole world will become a vast
 convent!

¹ 785-805 A.D.

² In Shansi. Perhaps the place-name is here used to mean a person, as we might say "Cambridge" meaning the Duke of Cambridge. It is such points as this that an annotated edition would elucidate.

³ Hsien Tsung's brothers?

新豐折臂翁

15. The Old Man with the Broken Arm (III, 10)

(A Satire on Militarism, c. 809 A.D.)

At Hsin-fēng¹ an old man—four score and eight;
 The hair on his head and the hair of his eyebrows—white as
 the new snow.
 Leaning on the shoulders of his great-grandchildren, he walks
 in front of the inn;
 With his left arm he leans on their shoulders; his right arm
 is broken.
 I asked the old man how many years had passed since he
 broke his arm;
 I also asked the cause of the injury, how and why it
 happened.
 The old man said he was born and reared in the District of
 Hsin-fēng;
 At the time of his birth—a wise reign; no wars or discords.
 “Often I listened in the Pear-tree Garden to the sound of flute
 and song;
 Nought I knew of banner and lance; nothing of arrow or bow,
 Then came the wars of T'ien-pao² and the great levy of men;
 Of three men in each house, one man was taken.
 And those to whom the lot fell, where were they taken to?
 Five months' journey, a thousand miles—away to Yün-nan.
 We heard it said that in Yün-nan there flows the Lu River;
 As the flowers fall from the pepper-trees, poisonous vapours rise.
 When the great army waded across, the water seethed like
 a cauldron;
 When barely ten had entered the water, two or three were
 dead.
 To the north of my village, to the south of my village the
 sound of weeping and wailing;
 Children parting from fathers and mothers; husbands parting
 from wives.
 Every one says that in expeditions against the Min tribes,
 Of a million men who are sent out, not one returns.

¹ 新豐 in Shensi, near Lin-t'ung.² 742-755 A.D.

At this time I, that am now old, was aged twenty-four,
My name and fore-name were written down in the rolls of
the Board of War.

In the depth of night, not daring to let any one know,
I secretly took a huge stone and dashed it against my arm.
For drawing the bow and waving the banner now wholly
unfit;

I knew henceforward I should not be sent to fight in
Yün-nan.

Bones broken and sinews wounded could not fail to hurt;
I was ready enough to bear pain if only I got back home.
My arm—broken ever since; it was sixty years ago.
One limb although destroyed—whole body safe!
But even now on winter nights, when the wind and rain blow
From evening on till day's dawn, I cannot sleep for pain.

Not sleeping for pain
Is a small thing to bear,

Compared with the joy of being alive when all the rest are
dead.

For otherwise, years ago, at the ford of Lu River
My body would have died and my soul hovered by the bones
that no one gathered.

A ghost, I'd have wandered in Yün-nan, always looking for
home,

Over the graves of ten thousand soldiers, mournfully hovering."

So the old man spoke,

And I bid you listen to his words.

Have you not heard

That the Prime Minister of K'ai-yüan,¹ Sung K'ai-fu,²
Did not reward frontier exploits, lest a spirit of aggression
should prevail?

And have you not heard

That the Prime Minister of T'ien-Pao, Yang Kuo-chung³
Desiring to win imperial favour, started a frontier war?
But long before he could win the war people had lost their
temper;

Ask the man with the broken arm in the village of Hsin-fêng.

¹ 713-742.

² Sung Ching 宋璟.

³ Cousin of the notorious mistress of Ming-huang, Yang Kuei-fei.

Note on the Satires

Fêng Pan (eighteenth century) says: "Po's satires are open and direct and therefore move the reader deeply. His predecessors had always disguised their meaning so as to convey a suitable warning without running any risks themselves. Po, on the other hand, is perfectly explicit, and the excellence of his satires lies in their very directness. It is impossible to read them without being stirred."

The three following poems (Nos. 16, 17, and 18) were written on the poet's journey to his place of exile.

白口阻風十日

16. **Kept waiting in the boat at Chiu K'ou ten days by an adverse wind** (XV, 21)

White billows and huge waves block the river crossing;
Wherever I go, danger and difficulty; whatever I do, failure.
Just as in my worldly career I wander and lose the road,
So when I come to the river-crossing I am stopped by contrary winds.

Of fishes and prawns sodden in the rain the smell fills my nostrils;
With the stings of insects that come with the fog, my whole body is sore.

I am growing old, time flies, and my short span runs out,
While I sit in a boat at Chiu K'ou, wasting ten days!

舟中讀元九詩

17. **On Board Ship: Reading Yüan Chên's Poems** (XV, 22)

I take your poems in my hand and read them beside the candle;
The poems are finished: the candle is low; dawn not yet come.
With sore eyes by the guttering candle still I sit in the dark,
To the sound of waves that strike the ship driven by a head-wind.

望江州及初到江州二首

18. **Arriving at Hsün-yang** (XV, 27)

(Two Poems)

I

A bend of the river brings into view two triumphal arches;
That is the gate in the western wall of the suburbs of Hsün-yang.
I have still to travel in my solitary boat three or four leagues—
By misty waters and rainy sands, while the yellow dust thickens.

II

We are almost come to Hsün-yang: how my thoughts are stirred
 As we pass to the south of Yü Liang's¹ tower and the east of
 P'ên port.
 The forest trees are leafless and withered—after the mountain
 rain;
 The houses of men are low hidden among the river mists.
 The horses, fed on *ku-chiang*,² are too weak to carry their load;
 The cottages, built of thatch and wattle, let the wind blow on
 one's bed,
 In the distance I see red-wheeled coaches driving from the town-
 gate;
 They have taken the trouble, these civil people, to meet their
 new Prefect!

山中獨吟

19. Singing in the Mountains (VII, 20)

There is no one among men that has not a special failing:
 And my failing consists in writing verses.
 I have broken away from the thousand ties of life,
 But this infirmity still remains behind.
 Each time that I look at a fine landscape,
 Each time that I meet a loved friend,
 I raise my voice and recite a stanza of poetry,
 And am glad as though a god had crossed my path.
 Ever since the day I was banished to Hsün-yang,
 Half my time I have lived among the hills.
 And often, when I have finished a new poem,
 Alone I climb the road to the Eastern Rock.
 I lean my body on the banks of white stone;
 I pull down with my hands a green cassia branch.
 My mad singing startles the hills and valleys:
 The apes and birds all come to peep.
 Fearing to become a laughing-stock to the world,
 I choose a place that is unfrequented by men.

¹ Died 340 A.D. (Giles 2526).

² 菰蔣, "a species of aquatic grass" (Giles).

贈寫真者

20. To a Portrait Painter who desired him to sit (XVII, 10)

You, so bravely splashing reds and blues!
 Just when *I* am getting wrinkled and old.
 Why should you waste the moments of inspiration
 Tracing the withered limbs of a sick man?
 Tall, tall is the Palace of the Unicorn,¹
 But my deeds have not been frescoed on its walls.
 Minutely limned on a foot of painting silk—
 What can I do with a portrait such as *that*?

自江州至忠州

21. On being removed from Hsün-yang (XI, 2)

And sent to Chung-chou, a remote place in the mountains of Pa 巴
 (Szech'uan)

Before this, when I was stationed at Hsün-yang,
 Already I regretted the fewness of friends and guests.
 Suddenly, suddenly, bearing a stricken heart
 I left the gates, with nothing to comfort me.
 Henceforward, relegated to deep seclusion
 In a bottomless gorge, flanked by precipitous mountains.
 Five months on end the passage of boats is stopped
 By the piled billows that toss and leap like colts.
 The inhabitants of Pa resemble wild apes;
 Fierce and lusty, they fill the mountains and prairies.
 Among such as these I cannot hope for friends,
 And am pleased with anyone who is even remotely human!

截樹

22. Pruning Trees (VII, 14)

Trees growing—right in front of my window;
 The trees are high and the leaves grow thick.
 Sad, alas! the distant mountain view,
 Obscured by this, dimly shows between.
 One morning I took knife and axe;
 With my own hand I lopped the branches off.

¹ 麒麟閣, one of the "Record Offices" of the T'ang dynasty, where meritorious deeds were illustrated on the walls.

Ten thousand leaves fell about my head;
 A thousand hills came before my eyes.
 Suddenly, as when clouds or mist break
 And straight through, the blue sky appears;
 Again, like the face of a friend one has loved
 Seen at last after an age of parting.
 First there came a gentle wind blowing;
 One by one the birds flew back to the tree.
 To ease my mind I gazed to the south-east;
 As my eye wandered, my thoughts went far away.
 Of men there is none that has not some preference;
 Of things there is none but mixes good with ill.
 It was not that I did not love the tender branches;
 But better still, to see the green hills!

病中友人相訪

23. **Being visited by a friend during illness (X, 12)**

I have been ill so long that I do not count the days;
 At the southern window, evening—and again evening.
 Sadly chirping in the grasses under my eaves
 The winter sparrows morning and evening sing.
 By an effort I rise and lean heavily on my bed;
 Tottering I step towards the door of the courtyard.
 By chance I meet a friend who is coming to see me;
 As though I had risen specially to greet him.
 They took my couch and placed it in the setting sun;
 They spread my rug and I leaned on the balcony-pillar.
 Tranquil talk was better than any medicine;
 Gradually I perceived that my spirits were coming back.

夜泊旅望

24. **On the way to Hangchow: Anchored on the River at Night (XX, 5)**

Little sleeping and much grieving, the traveller
 Rises at midnight and looks back towards home.
 The sands are bright with moonlight that joins the shores;
 The sail is white with dew that has covered the boat.
 Nearing the sea, the river grows broader and broader:
 Approaching autumn, the nights longer and longer.
 Thirty times we have slept amid mists and waves,
 And still we have not reached Hang-chow!

路上寄銀匙與阿龜

25. **The Silver Spoon** (XX, 3)

(While on the road to his new province, Hang-chow, in 822, he sends a silver spoon to his daughter A-kuei, whom he had been obliged to leave behind with her nurse, old Mrs. Ts'ao.)

To distant service my heart is well accustomed;
 When I left home, it wasn't *that* which was difficult.
 But because I had to leave Miss Kuei at home—
 For this it was that tears filled my eyes.
 Little girls ought to be daintily fed:
 Mrs. Ts'ao, please see to this!
 That's why I've packed and sent a silver spoon;
 You will think of me and eat up your food nicely!

26. **The Big Rug**¹

That so many of the poor should suffer from cold
 what can we do to prevent?
 To bring warmth to a single body
 is not much use.
 I wish I had a big rug
 ten thousand feet long,
 Which at one time could cover up
 every inch of the city.

飲後夜醒

27. **After getting drunk, becoming sober in the night** (XX, 19)

Our party scattered at yellow dusk and I came home to bed;
 I woke at midnight and went for a walk, leaning heavily on
 a friend.
 As I lay on my pillow my vinous complexion, soothed by sleep,
 grew sober.
 In front of the tower the ocean moon, accompanying the tide,
 had risen;
 The swallows, about to return to the beams, went back to roost
 again;

¹ I cannot find this poem in the "Works"; it is possible, therefore, that it is not genuine. The same idea is expressed in a less concise form in three authentic poems.

The candle at my window, just going out, suddenly renewed
its light.

All the time till dawn came, still my thoughts were muddled;
And in my ears something sounded like the music of flutes and
strings.

題文集櫃

28. On a Box containing his own Works (LXIII, 9)

I break up cypress and make a book-box;
The box well-made, and the cypress-wood tough.
In it shall be kept what author's works?
The inscription says PO LO-T'YEN.¹
All my life has been spent in writing books,
From when I was young, till now that I am old.
First and last—seventy whole volumes;
Big and little—three thousand themes.²
Well I know in the end they'll be scattered and lost;
But I cannot bear to see them thrown away.
With my own hand I open and shut the locks,
And put it carefully in front of the book-curtain.
I am like T'eng Pai-tao;³
But to-day there is not any Wang Ts'an.⁴
All I can do is to divide them among my daughters
To be left by them to give to my grandchildren.

耳順吟

29. On being Sixty (LI, 23)

(Addressed to Liu M'eng-te (Giles, 1379), who had asked for a poem.
He was the same age as Po Chü-i.)

Between the ages of thirty and forty, one is distracted by the
Five Lusts;
Between the ages of seventy and eighty, one is a prey to
a hundred diseases.
But from fifty years to sixty years one is free from all ills;
Quiet and peaceful, calm and still—the heart enjoys rest.

¹ 樂天, Po Chü-i's other name.

² i.e. separate poems, essays, etc.

³ Who was obliged to abandon his only child on the roadside. See T'eng Yu
Giles, 1907.

⁴ Giles, 2235. Is the reference to Wang's famous poem, 七哀?

I have put behind me Love and Greed; I have done with
 Profit and Fame;
 I am still short of illness and decay and far from decrepit age;
Strength of limb I still possess to seek the rivers and hills;
 Still my heart has spirit enough to listen to flutes and strings.
 At leisure I open new wine and taste several cups;
 Drunken I recall old poems and sing a whole volume.
 Mêng-tê has asked for a poem, and herewith I exhort him
 Not to complain of three-score, "the time of obedient ears."¹

登觀音臺望城

30. Climbing the Terrace of Kuan-yin and looking at the
 City (LV, 6)

Hundreds of houses, thousands of houses—like a chess-board.
 The twelve streets like a field planted with rows of cabbage.
 In the distance perceptible, dim, dim—the fire of approaching
 dawn;
 And a single row of stars lying to the west of the Five Gates.

登靈應臺比望

31. Climbing the Ling Ying Terrace and looking North (LV, 6)

Mounting on high I begin to realize the smallness of Man's
 Domain;
 Gazing into distance I begin to know the vanity of the Carnal
 World.
 I turn my head and hurry home—back to the Court and Market,
 A single grain of rice falling—into the Great Barn.

山遊示小妓

32. Going to the Mountains with a little Dancing-girl aged 15
 (LXII, 9)

*(Written when he was about 65. The girl was probably the famous
 Fan-su 樊素, whom the poet subsequently took into his service.)*

Two top-knots not yet plaited into one.
 Of thirty years—just beyond half.
 You who are really a lady of silks and satins
 Are now become my hill- and stream-companion!

¹ Confucius said that it was not till *sixty* that "his ears obeyed him". This age was therefore called "the time of obedient ears". 耳順年.

At the spring fountains together we splash and play,
 On the lovely trees together we climb and sport.
 Her cheeks grow rosy as she quickens her sleeve-dancing;
 Her brow grows sad as she slows her song's tune.
 Don't go singing the Song of the Willow Branches,¹
 When there's no one here with a heart for you to break!

夢 徵 之²

33. Dreaming of Yüan Chên (LXVIII, 13)

(This was written eight years after Yüan Chên's death, when Po Chü-i was 68.)

At night you came and took my hand and we wandered together
 in my dream;
 When I woke in the morning there was no one to stop the
 tears that fell on my handkerchief.
 On the banks of the Ch'ang my aged body three times³ has
 passed through sickness;
 At Hsien-yang⁴ to the grasses on your grave eight times has
 autumn come.
 You lie buried beneath the springs and your bones are mingled
 with the clay.
 I—lodging in the world of men; my hair white as snow.
 A-wei and Han-lang both followed in their turn;
 [Affectionate names of Li Piao-chih and Ts'ui Hui-shu.]
 Among the shadows of the Terrace of Night did you know
 them or not?

夢 上 山

34. A Dream of Mountaineering (LXIX, 13)

(Written when he was over 70.)

At night, in my dream, I stoutly climbed a mountain,
 Going out alone with my staff of holly-wood.
 A thousand crags, a hundred hundred valleys—
 In my dream-journey none were unexplored,
 And all the while my feet never grew tired,
 And my step was as strong as in my young days.

¹ A plaintive love-song (see *Yo Fu Shih Chi* 樂府詩集, ch. lxxxi), to which Po Chü-i had himself written words.

² Wei-chih, Yüan Chên's other name.

³ Since you died.

⁴ 咸陽, near Ch'ang-an, modern Si-ngan-fu.

Can it be that when the mind travels backward,
 The body also returns to its old state?
 And can it be, as between body and soul,
 That the body may languish, while the soul is still strong?
 Soul and body—both are vanities;
 Dreaming and waking—both alike unreal.
 In the day my feet are palsied and tottering;
 In the night my steps go striding over the hills.
 As day and night are divided in equal parts,
 Between the two I *get* as much as I *lose*.

即事重題

35. (*Congratulating himself on the comforts of his life after his retirement from office. Written c. 844?*) LXV, 19

Lined coat, warm cap, and easy felt slippers,
 In the little tower, at the low window, sitting over the sunken
 brazier.

Body at rest, heart at peace; no need to rise early.
 I wonder if the courtiers at the Western Capital know of
 these things, or not?

聞歌者唱微之詩

36. **On hearing someone sing a poem by Yüan Chên** (LXIV, 10)

(*Written long after Yüan Chên's death.*)

No new poems his brush will trace:
 Even his fame is dead.
 His old poems are deep in dust
 At the bottom of boxes and cupboards.
 Once lately, when someone was singing,
 Suddenly I heard a verse—
 Before I had time to catch the words
 A pain had stabbed my heart.

客有說

37. **Taoism and Buddhism** (LXIX, 31)

(*Written soon before he died.*)

A traveller came across the seas
 Telling of strange sights.
 "In a deep fold of the sea-hills
 I saw a terrace and tower.

In the midst there stood a fairy temple
 With one niche empty.
 They all told me this was waiting
 For Lo-t'ien to come."

Traveller, I have studied the Empty Gate;¹
 I am no disciple of fairies.
 The story you have just told
 Is nothing but an idle tale.
 The hills of ocean shall never be
 Lo-t'ien's home.
 When I leave the earth it will be to go
 To the Heaven of Bliss Fulfilled.²

自詠老身示諸家屬

38. Last Poem (LXXI, 13)

They have put my bed beside the unpainted screen;
 They have shifted my stove in front of the blue curtain.
 I listen to my grandchildren, who are reading me a book;
 I watch the servants, who are eating up my soup.
 I busy my pencil, answering the poems of friends;
 I feel in my pockets and pull out the medicine money.
 When this superintendence of trifling affairs is done,
 I lie back on my pillows and sleep with my face to the south.

¹ 空門, i.e. Buddhism. The poem is quite frivolous, as is shown by his claim to Bodhisattvahood.

² The "tushita" Heaven, 兜率天, where Bodhisattvas wait till it is time for them to appear as Buddhas.

THE PHONETICS OF THE BENGALI LANGUAGE

By J. D. ANDERSON, M.A.

ALPHABET, varṇa-mālā, *ḅarṇo-mala*, বর্ণ-মালা।

1. Vowels, svar-varṇa, *ḅar-barṇo*, স্বর-বর্ণ।

In Bengali, as in most Indian languages, every consonant, unless some other vowel is written with it, is pronounced with an *unwritten* "inherent" vowel, = a.

In Bengali this vowel is pronounced, not as usually a, but as ɔ.

The vowels, like the consonants, are theoretically supposed to be pronounced in the five parts of the mouth, thus: (1) throat, kaṅṭha, *kaṅṭho*, কণ্ঠ; (2) palate, tālu, *talū*, তালু; (3) cerebrum, mūrddhā, *murdāha*, মূর্ধা; (4) teeth, danta, *ḅanto*, দন্ত; (5) lips, oṣṭha, *oṣṭho*, ওষ্ঠ.

They are also divided into (1) *braṣva*, *brāṣṭo*, ব্রহ্ম = *short* vowels; (2) *dirgha*, *dirgho*, দীর্ঘ = *long* vowels.

Hence, theoretically, there are ten pure vowels. Those in parenthesis are not used in Bengali.

(1) Kanṭhya, <i>kaṅṭho</i>	^{short} a, ɔ, অ	ā, ā, আ
(2) Tālavya, <i>talobbo</i>	i, i, ই	ī, ī, ই
(3) Mūrddhanya, <i>murdhāno</i> r, <i>ri</i> , ঋ	(ṛ), <i>ri</i> , ॠ	
(4) Dantya, <i>ḅanto</i>	(l), <i>li</i> , ए	(ī), <i>li</i> , ऐ
(5) Oṣṭhya, <i>oṣṭho</i>	u, u, উ	ū, u, ঊ

There are four diphthongs: (1) a + i = e, (2) ā + i = ai, (3) a + u = o, (4) ā + u = au.

But these are not, as in other Indian languages, pronounced as e, ai, o, and au, but as ɔ, ɔi, o, and oʌ. Their symbols are এ, ঐ, ও, and ঔ.

There are, however, other vowel sounds than those given above. These are due to the influence of Sanskrit compound consonants which have undergone phonetic decay in passing through Prākṛt.

Thus kṣa ক্ষ became khya and finally kkha; y and v compounded with a preceding consonant became mute, and either (1) *lengthened* the sound of that consonant (if initial), or (2) *doubled* its sound (if medial).

These affect (1) the sound of *subsequent* a or ā.

(2) „ *precedent* a or ā.

Examples :—

(1) As affecting a : kṣaṇ = *kh.jən*, kṣatri = *kh:etri*, kṣamā = *khema*, kṣati = *kheti*, vyay = *b:e:*, vyathā = *b:etha*, vyavahār = *b:ebahar*, vyakti = *b:ekti*, vyasta = *b:esto*, nyasta = *n:esto*.

As affecting ā : kṣālan = *kh:ælən*, kṣānta = *kh:ænto*, khyāta = *kh:æto*, vyākaraṇ = *b:ækərən*, nyāy'ya = *n:ædzdzo*, śyāmal = *ʃæmol*, tyāg = *tæg*, vyāpār = *b:æpar*.

(2) As affecting a : akṣi = *ɔ'kkhi*, akṣar = *ɔ'kkhər*, kalya = *kɔ'λλo*, adya = *ɔ'ddo*, satya = *ʃɔ'tto*, satva = *ʃ:ɔtto*, tatva = *tɔ'tto*, lakṣmī = *lɔ'kkhi:*. (A privative is not thus affected.)

As affecting ā : sāksī = *ʃækkhi:*, mānya = *mænnno*, bhāgya = *bhægggo*, kāry'ya = *kærdzdzo*, tyāy'ya = *t:ædzdzo*, bādhyā = *bæddho*.

There are, therefore, besides the seven conventional pure vowels, the vowel æ, represented by -ā or by ā followed by a consonant compounded with ṣ or y; and the vowel e, similarly produced by contact of a with compound consonants.

Besides the conventional four diphthongs there are (1) *ɔ'*, produced as above, and also by epenthesis, as when *ati*, normally *ɔti*, becomes *ɔ'ti*; (2) *a'*, produced by epenthesis, e.g. *āji* = *aɪdz*, *kāli* = *kaɪl*, *gāli* = *gaɪl*, *śāli* = *ʃaɪl*, *āli* = *aɪl*.

In certain words the *sahaj* or normal pronunciation of e becomes vi-kṛta or “distorted”. Thus *y'ena* = *dzeno*, *kena* = *keno*, *y'eman* = *dzemən*, *teman* = *temən*, *eta* = *eto*.

The vowels, when not initial, are written as follows (I give combinations with the letter k = क): क = ka, कः = kâ, क् = kɪ, कौ = kî, कू = ku, कूं = kû, कृ = kr, के = ke, कै = kai, को = ko, कौ = kau.

Theoretically i = ɪ. But in initial and final syllables it often becomes *i* or even *i:*: e.g. *śiva* = *ʃi:b*, *pitā* = *pita*, *dite* = *dite*, *nite* = *nite*. But *nilām* = *nɪlam*, *niba* = *nɪbo*, *dilām* = *dɪlam*.

Final i is often *i*, especially the i of emphasis: e.g. *tmi-i*, *poti*, *gele-i*.

So ɾ varies between *rɪ* and *ri*, the latter chiefly in monosyllables such as *trɪṇ* = *trɪṇ*.

When final a is not mute (as to rule for which see Wenger) it frequently becomes not *ɔ* but *o*, especially in the last syllable of disyllabic adjectives such as *bhāla* = *bhalo*, *choṭa* = *tʃhoṭo*, *bara* = *bəro*.

Before giving the normal pronunciation of the vowels

I had better set out the consonants, so as to be able to quote complete words. The consonants, like the vowels, are classified as (1) guttural, (2) palatal, (3) cerebral, (4) dental, and (5) labial (see table, p. 82).

° over a vowel is called a candra-vindu, *tfandra-bindu*, and nasalizes it. It is the exact equivalent of ~.

ṅ = ṁ after a vowel is called anu-nāsikā, "following nasal," and is pronounced as ŋ : e.g. সংযোগ = *soṅdzog*.

ḥ = h after a vowel is called vi-sarga, "cessation." It is a substitute, under Sanskrit phonetic theory, for final r and s. When final it is sounded as a sharp pause. When medial it doubles the sound of the following consonant.

Thus :
 dur + kha = দুঃখ = *dukkha*.
 nir + sār = নিঃসার = *niffar*.
 nir + sṛta = নিঃসৃত = *nissrīto*.
 nir + śvās = নিঃশ্বাস = *niffaf*.
 nir + śabda = নিঃশব্দ = *niffobdo*.
 dur + stha = দুঃস্থ = *dusthā*.
 dur + sādhya = দুঃসাধ্য = *duffaddhā*, etc.

We can now return to the normal sounds of the vowels.

(1) a. Normal (sahaj) pronunciation = a.

e.g. অবশ্য = *avaśya* = *abō'ffo*.

অগ্র = *agra* = *ogro*.

পত্নী = *patnī* = *potni*.

Final a is often pronounced o, as mentioned above, and sometimes also in an initial syllable, e.g. বলিতে = *bol'te*.

(2) ā. Normal (sahaj) sound is a.

Examples : আকার = *a'kar*, আঘাত = *a:farh*, প্রাণ = *pra:n*. The vi-kṛta pronunciation has been given above.

(3) i. Normal (sahaj) sound is i.

Examples : নাসিকা = *naśika*, মিথ্যা = *mittha*, স্থিত = *sthito*, যাইতে = *dza-ito*.

The pronunciation of i into ī, as when শিব = *fi:b*, has already been noticed. Note that i in the penultimate syllable of verbs is elided in Western Bengal, where it follows a consonant, and, where it follows a vowel, undergoes one of the rare cases of a genuine modern *sandhi* or coalescence.

Thus করিতে becomes *korte*, যাইতে = *dzete*, আসিতে = *aste*, বলিতে = *bol'te*, কহিতে = *ko'te*, যাইয়া = *dzeje*, মরিয়া = *more*. (This

Vyañjan varṇa = *Bendzon borno* = Consonants.

Sparsa varṇa = <i>sporfo borno</i> = "touch letters", i.e. vargiya letters. ¹			Antahstha = <i>anta:stho</i> , "interstitials," semivowels.	Uṣma = <i>ūfo</i> , breath-letters, sibilants.
Surds.	Sonants.	Nasals.		
(1) क, ka, <i>ka</i> . ख, kha, <i>kha</i> .	ग, ga, <i>ga</i> . घ, gha, <i>gha</i> .	ङ, ṅa, <i>ṅa</i> .		ह, ha, <i>ha</i> .
(2) च, ca, <i>tʃe</i> . छ, cha, <i>tʃha</i> .	ज, ja, <i>dʒa</i> . ² झ, jha, <i>dʒha</i> .	ञ, ña, <i>ɲa</i> .	य, ya, <i>ja</i> . य, y'a, <i>dʒa</i> . ²	श, śa, <i>ʃa</i> . ⁵
(3) ट, ṭa, <i>tʰa</i> . ठ, ṭha, <i>tʰha</i> .	ड, ḍa, ³ <i>ḍa</i> . ढ, ḍha, ³ <i>ḍha</i> .	ण, ṇa, <i>ṇa</i> .	र, ra, <i>ra</i> .	ष, ṣa, <i>ʃa</i> . ⁵
(4) त, ta, <i>ta</i> . थ, tha, <i>tho</i> .	द, da, <i>da</i> . ध, dha, <i>dho</i> .	न, na, <i>na</i> .	ल, la, <i>la</i> .	स, sa, <i>ʃa</i> . ⁵
(5) प, pa, <i>pa</i> . फ, pha, <i>pho</i> .	ब, ba, <i>ba</i> . ⁴ भ, bha, <i>bho</i> .	म, ma, <i>ma</i> .	व, va, <i>ba</i> . ⁴	

¹ The twenty-five vargiya letters are so called because they are divided into five varga (*bargo*) or "classes".

² These are distinguished as (1) vargiya ja and (2) antahstha ja.

³ ḍa, ḍha, when written as ड, ढ, are trilled into hard cerebral r, rh, as बड = *boro*, घोड़ा = *ghora*, रूढ़ = *ru:rho*.

⁴ These are spelt and pronounced alike, but are distinguished as (1) vargiya ba and (2) antahstha ba.

⁵ All three pronounced alike as *f*, but are written in the numerous *tal-sama*'s borrowed from Sanskrit. But *s* retains its Sanskrit sound of *s* when compounded with dental or labial consonants, e.g. upa-sthit = *upsthit*, hindusthān = *hindusthan*, stambha = *stambho*, svāsthya = *f:a'stho*, smṛti = *smṛiti* or *srīti*.

N.B.—Initial *ওয়*- before *ā*, and medial *ওয়* after a vowel and before *ā* = *w*, e.g. শওয়া = *śaoyā* = *fowa*, যাওয়া = *y'āoyā* = *dzawa*, নেওয়া = *neoyā* = *nawa*, বারওয়ারি = *bāroyāri* = *barowari*, ওয়ানা = *oyālā* = *wala*; *w* before *i* is written as উ, as উইল = English "will".

change requires a more careful analysis than, so far as I know, has yet been made. In Eastern Bengal verbs are, for the most part, pronounced as spelt.)

(4) *i* is always *i* or *i:*.

e.g. সীতা = *si:ta*, সূন্দরী = *fundori:*, শরীর = *ʃori:r*.

(5) *r* is *ri*, except in monosyllables, when it becomes *ri:*.

e.g. কৃত = *krito*, পৃথিবী = *prithibi:*, পৃথক = *prithok*, ভৃত্য = *bhritto*, ত্রণ = *tri:n*. Note the unique use of *r* after *r* in নৈরুতি = *nairriti*, the S.W. quarter.

(6) *u* is always *u*.

e.g. ফুথ = *fukh*, দুঃখ = *dukkho* (note doubling of subsequent consonant by visarga, and consequent pronunciation of otherwise muted final *a*), ফুমার = *fukumar*, বুদ্ধি = *buddhi*, বুঝা = *budzha*. Note that ডুয়া = *dzuwa*; cf. the use of ওয় as a symbol for *w*.

(7) *ū* is always *u:*.

e.g. মূলা = *mu:la*, মূল্য = *mu:llo*, পূর্ণ = *pu:rno*, পূর্ব = *pu:rbo*, স্থল = *sthu:lo*, স্থলকায় = *sthu:lokaj*.

(8) *e* is normally *e*, but in its vikṛta pronunciation, as above noted, is *ɛ*.

e.g. এখানে = *ekhane*, দেশ = *deʃe*, কেশ = *keʃ*, তেল = *teɛli*.

(9) *ai* is pronounced as *ɔi*.

e.g. বৈকাল = *baikal*, দৈবাৎ = *daibat*, etc.

(10) *o* is the pure *o*, as in French.

e.g. পোশাক = *poʃak*, পোরা = *pora*, চট্টোপাধ্যায় = *tʃottopædhaj*.

(11) *au* is pronounced as *oʷ*, something like the English *o* in "go".

e.g. মোমাচি = *moʷmatʃi*, মোন = *moʷno*, ঔষধ = *oʷʃodh*, পৌষ = *poʷʃ*, পৌত্র = *poʷtro*.

Finally, note that *-হ্য*, *-hya* has become *-jja* in Prākṛt, and, though written as in Sanskrit, is pronounced according to the Prākṛt spelling, with the usual vocalic change produced by the degeneration of *y* after another consonant. e.g. বাহ্য = *baedzdzo*, মহ্য = *ʃodzdzzo*, etc. An odd result of this change is that I have seen *ন্যায়* written in a petition as *নেহ্য*! That is the worst of a language that has Sanskrit spelling with Prākṛt pronunciation.

PHRASAL ACCENTUATION

In Bengali, as in French, there is a dominant phrasal accent of quantity, but at the *beginning* instead of at the *end* of the

phrase. The first syllable of several words pronounced rapidly together is dwelt upon. But when the first word is a personal pronoun or other comparatively unimportant word, it does not take this accent of quantity.

e.g. আপনার বাড়ী কোথায় ?
আমি কাল দশটার সময় আসিব ।

Here the words আপনার and আমি কাল are pronounced rapidly and parenthetically, as it were, and the phrasal accent follows them. This peculiarity is reflected in Bengali verse. Each metrical unit or phrase consists of a fixed number of syllables. But it is common (for instance, in many of Rabindranath's lyrics) to precede a verse by an extra-metrical word or two.

e.g. (আর) নাইরে বেলা নামল ছায়া
ধরণীতে,
(এখন) চল রে ঘাটে, কলসখানি
ভরে নিতে ।

N.B.—The above notes apply only to literary Bengali as pronounced in and around Calcutta. Almost every district has its own peculiarities. For instance, Nadiyā, where the Bengali is as the French of Tours, has a tendency to pronounce n as l, so that নৌকা becomes lo^uko.

P.S.—I ought to add that when I say above that the merging of y and v with a preceding consonant doubles the sound of that consonant, I am not strictly accurate. The consonant is really prolonged, but its sound is heard as the tongue touches and leaves the teeth, etc. Thus satya ought perhaps to be written *fat.o*, and not *jatto*.

AN INSCRIPTION OF THE REIGN OF UDAYADITYA

By L. D. BARNETT, M.A., Litt.D.

THE following inscription is now edited—for the first time, as far as I am aware—from an ink-impression which my friend Pandit Shyama Shankar Har Chaudhuri, M.A., of Jhalrapatan, has kindly sent to me, together with a transcription by Pandit Gopal Lal Vyas, Curator of the Archæological Department of H.H. the Maharaja of Jhalawar's Government. The place where it was found is not stated.

The letters are of an elegant Northern type, corresponding to those shown in Bühler's *Tafeln*, v, cols. 11–13, but with some variations; and the initial *i* is peculiar. The average height of the characters in lines 1–7 is $1\frac{1}{16}$ inch; in lines 8–10 the letters are much smaller, with a height of about $\frac{3}{8}$ inch, or rather less. The language is Sanskrit, but of an ungrammatical popular kind. Thus we have the ending *-ōh* instead of *-ōr* in line 5, *n* for *ṇ* in *Harshukēn-* on line 6, *parava* and *varisham* on lines 8–9; and the author drops into undiluted and unblushing Prakrit on line 7, *-dēvassa kērim*. The word *kērim* may be compared with the classical Prakrit *kēram*, “for the sake of” (see Pischel, *Gramm. d. Prakr.*, § 176), and the modern case-endings such as *ker*, *kerā*, *kar*, etc. (see Kellogg, *Grammar of the Hindi Language*, 2nd ed., §§ 180, 185). The words *pattakila* (lines 3, 8), *satka* (line 6), and *mādaka* (line 9) are also of some lexical interest. *Pattakila* is the modern *patēl*, “village headman.” *Satka* means “belonging to”, and is found in a few similar inscriptions of Northern India. *Mādaka* is obscure; one is tempted to alter it to *mūtaka*, but the latter is a dry measure (cf. Telugu *mūṭa*, “bundle,” Marathi *māṭh*, “bullock's pack-saddle”).

The document refers itself to the reign of King Udayāditya, in the Samvat year 1143, and records the construction of a temple of Śambhu (Śiva) and of a well, together with a gift of a supply of lamp-oil, by Janna, son of Chāhila, a Tailika, whose mother Dhāṇī is also mentioned as offering her homage to the god. The king is obviously the Paramāra Udayāditya of Malwa, who is several times mentioned in inscriptions, and is known from one record (noticed in *Indian Antiquary*, vol. xx, p. 83) to have been reigning in Samvat 1137.

The date is given as Samvat 1143, the 10th of the bright fortnight of Vaiśākha. On the supposition that we have to

deal here with the usual Chaitrādi Vikrama era, we may calculate this date either as a *current* or as an *expired* year. On the assumption that the year is a current Vikrama year, the date given above corresponds to Monday, April 7, A.D. 1085. If, however, we take the year as expired, the date will be Sunday, April 26, A.D. 1086. The former alternative seems to be preferable.

TEXT

1. Ōm¹ Namaḥ Śivāya ॥ Saṃvat 1143 Vaisā(śā)kha śudī 10 a-
2. dy-ēha śrīmad - Udayāditya - dēva - kalyāṇa - vijaya - rājyē ।
Tē(tai)-
3. lik-ānvayē Paṭṭakila-Chāhila-suta-Paṭṭakila-Janna[kē]-
4. na Śāmbhōḥ prāsādam=idaṃ kārītaṃ । tathā Chirihilla-talē
Chā-
5. dā-ghau(ghō)sha-kūpikā-Vruvāsakayōḥ antarālē vāpī cha ।
6. Utkīrṇṇ-ēyam Pa[m*]ḍita-Harshukēn-ēti ॥² Jānya-satka-mā-
7. tā Dhāñiḥ praṇamati ॥ Śrī-Lōliga-svāmi-dēvassa kēriṃ
8. Tailik-ānvāē(yē) Paṭṭakila-Chāhila-suta - Paṭṭakila - Janna-
kēna ॥ śrī-Sēndhava-dēva-para-
9. va-nimitya(tta)ṃ dipa-tēlya³-chatuḥ-palaṃm=ēkaṃ mūdakaṃ
kritvā tathā varīṣaṃ prati savi *
10. ॥ maṅgala mahā śrī ॥⁴

TRANSLATION

Ōm! Homage to Śiva! Here on this day, the 10th of the bright fortnight of Vaisākha of the Saṃvat 1143, in the auspicious victorious reign of the fortunate king Udayāditya, the Paṭṭakila Jannaka, son of the Paṭṭakila Chāhila, of the Tailika lineage, caused to be constructed this temple of Śāmbhu; likewise in the grounds of Chirihilla, in the space between the small well of Chādā-ghōsha and (?) Bruvāsaka, a large well. This [inscription] was engraved by Pandit Harshuka. Jāna's mother Dhāñi performs obeisance. For the behoof of the blessed God Lōliga-svāmin, the Paṭṭakila Jannaka, son of the Paṭṭakila Chāhila, of the Tailika lineage, has purchased for the occasions of the festivals of the blessed god Sēndhava one *mūdaka* (?) containing four *palas* of lamp-oil and [assigned it to be used?] every year. Happiness! great fortune!

¹ Denoted by a symbol.

² This *daṇḍa* is followed by a *chakra*-symbol and another *daṇḍa*.

³ Read *taila*.

⁴ This line is preceded by three decorative figures separated by *daṇḍas*, and followed by one.

METRE AND ACCENT

By J. D. ANDERSON, M.A.

THE primary business of a teacher is to teach. But everyone who has had practical experience of teaching has found that he has learned from his pupils almost as much as he has taught, since contact with younger minds supplies a new point of view, which imparts a fresh novelty to familiar facts. For example, when a man is acquiring a living language, he learns the pronunciation (not only syllabic pronunciation but the significant tones and inflexions of the language) by sheer imitation, by trusting to his aural memory and his power of grasping sounds unfamiliar to him in his own tongue. But when he tries to impart his accomplishment to others, he must needs analyse, if he is to explain, what he has learnt. Hence teaching, if it is not mere mechanical transmission of information, such as can be got from a book, becomes, in effect, a species of research.

In teaching pronunciation, you may recite or read aloud, and invite your pupils to do the like, correcting their errors as best you can. But there will always be pupils who will not be contented with mere imitation, and will demand some generalized account of the kind of pronunciation you are endeavouring to teach. You are lucky if you get such pupils, since they compel you to search your linguistic conscience, to examine, sort, and verify your facts, to go through the mentally exhilarating process of theorizing about them. For example, you may be led to think more carefully and exhaustively of the metres of the language you teach, since a metre in any given case is the rhythmical arrangement of prominently audible syllabic sounds, prominent in length, or strength, or pitch, or by a combination of any two or even three of these "accents". And since the poet composes his metres so that they shall be recognized instantaneously by all his readers, gentle and simple, learned and unlearned, metres are (or should be) an excellent clue to the characteristic pronunciation of a language.

The easiest way of explaining my meaning is to take one or two simple examples. In most modern languages of Europe, the dominant audible quality of spoken speech is a fixed verbal

accent of force, a stress, which falls on one syllable (or in the instance of long words, on two syllables) of a word. This is the case of our own language, and our metres consist in the arrangement of strong, of stressed syllables at more or less equal intervals. In the Germanic languages generally this fixed stress is the dominant audible quality. It may, of course, be reinforced or varied by duration (quantity) or changes of pitch. But it is the strong syllables that beat the rhythm of verse.

But there are also languages in which the accent is phrasal and not verbal, and falls on some determinate syllable of a number of words pronounced rapidly together. A word will or will not carry an accent according to its position in a phrase. The most familiar example of this type of languages is French, in which the phrasal accent is final; it precedes and announces a pause. The preceding syllables in the phrase are "atonic", pronounced rapidly and in a more or less level tone of voice. (The fact that the accent can be transferred from the ultimate to the penultimate or even earlier syllable for purposes of emphasis, does not affect the normal rule.) Out of this rule of pronunciation springs the French system of metre. For example, a normal Alexandrine consists of two phrases (*hemistiches*) of six syllables, the last or last but one of which bears an accent, chiefly of duration, but often also of stress and pitch as well. In French verse, the accent precedes and announces the *cæsura* or the end of the line. Here is one reason why to a French beginner in English, English verse sounds harshly monotonous; why to an Englishman the infinite variety of pitch and quantity in French verse is obscured by the regular recurrence of the phrasal accent.

If I venture to quote these two familiar instances of the interrelation of metre and ordinary pronunciation of everyday speech, it is because the same peculiarity may be found in Eastern languages. For instance, many Indian languages have a verse form which is "quantitative", consisting of feet or *mātrās* closely resembling those of Greek and Latin scansion. But in language teaching we have to be continually on our guard against the terminology we inherit from the Classics, whether in matters of grammar, etymology, or metre. For example, any Bengali will tell you that his native verse, abounding in words borrowed unaltered from Sanscrit, is "quantitative" verse, composed of *mātrās* or feet resembling those of Sanscrit. But examine

Bengali verse with a native scholar, and you shall presently find him admitting that the *mātrā* in Bengali, instead of consisting of two or more short or long syllables, consists in fact of a single *akṣara*, a consonant with its accompanying vowel; in short, of a single syllable.

Go further, and you will find that a Bengali verse consists of a fixed (an even) number of syllables, divided by a cæsura. For example, the *payār* metre (the common narrative or heroic verse of Bengal) contains 8 + 6 syllables, separated by a cæsura. It is not necessary that any one of these should be long or short, stressed or unstressed, high or low in pitch, according to its position in the verse, with one exception. That exception is that the *first* syllable in each hemistich (and not the *last*, as in French) is accented. The accent is predominantly one of length, of duration, though (to an English ear at least) there seems to be also an accent of force, a stress.

Now, observe, we have here a reversal of French metre. We have a fixed number of rapidly but clearly pronounced atonic syllables *following* an accented syllable. This is a form of verse which cannot be written in English. It would be impossible to put together words so as to get an *initial long or strong syllable* followed by so many as seven or five atonic syllables. The fixed word-stresses of our language would come in and break the rhythm. Yet a Bengali poet trusts to *all* his readers, learned or unlearned, to pronounce his verse rhythmically. The inevitable conclusion is that the pronunciation of spoken Bengali has as its dominant audible quality some trick of speech which lends itself to "syllabic" or phrasal verse. It may be said, roughly, that French verse and Bengali verse consist of phrases in which there is a fixed, even number of syllables, of which the last in the one case, and the first in the other, bears the phrasal accent, mainly an accent of quantity.

From this crude analysis of Bengali verse, we would expect, then, that spoken Bengali would consist of a number of rapidly pronounced phrases of which the first syllable is accented. Such in fact is the case, with the exception that sometimes an initial syllable or two may be pronounced in a parenthetical, "extra-metrical," and atonic fashion before you come to the real beginning of the phrasal unit. This peculiarity of the Bengali speech may be heard in what is sometimes called in Calcutta

"chee-chee English". It is English in which our fixed verbal stresses tend to be replaced by an initial phrasal stress.

This peculiarity has an ethnological as well as a linguistic interest. So far as its vocabulary is concerned, Bengali is a sister of adjacent Hindi, and the common mother of both is Maithili Prakrit. In short, the people of Bengal have borrowed a Western vocabulary, as the French have taken most of their words from Latin. The dictionary of Bengal is that of the Hindu religion, and came to them with Hindu missionaries from the West. But the phrasal pronunciation is, no doubt, indigenous, a true shibboleth, which may possibly give a clue to racial origin.

Here is a matter where a School of Oriental Languages in the West may be of use to Bengali students of their own language, as being able to supply a *comparative* study of their speech. If we can discover, in or near to Bengal, languages which have the dominant audible quality of Bengali, we may make a shrewd guess as to the ethnical relationships of modern speakers of Bengali.

Indigenous Bengalis (the upper classes are mostly the descendants of immigrants from the west) may, in the persons of their ancestors, once have spoken some Tibeto-Burman speech in the north of the country, and some Dravidian tongue in the south. The characteristic phrasal accent of Bengali may be due to one or other of these. It may, on the other hand, be an inheritance from some aboriginal speech which has perished and has been forgotten. So far as I know, the subject has never been studied, though I once met a learned Bengali who had spent many years in the Central Provinces and was inclined to think that the typical pronunciation of Bengali has a Dravidian origin. In the north of Bengal, the matter can, to some extent, be made the subject of actual experiment. At the foot of the Garo Hills are many Tibeto-Burman or Bodo tribes who are rapidly substituting Bengali or Assamese vocabulary for their own. It would be interesting to see whether they retain their tribal accentuation, and whether this is akin to the phrasal pronunciation of Bengali.

Let it be observed that it is not necessary to confine the study of pronunciation to the aboriginal castes and classes, since in these matters the old proverbial saying of "*ipsis Hibernicis Hiberniores*" applies. When Englishmen settled in Ireland, they

communicated their vocabulary to the Irish, but themselves picked up the local accentuation and many local habits of speech and idiom. So has it been in Bengal. Frenchmen are justly proud of being a "Latin" race, because they possess a Latin vocabulary. Yet their idioms and phrasal pronunciation are doubtless Celtic, in spite of the remarkably few Celtic words that now survive in their copious and beautiful language. So are Bengalis proud of the fact that they possess more *tatsamas* (unaltered Sanscrit words) than any other modern Indian people. They are still a little apt to resent the suggestion that there are non-Sanscritic elements in their speech, elements which it should be a duty and pleasure to trace so far as is now possible. That is a matter in which men of other races and other tongues can help, since sheer familiarity is an obstacle to the recognition of buried survivals in speech and pronunciation.

Anthropologists tell us that language is an unsafe guide to ethnological origins. That is true, no doubt. Yet when Pater Schmidt, of Vienna, tackled the speech of the Khasis in Assam (long supposed to be as unique and isolated as that of the Pyrenean Basques) and traced it into Southern Burmah, Annam, and finally right across the Pacific to Easter Island, he made a discovery which had an *ethnological* as well as a *linguistic* importance.

It is the hope of lighting upon discoveries of this kind, if not of such unusual interest and importance, that gives a new charm to the teaching and learning of languages, and especially in a country like India, where languages and racial origins are far more numerous than in Europe, and have to some extent, hitherto, been preserved by the social structure of the vast population. The learning of Indian languages has, for Englishmen, a practical value. But the languages can also be studied in a scientific, a disinterested spirit, and here, it is only fair to say, the Germans have set us an example which might be followed with more perseverance and assiduity than we have yet shown. If I have ventured to cite the case of Bengali, it is simply because my official lot was cast among Bengalis, and it was my duty to learn something of their speech. No doubt other and even more interesting instances are known to students of other Indian languages.

NOTES

English Words in Indian Script

Most students of Indian tongues have been puzzled by English words transliterated into Indian scripts. I was reading a Bengali petition with a pupil yesterday. The petition was headed by the mysterious word *sokaj*. There was no context to help us to decipher its meaning, and dictionaries were, of course, of no avail. It was only when we read the word aloud to a third person who knows no Bengali, that we elicited the ingenious suggestion that *sokaj* is an attempt to write the English words "show cause" in Eastern script.

The petition contained one or two other puzzles of transliteration. The petitioner had been travelling by *reloye*. It was *thard treno* that he made his journey, or rather intended to do so. For he missed his train, and, as he says, *ukta tren phel haoyāy yathā samaye hujur ādālate hājir haite pari nāi*. There are two English words in that sentence!

NOTES ON THE NESTORIAN MONUMENT AT SIANFU

By LIONEL GILES, M.A., D.Litt.

15.¹ 真寂 “pure and still”.

真 is used here as in Taoist phraseology, to indicate spiritual purity of nature, and cannot very well be translated “true” or “genuine” (真實), as Diaz takes it, followed by Legge and Saeki. A better definition is that formulated by Diaz himself when he comes to explain the word 虛, namely: 純無錯雜. We may observe in passing that the whole of this exordium strongly recalls the language of the *Tao Tê Ching*, especially in chapters 4 and 25. Nearly all that is said here of the Trinity might apply equally well to Tao. Diaz goes on to remark that 真 is the fundamental *attribute* (本德) of God, and 寂 his fundamental *condition* (本情). But perhaps this is over-refinement. Other renderings are appended; the second and third seem to me faulty because they interpret 真 as an adverb modifying 寂.

Legge: “true and still.”

Havret: “souverainement paisible.”

Moule: “in perfect repose.”

Saeki: “true and firm.”

15-16. 窅然靈虛 “profoundly immersed in spiritual vacancy”.

Cf. Chuang Tzū, 逍遙遊: 窅然喪其天下焉 “[the Emperor Yao] was plunged in abstraction, and the Empire existed for him no more” (H. A. Giles’ translation). According to the commentary, 窅 in that passage is to be read not *yao*³ but *mien*², so the latter should presumably be the pronunciation here as well. The idea conveyed by 虛 appears to be analogous to our “absolute” or “unconditional”.

Legge: “incomprehensible in His intelligence and simplicity.”

Havret: “inaccessible et pur esprit.”

Moule: “inaccessible, in spiritual purity.”

Saeki: “who is ever Incomprehensible and Invisible.”

¹ The numbers refer to the pages in Havret’s facsimile of the inscription.

16. 揔玄樞而造化 “that which controls the hidden axis of the Universe, creating and evolving”.

揔 is a rare character, pronounced *hu*¹ or *k'u*¹, which K'ang Hsi's Dictionary defines by the word 擊 “to strike”. In the present context, however, there is no reason to doubt its being a calligraphic form of 揔, which is itself a variant of 總. This is a word peculiarly applicable to the Supreme Being, as one that implies complete control. Legge can hardly be right in reading 樞 instead of 樞. The expression “grasping the axis” is quite a common one in Chinese literature, as may be gathered from the following quotations:—

梁肅述初賦：悟幻有之遷幹得環中之妙樞
“Realizing the fleeting nature of our illusory existence, and attaining the mystic centre in the circle of phenomena”.

白居易對策：王者之道秉其樞執其要而已 “The whole duty of a king is to grasp the axis and hold fast to the essential”.

王融策秀才文：朕秉籙御天，握樞臨極 “Clutching the chart [a symbol of sovereignty], I am charioted by the heavens; grasping the axis, I approach the confines of space”.

李白詩：執樞相管轄 “Holding the axis, to wield control”.

王曾有物混成賦·今我后掌握道樞恢張天紀
“Now our Sovereign, holding the axis of Tao in his grasp, greatly enlarges the scope of the divine regulations”.

The same conception is present to the mind of Ssü-k'ung T'u, though he does not actually use the word 樞, where he says: 超以象外得其環中持之匪強 “Proceeding beyond the domain of objectivity and reaching the centre of the circle, there hold fast without violence” (詩品, 雄渾). 造化 is, as Havret remarks, another phrase borrowed from Taoism. “Creating” alone is not enough, however; the idea of evolution is there as well.

Legge: “who, with His hands operating in the mysterious (abyss of space), proceeded to create.”

Havret: “détenant en ses mains une mystérieuse puissance, et auteur de la création.”

Moule: “the holder of the mysterious source of life and the Creator.”

Saeki: "who, holding the Secret Source of Origin, created all things."

17. 判十字以定四方 "He divided the figure of ten and established the four quarters of the universe".

This is a whimsical way of saying that God created the *whole* of the universe, unlike the gods of paganism who, as Diaz points out, are identified only with certain parts of it, such as the mountains, the sea, and so forth. There is no direct allusion to the cross of Christ, though we may assume that the writer had it in his mind. It is curious that the significance of the cross as a Christian symbol should nowhere be explained in this inscription. It would seem that the Nestorians were afraid of exposing themselves to profane derision if they were to lay stress on the Crucifixion as the central fact of Christianity.

18. 匠成萬物然立初人 "having fashioned all things, [God] made the first man".

I cannot help feeling doubtful about 然 as a synonym for 成, which is the meaning assigned to it by Havret. No such usage is mentioned by K'ang Hsi. On the other hand, 然 for 然後 is certainly awkward, and interferes with the parallelism of the sentence. Might it not be possible to take 然 in its original sense of 燃 and translate "endowed with the spark of life"? The metaphor 燃燈 is, I believe, sometimes applied by Buddhists to the birth of Śakyamuni.

19-20. 開平大於此是之中
際冥同於彼非之內

Having observed that this is a most difficult sentence to translate, Legge proceeds to give an utterly impossible rendering of it. Havret comes somewhat nearer the mark, but is misled by Diaz, who takes 平大 together as a compound expression. The key to the whole passage, which has been strangely missed by all previous translators, lies in the word 於. This does not mean "in", but goes closely with 大 and 同: "greater than," "same as." The only real difficulty is with 開, here used as a verb. It might be considered simply as a synonym of 際 "to introduce". But the objection to this is that, according to the story of Genesis, Satan

introduced not happiness but misery into the Garden of Eden. The clue, I think, is to be found rather in such a phrase as 閒語, literally "inserted words", suggestions, insinuations. The 辭源 quotes the 史記: 侯生乃屏人閒語 "Hou Shêng rejected men's artful insinuations". My proposed rendering, then, is:—

"[Satan] cunningly held out hopes of happiness greater than that to be found in this [i.e. Adam's] state of righteousness.

But introduced darkness similar to that existing in his own state of sin."

Legge: "a breach wide and great was made in its judgments of what was right, and it [man's nature] was drawn as through an opening into the gulph of (Satan's) perversities."

Havret: "ouvrant une brèche dans cette grandeur morale, au milieu de cet heureux état, il y introduisit la ressemblance de la confusion."

Moule: "disturbed the great (moral) equilibrium in (man's) goodness by the introduction of the likeness of confusion (which was) in his own wickedness."

Saeki: "the perfect attainment of goodness on the one hand and the entire exemption from wickedness on the other became alike impossible for him [i.e. man]."

(To be continued.)

SUMMARIES OF LECTURES DELIVERED AT THE SCHOOL

MALAY

By C. O. BLAGDEN, M.A., University Reader in Malay

Abstract of a public lecture given at the School by Mr. Blagden on
February 7th, 1917.

THE Malay language is one of the leading vernaculars of the world, and has been growing in importance of late years owing to the development of trade and particularly of the rubber-planting industry. It is an easy language to acquire a smattering of, as it involves few difficulties of phonetics, accidence, or syntax in the form of it which is current as a *lingua franca*. But this jargon bears the same relation to the real Malay language as the Pidgin English of the China ports does to our own English. The real Malay is the speech of the Malays themselves. It is a leading member of a vast family of languages, commonly styled the Austronesian, or Malayo-Polynesian, or Oceanic, family, which is of Asiatic origin, but has an almost entirely insular domain. It includes Madagascar, Indonesia, with a part of Formosa, Micronesia, Melanesia, and Polynesia, as well as the greater part of the Malay Peninsula, a portion of the coast of New Guinea, the Mergui Archipelago off the coast of Tenasserim, and a small tract in Eastern Indo-China, which was probably the original centre of dispersion of the whole family. Its extreme points in Polynesia are (inclusively) the Sandwich Islands, Easter Island, and New Zealand. With the exception of the languages of Northern Halmahera and a few Papuan ones in or near New Guinea, all the numerous native languages of this extensive area are related together and to Malay.¹

The Indonesian division includes chiefly the Malay Peninsula, Sumatra, Borneo, the Philippines (with part of Formosa), Java, Celebes, and a number of lesser islands. The race here is a series of cognate blends, brown in colour, and as a rule more or less

¹ The languages of the aborigines of the Malay Peninsula, though not belonging to the Austronesian family, are now generally classed in one that is distantly related to it and has been named the Austroasiatic family.

Mongoloid in type, of a stature averaging (in the men) about 5 ft. 3 in., with hair that is usually straight, not wavy. In the other divisions the races are decidedly different, and the common mother-tongue cannot have belonged originally to the ancestors of all these races, but was imposed by one of them on the rest. Among the Indonesians, the Malays must be distinguished from the Javanese, Dayaks, Filipinos, etc.; these are cousins of the Malays, but they are not Malays any more than Frenchmen are Italians. The homeland of the true Malay and of his language is the eastern half of Central Sumatra. The western portion is occupied by the Minangkabau people, who speak a language very closely related to Malay. To the south of these two there are tribes speaking dialects which seem to fall more or less midway between Minangkabau and the Standard Malay. The latter, however, is the language which has spread far and wide. Coming from the eastern coastlands of Central Sumatra, the Malays colonized the Malay Peninsula not less than about seven centuries ago, but even now they have not occupied the whole of the interior; there are still relics of aboriginal, less civilized races in it, whose ancestors were there before the Malays came over from Sumatra. Further, the Malays settled along the shores of Borneo (especially in the north-west, west, and south), subduing or assimilating the Dayaks of that island, but only along the coastline. They also established themselves in many other places as traders, and their comparatively simple language became in time the *lingua franca* of trade of the whole Archipelago, south of the larger islands of the Philippine group.

The particular form of Malay current at Batavia and its immediate neighbourhood is adopted by the Dutch as a general medium of intercourse with their native possessions in these regions, and is tending to spread, as an auxiliary language, throughout the whole of that area. But except in certain places it has not superseded the local languages; Javanese, and the rest, continue to be the vernaculars used by the natives amongst themselves. In the Malay Peninsula the purest form of Malay is spoken in the southern half, up to about latitude 4° N., which is roughly the boundary of the old fifteenth century kingdom of Malacca. That kingdom, though it only existed for a little over a century, seems to have had a great influence; it extended its sway over the coastline of half of the Peninsula and the opposite

shore of Sumatra (especially Indragiri, Kampar, and Siak) just at a time when Malay was beginning to be a language of literature. Consequently the Malay of literature has ever since then been based on Malacca Malay.

Just inland of Malacca is a group of small states which were colonized by Minangkabau people within the last four centuries or so. Their descendants still speak their own dialect, and when they attempt to speak Standard Malay their accent is generally very marked.

In the north of the Peninsula, beyond latitude 4° N. or thereabouts, the local Malay dialects differ considerably from the Standard: this is particularly the case in Kedah, Patani, and Kelantan, and also to some extent in Tringganu and parts of Perak and Pahang. Of course, even in the south, as in all countries, there are slight local differences in pronunciation, and a few local words are used which would not be readily understood elsewhere.

The form of Malay which does duty as a *lingua franca* is apt to be much influenced by the various local languages with which it has to compete, and has adopted many loanwords from them; so in Java, words from Javanese, Sundanese, and Balinese, etc. But even the Malay of the Malays themselves contains a considerable percentage of loanwords, for the race has been in contact with strangers for centuries. These words are mainly from Sanskrit, Persian, and Arabic, and point to two successive eras of foreign influence; the first Indian, introducing Hinduism and Buddhism, the second Muhammadan, mainly from Southern Arabia. A certain number of Javanese and Tamil words have also come in, as well as a few from Hindustani and Chinese, and (since the sixteenth century) from Portuguese, Dutch, and English. The flow of Arabic words into Malay is still going on, being entirely at the option of individual scholars, whose piety or pedantry may prompt them to make an unnecessarily large use of them. Malays, being all Muhammadans, are, of course, familiar with a number of Arabic words in common use in their prayers. But a good many other Arabic words have been quite assimilated to Malay and are not, as a rule, pronounced in the Arabic fashion, which indeed Malays find it very hard to follow. In spite of all this foreign element, the Malay language remains fundamentally Indonesian in its phonetics, morphological structure, and syntax;

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COMMERCIAL AND POLITICAL CONNEXIONS OF
ANCIENT INDIA WITH THE WEST

By L. D. BARNETT, M.A., Litt.D., Lecturer in Sanskrit

Abstract of a public lecture given at the School by Dr. Barnett on
February 14th, 1917.

THERE is not much evidence of regular commerce by sea between India and the Near East previous to about 700 B.C. The Bible (1 Kings x, 11; 2 Chron. ix, 21) speaks of Solomon (c. 1000 B.C.) as importing by sea gold and wood of *almuggim* or *algummim* trees from Ophir, likewise peacocks, the Hebrew name for which, *tukki*, comes from the Tamil *tōgai*, together with other things that were brought by the fleet of Tarshish. But Ophir cannot be located with certainty in India; *almuggim* or *algummim* are an unknown quantity (2 Chron. ii, 8, speaks of *algum* trees in Lebanon!); so perhaps these statements may be anachronisms. There is better evidence for an overland trade route. On the Black Obelisk of Shalmaneser II (B.C. 860–825) are the figures of an Indian elephant and a rhinoceros brought as tribute to him by an Armenian tribe; and the R̥ig-veda (VIII, lxxviii, 2) mentions a golden *manā*, possibly the Assyrian *maneh*.

Soon after 700 B.C. oversea trade was active. A coinage of bronze knives struck according to a Babylonian standard was brought to China c. 675–670, and it was followed by a native currency of small bean-shaped coins like the earliest mintages of Lydia and Ægina. India must have been a half-way house on this route. Indian cedarwood has been found in the palace of Nebuchadnezzar at Birs Nimrud (early sixth century); and teak seems to have been used in a temple rebuilt by the latter and Nabonidus, c. 550 B.C. Rice (*ὄρυζα*, from Tamil *arīsi*) and peacocks (*ταῶς*, from Tamil *tōgai*) were imported into Greece in the fifth century. The Buddhist legend of the Bāvēru-jātaka (c. 400 B.C. in its present form, but older in substance) tells of Indian traders who for the first time brought a peacock by ship to Babylon. Furthermore, the two primitive types of the Indian alphabet, the Brāhmī and the Kharōshthī, which were derived from the Aramaic script, apparently before 700 B.C., probably

the amount of the foreign element must not be overrated, for though the foreign words are often important, and some of them are very frequently used, their percentage to the whole vocabulary is very small.

The chief difficulties in learning Malay consist in remembering a large number of words, for it has a large vocabulary; in the correct use of its morphological system of affixes, i.e. a limited number of syllables having no separate existence but capable of being prefixed or suffixed in certain cases to the simple, unextended word (which otherwise suffers no change); and in a thorough grasp of the syntactical structure of the language.

were framed in the first instance to meet the needs of trade with Babylon and the neighbourhood. After the decline of Babylon the Indian trade passed to other centres, such as Seleucia and Gerrha, opposite Bahrein, and were mainly into the hands of Arabian merchants for some centuries.

Political contact began when Darius, son of Hystaspes (reigned 521-485 B.C.), annexed the Indus Valley from Kalabagh to the Arabian Ocean, including Sindh and perhaps some districts east of the Indus. It formed the twentieth satrapy of the Persian Empire. When Alexander the Great arrived, however, its eastern boundary was the Indus. The presence of the Persians on the borders seems to have had considerable influence on Indian civilization; besides traces of Achæmenian coin-systems, we find in India copies of Persian architectural ornament, the lion and the Persepolitan bell, under the Maurya dynasty (c. 320-185 B.C.); and Dr. Spooner's recent researches at Patna, the ancient Pātali-putra, suggest the possibility that the palace of the Maurya emperors there was closely modelled on that of Darius at Persepolis.

Through the Persians the Greeks came to know something of India. Scylax of Caryanda, an admiral of Darius, wrote a record of his voyage down the Indus. The historian Hecataeus of Miletus (549-486 B.C.) mentioned several places and peoples of India. Herodotus gives some details about the Indian satrapy of Darius (iii, 97 ff.) and the troops which it supplied for the expedition of Xerxes (vii, 86; ix, 31). Ctesias of Cnidus, who went to Persia about 416 B.C. and became court physician under Darius II and Artaxerxes Mnemon, wrote among other works an account of India, largely fabulous.

In 326 B.C. Alexander the Great crossed the Indus and penetrated across the Panjab as far as the Bias. There, however, he was compelled to retire, and though he left Hellenic garrisons in the Panjab and Sindh, no trace of his presence is visible in the culture of India. Several Greeks of the period wrote on India, notably Nearchus, Onesicritus, Megasthenes, the ambassador of Seleucus Nicator at the court of Chandragupta Maurya at Pātali-putra, c. 300 B.C., whose fragments are very valuable, Patrocles, Deimachus, Timosthenes, and Dionysius. Of Megasthenes' writings large fragments have been preserved; of most of those of the others, little or nothing.

For some generations there was a constant struggle in the North-West between the native Indian states and the Hellenistic principalities that had sprung up on the track of Alexander's march. Then began the great invasions of the Scythian or Turki hordes—the Śakas (from c. 174 to 160 B.C.) and the Kushans (about a century later?)—who established powerful kingdoms on Indian soil. The "Gandhara" school of plastic art, which derived its models from Hellenistic sculpture but thoroughly assimilated them to Hindu ideals, seems to have arisen about the time when the Kushans settled in India. There was at the same time a notable development of trade between India and the Hellenistic centres, notably Mesēnē, Characēnē, and Elymais, as much of the commerce of China, chiefly in silk, passed through Balkh and Herat to the head of the Persian Gulf, and thence either overland to Syria or by sea to Leukē Kōmē. This international commerce is reflected in the coinage of the first Kushan emperor Kanishka and his successor Huvishka: it is a gold coinage (apparently the first gold minted in India since the beginning of the second century B.C.), adorned with figures of Hindu, Buddhist, Elamite, Zoroastrian, and other deities, and its ratio to silver is 1 : 12.

Augustus Cæsar successfully stimulated trade with India and the Far East, chiefly through the port of Alexandria. It was probably in connexion with his commercial policy that he was visited by Indian embassies (Dio Cassius, *Hist. Rom.*, liv, 9; Strabo, xv, i, 4 and 7; Florus, *Epit.*, ii, 34; Sext. Aurel. Victor, *Epit. de Cæs.*, i; Orosius, *Hist.*, vi, 21, 19).

In literature some attention was given to India by Polybius in his *History* (c. 144 B.C.), and Artemidorus of Ephesus in his *Geography* (c. 100 B.C.). After these writers come Strabo's *Geography* (completed c. 19 A.D.), the anonymous *Periplus of the Red Sea* (a little after 50 A.D.?), Pliny's *Natural History* (77 A.D.), and Ptolemy's *Guide to Geography* (c. 150 A.D.). Strabo has no personal knowledge of India, but has preserved some valuable materials from other writers. The author of the *Periplus* accurately describes from personal experience the routes to the western and south-western coasts of India, and the trade carried on through them, but he does not seem to have travelled along the eastern coast. Pliny gives some further information regarding trade.

About the beginning of the second century A.D., or a little

later, a few Christian legends, chiefly from the Apocryphal Gospels, began to appear in disguise in Buddhist stories; later they were transplanted into the tale of Krishna. As regards the alleged borrowing of certain outward forms by Christianity from Buddhism, see R. Garbe, *Indien und das Christentum*, p. 118.

The orations of Dio Chrysostom (c. 100 A.D.) make several references to India, mostly worthless. He tells us, however, that some Indians were present in Alexandria at the public spectacles. Ptolemy's *Introduction to Geography* (c. 150 A.D.) contains many geographical details, but is marred by his ignorance of the contours of India; he imagined that the coastline ran from Brouch almost due eastwards. Arrian's *Indica* (c. end of first century) contains little or nothing that is new. Bardesanes' book on the *Indian Gymnosophists* (c. 200) does not seem to have been very illuminating, though it has a few interesting details.

The direct trade of the Roman Empire with India, founded by Augustus, reached its acme between 50 and 100 A.D., and then began to decline. It was mainly concerned with the importation of Oriental luxuries and treasures into the West. After the reign of Caracalla, who in 215 massacred the Alexandrians and the traders in their port, thus destroying the local Hindu colony, the trade almost disappeared as the Roman world sank deeper into bankruptcy; but under the Byzantine emperors it revived slightly for a time, as a small amount of industrial products began to be imported, chiefly from the south-western coast of India, and then again disappeared.

About 200 A.D., according to Eusebius (*E.H.* v, 9-10), Pantænus, the head of the Catechetical School in Alexandria, set out on a mission to evangelize India, and on his arrival found the Gospel of St. Matthew had been brought thither by the Apostle Bartholomew. The strange story of Metrodorus and his visit to India also may be mentioned (Rufinus, *Hist. Eccl.*, i, 9; Cedrenus, *Hist. Compend.*, i, p. 516 f.). Embassies from India are recorded to have visited the emperors in 338-7 (Eusebius, *De Vita Const.*, iv, 50), in 361 (Amm. Marc. XXII, vii, 10; Sext. Aur. Victor, *Epit. de Cæs.*, xv), and in 530 (Joh. Malala, *Chronogr.*, p. 477).

From about the fourth century A.D. Indian astronomy, forsaking its former principles, founded itself on Greek models, probably as a result of Western trade. About 500 A.D. a number of Brahmins are said to have visited Alexandria (Photius, *Bibl.*,

ed. Bekker, vol. ii, p. 340). The *Christian Topography* of Cosmas (a little before 550 A.D.) among other matters contains an account of the routes to India and Ceylon and their trade, and refers to Christian communities in Kalyana, the Malayalam country, and Ceylon, who were in communion with the Church of Persia. It is usually stated that these were Nestorians; but reasons have been adduced to show that they were Catholic until the Synod of Diamper in 1599 (J. Panjikaran, *The Syrian Church in Malabar*, Trichinopoly, 1914).

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THE LANGUAGE OF SOUTHERN RHODESIA

By ALICE WERNER, Lecturer in Swahili and Bantu Languages

Abstract of a public lecture given by Miss Werner at the School on
February 21st, 1917.

THOUGH the development of the mining industry consequent on European occupation has brought natives of several different tribes into Southern Rhodesia, there appears to be virtually but one indigenous language in this territory. The Zulu spoken by the Matebele and the Sesuto of Sebituane's people, who settled on the Zambezi about the middle of last century, are comparatively recent intrusions.

This language is sometimes called "Mashona", "Chino", "Chiswina", and "Chizwina" (*sw* and *zw* appear to be attempts at the peculiar labial sibilant also found in Ronga and the other Delagoa Bay dialects); but none of these names are to be recommended. The people called "Mashona" or "Maswina" strongly object to these appellations, which seem to be opprobrious terms applied to them by their Matebele conquerors. Moreover, the name Chiswina seems to be confined to the Salisbury District, while elsewhere there are countless local designations: *Chimanyika* (Umtali), *Chiungwe* (Rusapi), *Chikaranga* (Victoria), *Chirozwi*, etc. (*Chi-* is the prefix indicating "language", corresponding to *Se-* in "Sesuto", *Lu-* in "Luganda", etc.)

The most satisfactory name would seem to be "Karanga". Mrs. C. S. Louw (*Manual of the Chikaranga Language*, Bulawayo, 1915), says: "In the district of Victoria"—in the south-east, on the head-waters of the Sabi—"the natives call it Chikaranga". But there seems reason to follow Father Torrend in taking this name to include all the sub-tribes. The Bechwana, when they came in contact with these people in the north-west, called them "Makalaka" (= Makalanga or Makaranga), and the fact that the Great Zimbabwe, which was the King's Kraal, or chief tribal centre, lies in the Victoria district seems to indicate that their headquarters were formerly here. It was the Paramount Chief of the Makaranga who was vaguely known to sixteenth-century geographers as the "Emperor of Monomotapa".

Karanga is so nearly akin to Nyanja (which covers a large area north of the Zambezi) that the differences may be set down as merely dialectical. It includes Chindau (spoken in Gazaland, just east of the Portuguese border), of which Mr. Daniel Jones has made a careful phonetic study.¹ Its affinities appear to be rather with the languages north of the Zambezi than with the more southern ones; it has not, like Zulu, adopted the suffixed locative, or the Hottentot clicks, and the "laterals" (usually written, in Zulu and Sesuto, *hl*, *dhl*, *tl*, *tlh*) occur, if at all, only to a limited extent. But this point cannot be determined without a full examination of the language by an exact phonetician. The three books before me, that of the Rev. H. Buck (Penhalonga), of Father Biehler, S.J. (Chishawasha, Salisbury District), and Mrs. Louw (Victoria) not only deal with different parts of the country but use different systems of orthography, so that it is impossible to gather from them what variations of sound are due to dialectical divergence, or, in some cases, exactly what sounds are intended. Mrs. Louw's book is by far the most satisfactory from a phonetic point of view.

East of the area covered by Karanga comes the Delagoa Bay group of languages included by M. Junod under the name Thonga (so written to mark the aspirated *t* and also to distinguish them from the Tonga (= Chopi) of Inhambane, the Tonga (= Toka) of the Middle Zambezi, and the Tonga of West Nyasa). They are more nearly allied to Zulu than is any other language, except the Xosa of Cape Colony; but they also have links with Karanga (notably the labial sibilant already mentioned) and with the languages beyond them to the north.

One interesting point about Karanga, which deserves further investigation, is the occurrence of words identical or cognate with Swahili forms, which seem to be absent from intervening languages. Thus we have *sona* = "sew" (Swahili *shona*, but Nyanja *tsoka*, *soka*, Yao *tota*); *tswimbo*, "stick"; *dikiti*, "melon"; *ganda*, "skin," "husk," etc.; and others. This is not the place to attempt giving a complete list, still less to draw any inferences from this phenomenon.

A different interest attaches to a few stray Arabic words. *Ndarama*, "gold," "money," is evidently (as pointed out long ago by

¹ *The Pronunciation and Orthography of the Chindau Language*. University of London Press, 1911.

Meinhof) from *dirham*, and must have spread in both directions from the Arab settlements on the Lower Zambezi, as it is also found in Nyanja. (Here it means either with the addition of "white", "silver", with the addition of "red", "gold", or simply "money". Curiously enough, it is not used in Swahili.)

Mari, "money," "property" = مَالٌ, is also found in Zulu as *i-mali* and in Swahili as *mali*. It may be a question whether the Zulus borrowed it from the Makaranga or *vice versa*; it might have reached the former through the medium of the coast tribes, though M. Junod says the Thonga have taken it from Zulu. An interesting point in the latter language is the occurrence of the forms *isi-kati*, "time," *um-kati*, "point of time." The Swahili *wa-kati* is so evidently derived from وَقْتُ, the initial و being treated as a prefix, that one is tempted to think of the Zulu words as having the same origin (prefixes being variable); but it might be possible to establish a connexion with the Bantu root KATI, "middle," "interval," or "space between". It seems to be accepted that, in primitive languages, conceptions of space precede conceptions of time.

THE IMPORTANCE OF HINDUSTANI

By A. YUSUF ALI, LL.M., Lecturer in Hindustani and Hindi

Abstract of a public lecture given at the School by Mr. Yusuf Ali on
Wednesday, March 7th, 1917.

ACCORDING to the Arabic proverb "the words of kings are the kings of words". His Majesty the King in his speech at the opening of the School said, "The ancient literature and the art of India are of unique interest in the history of human endeavour." He added that we must develop this "intellectual tradition". One of the finest functions of the School would be to establish, in Lord Curzon's words, "a clearing house for ideas between the East and the West."

Hindustani has been, and is, a fine vehicle for this purpose. But what is Hindustani? The frontiers of the Aryan languages of India are not easy to define, but if we take Urdu and Hindi together, we shall find a vast area and population within the circle of ideas covered by these languages. Scientific definition differentiates between Western Hindi, Eastern Hindi, Behari, and Rajasthani, but these terms are not used in that sense in the mouths of the people, and the census results do not coincide with the figures of Sir George Grierson's monumental Linguistic Survey. For our purpose we may speak of Urdu and Hindi, which are structurally one language and are prevalent in the United Provinces, the Eastern Panjab (where the Delhi Division is solidly Hindustani), Bihar, the northern part of the Central Provinces, and a great part of Rajputana and Central India, while Urdu is the language of the Muhammadans of Hyderabad and of most parts of India. In this way we get a Hindustani area roughly of 500,000 square miles, and a population of 113 millions, but a higher estimate of population, 136 millions, is defensible. For the influence of Hindustani extends beyond those whose mother tongue it is. Linguistically it has a most interesting history, and sociologically it represents many different social systems and circles of ideas (illustrations given).

But apart from these external considerations, it has many intrinsic merits both as a language and a literature. It is flexible, and is growing daily. It is perfectly catholic in its adoption of foreign words, phrases, ideas, and literary standards, while it has well-developed traditions of its own (illustrations).

Its literary wealth can be considered in the following aspects:—

1. *Religious Literature*.—Kabir, Dadu, Nanak (the Granth of the Sikhs is mainly Hindi), Malik Muhammad Jaisi's *Padmāvat* (Sufi ideas), the *Ramayān* of Tulsi Das, the *Satsaiya* of Behari Lal, and the *Brij Bhasha Love Poems*—these are among the most valuable contributions, in any language, to the world's religious literature. The modern literature of the Arya Samaj, of the Quadiani Musalmans, of the so-called Wahabi sects, and of Orthodox and Sufi Islam, is in Hindi or Urdu, while the *Marsiya*s of Lucknow have added a new chapter to Shia Islamic literature.

2. *Folk Literature, Epics, Witty Sayings, Pehelis, etc.*—Dhondu Khan's *Ballads* (Bulandshahr). *Ahir songs*, Eastern Districts of the United Provinces. *Alha and Udal epics*. *Nazir's genre poetry*, like the Dutch School of painting. (Illustrations given and extracts read from Nazir's poem on the *kahri* (cucumber).)

3. *Dramatic Literature*.—The Drama of Behar, with a long history and tradition behind it. Oudh (*Indar Sabha* in the Court of Wajid Ali Shah). Vast mass of modern Hindustani drama, produced by Hindustani Companies in Upper India, as well as Parsi Companies (from Bombay and Calcutta).

4. *Lyrics, Ghazls, Qasidas*.—Bahadur Shah, the last of the line of Moghal Emperors, has left a touching poem on the fall of his dynasty. Dard and Ghālib have left some fine Ghazls and Qasidas.

5. *Satires*.—Sauda, died 1780. Syed Akbar Ali, a living author.

6. *Serious appeals to religious or social instincts*.—The poet Hāli in poetry. Maulāna Phulwāri in sermons. Maulvi Nazir Ahmed in oratory. Philosophical poems and writings, such as those of Iqbāl, may be classed under this head.

7. *Essays*.—Sir Syed Ahmed Khan, Maulāna Shibli No'māni, Khwāja Ghulām-us-Saqlain.

8. *History*.—Maulvi Zakaullah. Maulāna Shibli No'māni.

9. *Novels*.—Pandit Ratan Nath Sarshār. Sharar. Azād.

10. *Medicine, Arts, Sciences, Music, etc.*—Besides all this, there is the ever-extending influence of modern journalism, with daily, weekly, and monthly papers (also papers published twice a week and thrice a week). The *Makhzan* of Lahore is well

known for its fine contributions to Urdu poetry, while the *Zamāna* of Cawnpore can take rank with illustrated magazines in any language.

MODERN TENDENCIES.—Urdu has been adopted as the language for the proceedings of the All-India Moslem League. Hindi has been recommended as the common language and script of India by the Hindu Sabha. There are lively and even bitter controversies as to the relative merits of Urdu and Hindi. These controversies resolve themselves into a phase of the Hindu-Muhammadan question. But, as Sir Charles Lyall has pointed out, the Urdu language was really created by the Hindus to facilitate their intercourse with the Muhammadans, who spoke and wrote Persian for centuries after they settled in India. There need be no sharp line of demarcation between Urdu and Hindi as actually spoken. The script question will give rise to some difficulties, but they need not be insuperable. The All-India Urdu Press Conference, which recently met, showed the existence of a vigorous body of opinion in which both Hindus and Muhammadans were represented.

Lord Chelmsford's reference to the vernaculars and their value in Indian education points the way to a greater utilisation of Urdu in the formation and development of national education and national character in Upper India. The Universities in India must sooner or later tackle this question of the vernaculars.

The possibilities of a future "Academy" for Hindustani, or at least for Urdu, will have to be considered seriously if the standard of purity for literary Urdu is to be preserved, on the one hand from the chaos of unregulated anomalies, and on the other from the pedantic tendencies of authors who live in their studies and despise the fresh breezes of actual life in the world at large. Such an academy can not only systematise the words and structure of the language, but can render inestimable services towards their deeper study and the study of ideas, of the collective psychology, and of the social systems that lie behind them.

Who shall say that what Kabir, Tulsī Das, Malik Muhammad, and Nazir accomplished in the past, no product of the blended civilisation of Britain, Islam, and India will be able to achieve in the future?

THE STUDY OF ARABIC

By T. W. ARNOLD, C.I.E., M.A., Litt.D., Lecturer in Arabic

*Abstract of a public lecture given at the School by Dr. Arnold on Wednesday,
March 14th, 1917.*

THE Lecturer first emphasised the importance of the study of Islam in view of the large number of Muhammadans in the British Empire, amounting (at the lowest estimate) to 90½ millions, and implying a problem of great importance to the statesman, the politician, the educationalist, and to all persons concerned with the larger problems of the globe. Whatever the total Muhammadan population of the world may be, and, in the absence of trustworthy religious statistics, or even of any form of census whatsoever in many of the countries concerned, it is impossible to say exactly what it amounts to,—(on the most careful reckoning, it is probably something between 200 and 230 millions)—the 90½ millions of Muhammadan British subjects form a large proportion of the whole, and have an importance beyond what mere numbers imply, because of the superior culture of large sections among them. He showed by illustrations how religious considerations enter more largely into the daily life of Muhammadan people than in Christian society; the religion of Islam claims to speak with authority in the domain of law, politics, and social organisation, as much as in the sphere of theology and ethics; the wisest and most carefully considered plans of statesmen and reformers run a risk of being wrecked upon the rock of fanaticism. In the world of Islam the foundations of society have been set in religion, in a manner that is hard to understand for the average European Christian who has entered on the inheritance of ancient Greece and Rome, and the institutions of the barbarian invaders who swept the Roman Empire away. Islam has accordingly been well described as a Church-State—not a State-Church, i.e. a church upheld by, and consequently dependent on, the state,—but a state whose very constitution is ecclesiastical, in which the church comes first and the state rests upon it. Much of this, no doubt, represents an ideal, and Islam has not been strong enough to wipe away the differences of race and tribe, or to overcome all influences

inherited from an ancient past ; and the history of Islam, like the history of Christianity, is largely the record of the failure of an ideal to attain realisation. But the marvel of the Muslim world is the large extent to which Islam has succeeded in imposing its special characteristics on the widely differing races that make up the Muhammadan world. And here comes in the importance of Arabic. Without Arabic, Islam has no meaning ; again and again in the Qur'ān is emphasis laid on the fact that the Word of God has been revealed in the Arabic language, and from one end of the Muslim world to the other, whatever may be the living speech of the people — Hausa, Hindustani, Javanese, Malay, Persian, or Turkish—prayers are repeated in لسان الملائكة ; the faithful greet one another in familiar Arabic phrases, and in the Arabic original must the sacred text be read. It is true there is often little real comprehension of the meaning of the words repeated,—in countries where Arabic is not the mother-tongue of the inhabitants ; but for any understanding of the thoughts that sway the lives of Muhammadan peoples, of the beliefs that they hold most sacred, the principles of theology and ethics on which they are nurtured, we must go to Arabic ; in the countries referred to above (India, etc.) it may be a foreign tongue, but it is studied by all the learned, and the learned (العلماء) constitute whatever clergy Islam possesses, and from them the unlettered multitudes derive their knowledge of their faith. But, on the other hand, so large a part of the Muslim world thinks and speaks in Arabic, that it fittingly takes rank among the living languages of the world,—living, not only in its influence on the minds of men, but living in the continuity and vigour of its literary expression, and capable of adapting itself to the changes and developments of each successive age.

The Lecturer then gave illustrations of the lack of serious effort in many of the English books on Islam to arrive at an understanding of what is the meaning of their faith to such a large proportion of the inhabitants of the empire, to realise what are their aims and ideals, what the sentiments that animate them. He quoted the accusation brought against the English, about seventy years ago, by a Professor of Arabic when delivering his inaugural lecture in a country—Holland—which has realised

much more than we have the responsibilities of ruling over Muhammadan subjects, though the Muslims in the Dutch possessions are numerically so much smaller than in ours; Professor Veth then pointed out how little the wealthy English universities had done for the study of Arabic and of Islam, and laid the blame for it on the preponderating clerical influences in these universities, that cramped the growth of independent research. Much scholarly work, of the highest order of excellence, has been done since then, to wipe away this reproach. But there is still a certain amount of literature on Islam in the English language that is vitiated by the influence of an active clerical intolerance. The Lecturer then gave examples from popular textbooks on Islam and biographies of Muhammad, and continued: This is not the way in which a Dutch, a French, a German, or an Italian scholar writes, and we in this country are singularly unfortunate in the meagre supply of good books on the subject of *Muhammad and his faith, and the Muhammadan world generally*; even in a great series like that of the Hibbert Lectures, avowedly devoted to the sympathetic exposition of the various religions of the world, Islam is the only one that receives intolerant and harsh treatment. Instances might be multiplied—in the careless utterances of politicians, the ignorance, often the insulting ignorance, of our daily press—but enough has been said to emphasise the need of a more sympathetic knowledge of Islam in this country, and (what is more to the immediate purpose) of a wider knowledge of Arabic among our fellow-countrymen.

An impartial observer might suppose that there is hardly any nation in Europe that has a stronger incentive to learn Arabic than the English, with their abundant opportunities and their close connection with the Muhammadan world—their position in Egypt, where Arabic is a living tongue, where the press pours out an increasing stream of publications, reprints of the great literature of the past, as well as the writings of living authors;—in the Sudan and those vast tracts of Central Africa that are administered by English officials, where Arabic is so devoutly studied, though it is not the mother-tongue of the people;—in Aden and the littoral of the Persian Gulf where our officials again meet Arabic as the living speech of the inhabitants;—in India, with its large Muhammadan population, where there is a learned

tradition that has for centuries maintained a high level of scholarship, and, though the knowledge of Arabic is not wide-spread, there are plenty of enthusiastic scholars whose learning in certain branches of study is often profound.

It seems strange that living under such favourable conditions for acquiring a knowledge of Arabic, so few Englishmen whose work carries them to the East care to do so. I have not in mind so much professional students, members of academic bodies; but what this country needs is more amateurs, men who take up the study of the language for the love of it, out of a feeling of personal interest unconnected with any professional occupation. In the history of oriental studies in this country, some of the most honoured names are those of amateurs, at whose feet professional scholars have been glad to learn, whose writings have formed definite steps of progress in the history of human knowledge. I need only remind you of such names as Sir William Jones, Colebrooke, Sir Henry Rawlinson, Sir Brian Hodgson, and you will doubtless think of many others. As for Arabic, despite the general neglect of the study of it in England, we can boast of some (though, alas! few) of the greatest names in Arabic scholarship; it may seem strange to call Lane an amateur, but I use it as a term of honour for the student who pursues his particular branch of learning apart from any academic centre,—not professionally, but with disinterested devotion, from the pure love of knowledge. Now Lane's works—his great Lexicon and his *Manners and Customs of the Modern Egyptians*—are monuments of erudition that are unsurpassed in any language of Europe. In the present generation, we have the outstanding figure of an eminent administrator, Sir Charles Lyall, whose profound knowledge of early Arabic poetry outrivals that of any German professor, and who adds to accurate scholarship a power of interpretation and of poetic insight and expression such as no living orientalist in Europe possesses. I might mention the names of a number of lesser lights, but what we need—what this School of Oriental Studies might aim at producing—is a larger circle of students working at and interested in Arabic. We need first to enlist the interest of the young man before he goes out to the East; next, persuade the older man who has retired, to continue the study he has begun; and then—a more difficult task—arouse for Arabic something of the enthusiasm that attracts so many

persons in this country to the study of Egyptology. The last may seem too wild a dream, but this School may at least attract officials and others working in the East, who come home for a periodical holiday. Many of such men who have acquired a smattering of Arabic fail to realise the wealth of interest that further study will bring them; nor do they recognise the opportunities they have for pioneer work on the dialects of living Arabic speech, in the midst of which they spend so many years of their lives. It is a disgrace to us as a nation that at the present time, when our victorious troops are entering Baghdad, there is no English grammar or reading-book of the Arabic dialect of Mesopotamia; we have nothing in English to correspond to the work of Meissner, or Sachau, or Socin, or Weissbach, or Yahuda; yet, for any one of these German scholars who has visited Mesopotamia and collected materials, there must have been a dozen Englishmen with equal opportunities. Syria is no doubt more remote from English interests, yet none of the many hundreds of Englishmen who have lived in or visited Syria has done the work for which we are indebted to Littmann, Oestrup, Pourrière, Seidel, and Wetzstein. Algeria and Morocco are specially the province of the French, and we may well hold Englishmen excused for having made little contribution to a field of scholarship where such excellent and abundant work has been done by those whose interests are more closely bound up with these countries. But we might have expected more to have been done for the Arabic of the littoral of the Persian Gulf by those who have occupied Aden for nearly eighty years. For Egyptian Arabic we have a notable exception; though excellent work was done by Spitta Bey, Vollers, and Nallino, by far the best work on the grammar of modern Egyptian is that of Mr. Willmore; in no other is there so clear a recognition of the distinctive features of this dialect, with such a wealth of illustration.

The work of Mr. Willmore has removed from English scholarship the disgrace of having neglected the study of the living forms of Arabic speech. But in so vast a field for activity it stands alone, and that, too, where Englishmen have had such unequalled opportunities. Moreover, to collect from the lips of the people examples of the living speech makes no such great demand on linguistic ability or training as does the study of a classical language with a rich literature. For Arabic the same

kind of work has to be done as has been accomplished in this country with such interesting results by the Dialect Society. It has only recently come to be recognised that the various Arabic dialects are not debased forms of classical Arabic, but have lived an independent life of their own, preserving often (especially in their morphology) early characteristics which can be traced back beyond the time when reverence for the Qur'ān caused the dialect in which it is written to become the established medium for literary expression.

The amazing fact is that these many forms of Arabic dialect should have maintained a continuous life, side by side with so powerful a literary tradition. In Syria, for example, Von Kremer maintained that almost every town and village had a separate dialect: this is no doubt an exaggerated statement, but it is easy to distinguish four main divisions of the Syrian dialect: (a) that spoken in the great cities of the interior, such as Damascus and Aleppo; (b) that spoken in the coast towns; (c) the speech of the inhabitants of the mountain tracts; and (d) the language of the Bedouins of the Syrian desert. In Baghdad it is possible to distinguish even between the forms of speech that prevail in different quarters of the city, and as many as six dialects may be enumerated. On the left bank of the river there are two distinct Sunni groups at opposite ends of the city, one in the Haydarkhāna quarter near the fort, the second at the other end of the city, near Bāb-al-Shaykh. In the centre of the city there is the Jewish quarter, preserving an ancient Arabic dialect, and near the river the quarter of the Christians, whose speech approximates to the dialect of Mosul. The Haytāwiyin are Shiāhs of mixed Bedouin origin, while the Bedouins on the right bank are quite distinct again, with a vocabulary of their own. Even the commonest objects may be called by different names, e.g. the little wooden tripod on which is put the earthen vessel for cooling water is called *اسككيلي* on the left bank, and *كُرسي* on the right. Apart from the historical basis for the differences between the dialects spoken by Jews, Christians, Bedouins, and other Muhammadans, there are the various foreign influences that have profoundly modified the daily vocabulary; Persians, Afghans, Indians, Kurds, and Turks have variously affected the common speech of the quarters of the city they frequent or have settled

in. The study of the Arabic dialects, therefore, is hedged about with peculiar difficulties, and there is room for the labour of any number of investigators.

Whether any of these dialects will succeed in developing any independent literature of their own, remains to be seen. Attempts have been made on behalf of Egyptian Arabic for more than a century, but they have been sporadic only; a few enthusiasts have produced books in the Egyptian dialect, but they have been frowned upon by the learned, and have received little encouragement from those to whom they were addressed.

The student of Arabic literature must then turn from the dialects to the classical language. And what an attraction there is in this literature of thirteen centuries that touches on every theme of human thought and activity! There is hardly any subject within the whole range of human interests to which some part of Arabic literature has not made its contribution; and it possesses characteristics peculiar to itself which vindicate for it a very special place among the literatures of the world,—and this, expressed through the medium of a language of a marvellous subtlety.

It is not my purpose to put before you a sketch of the history of Arabic literature, which in the brief time at my disposal could only be set out in the most meagre detail. But I return to the thought with which I began this lecture—namely, the importance of a knowledge of Arabic literature to this country, as part of an empire that contains so vast a Muhammadan population. In the immediate future we shall be closely concerned with Muhammadan questions; one of the many problems that will face us after the war is over will be the relations of the powers of Europe to the Muhammadan world. Germany will certainly not neglect it, and she does not look to her clergy for enlightenment as to the spirit and meaning of Islam. Her scholars arouse interest in Islam and spread knowledge by a ceaseless stream of publications. A German Colonial Congress recently took up the question of relations with the Muslim population of the German colonies as a subject for special investigation, and separate societies, such as the Deutsche Gesellschaft für Islamkunde of Berlin and the Orientalische Gesellschaft of Munich, have been recently established to emphasise the need of a closer study of Islam and Muhammadan

questions. This country, in spite of its larger interest in the Muslim world and the vaster Muhammadan population within the British Empire, has not given serious attention to Islam. It should be part of the service which this School of Oriental Studies will do for the state, to train administrators who are to work among Muhammadan peoples in such a way that they may learn to appreciate whatever is excellent in Muslim culture, and approach Muhammadan problems with intelligent sympathy. If the last two generations of English officials had only known something of the historic past of the Muhammadans they governed—more of their ideals and of the sentiments that appeal to them—much trouble might have been prevented, and the task that lies before the coming generation would have been rendered so much the easier. Especially in connection with educational policy may be seen the harmful results of this contemptuous disregard of that historic past of Islam, which has bequeathed to the present generation of Muslims the circle of ideas in which they live, and in which they find the inspiration of their noblest actions. The scornful ignorance of Macaulay's famous minute on education in India is typical of such detached theories of administration. We are apt to forget that the development of a people proceeds upon lines largely determined by its past history, and a violent breach with this historic evolution either results in a loss of stable equilibrium and a certain mental confusion (men's minds become bewildered through the break with the ancient landmarks, and run into extravagances, or fall a prey to violent reactions), or else, in the case of peoples on a lower level of culture, they suffer a profound depression in the presence of a civilisation and a circle of ideas for which their intellectual antecedents have not prepared them. Illustrations might be given of either of these unhappy results among Muslim peoples who have come under British rule. An acquaintance with Arabic literature would have enabled English administrators to recognise that they were dealing with the heirs of a great civilisation to whom had been bequeathed ideas of law, ethics, and social order, that have played a great part in the world, and are still capable of acting as regenerative forces. These ideals should be fostered and encouraged ;—but to know them, and to enter into the point of view of those who can be swayed by them, we must learn Arabic. Through this knowledge, it is possible to attain to

an appreciation of Islamic civilisation, and touch the hearts of Muslim peoples.

Had there been some such knowledge and some intelligent recognition of the civilising influences to be found in Arabic literature, modern education in Egypt might have been developed on healthier and more fruitful lines. The Government of the Sudan has taken warning from this mistake, and has devised a system of education in which Muslim culture fills an important place, and Arabic is of course assiduously studied. It is to be hoped that the same wise principles of education will be followed in Nigeria, the latest part of the Muhammadan world to come under British rule.

I have spoken of the importance of the study of Arabic for the administrator who lives in the midst of a Muhammadan population, but it is in this country also that there is need of a wider knowledge of the Arabic language, need of persons who will read the great collections of Arabic books that remain untouched upon the shelves of so many libraries in this land. A body of opinion is needed to counteract the common, ignorant, and hostile judgment of Islam and Muhammadan civilisation, which is so unfitting in a people responsible for the good government of vast Muhammadan populations. If we expect them to accept our guidance in the arts of peace and civilised life, we must show generous feeling enough to recognise their virtues and excellences. On the basis of such recognition, a common activity towards noble aims becomes possible; for nations only come to respect one another when they have learned to understand each other's ideals. In the midst of much that is sordid and ugly in daily life and intercourse, ideals become obscured, and they can be seen more clearly in literature than in the market-place. Now, the student of Arabic who cares to learn what the ideals of the Muslim world are, comes in touch with a circle of thoughts which excite admiration and sympathy. I cannot attempt here to analyse these in full. But among them is included a theory of an organised system of human society, with a detailed body of laws and institutions,—a corporate life, in which the functions of the various sections of society are defined and developed; in the intellectual sphere, an ardent love of learning, and a thirst for knowledge that has left no field of human investigation untouched; in the moral sphere, a stern

sense of duty, more akin to that of our Puritan ancestors (it is true) than that of the present generation, implying a serious outlook upon life and its responsibilities,—and permeating all this, a sense of the Divine Presence, ever recognised in the commonest acts of daily life, and adding a dignity to human life, where (as Doughty has put it) “religion is a devout and genial remembrance”, and the believer faces the varying changes of fortune with a calm resignation to the Will of God. This is part of the ideal of our Muslim fellow-subjects, and it is in order that we may the more recognise and appreciate this, that I have ventured to commend to you the study of the Arabic language.

REVIEWS OF BOOKS

THE GAEKWAD'S ORIENTAL SERIES. Edited by C. D. DALAL and
Pandit R. ANANTAKRISHNA SHASTRY.

In recent years the revival of Sanskrit studies has been materially aided by the enlightened patronage of some of the native princes of India. To this goodly company belongs H.H. the Maharaja Gaekwad of Baroda, under the auspices of whose Government a number of works have been published, in addition to which there has lately begun to appear, under the title of "The Gaekwad's Oriental Series", an attractive collection of Sanskrit, Prakrit, and Gujarati writings, under the editorship of Mr. C. D. Dalal and Pandit R. Anantakrishna Shastri. Two of these, the *Kāvya-mīmāṃsā* of Rājaśekhara and the *Nara-nārāyaṇānanda* of Vastupāla, have already been published, and we take the present opportunity to offer a few remarks on the former of them.

Rājaśekhara is a writer of considerable note. He is best known as the author of four dramas in Sanskrit and Prakrit; but he seems to have composed likewise a poem styled *Hara-vilāsa*, a work on literary criticism called *Kavi-vimarśa*, and a geography entitled *Bhuvana-kośa*. As he flourished in the early part of the tenth century A.D., when the classical period of literature was coming to an end, he was able to survey it to its full extent, and he has embodied his mature studies in his *Kāvya-mīmāṃsā*, or "anatomy of poetry". This work comprises eighteen chapters (possibly there once was more of it, but if so the rest has not survived the ravage of time and the ants), in which he treats of the theory of æsthetics, the principles of literary education, and the technique of poetical composition. It thus far surpasses in interest the usual manuals of poetry, which limit themselves to cut-and-dried rules illustrated by elegant extracts, while Rājaśekhara discusses the fundamental principles of æsthetics and education, and eschews scholastic details. In form his book is somewhat reminiscent of the *Kauṭīliya Artha-śāstra*: we find lively arguments, in which the views of "eminent authorities" are quoted, and often countered or modified by dicta of "Yāyāvriya", who is Rājaśekhara himself.

After a brief introduction and a summary classification of literature, our author proceeds to evolve out of his inner consciousness a history of the origin of poetry. Like Plato, he clothes his ideas in the garb of myth. In order to obtain a son, he tells us, Sarasvatī, the goddess of poetry and literature, performed austerities on the Himalaya. Brahma accordingly granted her the desired boon, and she gave birth to "Kāvya-purusha", the Spirit of Poetry, who at once expressed himself in metrical speech, which was hitherto unknown. His body consisted of words and meanings, his face of Sanskrit, his arms of Prakrit, his thighs of Apabhraṃśa, his feet of Paisācī, his breast of mixed dialect, his soul of sentiment, his hair of metre. One day, in order to prevent him from following her into the presence of Brahma, who had invited her to his court to settle a literary dispute, Sarasvatī resolved to create for him a bride who by her fascinations should restrain him. She therefore created "Sāhitya-vadhū", the "Lady of Style", and charged her to follow him and try to hold him back, while a chorus of holy men should sing their praises. So they travelled to Eastern India, and there she danced and made music, assuming a certain dress and mode of adornment, which ever since then has been followed by the women of those lands; it was called *Raudra-māgadhī*, and was duly hymned by the obedient chorus of holy men. The costume worn by Kāvya-purusha on this occasion set the future fashion for the men of those regions. The music and dance performed by her were the origin of the *Bhārati vr̥tti*; his answer, declining to submit to her charms, founded the *Gauḍīyā r̥ti* or poetical style of Bengal. So they travelled on, in the Pañchāla land founding in the same way the Pañchāla-madhyamā costume, the *Sāvati vr̥tti*, and the *Pāñchālī r̥ti*, in Avanti the *Avanti vr̥tti*, in the South the *Kāśikī vr̥tti* and the *Vaidarbhī r̥ti*. In the South the process of fascination, which had been gradually progressing in Pañchāla and Avanti, finally attained complete success, and was expressed in the *Vaidarbhī r̥ti*. Then the pair were wedded by the Gandharva-rite at Vatsagulma in Vidarbha.

After this comes a discussion of the psychology of the poet and the critic, in which we learn a tradition that Kumāradāsa and Medhāvī-rudra were born blind; and this leads to a study of the relative importance of natural genius and training, a

classification of types and poets, and an analysis of *pāka*, or poetical ripeness. Then comes a survey of Grammar in relation to poetical practice (we are told, for example, that the Vidarbhas love case-endings, the Gaudas compounds, the Southerners *taddhitas*, the Northerners *kṛit-stems*), after which our author plunges into controversy against the purists who object to poetry, either because of its fictitious themes, or of its dubious morality, or of its mention of coarse and unedifying objects. Next he deals with style in general, classifying language according as it is used by Brahma, Śiva, Viṣṇu, the Rishis, and various classes of godlings, etc.; with the sources of the subject-matter of poetry; and with its themes and their modes of treatment. Chapter x gives an interesting description of the personal character, the household, and the daily life of the poet as it should be (not quite the "simple life"), and also contains the traditions that King Śīsunāga of Magadha forbade his harem to use the four cerebral consonants and *ś*, *sh*, *h*, and *ksh*, that Kuvinda of Śūrasena similarly prohibited harsh consonantal combinations, that Sātavāhana of Kuntala allowed only Prakrit, and that Sāhasānka of Ujjayinī tolerated only Sanskrit; and it also sketches the court of a king who patronizes literature and art. Three chapters are devoted to the analysis and exemplification of the gentle art of "borrowing", *harana*, which is an important branch of Indian literary craftsmanship, and this brings us to five sections in which the work approximates somewhat to a *Gradus ad Parnassum*, classifying and exemplifying the conventional modes of treating classes, substances, and qualities, and including a section of considerable interest on Indian geography.

The *Kāvya-mimāṃsā* is a really valuable book. Not only does it furnish many new quotations from vanished authors and many scraps of miscellaneous information; it also takes us into the inner life of a brilliant and successful man of letters, showing him to us at work and at play amidst all the furniture of his study. He talks to us with graceful ease about the principles of his art, the origins of style, the development of poetical conventions from the actual experiences related by Vedic sages, the manner of recitation and pronunciation current in the various parts of India, and so forth, always urbane and judicious, with nothing of the pedantry of the ordinary Hindu writers on the

Ars Poetica, whose manuals are dreary dissections of the Kāvya-purusha's dead body. Beyond question his is the most precious work of its kind that has been published for many years.

L. D. BARNETT.

EEN ONBEKEND INDISCH TOONEELSTUK (GOPĀLAKELICANDRIKĀ),
TEKST MET INLEIDING. Door W. CALAND. Verhandelingen
der Koninklijke Akademie van Wetenschappen te Amsterdam,
Afdeling Letterkunde, Nieuwe Reeks, Deel xvii, No. 3.
Amsterdam: Johannes Muller. Februari, 1917.

In his latest work Professor W. Caland has abandoned the field of minute investigation of the ritual literature of ancient India for the not less exacting, if very different, task of editing from a single manuscript in the collection of the late Professor Kern, now at Leiden, a hitherto unknown Indian drama, the *Gopālakelicandrikā*, of Rāmakṛṣṇa. Such an attempt is clearly hazardous, however good the single manuscript may be, and the work would doubtless not have been undertaken by Professor Caland had there been any hope that further manuscript material would be available. But the work is not noticed in the *Catalogus Catalogorum*, nor apparently in any list of manuscripts published since the date of the third part of Aufrecht's invaluable work, and, while there may well exist copies in some of the many unexamined collections still in India, Professor Caland may be excused for not delaying the work on the chance of this being the case. As is inevitable, in the result certain passages of the text present corruptions which cannot be remedied by any application of sound critical methods, but the care and skill of the editor have gone far to remove the most of those errors which can with reasonable certainty be eradicated. In this regard, indeed, the only criticism which can be offered is that the editor might have been more decided in his treatment of obvious corruptions, and have banished readings which cannot be correct to the footnotes, while inserting the necessary correction in the text. Thus in the scene with the Gopis the MS. presents us in a speech of Kṛṣṇa's with the words *mayebhā ramasyatha kṣiyāh* (p. 124, l. 35), with the usual doubt as to *p* or *y* in the last word; the editor suggests *kṣipā = kṣapā*, but the true reading is plainly *kṣapāh*, the accusative of time; *ibhā* is more difficult;

the editor suggests *mayeha*, but in the context *ibhā* may perhaps stand. The same passage presents the strange locution *manorathasiddham garisyāmi*; the editor suggests *karisyāmi*, but in a MS., which is certainly copied from an original in South Indian characters, there can be no hesitation in placing *karisyāmi* in the text in place of the impossible reading. On the same ground in Kṛṣṇa's speech (p. 123, l. 17) there can be no doubt as to reading *namah kuruta* for *namo kuruta*, which is contradicted by the stage direct following, *sarcās tathaiva cakruḥ*.

The play as a drama must be regarded as of slight merit, and it owes the chief interest to the question of its real character, which is discussed with care and discrimination by Professor Caland in the introduction to his edition. The fact that no Prākṛit occurs, being deliberately rejected as unsuitable by the poet on the ground that the play is not meant for a *sādhāraṇarāja* audience, but for *Haribhaktavaryas*, is perhaps not so important as Professor Caland is inclined to think, for it shares this peculiarity not only with the *Hanumannāṭaka*, to which the editor refers, but also with the *Vasantatilaka*, a Bhāṇa by Varadācārya, and in several other dramas of the late period of this work the use of Prākṛit is either not observed or reduced to negligible proportions. But other points occur which are not found normally in Sanskrit plays. Some of the stage directions are expressed by past tenses, the perfect or the past participle, and a mysterious Sūcaka is once mentioned (p. 76) as addressing the *sāmājikas* and describing the advent of Kṛṣṇa. This term has hitherto been known only from Hemacandra's reference, where it is taken as denoting the Sūtradhara, a sense which does not suit its use in this play. Are we then to assume that the play was really a puppet play, or that it was performed by children, the words being spoken for them by the Sūcaka, a procedure which can be paralleled from the performances at Mathura recorded by Growse, or finally is the drama no more than a mere literary exercise? The material for any certain decision of these questions is scanty, but it appears that the evidence all tells strongly in favour of the last of these views. The play might no doubt have in some shape been performed before an audience of Hari worshippers, but not, it is clear, exactly as it stands, and this consideration is supported by the whole nature of the play, which is rather obviously an effort in dramatic form

to cover the same ground as is so much more ably covered by the author of the *Gītagovīnda*.

The date of the author is wholly uncertain, but it is doubtless late. His father's name is taken by the editor as Devajīti, but the form is extraordinary, and the verse in which it occurs, and which shows him to have been a follower of Rāmanuja, runs *ṣṛīdevajītidvijah*, which must be resolved into *ṣṛīdevajī -iti dvijah*, giving thus the modern name Devajī. The only other Rāmakṛṣṇa who is as yet known as a dramatist is the son of Ālāda, the author of the *Prabhāvatīpradyumna*. The author's language accords with a late date; it is deficient in originality and his syntax is often lax.

In place of a translation, which could not be satisfactorily prepared on the basis of the present text, Professor Caland has given an interesting and valuable analysis of the play. To one suggestion exception may perhaps be taken; the author is described by himself with an excessive licence of self-praise as a *kulaḥi Daṇḍino Bhavabhūter uta Bhāraveḥ kaveḥ*, and on this Professor Caland remarks (p. 6, n. 1) that it supports the view of Professor Fischel that Daṇḍin was a dramatist and author of the *Mṛcchakaṭikā*. But no such conclusion is legitimate; *kaveḥ* does not serve to discriminate between Bhāravi as a poet in opposition to Daṇḍin and Bhavabhūti as dramatists; it is rather intended to emphasize the claim of the author to the rank of a Kavi himself, and the collocation of names suggests the conclusion, which is justified by the general standard of the work, that the writer was by no means very well versed in the subject of which he claimed to be a master.

A. BERRIEDALE KEITH.

PROPOSED INDEX TO THE SUNNI TRADITIONS

1. All who have been engaged in the study of the collections of Arab traditions know how difficult it is, among these vast complications, to trace, even approximately, references to any given subject. The arrangement of subject matter in the various collections has been made from very different points of view, yet none of the methods which have been followed serves effectively to guide our researches.

2. This difficulty might be remedied by condensing the matter into a summary in which all repetitions would be avoided. But, to say nothing of other objections to which such a *résumé* would be open, it would be almost impossible to take into account the many variants which occur and are often of great importance.

3. It will be impossible to make the best use of the collections of traditions until we have at our disposal an alphabetical index containing every characteristic word, under which will be found the kindred words necessary for rapid reference. Naturally such an index must be of considerable dimensions and its compilation must occupy several years.

4. Further it will be necessary to index under the following headings: (a) The *isnad*; (b) Proper names found in the *matn*; (c) Geographical names; (d) Citations of verses of the Koran. On the other hand, the indexing of the proper names which figure in the *isnad* presents difficulties which would outweigh its practical value, so that it would seem better to put off such an undertaking until a suitable method should have been found.

5. The indexes must embrace, besides the six so-called canonical collections, the *Mosnad* of Darimi, the *Mosnad* of Ahmad, the *Muwatta*, and the ancient traditions found in the commentaries of Qastallani Nawawi and Zorkani.

6. With regard to works already published, the following editions might serve as a basis for the indexes: the edition of Bokhari by Krehl, continued by Juynboll; the edition of Moslim, with the commentary by Nawawi (Cairo, 1283, 5 vols.); the edition of Abu Daud in two volumes (Cairo, 1280); the edition of

Tirmidhi in two volumes (Cairo, 1292); the edition of Al Nasai, with the commentary by Soyuti (Cairo, 1312, 2 vols.); the edition of Ahmad in six volumes (Cairo, 1313); the edition of the *Mowatta* with the commentary by Zorkani (Cairo, 1279, 4 vols.); the edition of Qastallani in two volumes (Bulaq, 1288).

The works of Darimi and Ibu Maja not having yet been satisfactorily edited, Professor Snouck Hurgronje has most kindly offered to undertake their publication provided that the manuscripts on which they are founded are available as a basis for critical edition.

7. The six so-called canonical collections, as well as from those of Darimi, will have to show the chapter and the number of the *bāb* or of the tradition, following the method of scholars who quote Bokhari. Quotations from the other works should indicate volume, page, and line.

8. The system of transcription as used in the *Encyclopédie de l'Islam* might be employed.

9. Dr. Juynboll announces that he is willing to start on the abstract of the fourth part of Bokhari. I myself will undertake the first part of the same author. We shall no doubt find fellow-students who will be good enough to enter into collaboration with us.

10. The completion of the whole work will take at least ten years. In the meantime Semitists, who may wish for information on any of the works quoted, may apply to the Compilers, as soon as the required indexes exist in manuscript.

I shall be glad to receive the opinions and advice of Semitists on the undertaking outlined above.

(Signed) A. J. WENSINCK.

LEIDEN, July 16, 1916.

[The above is a translation of a communication which appeared in the *Journal Asiatique*, Onzième Série, tome vii, and is published by the kind permission of the Editors of that journal.]

MEMORANDUM
ON THE
Position of Indian Students
IN THE
United Kingdom

The Position of Indian Students in the United Kingdom.

On the 19th July 1916, a representation was addressed by the Indian Students' Friends' Society to His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor-General in Council in which were set forth certain grievances from which it is alleged that Indian students suffered in the United Kingdom. As the allegations cited had reference to the Department for Indian students at the India Office and certain institutions such as the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, London medical schools, the Inns of Court and the Institution of Civil Engineers, the representation was forwarded to the Secretary of State and in reply the Secretary of State has forwarded the following memorandum dealing with the main points put forward in the representation.

MEMORANDUM.

Some perplexity has been felt in India in regard to the origin and the working of the Students' Department, and a memorial from the Indian Students' Friends' Society, presented to the Viceroy in July 1916, re-echoes the sentiment:—"The genesis of this department has all along been shrouded in mystery. It is not known to the public in this country why the department was started, and at whose instance. It is not known that the students concerned had ever asked for it. All that we know is that a Departmental Committee of the India Office recommended such an institution, and it was assumed that it would be for the benefit of the students" (page 9, paragraph 20).

To appreciate the benevolent intention of the Secretary of State in establishing the Students' Department, it is necessary to go back to the period when Indian students first began to come to this country for purposes of education. Up to the seventies the number was very small, and when the National Indian Association was founded in 1871 with the object of extending the knowledge of India in England, of co-operating with all efforts made for advancing education and social reform in India, and of promoting friendly intercourse between English people and the peoples of India, it was not anticipated that Indian students would tend to absorb the major part of its activities, and the "superintending of the education of young Indian students in England" was at the outset looked upon merely as a subsidiary part of its work. From 1877 to 1905 Miss Manning was the Honorary Secretary of the Association, and as she possessed an ample private fortune she was able to devote the whole of her time to the care of such Indian students as sought her help. But by the date of her death the number of Indian students in this country had so much increased that no private individual could deal with all the problems connected with their difficulties, nor could any unofficial agency adequately represent them to the educational institutions into which they sought entry in yearly increasing numbers. Several persons, both English and Indian, interested in the welfare of

Indian students, drew the attention of Lord Morley, when Secretary of State for India, to the need of some provision for the welfare of Indian students during their residence in this country, and on the 14th of April 1907 he appointed a committee "to enquire and report upon the position in this country of young Indians who come to England, otherwise than as Government scholars, to study for university degrees, or for the Bar or other professions, and to make recommendations." This committee interviewed a number of Indian gentlemen, who strongly advocated the establishment of some organisation for the assistance and guidance of students; among them were older Indian gentlemen temporarily resident in this country, as well as students in Oxford, Cambridge and London. The proposal to establish such an organisation was also welcomed by the authorities of universities and other educational institutions, and in consequence of the evidence collected by the Committee, and the recommendations which it submitted to the Secretary of State, a Bureau of Information was instituted in April 1909, which afterwards developed into the present Students' Department. There is hardly a university or college in this country, to which Indian students resort, that has not continuously availed itself of the assistance given by the Students' Department in regard to the admission of Indian applicants; such educational establishments had previously no means of testing the value of credentials brought from India, as they were in many cases written by persons with whom the authorities in the United Kingdom were not personally acquainted, and the organisation of the Indian universities was little known or understood in this country. Even the University of Edinburgh (which at the outset was hostile, under the misapprehension that the creation of a Bureau of Information in London "would act prejudicially to Edinburgh's interest, as in the course of time it would probably become a mere recruiting agency for the London Schools") appointed in 1913 a representative of the Secretary of State to act when desired as guardian to Indian students, to secure facilities and introductions for them, and to render such other assistance as circumstances might require.

The recommendations of the committee as to the Bureau of Information were that its functions should be—

- (a) to provide information upon educational matters to Indian parents and students;
- (b) to draw up and keep on record a list of suitable lodgings and boarding houses in London, and of suitable families throughout the country who may be willing to receive Indians as paying guests during the vacations or at other times;
- (c) to furnish Indian students with such references or certificates as may from time to time be required of them by institutions to which they desire admittance;
- (d) to consider cases in which the regulations of British universities or other academic bodies impose unintention

hardship upon Indian students, or in which the system in force at colleges or universities in India does not harmonise with the requirements of educational institutions in this country ;

- (e) to bring out a handbook of information on matters relating to academic and technical education, general particulars as to the conditions of life in various centres in the United Kingdom, the expenses of living, and any other details which may be useful to an Indian parent who contemplates sending his son to this country ;

to assist Indian students in this country with advice on all matters—social, financial, or educational in which such advice is sought ; also on the expressed request of parents in India to undertake or to entrust to responsible persons the duties of guardianship of Indian students in general or special matters, and, if desired, to send home periodical reports as to progress and conduct.

The Bureau of Information started its activities on the 27th of April 1909 on the lines indicated in these recommendations. From the outset it was faced with the difficulty of reconciling educational institutions to the possibility of an increased admission of Indian students, and, on the other hand, of removing the distrust which any official activity was apt to incite in the mind of the Indian student himself. With regard to educational institutions in this country the difficulties that presented themselves and the efforts made by the Students' Department to deal with them will be considered separately later on, but speaking generally it may be stated that the universities and colleges of this country are self-governing corporations, jealous of their own honour and privileges and of their independence as secured to them by Royal Charter or otherwise. They are in no way bound to pay any consideration whatsoever to representations of the Secretary of State for India, and at the time there was a considerable amount of dissatisfaction felt in regard to the Indian students to whom they had granted admission. In urging further liberality in regard to the admission of Indians, the Students' Department was met with objections that consisted mainly of complaints in regard to (a) offences against morals ; (b) indebtedness to colleges and lodging-house keepers ; (c) failure on the part of Indian students to avail themselves of the educational facilities provided ; and (d) their holding aloof from the social life at the colleges (particularly in Oxford and Cambridge).

In regard to the Indian students themselves, feeling was at the time much excited over the question of the partition of Bengal, and in London Shyamji Krishnavarma was actively engaged in an anti-British propaganda, and the attitude of the student was thus described by one of the Indian witnesses (a distinguished barrister), who gave evidence

before the committee appointed by the Secretary of State: "The opinions of most of them are revolutionary; their motto is distrust and hatred." The murder of Sir Curzon Wyllie by a student of University College, London, on the 1st July 1909, a few months after the Bureau of Information began its work, was followed by a large increase of police activity—quite unconnected with the Students' Department—which created widespread suspicion that the Department had been established for the purpose of spying upon the students and interfering with their freedom. The fact that the report of the Committee, on whose recommendations the Bureau had been established, was never published, gave rise to many surmises as to its purpose and the nature of its activities. A group of students, among whom Hardy, Sarvarkar and V. Chattopadhyaya have since become notorious, fostered the feeling of distrust, and, sometimes openly, sometimes covertly, carried on a campaign against the Department, and succeeded in imbuing a certain number of the students with a feeling of hostility towards any organisation connected with the India Office.

But apart from any attitude of political hostility, it must be remembered that students between the ages of 18 and 22, whatever be their nationality, are apt to resent any show of authority and anything that appears to them like an infringement of personal liberty; and their interpretation of liberty is apt to leave out of count the interests of the community and the rights and privileges of organised corporations.

With such material to deal with, it is rather a matter of surprise that the Students' Department has achieved so much success as it has. In one year, more than 1,000 students availed themselves of the help that the Department could give them, and it has had as much as 21,000*l.* entrusted to its care by parents and others for the guardianship of students in the course of a single year (1910-11). In Sir C. E. Mallet's Reports from 1912 to 1916, detailed figures are given, and these* show that the majority of the students who come to this country have at some time or other derived advantage from the efforts of the Department on their behalf.

*Published as Parliamentary Papers, price 2*½* *d.* each, and obtainable through any bookseller.

The memorialists state: "Our society believe that it is not at all necessary to maintain a whole department for the purpose of supplying information about curricula and boarding houses; there is nothing in this direction which cannot be done by private agency in less time, at less cost and with less trouble." A perusal of Sir C. E. Mallet's Reports on the work of the Indian Students' Department from July 1912 to June 1916, will show how multifarious and varied is the work this Department has to carry on. Indeed, beginning merely as a bureau of information on educational matters, it has developed into an organisation to which Indian students apply for assistance in reference to any difficulties whatsoever they may happen to meet with in this country; and, on the other hand, its help is sought by English persons interested in the welfare of Indian students or in any way concerned with them.

The following is a summary of the various kinds of work the Department has to carry on :—

- (1) co-operation with the 11 Advisory Committees in India, supplying them with the information they require, collecting and supplying them with the calendars and prospectuses of educational institutions in the United Kingdom, keeping them acquainted with such changes in rules and regulations as affect Indian students, answering enquires sent by these Advisory Committees, supporting their recommendations in every way possible, and sending reports on the work and progress of students who have come to this country with letters of recommendation from one or other of these Committees ;
- (2) correspondence with the Secretary to the Delegacy for Oriental Students in Oxford, the Secretary of the Intercollegiate Indian Students' Committee, Cambridge, and the local advisers to Indian Students at Manchester, Edinburgh, and Glasgow, in regard to Indian students seeking admission to either of these universities or residing there under the charge of one or other of these persons ;
- (3) making arrangements for the studies of the Government of India scholars and other scholars that have from time to time been placed under the charge of the Department by the Governments of Mysore, Patiala, Travancore, etc., and by the Tata and Wadia Trustees, superintending the studies of these scholars, and furnishing reports upon them ; since 1913 the women scholars, sent to this country by the Government of India, for the study of medicine and a training in the methods and practice of education, have been placed under the charge of this Department, and special arrangements have had to be made for such scholars ; similarly, the Dufferin Fund has entrusted the care of its scholars to the Students' Department ;
- (4) caring for other students placed under guardianship by their parents ; the number of such students varies from year to year ; there were 91 in 1911, 137 in 1912, 144 in 1913, 157 in 1914, 144 in 1915, and 138 in 1916 ; the duties connected with such guardianship are often arduous and responsible, especially as the total sum of money that has to be administered is considerable, and difficulties are apt to arise owing to delay in the arrival of remittances from India, the death of a parent, etc., to say nothing of the circumstances connected with the career of the student himself ; such students under guardianship include not only young men pursuing a course of study in a university or college, but also school-boys, who require more constant attention and for whom suitable families have to be found to provide them with a home during the school vacations ;

- (5) making arrangements for meeting students on their arrival at the docks, or at a railway station (if they travel overland from Marseilles), and arranging return passages ;
- (6) furnishing students with references and certificates to enable them to enter educational establishments, particularly the Inns of Court ;
- (7) giving advice to students in regard to educational facilities in this country, the choice of a profession, and the most suitable university, college, school, or technical institute, in which the course of study or practical training may be profitably pursued ; the subjects in regard to which the Department has been consulted are multifarious, and include not only the Arts studies in regard to which information is readily accessible through familiar academic channels, and other well-recognised university courses, such as those in medicine, engineering, law, agriculture, and forestry—but also technical studies, facilities for which are not so easy to find ; among the technical subject on which the Department has been consulted are photo-lithography, glass manufacture, soap-making, the manufacture of cutlery, pottery, bakery, and biscuit-making, the manufacture of oils and fats, weaving, dyeing, bleaching, calico printing, ribbon manufactory, sericulture, electro-plating, tobacco-curing, telegraphy, the motor-car industry, tanning, tailoring, and veterinary science ; students who wish to become architects, accountants, bankers, or solicitors, have also applied to the Students' Department for guidance as to the best course to follow ; in many cases reference has to be made to specialists, before a satisfactory answer can be given, and by an arrangement made between the Secretary of State for India and the Board of Education, the Students' Department is in a position to consult the Department of Special Enquiries in the Board of Education in regard to technical studies, and to obtain for students undergoing a training as teachers, opportunities for visiting schools and other facilities ; as it is in touch with every form of educational activity in this country, the Board of Education is in a position to furnish the most recent and trustworthy information in regard to almost every branch of study and intellectual training. In regard to medical studies, the Students' Department is able to profit by the advice of the President of the Medical Board and Medical Adviser to the Secretary of State. For the benefit of engineering students, the Secretary in 1910 appointed Mr. J. M. Campion, M.I.C.E., to act as Engineering Adviser, and he is in close touch with the various Institutions of Engineers, and with companies and firms willing to afford students opportunities for practical work, and most of the students who come to this

country to be trained as engineers, avail themselves of his advice. In other technical matters, the Students' Department is able to obtain for students the advice of the Board of Agriculture, the Director of the Imperial Institute, and a large number of other experts ;

- (8) in the more difficult matter of obtaining opportunities for practical training and experience, the Students' Department has since its inception secured for Indian students admission into manufactories and works of all kinds, and facilities for a practical training in electrical and mechanical engineering, sugar manufacture, flour-milling, tanning and pottery-manufacture have been obtained for a large number of students, who but for the recommendation of the India Office would have experienced great difficulties in endeavouring to obtain them by their own unaided efforts, and would in some cases have found it quite impossible ;
- (9) recommending suitable lodgings, finding families who will admit Indian students into their household, and arranging for holiday homes and vacation residences ; before the outbreak of the war, similar arrangements were made for students who wished to spend a vacation in France or Germany ; to build up a useful connection of this kind is the work of many years, and much care and tact is needed in making use of it ; but it has been possible thereby to introduce a large number of Indian students into English households, which have become their homes during their residence in this country and in which they have formed pleasant and helpful friendships ;
- (10) compiling the Handbook of Information, which gives details of the various university and professional studies commonly followed by Indian students in the United Kingdom, together with advice as to outfit and preparations requisite before leaving India, the cost of education in this country and the best means of profiting by it ; in addition to this Handbook the Students' Department issues some pamphlets and leaflets, such as an account of the work carried on in 21, Cromwell Road, and the advantages that students can obtain there, " Rules and Suggestions for Indian Students entering Oxford and Cambridge," " Rules for the Guardianship of Indian Students in Great Britain" " Notes and Suggestions for Indian Students for the English Bar," and " The Cost of Living for Indian Students in Great Britain" ;
- (11) obtaining passports for students returning to India ; since the outbreak of the war, the procedure in regard to passports has become complicated and often involves considerable correspondence ;

- (12) relieving students in financial difficulties, by co-operation with the Distressed Indian Students' Aid Committee (which is an outgrowth of the Students' Department); students are frequently embarrassed owing to the failure of remittances to arrive in time, or (less frequently) through the death of a parent and the consequent confusion in monetary arrangements; and the temporary loans made by this Committee (to which is attached one of the members of the staff of the Students' Department) have relieved distress for which previously there was no adequate remedy;
- (13) the care of students who fall into ill-health, arrangements for the burial and winding up of the affairs of any who die, the extrication of students from difficulties into which they have fallen, litigation, etc;
- (14) the promotion of social intercourse with English undergraduates and others in this country (in this connection the Hospitality Committee has been one of the most recent developments);
- (15) lastly, the organisation of the many-sided work at 21, Cromwell Road, and especially its social activities and the various literary and debating societies which have met there.

It is of interest to note that several societies have from time to time been founded to carry on some such work as is done by the Students' Department, and their very existence and their number bear testimony to the recognition of the need of such an organisation; but none has met with much measure of success, except the National Indian Association (founded in 1871), and most of them have perished after a brief existence of one or two years. The fact is that the work is so exacting that only a permanent staff entirely devoted to it, can cope with the multifarious character and volume of the work, and only an official body can command the confidence of educational institutions, which ask for guarantees, or of parents who wish to entrust to a guardian large sums of money to be administered on behalf of their sons.

As Sir C. E. Mallet states in his Report, 1914-15 (paragraph 21): "There will always, perhaps, be a few critics to protest that Indian students would get on better in this country if they had no connection with the India Office, and no department to help and advise them, to supply information about English life and education, to receive new arrivals and start them on their way, to secure them the introductions for which they ask, to support their admission to institutions which they wish to join. But this view is only tenable by people who know little of English institutions, and still less of Indian students' needs." Again in his Report, 1915-16 (paragraph 21): "Objection has been raised to the Students' Department on the ground that it means official intervention where no such intervention is required. But no one who realises the circumstances in India and in England will admit the

soundness of this plea. There are now thousands of enquiries received every year in the two countries from Indian students who want information as to British examinations, exemptions, diplomas, and degrees. The enquiries are often complicated and minute in character, and need careful and detailed replies. No voluntary organisation exists which can deal satisfactorily with these enquiries. The need for the machinery of the Advisory Committees set up by Government in India has been repeatedly proved by the applications made to them. In the same way on this side, it has been shown by experience that Indian students, when they come to this country, need in many cases some organisation to put them on their way, to receive and start them in their new surroundings, and to introduce them to the institutions which they wish to join. Here again, no voluntary organisation has yet grown up which is equal to the task, and it is simply because the Department is needed that Indian students apply to it for help. Besides that, the standpoint of English institutions should be understood. Bodies like Oxford and Cambridge Colleges or the London Inns of Court, which set store on the facilities they offer, and have their own traditions and standards to maintain, will not admit any new candidate, be his nationality what it may, until satisfied that he is qualified for admission. It is not enough for a student to wish to join them. He must produce such credentials as they require; he must satisfy them that his credentials are of value, and he must make his application at the proper time. It often happens that institutions in this country feel unable to judge of the value of testimonials brought to them by students of whom they know nothing, and in such cases it is no reflection on the students, it is simply a matter of reasonable precaution, that they should apply to the authority in England which can best tell them what these testimonials are worth. In the case of an Indian student the India Office is the source of information to which English institutions naturally turn. If any critic is tempted without consideration to protest against official action in this matter, he should ask himself what the position would be if the India Office refused to intervene, and declined to accept any responsibility or to give any recommendations for Indian students. The result would inevitably be the closing of doors which official influence has been able to keep open."

In the memorial from the Indian Students' Friends' Society the Government of India is asked to "take immediate steps to remove all the just grievances of young Indians in the United Kingdom," and a number of complaints are brought forward against various educational institutions in the United Kingdom which admit Indian students. The problem is more perplexing and complicated than the memorialists have recognised it to be, and cannot be made clear unless it is dealt with in some detail, specially as the complaints made are stated in general terms and no specific examples of injustice are adduced in support of them.

It is proposed to consider these complaints in regard to the institutions referred to, in the following order: (A) the Universities of Oxford

and Cambridge ; (B) the Medical Schools ; (C) the Inns of Court ; and (D) the Institution of Civil Engineers.

(A) The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

It is an error to suppose that the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge have ceased to welcome scholars and men of personality of whatever race or creed, but they wish to admit students who are likely to profit by the opportunities afforded them there and keep alive the traditions of sound learning. From about the year 1905 the number of Indian applicants for admission increased considerably, and by 1909 a number of colleges, which had found a difficulty in obtaining adequate information as to the character, financial standing, and intellectual qualifications of their Indian students, became reluctant to admit Indian students at all. It was directly in consequence of representations from the India Office that almost all the colleges promised to reserve a number of vacancies for Indian applicants ; the India Office, on its part, undertook to make arrangements whereby students in India could be advised as to the expenses, conditions of admission, and courses of study, &c., and the colleges, on the other hand, receive information as to the suitability of candidates for admission ; at the same time, financial guarantees were provided in the case of colleges that would not admit Indian students without them, by an arrangement whereby parents placed their sons under the guardianship of the Educational Adviser and sent remittances of money to him. There are several references in the memorial to compulsory guardianship. It cannot be too emphatically stated that the Students' Department only undertook the guardianship of a student if asked by the student himself or his parent or his natural guardian to do so. The memorialists quote the report of a Sub-Committee of the London Advisory Committee which asserts that an "element of compulsion has been imported into what was originally avowed to be a purely voluntary system." This opinion was based on a misunderstanding of the circumstances under which the Department used to undertake the guardianship of students admitted to Oxford or Cambridge ; such guardianship was only undertaken in order to help students to obtain admission in cases when guardianship was made a condition of admission. Some few out of the Colleges at Oxford and Cambridge, and the Censor of Non-Collegiate Students at Oxford, would not admit Indian students unless they were under guardianship, chiefly with the object of having someone in this country, who would be responsible for the payment of the students' dues. If this regulation may be described as compulsion, the compulsion was a matter of college regulations, for which the Department was not responsible, and the Department intervened only to help the students in cases where there was no one in this country forthcoming to undertake this responsibility. Several Indian gentlemen resident in England acted as guardians, and were thus able to secure for their wards admission

to colleges, and the Department performed a similar office for other students. It is an error to represent what was a detail of college discipline as being compulsion on the part of the Department. But at the present time there is no ground even for such a misapprehension. In accordance with the new arrangement made in 1916 at Oxford and Cambridge (explained by Sir C. E. Mallet, in paragraph 10 of his Report for 1915-16), no student at either of these Universities will be under the guardianship of the Department; colleges as before may insist upon students being under guardianship, but that function will be performed by university officials, the Secretary of the Delegacy for Oriental Students at Oxford, and the Secretary of the Intercollegiate Committee at Cambridge, responsible only to the university body that appoints them, and the decision in the matter will rest entirely with the college concerned. As the Secretary of the Delegacy for Oriental Students at Oxford has said, "It cannot be too clearly or too frequently pointed out that this is a matter that rests entirely with the colleges (and the Non-Collegiate Body) to decide. There is no forcing of guardianship on our part. If a college elects to accept an Indian student without it, there is no objection. We simply place ourselves at the disposal of the colleges if they desire to employ our agency."

As henceforth students at Oxford or Cambridge will be under the guardianship of officials of their own university only, all shadow of suspicion as to any compulsion in regard to guardianship by the Students' Department should pass away, as in these universities guardianship has now become a matter merely of domestic discipline with which the India Office has nothing to do.

The memorialists are incorrect in stating (paragraph 17) that "Trinity and Magdalen Colleges at Oxford refuse to admit any student of Indian nationality" since these colleges have distinctly expressed their willingness to consider applications from Indian students; nor has Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, refused to admit Indians on the ground of their race or nationality; it is a small college, which grants admission to applicants on principles that exclude several classes of English students besides Indians, and in this respect occupies a position different from that of the other colleges in this university. In view, therefore, of the actual attitude of the colleges, as explained above, it is difficult to understand the statement in paragraph 17 of the memorial, "This attitude on the part of the colleges towards students works as a great hardship and creates a most painful impression on the public mind in India." No instance has ever been adduced of an Indian student fitted for admission to Oxford or Cambridge, who has applied in good time, and passed the necessary tests, having failed to obtain admission; on the contrary, there have been many instances of colleges having generously relaxed their rules, and departed from their usual practice, in favour of Indian students who have brought with them good educational credentials.

Indeed, the arrangements made imply a special degree of consideration for Indians, such as is shown to no other class of students except the Rhodes scholars at Oxford, in that vacancies are reserved for Indian applicants, and almost every college has from time to time exceeded the limit of the number of Indian students it has undertaken to admit each year, for it cannot be too strongly emphasised that whatever limit there may be is a minimum, not a maximum. Accordingly it is not correct to say "the most liberal institutions admit two every year" (paragraph 17), for some colleges at Cambridge frequently admit three or four, and Fitzwilliam Hall six to eight; in the years 1911-15 there were 18 occasions on which one college or another admitted more than two Indians in one year. It is true that none of the colleges can admit an unlimited number of Indian students in any one year, but it must be remembered that (i) in each case the accommodation is limited by the fact that no tutor can take charge of more than a certain number of students; (ii) each college has to meet a great many claims, urged by schools with which it has a long re-established connection, by old members of the college, &c.; Indian students and their parents fail to recognise how much pressure is put upon colleges in this manner, or what efforts are made to secure the privileges of admission; e.g., many Indian students who come to Oxford expect to be admitted to Balliol College immediately on application. An English parent sometimes thinks it necessary to put his son's name down as a candidate for admission three years ahead; (iii) in the case of some colleges each Indian student who is admitted implies the exclusion of an English student, and the reserving of places for Indian applicants *qua* Indians is a privilege not granted to students of any other nationality (with the solitary exception of the Rhodes scholars at Oxford). There is one consideration among others that has led the authorities of individual colleges to arrange to make the number of Indian students in residence at any one time bear some proportion to the aggregate number of those admitted to the college, namely, the desire that the Indian undergraduates should be absorbed into the social life of the place; experience has shown that if the number of Indians in a college exceeds a certain proportion of the total number of the students, the Indians are very apt to congregate together and keep aloof from the common life of the college. It has been found at Edinburgh for example, where there is no college system and where the Indians form a large distinctive group, that their isolation from the general life of the University has made their situation more difficult and has even excited racial feeling; and generally speaking, wherever Indian students gather in large numbers in any British institution, it is not so easy for them to reap advantage from their stay there, as they can in places where their numbers are so small as to enable them to be absorbed in the society of their fellows. The limitation of numbers in any individual college therefore has in most cases been found to have had good results, and no Indian student who is companionable and is prepared to accommodate himself to the spirit of the institution, has reason to complain of race or colour prejudice. There have been several

instances of students, both at Oxford and Cambridge, who have been among the most popular men in their colleges; as Sir C. E. Mallet has said * " every Indian who accepts the ways and traditions of the university he joins, does well in its schools, enters into its spirit and occupations, and makes himself liked, as Indian students can, will find a not ungenerous welcome, and will render easier the way for those who follow in his steps."

Though no Oxford or Cambridge College is prepared to admit an unlimited number of Indian students (and, as explained above, this restriction operates to the advantage of the Indian students themselves), the accommodation available in colleges and in the non-collegiate body together, has hitherto enabled provision to be made for every qualified Indian student who has sent in his application for admission in good time and in accordance with the regulations of the university. The following statement gives the number of Indian students who were admitted to the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge since the establishment of the Students' Department, and the total number in residence at the close of each academic session (*i.e.*, June in each year).

Session.	Oxford Matriculætes.	Total Number in Residence.
1908-09	14	9
1909-10	21	45
1910-11	31	56
1911-12	21	62
1912-13	20	66
1913-14	33	70
1914-15	23	61
1915-16	14	70
Session.	Cambridge Matriculætes.	Total Number in Residence.
1908-09	34	9
1909-10	43	126
1910-11	47	128
1911-12	31	111
1912-13	32	117
1913-14	35	100
1914-15	38	108
1915-16	29	108

Though these figures fluctuate from year to year, and though the war has undoubtedly affected recent numbers, it is noticeable that the total of matriculates rose from 48 in the first year after the establishment of the Department to 68 in the year before the outbreak of the hostilities.

The memorialists in paragraph 17 imply that a gross injustice is done to students by a "wholesale exclusion of Indian students" from Oxford and Cambridge as being "the best training ground for the Indian Civil Service." There is no evidence of any such exclusion, and, as Sir C. E. Mallet points out (*loc. cit.*), "while the figures of the Indian Civil Service examinations during the last 15 years, from 1902 to 1916, show that the number of Indians who have secured places in any given year has rarely, if ever, exceeded one or two from Oxford and seven from Cambridge, any suggestion that these two Universities are, by limiting admissions, keeping Indians out of the public service of their country would be quite without justification."

Nor is there any ground for the statement (paragraph 2) that Indian students suffer from any "disabilities in the matter of Fellowships, or are excluded from College Fellowships" (paragraph 18). It is true that the Hon. Mr. R. P. Paranjpye is the only Indian who has obtained a Fellowship so far, but this single instance is sufficient to show that there is no disability in the case of an Indian candidate. At the same time it must be remembered that the number of Prize Fellowships is small, and that other Fellowships can only be held by recognised teachers of the university or by those occupying some official position, either in the university or on the governing body of some individual college. In these respects there is no analogy between Fellowships in Oxford or Cambridge Colleges on the one hand, and Fellowships of an Indian university, or even of other learned bodies in the United Kingdom on the other.

The memorialists omit to mention the large number of scholarships and exhibitions that have been awarded to Indian students in various colleges, especially at Cambridge (where of recent years Indian students have been distinguishing themselves more than at Oxford). A long list might be given of these, beginning with the name of the late Professor S. Sathianadhan, who in 1880 held a Foundation Scholarship at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. Indian students have been awarded studentships, scholarships, and exhibitions at Clare College, Pembroke College, Trinity Hall, King's College, St. Catherine's College, Jesus College, Christ's College, St. John's College, Magdalene College, Trinity College, Sidney Sussex College, and Emmanuel College, Cambridge; and at the last-mentioned College an Indian student has received a Research Studentship of 150*l.* a year. At Oxford the number of such distinctions gained has been fewer, but among them have been a scholarship at Balliol College, and an exhibition for law and a research scholarship at Christ Church. Such awards are given as readily to Indians whose merit has deserved them as to any other candidates, and no distinction as to creed or race is made (except, of

course, in the case of specifically theological endowments, but even these are available for Indian Christians). Indian students have been allowed to compete for, and have won, Entrance Scholarships, and poor students have received special grants from college funds. The more brilliant students engaged upon research work have been given grants from both university and college funds. The generous welcome given in Trinity College, Cambridge, to S. Ramanujan, the mathematician, is typical of the reception which every genuine scholar receives in an English university. There have also been instances in Cambridge of Indians who have been given post-graduate appointments as demonstrators in scientific laboratories or as Directors of Studies. The Board of Civil Service Studies in the same university has appointed an Indian as university teacher in Marathi, and at the present time an Indian holds the post of university teacher in Hindustani. An Indian has also been lecturer in Sanskrit at the University of Oxford. These facts indicate none of the race prejudice of which the memorialists complain, but rather show that Indian students enjoy there "an equality of treatment and of opportunity" (paragraph 5).

(B) The Medical Schools.

As regards the medical schools and colleges, the limited accommodation for British students and the need of a constantly fresh supply of members of the medical profession make the authorities of these institutions unwilling to exclude their fellow-countrymen to the advantage of foreign applicants. Accordingly, restriction on the admission of Indian students to medical colleges in London there certainly is; but the petition much exaggerates the consequent difficulties in their way. Sir C. E. Mallet sums up the present situation in his Report for 1915-16: "As regards medicine, it cannot be fairly said that any Indian student of character and education is now prevented from securing in the United Kingdom, the medical training which he needs. Both in London and in Edinburgh, Indian medical students are admitted in considerable numbers; and it is too often forgotten that there are several other universities in Great Britain—Birmingham, Durham, Manchester, Leeds, and Liverpool may be mentioned among them—where a first-class medical training can be procured, of which few Indians have as yet taken advantage. It would be unfair to the great London hospitals, and it would overlook the special position they hold and the many demands they have to satisfy, to suggest that they are as a body illiberal in offering facilities to Indian students. But it is the fact, whatever may be the cause, that in some the facilities are much fewer than in others. It is perhaps not too much to ask that every hospital, according to its abilities, should admit the obligation of keeping a fair proportion of its vacancies for Indian students, and that the hospital authorities should recognise that, among the large numbers of oversea students whom they admit, Indians as British subjects have a strong and even a preponderating claim. There is reason to hope that with a fuller recognition of the needs of India the number of Indian medical students in the London hospitals might be appreciably increased. But

even as matters stand, there is nothing to prevent any Indian student, with a fair record and with the preliminary education needed, from getting the highest kind of medical training at one centre or another in Great Britain."

The memorialists state (paragraph 13) that "Indian medical students prefer to be educated in London, as the teaching in the London colleges is superior to what is available at provincial centres." Those who are in a position to judge of the teaching given in some of the great medical schools in the North of England and in Scotland would undoubtedly dispute the accuracy of this statement. But the chief reason given for the preference is that the students may be able to compete on equal terms in the Indian Medical Service Examination, which is held in London. But a scrutiny of the pass lists of this examination does not show that study in a London college is essential to success. From the following statement it will be seen that of the successful candidates at the last 11 competitive examinations for the Indian Medical Service, no less than 63 obtained their qualifications at medical schools outside London :—

Date of Examination.	No. of successful Candidates holding London qualifications.	No. of successful Candidates holding Provincial qualifications.
January 1910	4	9
July 1910	6	9
January 1911	7	6
July 1911	8	4
January 1912	6	5
July 1912	8	4
January 1913	7	5
July 1913	8	4
January 1914	9	9
July 1914	7	6
July 1915	4	2
Total for 11 Examinations ...	74	63

In regard to post-graduate appointments in the medical colleges and hospitals, there is no justification for speaking of the "virtual exclusion" of Indian students from such appointments (paragraph 14), for resident appointments have been given to Indian medical students in St. Thomas' Hospital, the Middlesex Hospital, University College Hospital, Charing Cross Hospital, the London Lock Hospital, St.

Mark's Hospital, the Cancer Hospital, St. Peter's Hospital, Chelsea Hospital for Women, York Road Lying-in Hospital, Brompton Hospital for Consumption, East London Hospital for Children, Seamen's Hospital (London School of Tropical Medicine), Royal Free Hospital, and the New Hospital for Women. These are some of the hospitals in London in which residential appointments have been given to Indian medical students; in the provinces, instances are much more numerous, and the authorities of those isolated London hospitals that have shown a reluctance to give residential posts to their Indian students have secured for them such appointments in hospitals in the provinces. It is not correct to say that "In the case of examinations like the M. D. and M. S. (London) the holding of a residential appointment for a particular period is one of the necessary qualifications for admission to such examinations" (paragraph 14). The Regulations of the University of London in regard to the holding of a hospital appointment for a candidate for the M. D. degree state that he must send to the Registrar a certificate either

(i) of having been engaged in professional practice for not less than five years; or

(ii) in the case of Branch I, of having held for at least six months an approved appointment at a hospital recognised for the purpose; or

(iii) in the case of Branch II, of having held for at least six months an approved pathological appointment at an institution recognised for the purpose; or

(iv) in the case of Branch III, of having held for a period of six months an appointment in an asylum approved for this purpose by the university; or

(v) in the case of Branch IV, of having held for at least six months an approved appointment in Obstetrics or Gynaecology at a hospital recognised for the purpose.

For the degree of M.S. Branch I, Surgery, a candidate must forward a certificate of having held for at least six months an approved surgical appointment at a hospital recognised for the purpose; Branch II, Dental Surgery, a similar certificate of having held an approved appointment at a dental hospital.

The University publishes a list of these approved appointments.

For the M. D. examination:—

Branch I. There are more than 200 appointments in the United Kingdom of which at least 34 are non-residential appointments, and 39 which may be held either in Bombay or Calcutta.

Branch II. There are 53 appointments, of which 51 are non-residential.

Branch III. Any appointment that can only be held by a registered medical practitioner at a large number of asylums.

Branch IV. There are some 48 appointments in the United Kingdom of which about 17 are non-residential appointments, and 5 which may be held either in Bombay or Calcutta.

For the M.S. examination :—

Branch I. There are over 200 appointments in the United Kingdom, of which 37 are non-residential appointments, and 38 which may be held either in Bombay or Calcutta.

(There has never been any candidate for the M.S. examination, *Branch II*; so no list of recognised institutions has been compiled.)

The memorialists have failed to notice that for *Branch I* (Medicine) and *Branch II* (Midwifery and Diseases of Women) of the M.D. examination, and for *Branch I* (Surgery) of the M.S. examination, the condition as to having held an approved appointment can be fulfilled in India; that a large number of the approved appointments in England are not residential appointments; that even where they are residential, they have in several instances been held by Indian students; and that as a matter of fact no Indian student wishing to appear for the M.D. or M.S. examination has ever failed to get a post-graduate appointment if he were fitted for it.

A detailed consideration of the pertinent facts does not show that there is so much ground for complaint as the memorial suggests. But there are certainly difficulties connected with the question of the medical studies of Indian students, and it has received, and will continue to receive, the earnest attention of the Students' Department, so that the sympathetic interest of the authorities of hospitals and colleges may be secured for Indian medical students.

(C) The Inns of Court.

In regard to the Inns of Court, the memorialists make two complaints :—

(i) That whereas " prior to 1910 any Indian student who had passed the Matriculation examination of any Indian university was entitled to be admitted to the Inns of Court, since that year he is required to be a graduate of an Indian university; this raising of the standard prevents a large number of Indian students from getting the benefit of legal education in England and places them at a disadvantage with their British fellow-subjects."

The Consolidated Regulations of the Inns of Court do not bear out this statement; they require the applicant for admission to have passed one of the qualifying examinations set down in an attached schedule; among these examinations is the Cambridge Senior Local Examination which can be passed in India, and any Indian student having passed it before leaving home can come to England and join an Inn without any

delay; the schedule also includes the Matriculation examination of eight of the English universities and the Preliminary examination of the Scottish universities. It is difficult, therefore, to see how the change of regulations can prevent "a large number of Indian students from getting the benefit of legal education in England," or how it constitutes "a great and undoubted hardship" and they are certainly not "at a disadvantage with their British fellow subjects." The only examination of an Indian university included in the schedule is that for the B.A. degree. The memorialists consider that this is a reflection on the Indian universities and would recommend the substitution of the Inter-Arts or Previous examination of an Indian university. Sir C. E. Mallet has discussed this proposal in his Report for 1915-16, paragraph 15, and points out that "the attitude of the Inns of Court is, necessarily, to some extent dependent upon that of Oxford and Cambridge, and unless the latter admit that the standard of the Indian Intermediate examination—not in one university only, but in all the Indian universities alike—is, in an educational sense, fully up to the level of Responsions (at Oxford) and the Previous examination (at Cambridge), complaints made against the Inns of Court are not likely to lead to an alteration of the rule. The remedy seems to lie with the universities of India. If they, by some united action, setting forth in detail the educational tests involved, could convince the universities of Oxford and Cambridge that the Indian Intermediate Examination ought to be accepted as the proper equivalent of Responsions and the Previous examination, then the Inns of Court could be more effectually urged to follow suit."

The High Courts in India would probably deprecate any lowering of the standard for admission to the Inns of Court, nor are the Indian universities likely to sympathise with such a proposal, since they insist upon a candidate for the L.L.B. examination having first taken the B.A. degree.

(ii) The other complaint refers to the certificate of character required from candidates for admission.

The Consolidated Regulations of the Inns of Court require from Indian applicants certificates of good character, one of which shall be (a) if he has received, or is still receiving, his general education in the United Kingdom, a certificate from the head of his school or college, or from his tutor; (b) either a certificate from the Collector or Deputy Commissioner of the district in which his family resides, or a certificate from the Secretary for Indian Students appointed by the Secretary of State for India. The memorialists omit to notice that the Inns of Court only accept a certificate from the India Office, provided that the official signing it (now the Educational Adviser for Indian Students to the Secretary of State) certifies that he has made enquiries from the Advisory Committees in India. Seeing that the Advisory Committees are largely made up of the heads of schools and colleges in India, in practice the procedure assumes much the same character as the proposal made by the memorialists; with this difference, that the Inns of Court

deal with an individual whom they can hold personally responsible and against whom they can complain, in the event of carelessness or dereliction of duty, to his superior, the Secretary of State. The suggestion that applicants should present certificates signed by persons resident in India, is open to the objection that the Inns of Court have no personal knowledge of the signatories and no means of complaining in the case of dissatisfaction.

The ultimate responsibility for the recommendation for admission thus rests with the Advisory Committees, who can easily get into touch with the applicant's teachers and family; the Advisory Committees can see to it that their recommendation is duly communicated to an Inn of Court and that the interests of the student with whom they are concerned are safeguarded. There is in practice no "such absolute power in the hands of an official living in England" as the memorialists suggest (paragraph 9), and no reason to fear that he may abuse his power; if such an event ever occurred the student would find an advocate ready in the Advisory Committee that recommended him.

(D) The Institution of Civil Engineers.

The memorialists also complain (paragraph 6) of the attitude of the Institution of Civil Engineers as "a standing source of injustice to Indian students," but give no details or explanation of such a charge against a corporation that has always shown itself sympathetic to Indian students and ready to listen to representations from the India Office on behalf of Indians taking up engineering, and has admitted a large number of them into its own body as associate members. It is incorrect to say that its "rules govern the recruitment for the Public Works Department in India," for the A.M.I.C.E. is only one of the alternative qualifications, which comprise 24 different degrees of British universities or "such other diploma or distinction in engineering as the Secretary of State may decide to accept in any particular case."

The reference is possibly to a matter discussed by Sir C. E. Mallet in his Report for 1913-14 (paragraph 20), which shows that the grievance mentioned has already, principally owing to the intervention of the India Office, been removed:—

"One point, which was a matter of complaint among engineering students, was dealt with during the year. It was alleged that the rules in regard to appointments made in England to the Public Works Department followed too closely the rules of the Institution of Civil Engineers, and thereby prejudiced students who had obtained Indian degrees, and were entitled in consequence to certain exemptions at universities in Great Britain. The rules of the Institution of Civil Engineers restricted such exemptions. During the year, however, the Institution relaxed many of the restrictions in respect of university degrees exempting from its A.M.I.C.E. examination, and in regard

to the remaining restrictions it was decided by the Secretary of State that they should not be imposed in the case of Indian candidates for appointments in the Public Works Department. In the latest issue of regulations of the Public Works Department, it is made clear that students with Indian B.Sc. degrees, going for instance, to the Universities of Durham or Birmingham, will not be required to take the matriculation examination there, or to spend three years in a university which is willing to give them their degrees in two."

In regard to all these institutions, the Students' Department has, since its inception, advocated the cause of Indian students, and has met with a considerable degree of success. The deans of the medical schools and hospitals and the authorities of the Inns of Court, have shown a willingness to pay consideration to representations from the India Office on behalf of Indian students. But (as pointed out above) these are self-governing institutions, jealous of their own honour and privileges, and their independence is secured to them by Royal Charter or otherwise. They are apt to resent whatever may have an appearance of interference on the part of any outside body, and relations with them, to be successful, must be conducted with tact and consideration. Such violent methods of coercion as proposed by the petitioners in paragraph 23 would certainly not have the result of bringing "these institutions to a reasonable frame of mind in their attitude towards Indian students," and might indeed have results very injurious to Indian claims and aspirations.

In regard to engineering and technological students, the memorialists state (paragraph 16) that their chief grievance is "the want of facilities in getting practical training in factories and workshops . . . being foreigners in the United Kingdom, the majority of Indians possess no influence which can secure their entrance into any manufacturing or contracting firm of engineers for the purpose of practical training." It is true that facilities for practical training in civil engineering are difficult to obtain; but it would be wrong to suggest that Indians as Indians are shut out from opportunities of such training in Great Britain, which other students can easily obtain. For this difficulty is not confined to Indians; it applies to all civil engineering students in Great Britain, and is due to the fact that there are now in this country comparatively few openings in the way of new railways or new public works which afford facilities for training students. Many English students of civil engineering have to go abroad in order to seek opportunities for practical training, and it is a matter for regret that Indians who want practical training in civil engineering should leave India, where such opportunities exist in plenty, in order to look for them in Great Britain, where from the nature of the case they are much less likely to be found.

As regards practical training, however, in other branches of engineering, there is no special difficulty, and for Indians of capacity and good conduct studying mechanical or electrical engineering admittance to works can in most cases be obtained. Similarly, in other industries

it has been found possible to obtain for Indian students good opportunities of practical training in English firms, sometimes without the payment of a premium. Many students have owed to the efforts of the Department (especially at Glasgow and Manchester), admittance into electrical and mechanical works, railway workshops, sugar factories, flour mills, tanneries, etc. A long list of firms that have responded to requests from the Students' Department, to grant to Indian students opportunities for obtaining practical experience, might be given; among them are :—

For Electrical Engineering :—

Messrs. G. Gilkes & Co., of Kendal,
 The Shawinigan Water and Power Company, of Montreal,
 The Lancashire Dynamo and Motor Company,
 The British Westinghouse Company, of Manchester,
 Manchester Corporation Electricity Department,
 The South Metropolitan Electric Tramways,
 The Amsterdam Electricity Works,
 Messrs. T. Bell & Co., Lucerne,
 The Lancashire Electric Power Company,
 The General Electric Company, Birmingham,
 The British Thomson-Houston Company, Rugby,
 Messrs. Siemens Bros. London and Stafford;

For Railway Engineering :—

The Caledonian Railway Company,
 The Glasgow and South-Western Railway Company;

For Civil and Mechanical Engineering :—

The Hornsey Engineering Company,
 Messrs. H. Symington and Son,
 Messrs. Brown and Kincaid,
 Messrs. Kyle, Dennison and Laing,
 The Glasgow Corporation,
 Messrs. Warren and Stuart,
 Messrs. MacFarlane,

- Messrs. Coulson and Mavor,
 Messrs. Ogston and Tennant,
 The Clyde Navigation Trustees,
 Messrs. Morton, Kerr and Gibson, Glasgow,
 The National Gas Engine Company, of Ashton-under-Lyne,
 Messrs. A. Finlay & Co., Motherwell,
 Messrs. Mather and Platt, Limited, Manchester ;
- For the Chemistry of Oils and Fats :—
- Messrs. Gibbs, Limited, Battersea Soap Works,
 The Union Oil and Cake Mills,
 Messrs. Lever Bros., Port Sunlight,
 Messrs. Barrington and Co., Dublin ;
- For Textile Manufacture :—
- Messrs. Asa Lees and Co., Oldham,
 Messrs. D. Adamson and Co., Dukinfield,
 Messrs. G. Howarth and Co., Failsworth,
 Sir J. W. Farmer and Sons, Salford,
 Messrs. Dobson and Barlow, Bolton,
 Messrs. C. Herbert and Co., Nelson,
 The Pilot Spinning Company, Bury,
 The Cornholme Dyeing Company,
 Messrs. Howard and Bullough, Accrington,
 Messrs. Butterworth and Dickinson, Burnley,
 Messrs. Mirrless, Bickerton and Day, Manchester ;
- For Practical Experience in Tanning :—
- The British Chrome Tanning Company, Northampton,
 Messrs. J. H. Hart and Son, Bermondsey,
 Messrs. T. N. and F. H. Briggs, Leicester ;
- For Practical Training in Pottery :—
- The Anchor Pottery, Longton, Staffs,
 Messrs. Pilkington's Tile and Pottery Works, Clifton Junction,
 Manchester ;

For Flour Milling :—

Messrs. Bulstrode, Pimm & Co., Wandsworth,
 The Albert Flour Mills, Gloucester,
 The Hovis Mills, London and Manchester,
 The Daren Mills, Dartford ;

For the Manufactory of Iron and Steel :—

Messrs. Bell Brothers, Middlesbrough,
 The Platt Iron Works Company, Dayton, Ohio, U.S.A.
 St. Peter's Milling Iron Works, Ipswich,
 Sir Alfred Hickman, Limited, Wolverhampton,
 The Barrow Hematite Steel Company,
 Messrs. Samuel Fox & Co., Stockbridge, Sheffield.

In March 1912 the Secretary of State appointed a Committee "to inquire and report as to the facilities available for Indian students for industrial and technological training in this country" This Committee visited Glasgow, Manchester, Leeds, and Birmingham, and was everywhere cordially received by the university authorities and the leading industrial men of the neighbourhood. They found no evidence of race prejudice against Indian students, and were able to stimulate among the owners of industrial concerns whom they met, a feeling of interest in Indian technical students, which has been of great value to the Students' Department in arranging facilities for the practical training so essential for such students.

In fact, English manufacturers and firms have shown remarkable liberality in admitting Indian students into their works, and there are, moreover, "cases where an employer will sometimes grant to a student from India opportunities which an English student would ask for in vain."*

* Report for 1915-16, paragraph 19. Certain trades, of course, have trade secrets which are jealously guarded, and it was, for example, found to be impossible to obtain for a Government of India scholar admission into alkali works, but such difficulty of access has no reference whatever to race. The difficulties to which the memorialists refer, arise in most cases from the fact that Indian students try to get practical training for short periods only, for a year or even for a few months, whereas many engineers are unwilling to accept pupils for less than two years, and manufacturing firms generally insist on a still longer period of training.

In order to meet the difficulties of the situation it is in no way necessary for the Secretary of State to adopt the suggestion made by the memorialists in paragraph 16, and change the policy according to which the Stores Department deals with firms on a purely business basis.

In regard to the complaint that Indian students are excluded from the Officers Training Corps at the universities and the Inns of Court, there is a considerable body of opinion in favour of their admission in the future, and there is good hope of a change being effected.

The details given above show that it is hardly correct to say of the Students' Department: "All that it does is to keep Indian students in 'leading strings throughout their stay in England by enforced guardianship.'" (Paragraph 21.)

The memorialists lament "the unfortunate manifestation of race and colour prejudice against Indian students even at the seats of learning." This is a difficult subject and presents problems which are hard to solve, for where race prejudice or colour prejudice are found to exist, rational considerations are apt to fail to exercise their due influence. But, on the whole, any unprejudiced observer finds more grounds for satisfaction than for discouragement, as far as the treatment of Indian students in this country is concerned. "Race or colour prejudice amounts to very little. It is rarely found and never encouraged among English people whose opinion counts." *Report for 1915-16, paragraph 23.

It may be stated definitely that so far as concerns the colleges of arts, sciences, and engineering in the Universities of London, Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield, Leeds, Liverpool, Bristol and the Scottish Universities, the admission of Indian students is not hampered by any considerations of race or colour prejudice whatever. In the older Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, where the residential system makes special demands from Indian students, experience has made some heads of houses feel at times a reluctance to admit Indian students into their societies. But such instances constitute a negligible minority and tend to decrease in proportion as the Indian students justify their presence in the university. The Secretary of the Indian Students' Inter-Collegiate Committee at Cambridge rightly lays stress on this aspect of the question: "My experience," he says, "leads me to the belief that the colleges will increasingly help to the extent to which they see that there is an importance and a value in their doing so, and thus the better the men who come here, and the more interest the India Office takes in their education here, the larger the response it is likely to get from the colleges."† To form a judgment on the status of Indian students at Oxford and Cambridge in the light of the attitude of one or two narrow-minded individuals, is to do an injustice to the liberality with which these universities have thrown open their doors to Indian students for the last 50 years, and have let them share in their endowments whenever they have merited scholarships and prizes. Some instances of race prejudice on the part of colonial students and others can no doubt be adduced. But these are happily rare, and it sometimes happens that students who complain of race or colour prejudice are men who find this to be an easy and flattering explanation of their personal unpopularity, or those who misinterpret some of the rebuffs and discourtesies (which almost every man is

apt to encounter sometime in the course of his life), as evidence of racial prejudice.

There is a genuine desire on the part of authorities of universities and colleges in this country to make the stay of Indian students here profitable and pleasant to them; but there is some feeling of disappointment in the lack of response to such a welcome on the part of the Indian themselves. It is complained that many of them fail to take advantage of the facilities offered, either through lack of intelligence or of interest in study, or through the inadequacy of their previous training and education. The officers of the Students' Department are frequently asked why some process of selection is not made in India, so that only those students should come to England who would be likely to derive profit from a course of study. If the Advisory Committees in India could so influence public opinion that only the best type of students went to England, the position of the Indian students in this country would much benefit thereby. The late Mr. Gokhale gave expression to much the same feeling in the speech printed in Appendix C. of the memorial (p. IX.), when he said "that it was necessary that their select young men should come to this country, but not in the helpless manner they now come."

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**AN URGENT NEED
— OF —
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Adult Education : an Urgent Need of Modern India

THE effective environment of modern India is the whole of the Western world.¹ A hundred years of the British impact, with its law and administration becoming every day more thorough-going, has worked toward this result. The great war and its no small aftermath have finally and irretrievably secured it.

In Nature all environment is not effective at any one time on any one thing. Many things become irresponsive to many large spheres of their environment. Organisms evolve means of resisting certain of their environment very successfully. As the scale of life ascends, intelligence, added to instinct, enables many species to successfully combat parts of their environment. The human being, as being the crown of organic evolution so far, is in a large measure master of his environment.

Society in India evolved certain special features to resist political and economic environments of great power and strength through many centuries. These features acted like scales on a mammoth organism, enabling it to pursue unhindered its own self-determined careers of intellectual pursuit, religious experiment, and æsthetic craftsmanship.

When Britain came among us with its avowed policy of non-interference in social matters and neutrality in religion, we never anticipated, and therefore did not prepare for, the modern situation. British policy has been true to its intents : but British law and centralized administration had effects infinitely beyond what the British Government anticipated. English education, unrelated as it has been to Indian culture, has created a new order of *literati* through whom Western ideals of life, society, commerce and politics have penetrated through our scaly armour. The material concomitants of Western civilization—the railway, the post and telegraph, the press, and the steamship—have made huge rents in our coat. The rise of Japan raised giant questions and feelings, which were like a sledge-hammer making small account of the rest of our protective armour. The war threw us right into the heart of a European situation. It did so even more as an economic force than as an armed combatant. The war over, in the reconstruction of the economic fabric of the West, India remains an effective factor ; in the matter of exchange, it is indeed an inconveniently disturbing factor.

Our effective environment then is the whole of the West. We have to respond to-day to the heat and cold of the politics of Europe and America ; we feel the fevers of the Western markets ; we sink with the depression of Western industry ; we suffer with the failure of the Western carriers. Time was when we determined our own economic and industrial condition, and exploited the markets of the Roman Empire and of the nations into which it was dismembered. Then came a hundred years when

¹ Or "Westernized world," to be more accurate and include Japan.

we depended abjectly upon what was brought to us from different quarters of the world by those who knew better. To-day the struggle has begun. We are making desperate attempts to scrape together our resources,¹ to exploit our material wealth, to organize our man-power, to increase our production, to combat the ruinous imports; we impatiently wait for the machinery and expert knowledge which are still available only in the West. With all our ports open and an administration committed extravagantly to the policy of *laissez faire* there cannot but be an over-dependence on the economic and the industrial situations of the whole West. But we no longer take it passively: it galls us to the quick.

What is true of economics is true in a large measure of citizenship. We know where the shoe pinches, but know not how and why or where the remedy lies. We look elsewhere for ways and means, and there is imported a continual stream of ideas, which in India are always more powerful than anything else, but which we have little possibility of harmonising with our own ideals of life.

Our people are scattered in many quarters of the globe. Their wrongs hurt us to the quick, and problems are raised of international relationship and political and economic adjustments which would not otherwise be.

In a word, India has become a functioning limb of the Westernized world.

II

"Ignorance is death. By ignorance I mean not ignorance of books, but ignorance of environment. . . . A rightly educated man is one who corresponds most perfectly with his environment."²

There is nothing more dangerous to an organism than to be the plaything of a powerful environment, of whose nature it is ignorant. It is then that the heartless law of the "survival of the fittest" has free course. To-day, with the whole of the Western world as our effective environment, the appalling thing is that the average man in India is not aware of its nature: even our leaders, I submit, have only here and there taken measure of all that it involves. The West is so powerful, its influence so resistless, its outreaches so penetrating, that we are bound to be sacrificed exclusively to its purposes unless there is immediately an effort to comprehend what it is all about and to devise means for harmonious adjustments.

There is no danger of our losing our existence from a material point of view. Certainly our ignorance will be no bar even to material prosperity. India is too valuable to the commerce of the world and to the political issues of internationalism to be neglected or denuded by the far-seeing statesmanship of the Western world. There is no risk either that we shall be left behind in our political career. True democracy may not progress, but we shall be getting more Indian direction and shall be self-determining, or rather

¹ "During the year 1919-20, 906 companies have been floated, with an aggregate capital of £183 millions, for every conceivable purpose. . . ."—*India in 1919*, by Prof. L. F. Rushbrook Williams (Government of India, 1920).

² Harold Begbie, in *Living Water* (Headley Bros., London).

'Indian-determining' in our political life. Britain knows very well by now that there is no alternative to such a programme in the tutelage to which she feels a responsibility on our behalf. The grave danger is that we shall rapidly become thoroughly Westernized, that our point of view become more and more exclusively just success in the commercial and political competitions of the world, that we shall lose our souls, that we shall lose our heritage, that we shall no longer be India.¹

Resistance to environment is no longer possible. To resist will be death or to be left so far behind in the evolution of the human race that we shall be a freak, a survival. Resistance is not what is advocated. The real alternatives before us are these: We may be exploited perpetually for the commercial and material well-being of other nations; or we may copy their methods thoroughly and become just one more member of the feverish group; or we may enter the field as independent collaborators, maintaining our own distinctive character while contributing our share of the service of the world alongside of other nations.

What is needed is an intelligent correspondence to the environment, where we know all the time what is truly profitable and take effective steps to conserve as well as comprehend, and so evolve constructively into a fairer and greater India. Lack of such intelligence is the "ignorance" which is "death." Dead or non-living matter is the plaything of environment. Where an organism succumbs to that same condition it is not alive, but dead. To make it alive is the function of education. Education, so defined, it is our purpose to discuss in this paper.

III

"Education is the art of drawing out of a man all that is best and most useful in him, so that his powers may be employed with advantage to the community and to himself as a member thereof."²

The problem of an Indian community is to correspond intelligently with the great world-wide environment into which it has been thrust. Education then is to fit a man to be a member of such a community.

Mr. Fisher is right in defining education in terms of the community. The theory of ancient Indian education was precisely that. Every Indian community had a specific place in the life of the nation: and ancient Indian education was devised to fit the individual to be a member of the community so situated. The trouble now is that the place of the Indian community in the world is no longer what it was; whereas the social education of the Indian is still the same as it was when the effective environment of the community was very different. The community having changed its place in the world, the education of its members has also to change. It is a new content of education that we have to devise; but the objective remains the same.

So viewed it becomes possible to realize something of the urgency and the magnitude of the problem. India is already in

¹ A significant book is *Reconstructing India*, by Sir M. Visvesvaraya (P. S. King & Son, Ltd., London, 1920)—a most excellent work in many ways, one which every Indian ought to read—but it seems to be worked out in lamentable disregard to the essential spirit of India.

² The Rt. Hon. H. A. L. Fisher, Minister for Education, British Cabinet.

the grip of world conditions. Every day there are bearing upon it influences which cannot wait until we are ready for any intelligent adjustments. We have to make our preparations as we go along. While the whole community is being so manipulated by powerful world conditions, over whose speed we have no control, the individuals have to be educated to function properly as its members. Nothing has been done by us or anyone else to prepare us for this day. The matter is now of daily and momentary need.

Again, the magnitude of the problem is simply appalling. The environment to which India is subject bears not upon the few—certainly not on the English-educated—but upon every human being in the country. It reaches out to the half-naked coolie in the salt pans of Tuticorin as to the skin-clad *pahari* who turns the sod on the foothills of the Himalayas. Not one man, or woman either, is exempt from its operations. And the intelligence in the correspondence to the environment should be displayed all along the line. The problem then is the education of 325 million people, a fifth of the human race, and it has got to be done forthwith.

The problem cannot be solved by accelerating the education of the young. The whole question of education in India suffers greatly because the term is equated in the mind exclusively with the school room and the child. If the education of the nation depended entirely, or even mainly, on elementary schools figures¹ tell a significant story:

Years	Total No. of children in all institutions (in millions)	Expenditure (in crores of Rupees)
1861	.25	.40
1871	.75	1.25
1881	2.00	1.75
1891	3.75	2.75
1901	4.25	3.75
1911	6.25	6.75
1919	8.00	13.00

While in forty years the progress has been from .25 to 8.00 millions, the proportion to the population is still only 3 per cent., whereas population is now increasing every year at half per cent., i.e. an addition of 1.5 millions. And it is officially stated² that 39 per cent. of the children educated in India relapse into illiteracy within five years of their leaving school. The fact is that, notwithstanding our high death-rate, our teeming millions pile up in such numbers that, with all the enthusiasm for it which will undoubtedly result in consequence of the Reforms, elementary schools for the young cannot possibly overtake the task of educating the community sooner than in some centuries. They are entirely out of consideration in the matter of fitting the average Indian of to-day to the task of citizenship to which he is summoned with immediate urgency.

¹ The situation seems obviously to point towards the development of an Adult Education Movement in India. In the matter of agriculture, the necessity for it is already admitted. The

¹ *Statistics of British India*, Vol. V, Education, 1918-19.

² *Progress of Education in India*, 1907-12, para. 324; 1912-17, p. 122.

propaganda used on behalf of Child Welfare in different parts of India this year is a step in that direction. The Co-operative Department had to take recourse to it at an early date, and would have failed excepting for such means. These are three outstanding instances of adult education being attempted for modern purposes by modern agencies. If an adequate portion of the many millions in India are to quickly begin to come into an intelligent correspondence with their modern environment, the masses have to be approached in the bulk, general knowledge imparted, as far as is possible for whole communities to receive it, the methods continually improved for ensuring the desired results, and the individual adult followed up thereafter as far as he is able and willing to respond.

IV

"At a time when there is no adventure in education the years are indeed lean, for it is as essential to strive to open up new fields for educational activity as it is to seek undiscovered lands or to search out the secrets of ancient peoples.

"Some day the story of educational adventures will be written; they are numerous and full of romance. By their means all the activities of humanity have been penetrated, the mysteries of the child mind explored, and those influences searched out on which man depends for his development. The names of the adventurers are numerous; from Tubal Cain to Plato they illumine the records of all times; all nations claim their own; every great period of a nation's life reveals their influence."

The full democratic possibility of Britain may not be said to have begun before the time of the starting of the W.E.A. (Workers' Educational Association). The governance of Britain was the monopoly of a social class, whose one saving grace was that it was being continually recruited through Public School and University. Birth and intellectual discipline were the passports, never the former alone; and through the latter it was quite possible for anyone of talent to force himself in. Still it was a heavenly class of mandarins, whose gulf from the proletariat was such that England of the early nineteenth century had turned its face steadily towards what must have by now ended in a Bolshevik revolution. The salvation came from the Adult Education Movement, which first arose in connection with University Settlements, then University Extension Work, the W.E.A., and now in the Y.M.C.A. and many other organizations.² It was based on the common-sense constructive principle that social justice cannot really be effected except when every man secured true independence of thought and action, such as can come only through adequate knowledge. The deeply democratic purpose of the Adult Education Movement was put in apt language by Bishop Gore, in an address to working men:

"All this passion for justice will accomplish nothing, believe me, unless you get knowledge. You may become strong and clamorous, you may win a victory, you may effect a revolution, but you will be trodden down again under the feet of knowledge unless you get it for yourselves; even if you win that victory, you will be trodden down again under the feet of knowledge if you leave knowledge in the hands of privilege, because knowledge will always win over ignorance."

¹ *An Adventure in Working-Class Education*, by Albert Mansbridge (Longmans, Green & Co., 1920).

² The W.E.A. started in 1913, and had in the following year 12 "affiliated bodies" and 135 members; in 1919 it had 219 branches, 2,526 "affiliated bodies," and 17,136 members.

The example of Britain must always be taken with caution by us. England and Scotland together are only slightly larger than Mysore State; and hold within that small area several old Universities and some very vigorous new ones. If their population is much larger, it is concentrated in urban areas and can command all the resources of money and man-power needed for the perpetual schooling of its young. Even with all this and a universal literacy accomplished, Britain felt the necessity for launching out on a new adventure in education if it was to save its soul. The fact is that no system of elementary schools can give to the school-going population of a country an adequate grounding for an education for life. And no schemes of didactic literature can adequately impart that continuous education which must be available for the adult if he is to be an intelligent, useful and happy member of his community. Nothing can take the place of an education for life which covers the whole of one's life.

When America emancipated the negroes it had on its hands millions of people whose illiteracy and economic condition were worse than ours. Generations of slavery had emasculated their self-reliance. The stagnation of life was due not merely to ignorance (as it is so largely in India), but from what seemed to be moral incapacity. With all this, in two generations the literacy and the property valuation have approximated to the Whites, and the American negro is able to hold his head high in conscious citizenship in a great Republic. The miracle was not wrought through the schooling of the young. The whole community was reached effectively with an efficient scheme of adult education.¹

Surely it must be admitted by all who know the traditions of our country, that adult education is entirely in accord with the genius of our people. If anywhere in the world the whole of life was considered education, the whole of the community the school, and the purpose of it all service, it was in India. It is an abiding problem how literature, philosophy, and higher mathematics developed to great heights before the art of writing prevailed in the country. The whole mass of our *dharma* in its many details are known and observed by millions of people who are totally illiterate. Numerous folklore, legends, ballads, epics, ethical texts and devotional psalms of high merit and beauty pass from mouth to mouth, from father to son, from mother to daughter, from village to shrine, from hill to river, down the centuries all without the apparatus of reading and writing. In the ordinary transactions of the bazaar, all reckoning of purchase and sale, profit and loss, present worth and discount, interest and commission, all forecasts of futures, all advertisement and propaganda, is done with the aid only of memory and speech.

V

There are in India certain established social facilities and organizations which could lend themselves effectively to adult education work.

¹ *Education for Life*, by Peabody.

A. The latest of these is *The Co-operative Society*. There are in India to-day 33,000 societies, the creation of a dozen years. And they are increasing at a tremendous speed—more than in geometric progression. They seem to answer so nearly to the ancient communal feelings of our people that they bid fair, if properly guided, to effect that rural re-organization which is a fundamental necessity of progress. In the co-operative society then we have an abiding means of adult education on which we can safely reckon.¹

The admirable suitability of the co-operative society for this purpose may be very briefly summarised here:

1. It brings and holds together a whole village community on the powerful basis of economic solidarity.

2. It is the people's own affair, continually building up self-respect, acting as a steady moral lever, widening outlook and imparting ambition, the very means for disseminating knowledge.

3. It has financial possibilities, either of its own or at its virtual command, for every purpose of whose value the community is convinced. It is just emerging from the necessary preliminary stage of credit work, and is testing itself along productive and distributive lines of work. It is looking forward to social service and works of public utility. It is already beginning educational work.

B. Next in importance I would place *The Theatre*. Our people are everywhere attracted by the theatre. The history of Indian drama is a brilliant record of literary achievement: it is of no small merit indeed as an educational agency. Music, love of country, zeal for religion, and, above all, high ethical principles, have been successfully inculcated by means of the drama in many of our languages and in many of our generations. A single telling instance may suffice. In the heart of France, during the war-time, it was possible for a Y.M.C.A. secretary to collect from the illiterate sepoy, sowars, followers and sweepers a complete cast for staging the great drama of Harischandra. That the songs which weave that story sing themselves into the lives of our countrymen is a matter of the highest educational promise as it is of the deepest ethical significance.

The drama is a favourite in every province. There seems to be no lack of talent to feed the stage with continual material in many of our languages, and from year-end to year-end. Nor is there any lack of histrionic talent to express the ideas of the playwright. We have, in fact, a great national night-school system ready-made in our theatres.

With the neglect of many excellent indigenous arts in the last century, the theatre also degenerated and had even become a social menace about twenty or thirty years ago. It was then that a small group of Madras graduates looked below the surface, discerned the verdict of its whole history, and saw that it could be redeemed. The Suguna Vilasa Sabha is the result of this vision. They wrote and acted, and demonstrated that there is unlimited public response to purity in taste when it is coupled with beauty

¹ It may not be without interest to remember that the early history of the Adult Education Movement in Britain was intimately connected with the Co-operative Movement.

of literary form and with truth in the histrionic expression of life. After establishing this fact firmly in the city of Madras, they extended their labours throughout the province and also to Ceylon. The actors being mostly busy lawyers of the High Court, they devote their vacations to visits to all the great centres in the Tamil country. The standard of acting has already been raised, and the criteria of taste purified. Local Sabhas are being organized with the same objective of purifying and developing Drama and Music. The work of the Suguna Vilasa Sabha is undoubtedly a species of adult education. Though only æsthetic so far, it proves unmistakably that it can also be didactic, given similar attention and continuous application.

C. Next in order among our available educational means, I should place *The Weekly Rural Market*. This is another very ancient institution; and in spite of the multiplication of railroads, it is bound to survive for many generations to come. An area equal to a *tahsil* or more is blocked out into sections around convenient centres, each of which is associated permanently with a day of the week. Large numbers of retail traders gather together at these centres on the relevant days. To the trader it is a daily performance as he goes the round of the centres the week through; to the village buyer it is a weekly function. It is, in fact, the great event of the week to the whole countryside. Excepting for illness or similar incapacitating circumstance, every man and woman, old and young, takes it as the regular thing to knock off the whole afternoon from work for just going to the nearest weekly market. The man goes there to buy a bullock, or a simple agricultural tool, or a *kurta* or *dhoti*, or it may be just his week's supply of tobacco; the woman goes there for her foodstuffs, or, if she has that from her own fields, some additional vegetables, or perhaps to sell her week's store of ghee, or even on "spec" to meet a friend from a neighbouring village. There never seems to be any excuse wanting to take the villager to the market soon after his noonday meal is over.

While bustling trade thrives at the market, the entertainer finds a ready chance for his livelihood. People are really at leisure in the market though they are all the time "very busy." Everything has got to be through before nightfall, and yet there is ample trade driven by various entertainers.

In America, people go to endless trouble to work up such gatherings. These are called Chautauquas, and are organized for purposes of entertainment and education. The State takes advantage of it and sends along its demonstrators; so do the various schools; and so do the philanthropically-minded persons who are at the bottom of the whole organization. A motor lorry comes along from the State Agricultural College. Out step from it a number of teachers who arrange an open-air school, giving instruction in the improvement of the very trades and professions followed by the people in the crowd. If it were India, the subjects handled would probably be: Cambodia cotton; the latest Pusa wheat; a new variety of sugar-cane; the advantages of *dahincha* manure; how to combat the mango hopper; the long-term versus the short-term loan; how to eliminate the middleman; poultry breeding in the U.P.; the mosquito and its

habits; what is happening all the time to the village pond; the good village street and the bad one, etc., etc. Then there is another lorry from the neighbouring University which unloads a similar group of teachers. Their subjects are different: they are cultural more than vocational. The subject of patriotism has a large share in it. They probably handle subjects such as these: the *purushartam* of Rama, of Asoka, of Akbar, of Sivaji, of Ram Mohan Roy, of Gokhale; the place of woman in society and in life, in Indian history, in literature and religion; the place of India in the world; the social organization of the West as based on economic conditions, and the social organization of India as based on communal solidarity; the achievements of the different nations of the world; the great men of the world, etc., etc. Then there is a special lorry of women teachers. These are most popular. They deal with most interesting subjects: the fireless cooker; the baby's ailments; the cottage made smart with four annas and an hour's attention; new songs for the "kids"; new games for the girls; new stories for the twilight hour; news about reliable cloth; about fodder for the cow; new recipes for food, etc., etc.

The method of instruction is seldom by lectures. The lantern, the bioscope and concrete objects are used to an extraordinary liberal extent. The aim is not to impart detailed instruction but to arrest attention, to stimulate curiosity, to leave behind a general impression. To many in the audience it may be a species of entertainment, but few indeed there can be who are not the wiser for the event.

The weekly market has the advantage of being a regular stated event which collects the whole countryside. A continuous course of instruction it should be possible to devise for them. Even if ten per cent. of the crowd attend three consecutive classes the amount of instruction imparted would be considerable. We have in the weekly market of India an enormously greater advantage than what is available for the Chautauqua makers of America.

The great festivals of India are again an opportunity. Unlike the weekly market, the festival crowds vary greatly and they come from so many different parts and from such different conditions that it may be very difficult to arrange for suitable educational work. Still, such gatherings are so numerous in India and bring together such large concourses of people, that a wise use of the bioscope and the theatre for a few carefully selected didactic purposes should be of undoubted value.

D. The village school should itself become a community centre. This idea has been fully worked out in the report of the Village Education Commission, which need not be repeated here.¹

VI

"The province of popular education is to equip the men and women of this country for the tasks of citizenship. All are called upon to live, many are called upon to die, for the community of which they form a part. That they should be

¹ Chapter VIII, *Village Education in India* (Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press, 1920).

rescued from the dumb helplessness of ignorance is . . . at least an elementary part of political prudence, to which the . . . enfranchisement of several million new voters . . . adds a singular emphasis. But the argument does not rest upon grounds of political prudence alone, but upon the right of human beings to be considered as ends in themselves, and to be entitled, so far as our imperfect social arrangements may permit, to know and enjoy all the best that life can offer in the sphere of knowledge, emotion and hope."¹

These words of Mr. Fisher, meant to apply to Britain, summarise in a singularly apt way the principles on which the curriculum for adult education should be drawn up for modern India. Those principles are two:

1. The Indian citizen should be fitted to enable his community to intelligently correspond with its political and economic environment in the world.

2. The Indian citizen is entitled to be educated for a full enjoyment of his available opportunities of life.

1. The former would indicate two main divisions of subjects; (a) a knowledge of India; (b) a knowledge of the world.

(a) There is no nation with a pretence to civilization which is not inculcating patriotism as a part of its educational curriculum. It is the perfunctory development of the Indian educational system, even more than the fact of its direction by foreigners, that is responsible for this glaring omission in our country. If we are to protect our future from the two possible evils, of servile imitation of the materialistic organizations of the West, and of an over-conservative unwillingness to cut out those old Indian things which retard our progress, the one remedy is to spread a very wide and very adequate, as also very accurate, knowledge of our worth-while heritage. True India must be placed before the Indian mind, and unchallengeable principles also presented, to enable accurate discrimination and courageous adaptation. No one dare catalogue habits, customs and duties, and say, "Here, these are right, while those are wrong." There is no difficulty in studying them all in the light of their own history and in comparison and contrast with analogous conditions among other peoples, and in deducing general principles where-with to scrutinise their merits. No one can venture to say how particular customs, habits and duties should be adapted to the demands of modern conditions. Those adaptations must come about by the cumulative effect of many individual acts. To fit the individual to think intelligently in regard to those adaptations when challenged by modern conditions is one of the functions of adult education.

Then, again, India has to be taught to develop a glowing patriotism, based not on a blind sentiment akin to religious frenzy, but deriving unassailable strength from an intelligent understanding of India's contributions to the world in the past and in the present, and of her great reserves of strength, which promise no less valuable contributions in the future. This will indicate along what lines subjects should be developed in the curriculum for adult education.

(b) The Indian citizen must know about the world to an adequate extent if he is to enable his community to correspond

¹ The Rt. Hon. H. A. L. Fisher, quoted by Lala Lajpat Rai in *The Problem of National Education in India* (S. Ganesan & Co., Madras, 1920).

intelligently with it. He need not know all the details of its geography and history, nor the intricacies of its political problems, but he must secure a considerable knowledge of the great peoples of the earth, their habits and ideals in the ordinary work-day arrangements, their experiments in social organization and well-being, and the points of contact where they come intimately near India. He must naturally know much more about Britain, America and Japan than about the other countries. He should also secure a considerable amount of knowledge regarding those territories to which his countrymen emigrate, and the why and wherefore of that game.

When studying the world, he should, at many points, stop to study India alongside of it. Why others come to us, have always done so, why and how our resources and limitations, material and human, determine our place in the world in the past and in the present—all this should be studied as a part of a knowledge of the world.

Even our democratic programme should be unravelled before him, not in the abstract or as an ideal, but as a practical social experiment on which important light is available in the histories of the nations of the world. What democracy really is, what responsibilities it involves, how, under the semblance of a democracy, almost any form of Government from tyranny down to anarchy can easily take shape, how it is the individual citizen that is ultimately responsible for the destinies of his country, what his value really means to it on an ultra-individualistic arrangement as distinguished from a willing identity with his community. All these should be, and can be, included in a programme for adult education in India for the average Indian citizen.

Moreover, invaluable service can be rendered by imparting a knowledge of those wonderful lines of social and community service which adorn the life of Britain and America. How the aged and the infirm, the incurable and the unfortunate, all are cared for, not by indiscriminate charity, but by a scientific approach which is expressed in every detail with human interest; how whole cities like Bristol and Birmingham and Chicago are honeycombed with organizations, purely voluntary organizations, of this nature. A knowledge of these would indicate to our countrymen the *dharma* of social duty which is involved in citizenship in a modern democracy: and such knowledge had best be communicated in conjunction with actual practice.

2. Mr. Fisher rightly said that man is an end in himself. Even the community or the nation cannot conceive of him as merely a means to its ends. His education should include all those amenities which would be extraneous to a programme strictly conceived in terms of his national value. Human personality is a unity. Utility has no value, it is *personality that is worth while*.

The Maclagan Commission went very nearly to the root of the matter when it traced the cause of all our backwardness to "stagnation." There is no doubt that many millions of our people are absolutely content to live without a margin and to die in silent resignation without a fight for life. If by "stagnation" is meant a moral incapacity, the Maclagan Commission was quite

wrong. The abstemiousness of our people is because of many generations of social discipline weighted with the sanctions of a religion that looked to the other world more than this. The Commission went forward to recommend the co-operative method. And the co-operative method involves certain sterling moral resources. The splendid success of that method, which in ten years has become a live, self-extending movement, indicates how, with all the centuries of this discipline, living waters lay below the superficial "stagnation."

The co-operative movement is a channel which has let out a little rill to trickle down a wide bed. Now this channel should itself be used for tapping more streams out until the whole river shall fill and surge forward in the abounding life of the nation. Adult education, then, should create a divine discontent. It can do this only by an approach to all the sides of life, the body, the spirit and the mind: recreation, art, music, religion, festivals, social amenities, better clothes, more hygienic dwellings and streets and villages, the desire to have modern conveniences within easy reach, all these and similar indications of a healthy ambition, of the desire for more abundant life, of the rise of the standard of living, should be brought about through adult education. Our countrymen are entitled to it, and we who claim to lead shall be held guilty presently when our countrymen shall become aware of what is called social justice in the West, and shall turn to us and ask what we had been doing.

Shall then the heritage of our discipline be thrown out as out of date? Most emphatically, No. This discipline of social obligation must be conserved and yet life made more abundant and higher in standard. Such reconstruction, however, cannot happen by the initiative of the *literati*, but only through a spontaneous moral and social evolution of the people. To make such a thing possible will be the office of the wise organizers of the adult education movement in India.

VII

"The task . . . is of appalling difficulty and magnitude, but unless we believe that it is capable of accomplishment, we shall be driven to accept the pessimistic conclusion of a Western writer that India is 'the dying East.' That conclusion assuredly every Indian will repudiate. A consciousness should be roused in the Indian mind that a better state of things could be brought into existence in India itself if the people only willed and worked for the same."¹

Three parties need to co-operate if this "task of appalling difficulty and magnitude" is to be accomplished, and so the death of India prevented. They are the People, the Universities, and the State. Of these three, the first is the greatest, and the other two can succeed truly only in so far as they successfully work through the first.

(a) There need be no fears anywhere that there is not that in the people of India which will be adequate to the task when once suitable guidance is available. One is tempted to quote in full the wonderful record made by the village of Vadamalaipuram in Ramnad District.² This tiny village has a population of just 165

¹ Sir M. Visvesvaraya, in *Reconstructing India*.

² *Some South Indian Villages*, University of Madras, Economic Series, Edited by Gilbert Slater (Humphrey Milford, Oxford University Press, 1918).

families, making up 811 persons, mostly cultivating peasant-proprietors, each owning, with few exceptions, from 1 to 25 acres of "black cotton" land. In other words, they are neither better nor worse than any average village which may be selected up and down our vast continent. Into this village there arrived a few years ago a Mr. Ananda Rao, who started a Co-operative Credit Society on the 12th of February, 1909, with 13 members and a capital of Rs. 65.

It is of this village that we read some wonderful statements :

" One custom peculiar to the village is the system that all villagers should contribute, according to their status, towards the expenses of the marriages and funerals in the village. The effect is wholesome. The marriage expenses are not very high, and a marriage or death in a family does not mean a huge debt to that family, but is distributed among the villagers."

" The village has an elementary school, where instruction is free. Seven and a half per cent. of the net profits of the Co-operative Society goes to the school. Besides this, all the members have generously consented to give the dividends they receive from the society for the upkeep of the school. There are two teachers at present. Instruction is up to fourth standard. There is a museum attached to the school. The chief collections there are the seeds of different crops. Behind the school there is a small plot of ground which has been turned into the school garden."

" One special feature is the training given in co-operation. The boys are given instruction in the management of co-operative societies and a practical way of demonstration is adopted by asking the students to keep a co-operative store where pencils, paper, etc., are sold to the students. The students are allowed to have deposits and to keep credit accounts."

" There are some panchamas also in the school."

" The villagers get *New India* and the *Swadesimitran* for their co-operative society, which is also their reading room."

" The village administration is conducted by the village munsiff, his *karnam* and a *panchayat* of 16 persons. The *panchayat* holds on an average two meetings every month. Last year the *panchayat* activities were specially in the direction of sanitation, especially the construction of roads and drains. The *panchayat* has appointed a scavenger to keep the streets clean and to look after the drains. The drinking water wells are regularly cleansed, the cost of each clearing being borne by the people who use the well."

" The relations of the villagers to the high authorities are very amicable. The villagers are, however, very independent and many of the petty exactions and tyranny that are common in other villages are not to be met with here."

" None of the villagers are at present engaged in litigation. There was a little litigation some years back, but after the advent of the co-operative society a new spirit has come over the villagers of not resorting to courts but of having all their disputes settled by the *panchayat*. Most of these disputes are of a civil nature. Criminal cases have not yet arisen, and it remains to be seen whether the parties would be satisfied with the verdict of the *panchayat*."

" In 1913 an Agricultural Society, for purchase and sale, was started with 24 members and an initial capital of Rs. 24. In 1916 the activity of the society was as follows :

" Stock on hand	Rs. 322
" Bought during the year	" 420
" Sold during the year	" 828 "

It must be abundantly clear from these quotations that the moral resources are there and that what is needed is the Ananda Rao, who knows more but who is willing to serve in the only way that can be abidingly successful, by leading the community to help itself.

The position of leadership which our countrymen are willing to accord to the *literati* is immediate, unquestioned and implicitly confiding. This teachable spirit and the willingness to follow leadership are again among those ancient heritages of India which need to be conserved. And it can be conserved now only if we,

like our predecessors, deserve the leadership so willingly thrust upon us. In India knowledge was ever conceived as a responsibility demanded by *dharma*. It was never conceived as a means for selfish purposes. The same responsibility abides with us and should drive us to fit ourselves adequately for suitable service to the present generation.

The Co-operative Credit Movement is suffering in more ways than one for lack of adequate voluntary leadership. It need not have stayed so long on the credit stage if the English-educated had known of its infinite value or its multifarious possibilities, and had realized their obvious personal responsibility in the matter. The movement is spreading mainly in the rural areas, and therefore it is dependent almost exclusively on the services of professional agents whom the Government Co-operative Department furnishes. To officialise the Co-operative Movement is the surest way to kill its moral possibilities. But how can rural areas provide voluntary leadership to enable the Indian Co-operative Movement to accomplish the great services which yet remain to be done? It is satisfactory to note that every year a larger volume of urban leadership is becoming available for the movement. But such supply is far too small for the needs of the country. A public opinion has to be created among the educated community and co-operative service placed as an indispensable factor on the conscience of all who have the advantages of an English education in India. To give such leadership the people of India can and will function in accomplishing that same "task of appalling difficulty and magnitude" without which the death of India is threatened.

B. The Adult Education Movement of Britain was, in its pioneering stage, largely helped by the universities of the country. The economic survey of South India made by the Madras University is a distinct contribution along this line. Such research work makes the raw material available: but it could do much more, it could engage in a wide and comprehensive scheme of extension lectures, provide tutors, produce text-books, regulate curricula, do propagandist work, and in many effective ways reach those very large numbers of people whose educational careers stop at some stage short of the college.

The momentum given in this manner will by wider outreaches benefit even those who have not had any school advantages, and so around every college the light of knowledge could spread in ever-widening circles.

Compared with what we trust will be done through the co-operative society, the theatre, the weekly market, and so forth, the work of the Universities may appear to be small in quantity. But it is the Extension Department of the University that would be the logical clearing-house for all experiences in adult education. It is there that pedagogic principles can be continually applied to every such experiment. It is there that standards can be set and the hall mark of approval granted.

The development of Indian universities is now tending so strongly in the direction of the unitary residential type that it might be questioned how any such extension work can be possible. In answer it could be submitted that there is more than one

ideal of the University, and that while the cloistered university is eminently necessary for securing high erudition and scientific authority, there is also for India such a need as the People's University, which profits by its cloistered colleague but is itself of and for the people in their practical everyday life. One doubts whether India is to have the one or the other type alone, or perhaps a curious intermixture of both, on which time shall have a determining voice until what is suited to India shall have been evolved. Surely it will be agreed on every hand that we have had only too much of the cloistered type, from which its sons have come out utterly unprepared for their obvious responsibilities in life.

C. The State has undoubtedly a very large responsibility in the accomplishment of this "task of appalling difficulty and magnitude." In India we are accustomed to look to the State to do everything for us. In fact, to mention the Adult Education Movement would be to many minds an invitation to a discussion as to what the State should do by way of organization and finance. The paternalistic policy has done us untold injury. It is, therefore, that among the three contributing agencies we have emphasized the importance of the People, and discussed it first. It is the people of India that have to do her reconstruction. It is the educated among them that have to lead the people on a voluntary basis. It is their own universities that have to provide the expert research and scientific guidance. When all that is said it still remains to be admitted that State aid is indispensable.

The most important aid of the State will be in facilitating a very rapid approach towards universal literacy. Free and compulsory education of the young is an important factor to the success of the task. Literacy is not indispensable for adult education. The education in Indian citizenship is of such utter urgency that we cannot wait for it: we must forge ahead, overcoming the obstacle. But literacy is a magnificent tool, and the sooner it is available to the whole population the better it would be for our purposes.

The State should again reform its present system of education for the young on lines such as will fall in with a comprehensive scheme for an education in citizenship and for life. At present the smallest class is patterned with the University as its goal—a goal to which not even one per cent. of those in the primary stages reach, whereas everyone reaches on to life. But we are not discussing the education of the young at all in this paper. Suffice it here to say that speedy reform has got to be done in the existing educational system.¹ Such a reform will be a great aid towards the successful accomplishment of the task under reference.

The State could relate all its technical and vocational institutes to the scheme for adult education. It should be possible for any local educational committee, be it in village or town, to requisition and obtain the services of the experts attached to such institutes. For this purpose it should be the regular thing in the institutes to maintain additional staff for extra mural demonstration and educational work.

One day I spent some four hours with a farmer in a little out of the way village in the State of Michigan. The man and his two

¹ Vide *Village Education in India and Calcutta University Commission Report, en passim.*

sons were the only labourers and they were handling, and handling with thorough success, a farm of over 250 acres! There was a Ford tractor with a number of agricultural tools and appliances, all operated by it. There was a little shed with a $1\frac{1}{2}$ h.p. engine which pumped the water up a tube well for domestic consumption, separated cream, lit the house, washed the clothes and occasionally sawed planks. The man told me that he had arrived on the site with just his hands and feet, had leased 50 acres which he still so held, had got on so well that he had acquired over 200 acres as his own property. His house was neat, well appointed, comfortable, with just a touch of culture. I asked him, "What is the secret of it all? Is it the machinery?" He said, "No, sir. It is the yonder teapoy." I reached for it, and found that it was laden with a number of magazines and catalogues. Yes, that was it. No kind of machinery could possibly help an American farmer in the headlong race of competition, which is all the time happening in that country. The only chance is in keeping up to date. "The State sends along," as he proceeded to explain, "expert advisers at frequent intervals, who advise me as to what to do and what to scrap, and so I keep always ahead."

It is a wonderful American method, the local farmer-demonstrator. The State does not run costly experimental farms at so many dots on the map, but it persuades as many farmers as it can to act as local demonstrators, on the mutual agreement that the State continually furnishes expert advice and that the farmer agrees to carry out the preferred advice. The result is that a whole State gets thickly dotted with demonstrators, at no risks to the State whatever, and at only of the cost of the staff expert advisers.

These advisers are members of the staff of the State Agricultural College, who are all the time perfecting the efficiency of the system of extension work which it is their responsibility to put through. The relating of all the technical colleges and vocational institutes with the everyday life of the people is a way in which the adult education of India can be substantially helped by the State.

The State could also help in finance. The work of reconstruction has got to be done by the people and through voluntary leadership. The aid of the State, as has been stated, can and ought to be only of a preparatory and indirect nature. But as the work develops there will soon be the necessity for expenses which will be beyond particular localities to carry. The State purse is, after all, the people's own purse, and the people have the right to expect contributions from it for constructive schemes of undoubted value.

The district leaders can promote many lines of educational activity: and while they are expensive one can see how the finance available for them can be obtained from one local resource or another. But go from the district to the provincial end, and there will be demands beyond the resources of voluntary leadership. Such things as scholarships for foreign study, the importing of foreign experts, the overhead organization of certain necessary advisory plant at a provincial end, these it will be impossible to finance excepting through State aid. After all, there is nothing vitiating in State finance so long as the State

realizes that the work is the work of the people and the privilege of the State is to serve it.

VIII

A concrete situation may be imagined. Take District S—. At the headquarters town it has a college affiliated to the provincial university: the Extension Department of the University functions through its staff and students. They get the habit of voluntary educational service, and become fairly conversant with its organization and methods. The alumni of the college, entering various professions in that district, necessarily lead in voluntary enterprises towards adult education. Public opinion now demands as much from all who have had the advantages of the college course. First there are experimental enterprises by various individuals in different lines. Later a District Organizing Committee comes into existence. It provides the necessary urban leadership to the Co-operative Movement throughout the district. It leads the primary societies into many forms of social and civic service. It particularly seeks out opportunities for adult educational work. It seizes the opportunities of the weekly markets and constructs, or rather digs out, open-air amphitheatres where dramatic performances, bioscope shows, lantern lectures, object lessons, experiments, etc., are conducted. It leads temple committees to put up structures of the same sort as a necessary phase of a successful festival organization. It mobilises all the lecturers, tutors, authors, and actors available in the city and neighbourhood, and finds the funds necessary for their travel and hospitality. It runs a district bulletin, which is always full of useful information and is of wide social value. It enters into definite understanding with the agricultural, veterinary and industrial departments of Government. It is in close touch with the Government experts in particular lines of agriculture and industrial work. It studies all that is happening on similar lines in other countries and endeavours strenuously to keep up to date. It is itself on the *qui vive* to the world: and by contagion, by influence and by organized educational activities, it enables the whole community to correspond more and more effectively and intelligently with its world environment.

The key to the whole situation, then, is in the hands of the English-educated Indian. His service is the one indispensable factor for the accomplishment of "the task of appalling difficulty and magnitude," which alone can free India to become a living factor among the nations of the world, and so strike forward to its legitimate god-appointed destiny.

KANAKARAYAN T. PAUL.

I. INTRODUCTION.

The purpose of this pamphlet is to provide in a convenient form all the information at present available in regard to the Indian Section of the Indian Defence Force. It is intended specially for students of the Allahabad University, but should prove of service to a wider circle, for it is not easy for the ordinary man to get access to information published at different times in the Government Gazettes and in the Press.

More than two months have passed since a call was made for 6000 Indians to volunteer for home defence, and the appeal was addressed in particular to the educated and student classes. The response up to the present time is known in India. There is nothing to be gained by printing the figures again. They must fill all who love India and all who believe in her destiny with the profoundest anxiety. We can only hope that no circulation outside India will be given to the facts until the full six months during which names may be enrolled have expired.

For it is too early to speak of failure, at least so far as students are concerned. The scheme was launched at the worst possible time in the whole College year and the information as to conditions of service, and the issuing of enrolment forms were so long delayed that the vacations were upon us before the actual question of enrolment could be properly presented. But with the publication of University results and the reopening of the Colleges these difficulties will pass. The real time of testing is upon us.

Experience shows that there are two types of difficulty which are militating against the success of the scheme and holding back volunteers. The first of these is the question of status. There is no doubt that Indians are grievously disappointed at the perpetuation of the old distinctions and inequalities. The Government of India seems to be fully conscious of these difficulties, but reminds the public that this is a war measure and must bear upon it the marks and limitations of emergency. It was this consideration which induced the Indian members of the Imperial Legislative Council to welcome the measure with all its defects. It is in view of this that Indian public men throughout the greater part of India have urged their countrymen to volunteer. A glance at the quotations in Part IV of this pamphlet will show that, conscious as they are of the disabilities under which Indian members of the force will suffer, they are convinced that the love of India no less than loyalty to the Empire and to the Empire's cause should lead every available man to give in his name.

The second type of difficulty arises from ignorance and uncertainty

as to the conditions of service. These conditions will be found set forth in the following pages. They fall under two heads— conditions of training and conditions of service.

Recruits will be trained at selected centres (see p. 15); those from the United Provinces at Allahabad. This training will be a serious business. It will occupy three months and during this time recruits will live in camp or barracks. This idea is strange and distasteful to many students, but in many cases they will be living with College friends and efforts are being made to induce the authorities to take over one of the Allahabad Hostels where conditions will be very much what students are accustomed to. The pay (Rs. 11 a month for a private, plus free rations and clothing and travelling expenses) is small, of course, but it will not be less than the amount which remains to many students after paying their College dues and boarding expenses, and during this time of training it is not likely that any College will charge tuition fees.

Students need not be afraid that their careers will suffer if they join this force. The University has announced that they will be excused attendance at lectures without losing percentage during the time of training, while Government has decided that candidates for Government Service will be allowed to deduct the period spent in training or on service from their age, and that the satisfactory discharge of military duties will be taken into consideration when appointments or promotions are made (see p. 18). It is clear that volunteers will be called up for service only in cases of serious emergency. (p. 17). This service will, of course, be only within the limits of India itself (see form of oath p. 14). It would be quite impossible for the Commander in Chief to send members of the force to Mesopotamia or any where else outside India.

Rajputs and others have sometimes complained that they are excluded as members of classes from which the Indian Army is ordinarily recruited (p. 11); but this rule will not be enforced in the case of students and educated men (see p. 15, at the bottom).

There is one reason which is frequently given for the unreadiness of young men to enlist. It is said that the whole nation has been emasculated by the policy of the Government in regard to military service and the carrying of arms in the past. There is perhaps some truth in this, though the condition in most of the non-conscript countries is not so different as is often supposed. Probably at least 75 per cent. of

the men who voluntarily joined the huge British armies had never handled a firearm before in their lives. But whether it is true or not, the obvious thing is not to suggest excuses to unwilling persons but to spur them to endeavour—and there is no lack of fine material in our Colleges.

If this pamphlet contributes in any way to rouse students to the urgency of this call to their manhood, and if it makes the business of enrolment easier for them, it will have achieved its purpose.

A. W. D.

Agra, June 1. 1917.

II THE INTENTION OF GOVERNMENT

HIS EXCELLENCY THE VICEROY'S SPEECHES.

In the course of his speech in Council on the 7th of February, 1917, His Excellency said—"The necessities of the war have made it imperative that an Indian Defence Force should be organised with the greatest urgency, and we had hoped to have been able to bring our whole scheme into being before the commencement of the new year. The matter has been in train for some months past, but the details of the organisation have necessitated long and anxious consideration, and their final settlement has been delayed almost from day to day.

....."We have no intention of confining the Defence of India Force to European British subjects. We also propose to enrol Indians in their own units for general military service in India for the duration of the war. In their case, considering the numbers available and the possible limitations upon our powers of training and equipment, we are satisfied that it will be sufficient, for the present at all events, to give Indians the opportunity of enrolling themselves for service as an integral part of this Force. The desire of Indians to serve their country has been so widely expressed and so ardently acclaimed, that I may feel confident that a great response will be made to this call, and that within the six months which we propose to allow for their enrolment as many men will offer themselves for service as the military authorities can deal with. But it must be borne in mind that, though the services of this Force will be confined to the limits of India, it is intended to be and will be essentially serious military service under strictly military conditions. To them, no less than to the others, the call is their country's and the service they are asked to undertake the service of the Empire."

Again on the 21st of February, before the Introduction of the Bill, His Excellency said— "As Hon'ble Members are aware, the moment has arrived when the Empire must make a united and concerted effort to finish this war. We have been asked, and we have agreed, to send every available man to the decisive spheres of action. This will involve the sending away from India of certain British units.

"The Army in India has always been composed of a blend in certain proportions of British and Indian troops, and military experience has shown that this blend constitutes the very best fighting force which we can supply.

"This principle of blend is no new thing in military history. Historically there are parallels and precedents wherever Armies have been composed of different races. And now, to preserve the proportions of this blend, we find it necessary to replace these British units which are required for the decisive theatres of the war.

....."To secure this, we propose compulsion for all coming under the definition of European British subject.

....."I turn now to our invitation to Indians to offer their services. As I pointed out in my opening speech to the Council, compulsion in this case is out of the question on practical grounds, but we will endeavour to deal with those who apply to be enrolled.

"Hon'ble Members will have realised from my previous remarks that volunteering, as we have known it under the Volunteer Act, 1869, is dead. It is useless to spend money on a military force, which is bound to be ineffective under the conditions and nature of its existence. So this new force will come under the provisions of the Indian Army Act. It is intended to be an effective military organisation. As the British element under this Act is to be dealt with on the same lines as those of the British Regulars, so the Indian element will come under the same military conditions which apply to the Indian Regular forces, saving the fact, in both cases, that service is to be within India. I do not think it necessary for me to labour this point. We cannot play at soldiers in these times, nor, I hope, shall we play at soldiers at any future time. Military efficiency must be the sole criterion of our policy."

HIS EXCELLENCY THE COMMANDER-IN-CHIEF IN INDIA :—

"India has rendered great service in the struggle of the last three years, and her armies have gained distinction in many fields. She has not however, felt the burden of the war to the same extent as other

portions of the Empire, and the past two years have, as a matter of fact, been years of great material prosperity. The virile population of the Punjab has filled the ranks of our regiments and given us thousands of gallant soldiers, but there are several provinces which so far have not yielded a single recruit, so that the man-power of India, as a whole, can hardly be said to have been touched. In the same way, the resources of the country have not been drawn upon to anything like their full capacity, and, given a suitable organization, I believe that much more could be done to utilize her productions and develop her manufactures for military purposes.

"The Secretary of State has indicated to the Government of India the lines on which India can render the greatest assistance to His Majesty's Government during the war. They are—

Firstly, the release, for service in the field, of some of the units now employed in India on garrison duty, and their replacement by units locally recruited.

Secondly, the development of local resources and industries with a view to rendering India more self-supporting as regards articles required by the troops in the field, thereby reducing demands from home and consequently releasing shipping urgently required elsewhere.

"The first of these objects will, we hope, be secured by the creation of an Indian Defence Force as provided for in this Bill.

....."As this Defence Force will serve as an auxiliary to the Regular Army, we consider that it should, like the latter, be composed partly of British and partly of Indian units. In this way all classes of His Majesty's subjects in India will be afforded opportunities of rendering personal service during the war.

"Recruitment for this Defence Force will be by compulsory enrolment in the case of European British subjects, and by voluntary enrolment in the case of non-European British subjects..... In the case of Indians... ..the sources of recruitment are practically illimitable. The application of compulsory service in their case would be open to many objections and we could not possibly officer, equip, train and find suitable employment for the enormous numbers that compulsion would place at our disposal. Owing to the martial spirit of the classes from which we recruit our Indian regiments, we have had no great difficulty so far in obtaining all the men we require. In the case of Indians, therefore, there is no reason for departing from the voluntary principle of recruitment, whether as regards Regulars or as regards units of the Defence Force. We have, of course, no previous

experience to guide us, but there appears to be a widespread desire among His Majesty's Indian subjects to assist in the defence of the Empire, and we have, therefore, no reason to suppose that there will be any difficulty in obtaining by voluntary enrolment the numbers we shall want to complete Indian units of the Defence Force. As we do not want recruitment for the Defence Force to interfere with recruitment for the Regular Army, the enrolment of Indian subjects in the former will be restricted, as a rule, to classes or individuals who, in ordinary circumstances, would not be available for enlistment in the latter.

"It may be argued that the combination of voluntary service with compulsion is somewhat of an anachronism. Our answer to this is, that this Bill is essentially a war measure, designed to meet our immediate military requirements. Defence must be active if it is to be of any value, and this demands power to move troops wherever they are wanted. By obtaining that power, as we will under this Bill, we shall remove one of the main defects of the Volunteer Force as at present constituted, and at the same time give the new Defence Force the great advantage of starting operations with an organization which is in full working order, and which only needs expansion and adaptation to render it efficient.

"With these introductory remarks, I will now proceed to give an outline of the more important provisions of the Act.

"The Indian Defence Force will consist of certain units composed of European British subjects between the ages of 16 and 50 who have been required to enrol under the compulsory provisions of the Bill, and of a certain number of other units composed of non-European British subjects between the ages of 18 and 41 who have enrolled themselves voluntarily. It is the intention of Government to retain the existing Volunteer organization, but all existing corps, as well as any new corps or units that may be raised or constituted, will become corps or units of the Indian Defence Force.

"The Military authorities will have the power to employ the active companies of corps wherever they are required within Indian limits. These companies will, however, serve as a rule in their own districts, and it will, we hope, be rarely necessary to embody a whole corps, or even portions of a corps, for continuous military service. Such an arrangement might no doubt be convenient in particular cases; but the creation of service companies, to which I shall presently refer, should avoid the necessity for such action except on rare occasions, or in circumstances of exceptional urgency.

"I now come to the service companies. These will, for all intents and purposes, be Regular units for the time being, and will be clothed, equipped, rationed and paid as Regulars. They will relieve Regular units on garrison duty, and will be stationed anywhere in India where they may be required. As this will be the form of service most disturbing to civil avocations, special care and consideration will be exercised in the selection of individuals. It will be arranged, as far as possible, to have a system of reliefs, so that the incidence of this service will not be borne by a few individuals for a prolonged period, but will extend to a large number who will take their turn of duty for a varying and, as a rule, comparatively short period. It is hoped, in this way, to minimise the inconvenience that must necessarily be caused to business and professional interests whenever men are wholly withdrawn from their civil occupations. This arrangement will have the advantage of increasing the number of men who have been put through a course of continuous training, and this should go far to increase the general efficiency of the Force. I may add that the number of men required for the service companies is not large, so demands under this head will not be burdensome.

"The arrangements I have indicated will apply to Indian members of the Force equally with Europeans. There is no intention of discriminating between the two classes. As corps composed of Indians will consist of active companies only, no persons will be accepted for enrolment unless they are fit for general service. These corps will thus consist of men between the ages of 18 and 41 and, in selecting candidates, preference will be shown for the younger and more active men. It may, in fact, be desirable to restrict enrolments at first to men between the ages of 18 and 31. This, however, will be determined by military considerations and by the number of men who offer themselves for enrolment. Indian service companies, will be formed, as required, by drawing men from the active companies, and these will have to serve at any place within Indian limits where they may be needed.

....."I will conclude my remarks by observing that, though the Indian Defence Force will be a second line force, it will be in no sense a second rate force, for we mean to make it a model of its kind. Its members must realise that we are dealing now with serious soldiering, and that personal convenience and other considerations must yield to military efficiency and to the creation of the spirit of discipline upon which that efficiency so largely depends. The old Volunteer Force has become an anachronism. It has been replaced at Home by the Territorial Force, and will now be replaced in India by a Defence Force,

designed to suit local requirements, whose development and progress will be watched with the keenest interest."

(From the Gazette of India. Part VI).

GOVERNMENT RESOLUTION : MAY 1917.

It should be obvious that during the progress of the greatest war in history, it was not possible to reorganize or modify radically the general conditions governing the military service of the country, and that any endeavour to do so might only result in deferring the day of final victory to which India in common with the rest of his Majesty's dominions is so earnestly looking forward. At a time when military organizations are strained to the uttermost it was not possible to provide for the training of an indefinite number of small units all over the country on such a scale as to place a newly constituted force of this character upon an efficient basis. Endeavour was, however, made to afford such facilities as were possible to those who were anxious to enrol themselves in the service of their country and arrangements were made in the first instance for recruiting six battalions of a thousand men each at convenient centres. It was fully anticipated that further expansion might be required as the movement developed, but it was thought that a reasonable commencement might be made on these lines and military authorities were satisfied that this was all that they could undertake at the outset.

.....The Government of India recognize that the conditions of service in the Defence Force may be open to criticism in some respects, but as has already been stated, it was impossible to recast the existing organization during the continued pressure of a great emergency and all that could be attempted was to engraft the new force on to the great Indian army which was already in being. There are doubtless particular conditions of service in the Indian army which may be thought to be unsuitable to the men who enrol themselves in the new force and the Government of India have no hesitation in declaring that considerations of this sort will always be taken into account and that so far as is consistent with the maintenance of the necessary standard of discipline sympathetic treatment will be accorded to all those who come forward voluntarily to serve their country. The Government of India are also aware of the Indian aspirations with reference to the commissioned ranks. It is, however, perfectly well known that this matter is separately under consideration and is engaging the earnest and sympathetic attention of the Government. The whole frame work

of the Indian army is affected by that discussion and it must be obvious to every thinking man that the enrolment of a purely temporary force constituted on a voluntary basis owing to the emergencies of a great war could not justify the hurried determination of so important and difficult a question in respect of which the Government of India are not the ultimate arbiters.

In conclusion, the Government of India deem it expedient to draw attention once more to the words of his Excellency the Viceroy in the speech which brought to a close the last meeting of the Indian Legislative Council :

"The Act is confessedly a war measure and therefore temporary, but it will prove a most invaluable experiment. We shall have—it is not a secret, for he who runs may read—to reorganize our Indian army after this war and some form of second line force will probably be required. In the Indian Defence Force raised temporarily under the stress of war there may lie the germ of such a new second line. Do not ask us at such a moment as this to give answers to problems which will have to be solved when there is more leisure. When that time arrives then criticize as you will the Government in respect of its policy. But for the moment, I would assure you that all the subjects of your criticism are engaging our most sympathetic consideration and I would ask your co-operation in making this present scheme a success, but do not let it be marred on the ground that it does not contain all that you would desire."

These words were accepted in the spirit in which they were offered by the non-official members of the Council and constitute a sufficient pledge of the earnest consideration by Government of the future needs of India. It is not claimed that the present scheme is perfect ; it is admittedly in the nature of a makeshift, but it is the best that could be devised in the conditions obtaining at the moment and it has great possibilities. That such a scheme, conceived in the general interest of imperial defence, should, in spite of its modest dimensions, prove a hopeless failure at such a time and in a country which whatever its deficiencies, is not lacking in man-power can hardly fail to create an impression throughout the Empire prejudicial to the good name of India. It is, therefore, the sincere hope of the Governor-General in Council that the leaders of public opinion in this country will realize their full responsibilities in this matter and take all possible steps forthwith to make the recruitment of these Indian units worthy of the name and aspirations of India.

III. OFFICIAL INFORMATION.

(1) THE ACT. (From the Gazette of India, Pt. IV, March 3, 1917).
ACT No. III OF 1917.

An Act to constitute an Indian Defence Force, and for other purposes.

WHEREAS it is necessary to constitute an Indian Defence Force, and compulsorily to enrol for service in that Force certain European British subjects; and

Whereas in the case of others, it is deemed sufficient for the present to take powers to enrol for such service only such persons as may offer themselves for enrolment; It is hereby enacted as follows:—

1. (1) This Act may be called the Indian Defence Force Act, 1917.

(2) It extends to the whole of British India, including British Baluchistan and the Sonthal Parganas, and applies also to European British subjects within the territories of any Native Prince or Chief in India.

(3) It shall remain in force during the continuance of the present war, and for a period of six months thereafter.

2. In this Act, unless there is anything repugnant in the subject or context,—

“European British subject” means a European British subject as defined in the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, and shall, for the purposes of this Act, be deemed to include every person who, before the third day of March, 1917, has filled up, signed and lodged Form A with the Registration Authority under the Registration Ordinance, 1917, and also every person who at the commencement of this Act is a member of a corps of volunteers constituted under the Indian Volunteers Act, 1869.

(Sections applying solely to European British subjects are here omitted).

12. (1) The Governor General in Council may, by notification in the Gazette of India, constitute, in any local area which he may specify in the notification, corps or units for the enrolment in the Indian Defence Force of persons other than European British subjects, who satisfy the prescribed conditions and, within six months from the commencement of this Act, offer themselves for enrolment for general military service, and such persons may be enrolled accordingly in the prescribed manner.

(2) Every person enrolled in a corps or unit constituted under sub-section (1) shall be liable to serve in any part of India, shall be

subject to all rules and regulations that may be made under this Act relating to his corps or unit, and shall not quit such corps or unit except in the prescribed manner.

(3) Every such person shall, when called out in the prescribed manner for general military service, be subject to the Indian Army Act, 1911, and the rules made thereunder, whereupon the said Act and rules shall apply to him as if he held the same rank in the Indian Army as he holds for the time being in the Indian Defence Force.

(2) FROM THE GAZETTE OF INDIA EXTRAORDINARY,
MARCH 27, 1917.
PART II.

VOLUNTARY ENROLMENT.

8. A person not being a European British subject may offer himself for enrolment for general military service, provided he satisfies the following conditions, namely :—

- Conditions to be satisfied by a person offering himself for enrolment under section 12 of the Act.
- (1) He must not belong to any class from which the Indian Army is ordinarily recruited.*
 - (2) He must not be a member of a criminal tribe, or a person who at any time has been sentenced to a term of imprisonment or transportation, or has been ordered under the provisions of the Code of Criminal Procedure, 1898, to give security for his good behaviour, such sentence or order not having been subsequently reversed or remitted, the offender pardoned.
 - (3) He must not be a member of a menial class.
 - (4) He must bear a good character.
 - (5) He must for the time being have attained the age of 18 years but not the age of 30 years.
 - (6) He must have attained the standard of height, chest measurement and physical fitness required for recruits of the Indian Army.

9. (1) Every person offering himself for enrolment under the provisions of section 12 of the Act shall lodge with the District Magistrate of the district in which he ordinarily resides Form II set out in Schedule I to these rules duly filled in and signed by him.

(2) The District Magistrate shall forward every Form lodged with him under the provisions of sub-rule (1) to the competent military

* But see p. 15 at the bottom.

authority, or to such other person as may be appointed in this behalf by the competent military authority.

10. (1) In the case of every person so offering himself for enrolment, whose offer it is proposed to accept, the competent military authority shall as soon as may be cause a notice to that effect to be served upon him requiring him to attend medical examination and thereafter for enrolment at such time and place as may be specified therein.

In all other cases notice shall as soon as may be be served on the person offering himself for enrolment stating that his offer is not accepted.

(2) When any such person, having been duly certified as medically fit, attends for enrolment, the enrolling officer shall put to him the questions in Form II set out in Schedule I to these rules, and shall, if necessary, amend the answers entered in the copy of the said Form lodged by such person. Such person shall be required to sign at the foot of the said Form a declaration that the answers given by him are true and that he is willing to fulfil the engagements made.

(3) If the enrolling officer is satisfied that the person desirous of being enrolled understands the questions put to him and consents to the conditions of service, he shall sign a certificate to that effect on the said Form, and such person shall then be deemed to be enrolled under section 12 of the Act.

(4) For the purposes of this rule, the enrolling officer shall be such officer as may be appointed in this behalf by the competent military authority.

11. (1) Every person so enrolled shall be attested in the presence of any one of the following attesting officers:—

- (a) a Magistrate;
- (b) an officer commanding a military station;
- (c) an officer commanding a Regular or Territorial Unit, or
- (d) an officer commanding an Indian Defence Force Corps.

(2) When any person is to be attested, an oath or affirmation shall be administered to him in one of the Forms specified in Form III set out in Schedule I to these rules, or in such other form to the same purport as the attesting officer ascertains to be in accordance with the religion of the person to be attested or otherwise binding on his conscience.

(3) An entry of the fact that an enrolled person has taken the oath or affirmation directed by this rule shall be endorsed on the copy of Form II signed by him, and shall be authenticated by the signature of the attesting officer.

12. No person enrolled in a corps or unit constituted under section 12 of the Act shall quit such corps or unit, unless dismissed by a sentence of court-martial or dismissed or discharged by an order of the Governor General in Council or of the General Officer Commanding the Division.

13. Every person enrolled in a corps or unit constituted under section 12 of the Act shall be deemed to have been called out for general military service from the date of his being so enrolled.

14. Any person who, having offered himself for enrolment in a corps or unit constituted under section 12 of the Act, knowingly makes a false answer to any question put to him at the time of enrolment or attestation, shall be punishable with imprisonment which may extend to six months, or with fine which may extend to five hundred rupees or with both.

FORM II.

(See rule 9.)

INDIAN DEFENCE FORCE.

Enrolment of

No. _____ Name _____ as a combatant in the Indian Defence Force.

Questions to be put before enrolment.

1. What is your name ?
2. What is your father's name ?
3. What is your religion, class and tribe ?
4. What is your Village, Thana, Parganah Tahsil and District ?
5. What are your educational qualifications ?
6. Have you ever been imprisoned by the Civil Power ?
7. Do you now belong to His Majesty's Forces, the Reserve or the Imperial Service Troops of any Native State or the Nepal State Army ?

8. Have you ever served in His Majesty's Forces, the Reserve or the Imperial Service Troops of any Native State of the Nepal State Army? If so state in which and the cause of discharge (a)?
9. Have you truly stated the whole, if any, of your former service?
10. Are you in receipt of any allowance from Government? If so, on what account?
11. Are you willing to be enrolled in the Indian Defence Force?
12. Are you willing to go wherever ordered in India by land or sea, and allow no caste usages to interfere with your military duty?
13. Are you willing to be vaccinated or re-vaccinated?
14. Are you willing to serve until discharged in accordance with the following conditions provided His Majesty shall so long require your services?

When you have served till the conclusion of the war you will be entitled to receive your discharge with all convenient speed

_____Signature of applicant.

FORM III.

(See rule II.)

(Form of Oath.)

I, _____ do swear that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to His Majesty, the King-Emperor, his heirs and successors, and that I will, as in duty bound, honestly and faithfully serve in the Indian Defence Force, and go wherever I may be ordered in India by land or sea, and that I will observe and obey all commands of any officer set over me even to the peril of my life, so help me God.

(Form of affirmation.)

I, _____ solemnly affirm that I will be faithful and bear true allegiance to His Majesty, the King-Emperor, his heirs and successors, and that I will, as in duty bound, honestly and faithfully serve in the Indian Defence Force, and go wherever I may be ordered in India by land or sea, and that I will observe and obey all commands of any officer set over me even to the peril of my life.

(a) If so, the recruit should be asked to produce his Discharge Certificate.

(3). RULES FOR VOLUNTARY ENROLMENT. (From the "Pioneer")

DELHI, 27TH MARCH.

The following is published for the guidance of persons other than European British subjects who desire voluntarily to enrol themselves in the Indian Defence Force under section 12 of the recent Act. In this connection it must be remembered that this force has been created as a war measure and that voluntary enrolment therein is consequently limited by the capacity of the military authorities to provide the requisite instructional staff and equipment.

It is intended to form Indian territorial units all over India with headquarters at convenient centres. At present, owing to the exigencies of the war, the number of these units will be limited to six, with headquarters at Calcutta (for Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and Assam), Madras (for the Madras presidency), Poona (for the Bombay presidency and the Central Provinces), Allahabad (for the United Provinces), Lahore (for the Punjab and Frontier Province), Rangoon (for Burma).

The territorial unit allotted to each area will be constituted as soon as 1,000 applications have been received for enrolment in that area.

A person desiring to enrol himself should obtain from the District Magistrate of his district (or in presidency towns and Rangoon from the Commissioner of Police) a form known as Form 11 which sets out the conditions of enrolment. He should fill in this form and return it to the officer by whom it was issued and it will then be forwarded by the latter to the General Officer Commanding the division.

The conditions to be fulfilled by candidates for enrolment are given in detail in the rules issued under the Indian Defence Force Act which have been published in the "Gazette of India." Briefly, these conditions prescribe that a candidate should be of a certain standard of height and physical fitness and between the ages of 18 and 30. These are the physical qualifications required. As regards his moral qualifications, the candidate must not belong to a criminal tribe or a menial class and he must bear a good character. Another condition is that he should not belong to any class from which the Indian Army is ordinarily recruited. The word "ordinarily" is purposely introduced so as to give elasticity to this provision. It is not intended to bar, merely because they belong to these, particular classes of persons, such as lawyers, men of property, men of business, professional men, students etc., who do not ordinarily select the profession of arms as a career.

As soon as the requisite 1,000 applications have been received in any area and a unit constituted, those who have offered themselves for enrolment will be directed to attend at one of the centres above mentioned or at other convenient centres for medical examination, enrolment and attestation.

On the enrolment and attestation of 1,000 men in any area training will commence. A staff will be provided for the instruction of one company (250 men) at a time. The men will undergo 90 days' training as recruits. It will take up the recruits' whole time and will be carried out in camp or barracks so as to facilitate instruction and establish discipline. While under such training soldiers of Indian units of the Defence Force will be subject to the Indian Army Act and to any rules and regulations issued under the Indian Defence Force Act which may be applicable to them. On the conclusion of this training they will be replaced in succession by fresh batches of 250 recruits, those who have completed their instruction returning to their civil avocations until required for service. The numbers above mentioned are subject to revision. They represent the maximum that can be dealt with at present, having regard to war conditions.

The training companies referred to will be commanded by selected British officers assisted by a suitable staff of Indian instructors of various ranks. Soldiers of the Indian Defence Force will, when qualified, be eligible for promotion. A non-commissioned officer showing special qualifications will be eligible for further advancement while undergoing training. The pay of all ranks will be that prescribed for regulars of the Indian Army. Thus the pay of a private will be Rs. 11 a month, plus free rations and clothing. Every soldier will be allowed his proper travelling expenses to and from the place of medical examination or training centre and his place of residence. Each company will be allowed the establishment of followers admissible for a regular Indian unit of the same strength.

4. ANSWERS TO SOME QUESTIONS. (From the "Pioneer")

Mr. J. Dewsbury, Registrar of the Madras University, has issued a series of questions addressed by the Vice-Chancellor of the University to the military authorities and replies to them from the Adjutant-General. The questions and answers are:—

Q. Whether the scheme for the enrolment of Indians will allow of the formation of a university corps or of college companies or platoons and whether such units when called up for training at headquarters or for service elsewhere will be broken up and mixed with other units, or whether each unit will be allowed to keep its numbers together?

A. All endeavours will be made to keep distinct university or college companies or platoons if the numbers offered permit and caste conditions do not interfere. Thus if 200 came forward from a university they could be called up for training in platoons of 50 at a time provided that messing arrangements can be made with due consideration to caste restrictions. The matter is one to which particular attention will be given when the time comes for constituting the corps.

Q. Whether undergraduates who volunteer to join the force should entirely give up the idea of prosecuting their university courses for at least one year or, perhaps, two years?

A. Persons joining the corps will be called up for three month's training only.

Q. When undergraduates shall have been trained whether they will be sent out of their own presidency and, if so, the probable period of service out of the presidency?

A. After the members of the corps have been trained they will be called out only in case of serious emergency. If such an emergency arises they may be sent anywhere in India and no limit can be imposed to the period of service which must be determined upon by the military emergencies.

Q. What is an undergraduate to do between the date of the conclusion of his training and the date of his being called up for service?

A. On conclusion of their training they will return to their civil avocations until required of service.

Q. Will medical students be permitted to volunteer as (a) part of a medical corps; (b) part of a regiment in the Indian Defence Force?

A. Students can volunteer for enlistment in the ordinary way but not for any special work.

5. CONCESSION MADE BY THE UNIVERSITY.

FROM

The Registrar,
University of Allahabad,

I have the honour to state that the Syndicate, at its meeting, held on the 21st. April 1917, had, under its consideration, the question of granting special concessions as regards attendance to students of affiliated colleges who wish to volunteer for Military Service, and RESOLVED that members of the University who volunteer for Military Service should be excused attendance during the course of their Military training, i.e. in their case a regular course of study should be interpreted as meaning a regular course of study excluding the period during which they are undergoing Military training. It is understood that the Military training will last three months and during it the Volunteers would not be able to attend their colleges. If after their return, they are called up for Active Service, they could not expect further concessions.

Sd/ M. G. V. Cole,
REGISTRAR.

6. RESOLUTION.

General Administration Department.

Dated Naini Tal, the 30th May, 1917.

The following concessions are now offered by Government to persons who volunteer and after enrolment produce a satisfactory certificate from their commanding officers :—

- (i) Candidates for employment under the Government will be allowed with reference to article 51, Civil Service Regulations, to deduct from their age the period spent by them in the Indian Defence Force whether on training or on service.
- (ii) So far as the interest of the public service will allow, facility will be afforded to government servants to enter the Indian Defence Force and to undergo their training, and if called out on service they will retain a lien on their civil appointments which will effectually guard them against the loss of seniority.

2. The Lieutenant-Governor is also pleased to declare that a satisfactory discharge of duties on general military service in the Indian Defence Force will, other things being equal, entitle a person (whether a government servant or not) to preference in the matter of appointment or promotion to posts under Government. Even if a person is not

called out on general military service, but is enrolled and undergoes the training, this fact will be counted in his favour in considering his claims to an appointment.

By order of the Hon'ble the Lieut. Governor, United Provinces,

R. BURN,

Chief Secy. to Govt., United Provinces.

IV. WHAT IS BEING SAID BY INDIAN LEADERS.

—o—o—o—

(1) **Mr. Srinivasa Sastri, at the Gokhale hall Madras April 28th**

"It seems to me that if we do not do the right thing on the occasion, we shall let slip

A Golden Opportunity

for securing the advance of India all along the line, and that through your lapse we should be committing a mistake which succeeding generations will find it hard to repair. In the first place, I must say that there is a general air of suspicion about the whole thing. This suspicion is not altogether unjustified, for the thing is so half-hearted, it comes to us so late, seeming rather to be dictated by the necessity of the War than by a desire to grant a desirable concession. There is so much about it that is half-hearted that I do not wonder young men looking at it with suspicion and saying: "Let us wait and see." But there are times when it is not necessary to wait and see, and when it is necessary to come to a quick decision. The Government of India have said that this is a War measure, and that, therefore, they would not allow us to open up the old question of Indian disabilities. When we asked that Indians should be placed on a footing of perfect equality with European British subjects in this matters they said: "Do not go to the root of things. Take what we are prepared at present to give. This is purely a War measure. When we come to make this permanent, as in all probability we shall, under the name of the second line Defence Force, you had better come up with your old grievances and we shall then see how we can redress them." Whether this statement is genuine or whether it is merely a ruse to put off inconvenient debates at the present moment, is more than I can say with certainty. But I believe that it is also at the same time a wise policy on our part to take on

rulers at their word. Let us, after the War, put the matter forward and claim as we trusted them once, that they should in return trust us hereafter.

.....I know how much you love India. Show also that you can defend her. I know how much you are burning with a desire to serve India. This is the best way of serving her. If you do not come forward and make this first experiment a success, notwithstanding its deficiencies and shortcomings, you will not be serving India, but I am afraid you will be thoughtlessly sacrificing India.

..... The time for testing your strength and your manliness has come and if you fail to respond to this call, it would not only be a bad business now, but the whole of our Nation will have to lie low for a generation till we can wipe off the memory of this sad blunder.

(*New India*, April 30.)

The following grave warning was uttered by the hon Mr. V. S. Srinivasa Sastri in his presidential address at the recent Nasik session of the Bombay provincial conference :—

'I also implore you all to spare no efforts in making the Indian Defence Force a signal success. Disabilities and grievances there are. When shall we be without them? The only thing is we must not cease to struggle against them. We stand to lose heavily all round morally and politically if we let this opportunity pass. Let young men realize that the cause of India which they yearn passionately to serve requires before all things that they should acquire regular military training and that they should eagerly embrace the first opportunity, however small and restricted, of getting it. Failure in this would be a terrible blow to the national movement and we should regret it all our lives. Besides, if there be any reality in our appreciation of the tremendous issues involved in the war and enormous drain that it causes on the man-power of Britain, we must respond readily to the slight demand made on the educated classes by the Government and mark our sense of the departure in the policy of mistrust hitherto followed in military matters.'

(*The Leader*.)

(3) **Mr. M. K. Gandhi, at Karachi;—**

Karachi, Mar. 3—A correspondent wires :— On his visit, Mr. Gandhi made a definite pronouncement with regard to the duty of Indians to join the Defence of India Force in the Parsi Theatre public meeting, Karachi. He said that Indians had been pressing for admission in the army, time and again, and now as the permission had been granted, they should join in overwhelming numbers, and thus fulfil their duty to the

Motherland. Mr. Gandhi said that, in speaking as he had done, he had spoken not as a Passive Resister, but as one claiming to know the Indian mind and understanding India's present conditions. He held very strong views about the use of weapons even in self-defence, but he knew that his views were not shared by those of his countrymen, who had for years past been agitating for the reform that had now come. It is an opportunity of a lifetime that no lover of his country should miss.

(*New India, Mar. 5th.*)

(3) Tej Bahadur Saprú.

It seems to me that failure to respond to the call will expose us to criticism far more adverse than that which has already been levelled against us, and our critics who are neither few nor very charitable will not be slow to take advantage of the situation. The path to self-government is bestrewn with many difficulties and though it may be that many of us apprehend that we shall be as far away from that goal after we have responded to the call as now, I think that by making use of the opportunity we shall make it impossible for our critics to say that while we all aspired to and demanded self-government we ignored the central condition of all true self-government, namely, the duty of self-defence. Personal inconvenience, temporary hardships and inequalities, subjection to military discipline may be all very galling, but let it not be said that we talked of these things at a time when we should have seized the occasion and improved it.

(*The Leader May 25th 1917.*)

(4) Mr. Wadia, at Gokhale Hall, Madras,

said that, sooner or later, the Government of India wanted to build up a big citizen army on the same lines as the territorial army in England. The War brought about many things and one of them was the offer made by the Government of India to the young men of this country, which would enable the sons of India to get a military training. The value of that training was not so much to the Government as to the young men themselves and to their country. Military training was an essential factor for the gaining of right discipline—not necessarily the discipline of fighting on the battle-field—but the discipline which was so very essential for the carrying on of harmonious work of all their propaganda, political, social, economic, etc. Both from the point of view of the individuals and from the point of view of service to the Motherland, it was highly essential that young men should join the Force, and thereby prove that the claim that their leaders had been putting forward for a long time was a true claim. The solution of the problem, whether Indians shall have commissioned

ranks thrown open to them and whether they shall be put on absolutely equal footing with the European soldiers in the country, would depend on the response that young men might be able to make to the offer now.

(*New India*, April 16)

(5) **The Hon. B. Bhupendranath Basu.**

On the motion that the Bill as amended be passed into law the hon. Babu Bhupendranath spoke as follows :—

Sir, now that this Bill is going to become law, I will make only one observation. I wish it to be understood, both here and outside, that we, the additional members of this Council have tried our best, either in the course of our private conversations or in the select committee or in this Council, to meet and further the legitimate aspirations of our countrymen. But we have recognized the supreme need of the hour, and having recognized that need we have placed,—I for one did so place—we have placed our services entirely in the hands of the military advisers and the military guides of the empire. What they have thought best to do in the present circumstances of the country, we have accepted. The amendments that were put forward were not in any spirit of obstruction, but simply for the purpose of calling attention to great questions agitating the country, and now, sir, that the Bill is going to be passed, I do not mind, and I am sure my countrymen will not mind, the question of honours, of prizes and of distinctions. They will not mind the differences that at present exist. We shall all, both here and outside strain every nerve to bring this war to as speedy a termination as possible. And I thank his Excellency the Commander-in-Chief for the kind words of encouragement that he gave to us in this Council in the legitimate fulfilment of our aspirations for I can assure him that they will be treasured in the memories of our people throughout the country, and I am sure those words will give my countrymen great assurance, and will evoke the enthusiasm over the measure which he has brought before us and which is so necessary to its successful working.

(6) **Sir. P. S. Sivaswami Aiyar, at Madras, March 5th.**

“For more than a generation, our people have been praying for the privilege of volunteering and for opportunities for participating in the defence of the country. Deeply grateful as we are to the Government for the peace and security we enjoy and for the protection afforded by the British Navy and Army, we have felt aggrieved by the absence of opportunities for military training so as to enable us to serve in the defence of our own country.”

....."In a country like India, which has been the nursery of soldiers and of chivalry, it should be unnecessary to appeal to any foreign examples. We are now passing through a most momentous epoch, and by our conduct on this occasion shall we be judged. If we fail to respond, we shall cover ourselves with indelible disgrace and lay ourselves open to the charge of incurable effeminacy, and all our agitation in the past for volunteering and military career would signify nothing. But I venture to hope that young India will rise to the call of patriotism and loyalty and to the full height of its manhood, and that the response will prove a turning point in history."

(*New India.*)

(7) Sir, N. G. Chandavarkar, at Bombay, Feb. 18th.

"This is no time for words. It is a time for action in obedience to the Viceroy's call. Let us with all the might of loyalty and love for the country and the Crown gather round the new banner. No country can have noble thoughts and noble lives where as has been said 'Men change swords for ledgers and desert the student's bower for gold. The soldier and the scholar make the country's soul.'"

(*The Leader, Feb. 25th.*)

(8) The Bombay Presidency Association's appeal:—

Remember that the force, which is being constituted, is a force for the defence of India. To the true Indian, there should be no duty higher than the duty of defending his Motherland against danger from without and against disorder within. No nation can be worthy of any rights or any position unless its members are ready and capable of performing the first duties of a citizen, viz., the defence of their own country. No amount of rights and privileges will make us a capable nation unless they are accompanied by the right and capacity of self-defence. The great future to which we are all looking forward for our country depends upon the way in which you answer this call to arms.

The Empire is fighting the battle of humanity, liberty, and justice at tremendous cost. The war has now come to the crisis when it has become necessary that the whole of the power and resources of the Empire should be brought into operation. India, as an integral part of the Empire, has to render all the assistance she can. India realizes that the working out of her destiny depends upon the strength and integrity of the Empire. India owes much to the Empire and has more to gain.

We, therefore, unhesitatingly appeal to you to join the Defence of India Force in the conviction that you will not only benefit yourselves, physically, mentally and morally by the training you receive and the service you render, but that you will perform a national and imperial duty. We appeal to you in the name of Mother India, in whose service and defence it should be our privilege to fight and, if necessary, even to die. We appeal to you in the name of the Empire of which India forms an integral part and whose honour and influence so largely depend upon the sacrifices which its component parts are prepared to make. We finally appeal to you in the name of all that is best and noblest in human nature, for that alone can inspire us to face great hardships and to meet heavy sacrifices.

We, therefore appeal to all of you as are of the proper age to apply for enrolment at once, so that our national ideals and aspirations may be fully realized and India's future may be even brighter than her glorious past.

(The Leader, Feb. 25th.)

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Farmwork and Schools in Kentucky



By
EDWARD N. CLOPPER

Photos by LEWIS W. HINE

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FARMWORK AND SCHOOLS IN KENTUCKY

(This study was made in the spring, summer and autumn of 1916, under the direction of the writer. The field work was done by Sophie D. White, Eunice Sinclair, Lewis W. Hine, Eva Joffe and W. H. Swift. The photographs are by Lewis W. Hine. The statistical compilations are by Eva Joffe.)

EDWARD N. CLOPPER, PH.D.,
Secretary for the Northern States

The latest federal Census of Occupations, taken in April 1910, credits Kentucky with 64,692 child workers, 10 to 15 years of age, of whom 82 per cent are reported as agricultural laborers, most of them on the home farm. The proportion of farm workers to the total number of child laborers is larger in the state than in the nation, those in agricultural pursuits in the entire country being slightly less than 72 per cent of all those engaged in gainful occupations.

Although constituting the great majority of child laborers, these boys and girls on farms have never been considered as connected with the child labor problem. The popular conception of child labor is limited to employment for wages in factories, mines, and stores, and the farm has long been looked upon as the ideal place for a child. This conviction has been strengthened by the revelations of bad conditions surrounding the city child, whether a worker in a factory, a trader in the streets, or a dweller in a tenement. The sunshine, fresh air, supposedly good food and living quarters, communion with nature, and opportunity for a variety of constructive work, generally pictured as the lot of the country child, have been contrasted with the dismal atmosphere, wretched home, dreary outlook upon brick walls, and monotonous work in a factory which have become fixed in the public mind as the inevitable portion of the city child. Whether or not the child on the farm is relatively so fortunate as he is pictured is a question that

is beginning to be asked. A few comparisons of the health and physical development of city and country children have been made, and indicate that the former are stronger and less subject to disease than the latter, but no comprehensive findings are yet available.



Eleven-year-old girl whose father said, "She's the only farm hand I got--helps in the field and the house too and is good in school." August, 1916.

This report does not undertake to deal in any way with the physical condition of country children, nor with the physical effects of the tasks they perform on farms—such matters could be determined only through studies by especially qualified physicians,

of a large number of children, covering a period of years. This report is concerned only with the interference of farmwork with the attendance of children at rural schools.

The child labor laws of the states do not apply specifically to agriculture, although an act of Nebraska forbids children under 16 years of age to work in beet fields at night or more than eight hours a day, and one of New York provides that boys over 12 years of age must not work more than six hours a day in gathering produce, whatever that may mean. In the report of the Children's Code Commission of Missouri, submitted to the legislature this year, a law is recommended providing that children under 14 years of



Thirteen-year-old worker who drives dairy wagon in morning and does farm work in afternoon for \$3.25 per week. May, 1916.

age may work at agricultural pursuits not more than six hours daily, but not in school hours.

The only restrictions in the statutes of Kentucky that apply to child workers on farms concern their attendance at school, and these are somewhat contradictory. One provides that children between 7 and 12 years of age inclusive, living in rural districts, except those not in proper physical or mental condition, shall attend school regularly throughout the common school term, unless taught at home; the other forbids anyone to employ a child under 14 years of age at any kind of work, at any time while the public schools

where he resides are in session. There is a hiatus of one year between the maximum age of the compulsory education law and the minimum age of the child labor law—the 13-year-old child in the country not being required to attend school, and yet not permitted to work at any occupation while the schools are in session. However, these laws are very generally disregarded in the rural communities, so this discrepancy is apparent only on the statute books.

For the purposes of this study the counties of Nicholas, Clark, Rockcastle, Hardin, Warren, Henderson and Trigg were selected because of their geographical distribution and because it is believed their conditions are fairly typical of what exists generally in the sections of which they form a part. In all these counties from 80 to 95 per cent of the land area is in farms, but the value of the farm land, according to the federal Census of 1910, ranges from less than \$10 per acre in Trigg and Rockcastle counties to from \$50 to \$75 per acre in Nicholas and Clark counties.

The economic situation of the small farmer must be discussed in some detail, because it may be that under the customary arrangements for sharing products with the land owner, for borrowing money and obtaining credit at stores, he is unable to keep his children in school throughout the term on account of the demands of his work, and his inability to hire labor. If this is true, mere enforcement of the compulsory education law will not bring about the desired results.

Prior to, and for some years following the Civil War, the plantation was the common farm unit in a large part of Kentucky, and the average size of farms was relatively large. But in the past half century the plantations have been divided into small parcels of land, most of which are cultivated by tenants. Each one of these parcels is now returned by the federal Census Bureau as a farm and each tenant as a farmer, whether or not the owner lives on the land and directs the work. For this reason the number of farms in Kentucky has increased greatly since the Civil War, while the farm area has grown but slightly. In 1910 two-thirds of the farms were operated by their owners (including a few operated by managers for the owners), and one-third by tenants. In 1890 the corresponding proportions were three-fourths and one-fourth. Of all the farm operators reported in 1910, including owners, managers, and tenants, 94.7 per cent were native white persons,

less than one per cent were foreign-born whites and 4.5 per cent were negroes and other non-white persons.

The Census Bureau defines a tenant plantation as a continuous tract of land of considerable area under the general supervision of a single individual or firm, all or a part of such tract being divided into at least five smaller tracts which are leased to tenants. A good example of such a tenant plantation was found in one of the counties covered by this inquiry. It consists of one thousand acres of land, the owner residing with his wife and children on that part of the property which he himself uses, the rest being leased

to six tenants. The owner is also proprietor of a store, and sells goods to his tenants, charging interest at the rate of six per cent on accounts due. When the crops are sold such debts are usually settled. There is no mortgage on the land, and the owner hires two men throughout the year to do his farm work. Yet, in spite of his ability to give his children a thorough education, his 14-year-old son attended school only four days in the first



A 13-year-old hired hand who works for a farmer from 4 a. m. to 6 p. m. for \$1.25 per week and board. He was in the fourth grade at school. May, 1916.

three months of this school year, his absences having been caused by work in his father's tobacco fields.

A tenant is usually not free to run his farm as he sees fit, as in the northern states, but is under the direction of the owner, who dictates what shall be raised and the acreage that shall be devoted to each crop, often superintending the work from time to time. Because of the interests of the land owners the tenant is virtually obliged to grow tobacco and he has to sell it at the price he can get. He is not unlike the hired laborer, receiving a share of the crop instead of cash wages. The parcel of land he works is small,

as a rule, consisting of about as many acres as he can cultivate with the help of his whole family. When the tenant has his own team and implements and supplies feed and seed himself, he commonly receives two-thirds of the crop, and the landlord the remainder. But if the landlord supplies everything, each takes one-half the crop. Sometimes the owner or tenant engages a man to cultivate tobacco for a season on a small parcel of land, supplying him with team, implements, and seed, and paying him one-half the crop for his labor. Such a worker is known as a cropper. Even with a tenant, in most cases the lease is for one year only and many tenants move annually from farm to farm, hoping each



Plough boys, May, 1916.

year to improve their condition. Therefore they take no interest in keeping the property they use in good condition, and it is not surprising that discontent and shiftlessness are chronic.

Tenants as a rule lack funds with which to pay for groceries, household goods, clothing, shoes, and other necessities when purchased at the local store, so credit is allowed until the tobacco is sold. Ten months or more often lapse between the sowing and the sale of the crop, the tenant living practically on credit during this time. Hence when money comes in at last a good part of it goes to the storekeeper. But very often credit is not given unless the owner of the land cultivated by the tenant guarantees payment, and indeed

the owner is forced to assume this obligation in order to secure a tenant for his property and thereby protect his own interests. The arrangement varies according to local custom. Sometimes the storekeeper charges interest on the credit granted, especially after the first of January following the season when the debt was incurred. Sometimes the prices charged credit customers are higher than those paid by cash customers, but the purchaser is usually ignorant of the difference, and even of the fact that there is any increase in prices. If the tenant has not paid what he owes by the end of the year, he is asked in some places to give a note bearing six per cent interest. In other places credit is allowed for only thirty days, no interest being charged and the prices being the same as for cash. At times the landowner may sell the entire crop produced by his tenant or cropper, and out of the proceeds of the latter's half pay the store account, which he had agreed to stand good for. Frequently the tobacco crop is mortgaged. This is



Gathering rye in school hours. The boys are 10 and 12 years old.
August, 1916.

done usually after it has been "housed," but sometimes in the spring, just after the plants have put out leaves. The farmer borrows an amount equivalent to about one-fifth of the crop's value.

In spite of the general shiftlessness and incompetence of the migratory tenant, it would seem that there is some justification for his failure to comply fully with the requirements of school attendance for his children. One public school trustee declared that illiteracy in the tobacco-growing sections of the state is due to the low price paid for the product, that 75 per cent of it is grown by small farmers and tenants, and that prior to last year they did not receive enough for the crop to cover the cost of production. He continued: "*Give us a fair price for our tobacco, and I will guarantee that the farmers will send their children to school and illiteracy will be wiped out.*"

Kentucky leads the states in the production of tobacco, which forms more than a quarter of its agricultural products. Farmers begin preparations for its culture in the winter, and the crop is marketed generally in the following autumn. Many follow the



Fourteen-year-old boy "hired" by a tenant farmer to "worm" tobacco while school is in session. August, 1916.

custom of planting tobacco every year in the same field until the ground is worn out, turning then to another field. The yield is therefore often small and the condition of the farm and farm buildings reflects this indifference and unskillful management. The number of acres a farmer can cultivate varies somewhat accord-



Topping tobacco in school hours. August, 1916.

ing to conditions, the average being about three acres, and in determining the number even a child 9 years of age is considered a "hand." Although so young a child is not strong enough to perform as much work as a grown person in all the processes of tobacco culture, in removing worms and suckers from the plants

he is just as active and efficient. Children commonly work as many hours as do the older persons—from sunrise to sunset—planting, hoeing, cultivating, worming, suckering, topping, cutting, spiking, housing, and stripping. Indeed the only task in tobacco culture which children do not perform is firing, which is done in the barn where the crop is housed and requires the care and judgment of an adult.

The other farmwork in which children help in the school term, and which thereby prevents their regular attendance at classes, includes plowing, cultivating and cutting corn, filling silos, threshing grain, picking berries, making hay, and drying apples.

The school term in the rural districts is usually seven months and schools often open early in July so that they may be closed before the winter weather makes the roads impassable for the children. This period coincides with the busy season on the farms, particularly in tobacco culture, and in this conflict between work and school attendance the odds are at present in favor of the work.

Evidence of the way in which farmwork interferes with schooling is shown in the following examples:—

In the southwestern part of the state, for instance, a certain tenant lives with his wife and family of five children, the oldest of whom is 11 years of age, on a small farm having had nine acres in tobacco and fourteen in corn last summer. Last year was their first season on this place and they received one-half of the crops in return for their labor. No help was hired, but the 9 and 11-year-old sons worked with their father in the fields. Last autumn when the school in the vicinity was visited, the register showed that out of the 74 school days that had then passed since the opening of the term early in July, these two boys had each missed 45 days—more than two school months. The entire absence of the older boy was due to tobacco culture, and his 9-year-old brother had been out 25 days for the same reason and 20 days because of illness.

In Warren County a cropper lived last year on a few acres of land with his wife, four sons and three daughters, having seven acres in tobacco. They were so poor the county was furnishing clothing and school books free to the children. The land was sublet from a tenant, who supplied him with team and implements, and guaranteed the payment of his bill at the local store. The oldest child, a girl of 14 years was absent from school 34 days out of the



Nine- and 15-year-old boys "chopping corn", in school hours.
August, 1916.

74 school days in the first four months of the present term, which began early last July; the 12, 11, and 8-year-old boys were absent 43, 41 and 33 days, respectively. All of these absences were due to farmwork, most of it tobacco culture, but about one-half of the absences of the youngest boy were caused by work about his home.

In Trigg County a man has lived for three years on a small rented farm with his wife, three sons and two daughters. They supply what they need themselves, and the land owner takes one-third of their crop. Last year they had three acres in tobacco and twenty in corn. The local store allows them credit for only thirty days. No one is hired to assist in the work of the farm, and the children help their father steadily. The 10-year-old son was absent from school 51 days out of the 74 in the first four months of this school year.

In another county an industrious family of father, mother, seven boys and two girls, who have long been tenants, have recently bought a farm. To meet their special needs, the head of the family borrows money, and is obliged to pay a bonus of four per cent in

addition to interest at the rate of six per cent, thus enabling the lender to avoid the consequences under the state usury law; this is said to be a common arrangement with small farmers in that locality. Their store credit runs as high as \$200 at times, on which they pay no interest but are charged higher prices than cash customers, which amounts to the same thing. The local school trustee is active and influential in school matters, and through his personal interest the oldest boy in this family has been in high school three years, three of the other boys have completed the eighth grade, and four others are enrolled in school. The two girls attend regularly, but the boys are absent whenever there is work to be done. The local school opened on July 10 last, and out of 73 days in the first four months, the 15-year-old boy missed 48, and his 13-year-old brother 40, on account of berry-picking, tobacco cultivation, and general farmwork.

In Clark County a 10-year-old boy who has lived all his life with his parents on the farm they own, missed the entire school month of September in addition to other absences, because of his work in cutting and stripping tobacco and other farm tasks. This family had at the time a store credit of one year's standing.

In Hardin County a man has lived with his wife, one son and four daughters on a small farm for the past four years. He bought the property, paying 15 per cent bonus, which draws interest as well as the mortgage. Last summer they had six acres in tobacco, twelve in corn, and a small plot in vegetables. No help was hired, but instead, the 8, 12 and 17-year-old girls and the 10-year-old boy all worked in the tobacco field. Their father said by way of



Thirteen-year-old boy hoeing tobacco in school hours. August, 1916.

explanation, "That's the advantage of the tobacco crop—every child is a hand."

Another family of three sons and three daughters all under 14 years of age except one, live with their parents on a large farm which they own. This property alone is worth a comfortable fortune and the parents have other land elsewhere. Their residence is modern, substantial, and handsome. The father said that his ideal in education is to teach his children not to be ashamed of work, even though they may never have to labor for a living; and if they want to go to a first-class university, he is able and willing to send them. No one could, of course, find fault with this attitude, but unfortunately the teachers of these children say they are unable to pass from grade to grade because of their long absences from school, due to work on the farm. So the university seems to be only a remote possibility.

A man who is the father of six children and owns a well-equipped farm, raising corn, tobacco and live stock, is building a fine new residence. His 17-year-old daughter is the only one of the family who had been in school this year at the time the local school was



Cutting tobacco. September, 1916.

visited, and she had then been absent more than three months; the 10-year-old son worked regularly on the farm and the 13-year-old daughter helped about the house. The father said: "With all these crops on my hands and a new house building it is either keep the children out of school to work or hire help, and I couldn't afford to do that."

Last November, four months after the beginning of the school term in a certain district, a family of six children, the oldest of whom is 16 years of age, was found, none of whom had attended or even enrolled, although the school is within a mile and a half of their home. The father owns the farm of 76 acres where they have lived for the past twenty years, and yet the whole family is so poorly educated as to be almost illiterate.

Various expedients are resorted to by school authorities in the effort to improve the attendance of pupils. In Henderson County and elsewhere, for example, rural school teachers receive, besides a small increase in salary for each additional year of service, a bonus for good attendance records. But under the circumstances personal acquaintance with parents is necessary, and very few teachers know anything about the home conditions of their pupils, for like the tenants, they themselves move frequently from place to place and do not stay in one district long enough to know the families well. Being virtually strangers to the community they are ignorant of its problems, and so cannot act intelligently in any attempt to stimulate interest in the schools. Moreover, the shifting tendency of much of the population makes for indifference toward anything so confining as school.

The consolidation of schools holds out the chief hope for the improvement of conditions, for efficiency is practically impossible in a one-teacher school. In rural districts the term should be at least 100 school days; teachers should be thoroughly prepared for teaching, should receive good salaries and there should be a staff in each school large enough to keep the size of classes within reasonable limits. Each school should serve an area of about twelve square miles, free transportation being provided, of course, for the children. In connection with each there should be a residence for teachers and ground for use in agricultural demonstration, and the community should use the school as the social as well as educational centre.



Mary and her 10-year-old brother rise at 4 a. m. and milk 17 cows



After breakfast she separates the cream and cleans the separator and the pans. Then when the wagon returns after delivery of the milk, she washes the cans

The morning dairy work is finished about eleven o'clock and she has "time to herself," crocheting or resting except when caring for the younger children or doing housework



PLENTY OF TIME

A dairyman, on a farm of 150 acres in the "Pennyrile," who is paid a salary and given a residence and use of live stock and some ground for his family, keeps his children steadily at work. His oldest daughter is 14 and his oldest son 10. The girl has been enrolled in the 8th grade at school for two years but each year leaves to work at home. Last May her father said, "I couldn't a-got along this year without her help; she's been out o' school since Christ-

ON A DAIRY FARM

mas helping with the dairy and housework. I told her if she'd help me out now, I'd let her finish the 8th grade next year. She wants to be a teacher but *there's plenty o' time*. She milks ten cows night and morning and her brother milks seven. He'd rather work than go to school. We raise some crops besides the dairy work."

The photographs show the daily round. They were all taken on a school day.



In midafternoon the cows are driven in from the pasture



She and her brother milk the 17 cows again in the late afternoon



And they finish the day's work just before supper

In order to determine approximately to what extent farmwork interferes with the attendance of children at the rural schools the records of absences of all pupils enrolled in selected educational divisions were obtained for the complete school months between the opening of the term and the visit of the agents. In many instances the term began early in July, and, as the schools were visited in November, records were obtained for the four school months of July, August, September, and October, during which farm work, especially tobacco culture, makes its chief demands upon the children. No records of children 16 years of age or over were noted because such children are not subject in any way to either the compulsory education or the child labor law of the state. The inquiry was confined to 141 schools in the subdistricts of certain educational divisions in the seven counties of Clark, Hardin, Henderson, Nicholas, Rockcastle, Trigg, and Warren. In so far as representative conditions could be judged by the percentages of enrollment and attendance for last year, those divisions which were neither the best nor the worst but which seemed to have



Boys, 10, 11, 13 and 14 years old, gathering, piling and spiking tobacco as hired hands for a tenant farmer. School had been in session two weeks but these boys did not attend. September, 1916.

average records were selected in the belief that they would reflect approximately the situation prevailing in each county.

The total number of children, 6 to 15 years of age inclusive, whose attendance records for the first few months of this school year were obtained, was 5,895 of whom 4,762 were white and 1,133 negroes. The agents learned incidentally of 170 white children under 16 years of age, living in the subdistricts visited, who were not attending any school, public, private, or parochial.



"Housing" tobacco in the barn. September, 1916.

When the record of attendance of each pupil was copied from the teacher's register, the cause or causes of absence were carefully inquired into. Through consultation with the teacher and with the pupil himself, the reasons for most of the absences could be assigned with a margin of error that, under the circumstances, is believed to be fairly small. The schools had been in session at the time not more than four months, so in assigning the causes of absences, the memory of the teacher and of the pupil was not so severely taxed as would have been the case if the inquiry had been made at the end of the term.

There was little or no uniformity so far as the term was concerned, for some schools opened later than others and indeed, in any county, few schools were found that had been in operation the same number of days. When the records were obtained, two of the 141 schools visited had been in session for one complete school month, 16 for two months, 68 for three months, and 55 for four months. Of these 141 schools; 116 were for white children and 25 for negroes.

In the following table the total number of children both white and negro, from 6 to 15 years of age inclusive, whose records of attendance were obtained, and the reasons for their absences, are given by counties. Many of the children who were absent on account of farmwork were of course absent for other reasons also, such as illness, bad weather, etc., but all children who were absent at any time because of farmwork are considered as *farmwork absentees*, in contradistinction to those whose absence was not due in any instance to farmwork but to other causes and who are described as *other absentees*, and to those who were not absent at all who are designated by the term *daily attendants*, as well as to those who were absent for *cause unknown*.

TABLE A
NUMBER OF WHITE AND NEGRO ABSENTEES AND DAILY ATTENDANTS, 6 TO 15
YEARS OF AGE INCLUSIVE, BY COUNTIES

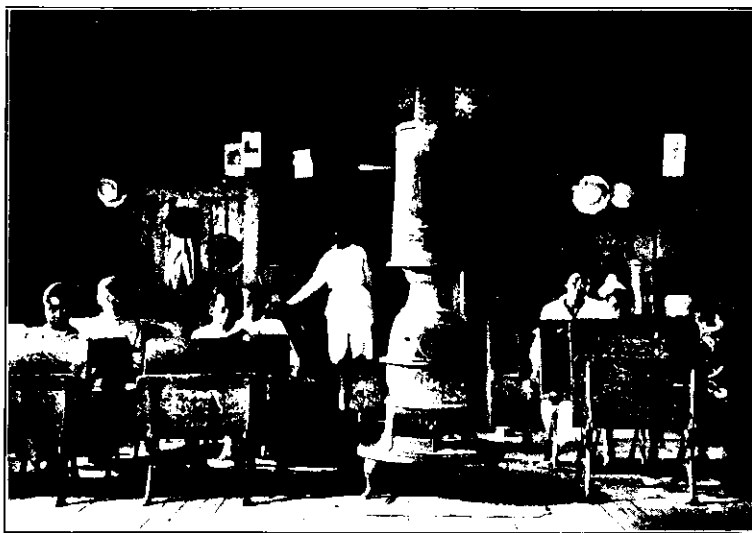
	WHITE					NEGRO					Grand Total
	Farm Work Absentees	Other Absentees	Absentees Cause Unknown	Daily Attendants	Total	Farm Work Absentees	Other Absentees	Absentees Cause Unknown	Daily Attendants	Total	
(1) Clark.....	120	77	3	24	224	20	6	2	28	252
(2) Hardin.....	143	353	41	90	627	10	32	43	670
(3) Henderson...	251	442	78	91	862	55	62	4	12	133	995
(4) Nicholas.....	43	98	4	49	194	194
(5) Rockcastle...	127	61	55	11	254	254
(6) Trigg.....	412	717	30	113	1,272	280	292	50	42	664	1,936
(7) Warren.....	315	722	145*	147	1,329	62	168	14	21	265	1,594
Total.....	1,411	2,470	356	525	4,762	418	538	68	109	1,133	5,895

*38 of these were in one class whose records were not kept correctly.

In the next table the total days of absence of the farmwork absentees and other absentees are distributed among the various specified causes of absence. The total number of days each group of children should have attended was found by multiplying the number of days the schools had been in session at the time the records were gathered, by the number of children in each group. It was possible to do this because all the children in these groups should have been in attendance from the opening of the term, as they lived in the district, and inasmuch as the few children who moved in from elsewhere and who had possibly been attending some other school have not been included in any of the figures given in these tables. The total number of days each group of children was present added to the total number of days the group was absent equals the total number of days they should have



Stripping tobacco in school hours. November, 1916.



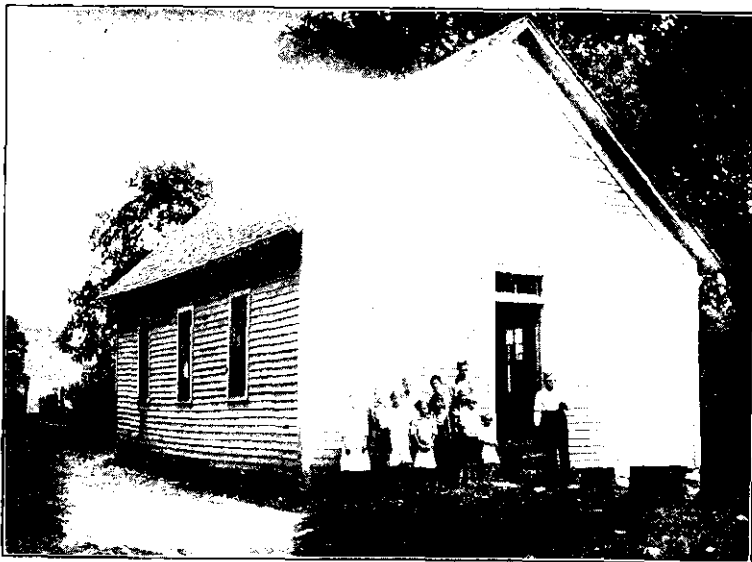
Colored school with a census of 27 and attendance of 7. The teacher said, "Tobacco keeps them out and they are short of hands."
September, 1916.

attended. The number of days of absence due to each cause is given under a separate heading and the sum of these figures equals, of course, the total number of days each group was absent. Figures are given only for farmwork absentees and other absentees; as this table is concerned with causes of absence, those absentees the cause of whose absence is unknown, and those children who were daily attendants, are necessarily eliminated from consideration. It will be observed that the absences of the white children, expressed in the total days missed and ranging in order from the greatest number to the least, were due to (1) farmwork, (2) illness, (3) housework, (4) indifference, (5) distance of home from school, (6) child too young to attend regularly, (7) weather, (8) poverty (lack of books, shoes or suitable clothing), and (9) miscellaneous. For the negro children, this order for the first four causes is the same, the others being (5) distance, (6) poverty, (7) age (child too young), (8) miscellaneous, and (9) weather.

TABLE B
DISTRIBUTION AMONG SPECIFIED CAUSES, OF TOTAL DAYS OF ABSENCE OF FARM WORK ABSENTEES AND OTHER ABSENTEES, WHITE AND NEGRO, BY COUNTIES

	Educa-tional Division	NUMBER OF		Total No. of Days Children Should Have At-tended	TOTAL NUMBER OF DAYS CHILDREN WERE		NUMBER OF DAYS CHILDREN WERE ABSENT ON ACCOUNT OF											
		Schls. Vis-ited	Child-ren 6-15 years		Present	Absent	FARM WORK				Ill-ness	House Work	In-differ-ence	Age	Dis-tance	Weath-er	Pov-erty	Misc-el-laneous
							Ber-ries	To-bacco	All Other Farm Work	Total								
WHITE																		
Clark.....	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	3 & 4	7	120 77	6,658 4,390	4,619 3,378	2,039 1,012	562	863	238	1,663	132	178	50	77	5	11
Hardin....	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	5	13	143 353	7,915 16,567	4,583 11,298	3,332 5,269	162	475	1,907	2,544	424	84	208	12	20	33
Henderson.	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	3 & 4	23	251 442	13,981 24,497	8,721 18,886	5,260 5,611	3,176	980	4,156	793	90	162	21	21	17
Nicholas..	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	1	7	43 98	2,347 5,338	1,447 4,409	900 929	21	630	200	851	10	35	4
Rockcastle.	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	1	6	127 61	8,856 4,335	4,634 2,711	4,222 1,624	97	3,681	3,778	210	45	169	20
Trigg.....	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	1 & 2	33	412 717	28,220 46,377	13,466 33,216	14,754 13,181	58	10,295	2,440	12,793	994	286	334	15	70	132
Warren...	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	5 & 6	27	315 722	19,369 42,694	10,884 29,265	8,485 13,429	283	4,059	2,850	7,192	677	318	229	31	38	177
Total.	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	116	1,411 2,470	87,346 144,198	48,354 103,163	38,992 41,035	1,183	19,498	12,296	32,977	3,240	1,036	1,152	79	154	215
NEGRO																		
Clark.....	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	3	1	20 6	1,100 330	515 287	585 43	142	118	163	423	112	41	9
Hardin....	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	5	1	1 10	54 540	47 393	7 147	7	7	88	43
Henderson.	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	3 & 4	4	55 62	3,281 3,700	2,082 2,469	1,199 1,231	944	137	1,081	37	39	29	13	58
Trigg.....	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	1 & 2	12	280 292	15,469 14,988	6,808 8,361	8,661 6,627	6,649	871	7,520	404	347	79	30	4	155
Warren...	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	5 & 6	7	62 168	3,908 10,406	1,800 7,221	2,108 3,185	74	894	454	1,422	79	236	147	121	11	92
Total.	{ Farm work absentees Other absentees.....	25	418 538	23,812 29,964	11,252 18,731	12,560 11,233	216	8,605	1,632	10,453	520	734	296	151	28	247

That the greatest number of absences of both white and negro children in these first few months of the school term is due to farmwork is most significant. It is also interesting that housework ranks third in responsibility for failure to attend regularly. In the case of the white children farmwork and housework caused almost as many days of absence as all the other causes combined; in the case of the negro children, they caused more. Neither of these causes furnishes a valid excuse for absence and this showing, not



A Rockcastle County school in August, 1916. The teacher said some children had not enrolled because of work although the school opened July 3.

to mention the absences due to indifference, reveals the fact that the compulsory education law in these rural districts is virtually a dead letter. Agricultural work is the chief factor in the interference with school attendance and the practice of keeping children away from school to work in the fields is winked at by the authorities. There are certain noteworthy exceptions, as in Nicholas County, where the county superintendent devotes much time and energy to the effort to prevent unnecessary absences, and the figures for

this county show the good effects of this campaign. These good effects, however, are noticeable only in the figures for the other absentees, and farmwork as a cause of absence presents as stubborn a problem there as elsewhere.

In the next two tables is shown the distribution of the children among the school grades by ages, the first table dealing with the white children and the second with the negro children. Between the heavy lines, appear the numbers of children of each age who



A consolidated school in Warren County. October, 1916.
Fine school spirit and attendance.

are considered as *normally enrolled*, that is, in the proper grades corresponding to their years. In fixing this standard, it is asserted that a child 6, 7, or 8 years old should be in the first grade, one 7, 8, or 9 years old should be in the second grade, and so on until we come to the 13, 14, or 15-year-old child who should be in the eighth grade. A more advanced child is classed as *ahead*, and one who falls below this standard as *retarded*. This is a more liberal standard than is commonly employed in such tests and has been adopted

TABLE C

DISTRIBUTION AMONG GRADES BY AGES OF FARM WORK ABSENTEES, OTHER ABSENTEES AND DAILY ATTENDANTS, FOR WHITE CHILDREN ONLY

AGE	FARM WORK ABSENTEES											OTHER ABSENTEES											DAILY ATTENDANTS											Pct
	GRADE										Total	GRADE										Total	GRADE											
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		
6 yrs..	12	2	1								15	312	58	6	7							383	17	3	2	1							23	
7 yrs..	34	19	11	1							65	166	128	42	15	1						352	10	25	18	1	2						56	
8 yrs..	27	37	21	8	2						95	71	106	106	49	8	1					341	4	27	25	10	4						70	
9 yrs..	26	34	45	31	10						146	25	59	80	73	37	4					278	2	7	16	26	13	1	1				66	
10 yrs..	11	39	38	41	28	3					160	13	32	51	64	66	23	6	1			256	1	7	7	19	24	7	2	1			68	
11 yrs..	10	18	42	53	46	9	3	3			184	2	10	33	54	60	34	16				209	1	2	6	15	20	16	10	1	2		73	
12 yrs..	2	12	45	54	50	31	20	1			215	4	7	23	32	48	36	36	6			192			2	4	9	13	15	4			47	
13 yrs..	4	5	21	37	51	36	34	9			197	1	1	12	22	35	24	52	13	6		166			1	3	7	7	16	8	3	2*	47	
14 yrs..	1	3	14	17	44	32	44	16	2		173	1	2	2	12	33	33	43	25	9	3	163				2	7	4	8	11	5		37	
15 yrs..		2	3	14	32	38	46	24	1	1	161	1	1		8	12	7	31	41	22	7	130					3	7	13	9	6		38	
Total..	127	171	241	256	263	149	147	53	3	1	1,411	596	404	355	336	300	162	184	86	37	10	2,470	35	71	77	81	86	50	59	38	19	8	525	

* One in eleventh grade.

TABLE D
 DISTRIBUTION AMONG GRADES BY AGES OF FARM WORK ABSENTEES, OTHER ABSENTEES AND DAILY ATTENDANTS, FOR NEGRO CHILDREN ONLY

AGE	FARM WORK ABSENTEES											OTHER ABSENTEES											DAILY ATTENDANTS										
	GRADE										Total	GRADE										Total	GRADE										Total
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
6 yrs..	4										4	100	1									101	14	1									15
7 yrs..	12	3	1								16	56	13	4								73	13	2									15
8 yrs..	16	9	1	1							27	41	19	10	1							71	8	2	2								12
9 yrs..	13	10	11	5							39	25	23	9	4	2						63	3	6	8	1							18
10 yrs..	8	13	6	6	7						40	11	11	14	8	3	1					48	3	2	6	5	4						20
11 yrs..	6	13	17	10	5						51	6	11	12	14	4						47	1	1	2	1	3						8
12 yrs..	7	12	16	18	8	5					66	5	7	8	10	12	4					46			1	3	4	1					9
13 yrs..	2	4	14	14	13	5	1				53	3		11	9	5	4	2	2			36	1		1	3	3						8
14 yrs..	3	12	5	19	18	8	1	1			67	2	2	4	3	11	2	3	3			30					2			1			3
15 yrs..	1	3	4	18	14	7	7	1			55	1	2	3	4	5	3	3	2			23					1						1
Total	72	79	75	91	65	25	9	2			418	250	89	75	53	42	14	8	7			538	43	14	20	13	17	1		1			109

for the purposes of this study because of the special difficulties attending the grading of pupils in rural schools where one teacher has charge of all the classes.

It is immediately apparent that the daily attendants make a far better showing than the absentees. This is, of course, to be expected, and assuming that the absentees are of about the same grade of intelligence as the daily attendants, the bad effects of absence upon the progress of pupils through the grades are profoundly impressive. In contemplating this situation one begins to appreciate what this waste of school time means to the child and to the community, measured in both moral and material terms. It is not possible to escape the conviction that indifference and neglect in the management of schools are just as costly as in the management of business affairs so far as the effect upon the school is concerned, and much more so in respect of the effect upon the community.

The Elementary State Course of Study and Teachers' Manual for 1916, in arranging the school work so that one teacher may not have more than five grades to teach, recommends the principle of alternation which is the union of two grades of pupils on consecutive years of work, both grades doing the work of one year in one class, while the other year's work is omitted; the following year the omitted work is taken up. Under this plan each pupil does all the prescribed work but not in the exact order of the grades, and the number of classes is reduced. In the present school year and every odd year hereafter, the work outlined for the first, second, third, fifth, and seventh grades is to be covered; and in the alternate years that outlined for the first, second, fourth, sixth, and eighth grades. In order to give pupils full credit for their work at school, those enrolled in the fifth or seventh grade this year who were in the sixth or eighth grade last year, have been classed in this study as sixth or eighth grade pupils.

In the following table the number and per cent of white and negro farmwork absentees, other absentees, and daily attendants who were found to be ahead, normal or retarded, according to the distribution in the two preceding tables, are given. The per cent of retardation is least among the daily attendants, being, for the white children, only 13.2 as against 22.8 for other absentees and 46.8 for the farmwork absentees, in the totals for the seven counties.

For the negro children, the comparison holds good but the percentages are higher for each group, being 34.2 for the daily attendants, 49.2 for other absentees, and 72.6 for the farmwork absentees. The relative retardation of farmwork absentees, other absentees and daily attendants in each county is the same as in the totals for the seven counties.

Among the white children, 73.1 per cent of the daily attendants are enrolled in proper grades, that is, are normal, while 68 per cent of other absentees, and only 50.9 per cent of the farmwork absentees are normal. Among the negro children, the corresponding percentages are 65.8, 49.7, and 27.1. It is also worthy of note that 13.7 per cent of the white daily attendants are ahead of the standard, which is much greater than the percentages of the absentees. Indeed, the showing of the daily attendants is in every way superior to that of the other pupils.

It is striking that the farmwork absentees are more retarded, both in actual numbers and in proportion, than the other absentees. This is the logical result of the fact that farmwork is responsible for more days of absence than any other cause. One might at first be inclined to think that illness as a cause of absence would be just as great a menace to the standing of the child in school as farmwork, but this is not the case. Farmworkers are more retarded than children who are absent on account of illness because farmwork is steady, while illness is occasional; moreover, farmwork occurs year after year, while illness may occur only once.

The outstanding fact in all these figures is that farmwork interferes with the education of rural children more than any other factor. The compulsory attendance law is commonly ignored. The consequences in retardation are disastrous alike to the child, to the school, and to the community.

What is Kentucky going to do about it?

TABLE E
NUMBER AND PER CENT OF WHITE AND NEGRO FARM ABSENTEES, OTHER ABSENTEES AND DAILY ATTENDANTS, 8 TO 15 YEARS OF AGE, WHO ARE AHEAD, NORMAL AND RETARDED IN RESPECT OF ENROLLMENT IN GRADE ACCORDING TO AGE

		CHILDREN 8-15 YEARS OF AGE							
		NUMBER				PER CENT			
		Ahead	Normal	Retarded	Total	Ahead	Normal	Retarded	Total
Clark (7 schools).....	White.....	20	118	57	195	10.3	60.5	29.2	100.0
	Negro.....	...	11	14	25	...	(*)	(*)
Farm Work Absentees.	White.....	7	65	41	113	6.2	57.5	36.3	100.0
	Negro.....	...	7	11	18	...	(*)	(*)
Other Absentees.....	White.....	11	37	14	62	17.7	59.7	22.6	100.0
	Negro.....	...	2	3	5	...	(*)	(*)
Daily Attendants.....	White.....	2	16	2	20	(*)	(*)	(*)
	Negro.....	...	2	...	2	...	(*)	(*)
Hardin (13 schools)....	White.....	21	285	144	450	4.7	63.3	32.0	100.0
	Negro.....	...	17	16	33	...	(*)	(*)
Farm Work Absentees.	White.....	1	76	55	132	0.7	57.6	41.7	100.0
	Negro.....	...	1	...	1	...	(*)	(*)
Other Absentees.....	White.....	14	157	72	243	5.8	64.6	29.6	100.0
	Negro.....	...	5	4	9	...	(*)	(*)
Daily Attendants.....	White.....	6	52	17	75	8.0	69.3	22.7	100.0
	Negro.....	...	11	12	23	...	(*)	(*)
Henderson (23 schools).	White.....	45	437	148	630	7.1	69.4	23.5	100.0
	Negro.....	...	34	65	99	...	34.3	65.7	100.0
Farm Work Absentees.	White.....	6	139	99	244	2.4	57.0	40.6	100.0
	Negro.....	...	14	40	54	...	25.9	74.1	100.0
Other Absentees.....	White.....	30	235	41	306	9.8	76.8	13.4	100.0
	Negro.....	...	14	25	39	...	(*)	(*)
Daily Attendants.....	White.....	9	63	8	80	11.2	78.8	10.0	100.0
	Negro.....	...	6	...	6	...	(*)	(*)
Nicholas (7 schools)...	White.....	8	105	53	166	4.8	63.3	31.9	100.0
Farm Work Absentees...	White.....	1	14	27	42	(*)	(*)	(*)
	Negro.....
Other Absentees.....	White.....	2	56	26	84	2.4	66.7	30.9	100.0
	Negro.....	...	36	1	42	(*)	(*)	(*)
Daily Attendants.....	White.....	5	36	1	42	(*)	(*)	(*)
	Negro.....
Rock Castle (6 schools)...	White.....	3	83	89	175	1.7	47.4	50.9	100.0
	Negro.....
Farm Work Absentees....	White.....	...	50	68	118	...	42.4	57.6	100.0
	Negro.....
Other Absentees.....	White.....	2	28	17	47	(*)	(*)	(*)
	Negro.....	1	5	4	10	(*)	(*)	(*)
Trigg (33 schools).....	White.....	99	593	284	976	10.1	60.8	29.1	100.0
	Negro.....	4	187	289	480	0.8	39.0	60.2	100.0
Farm Work Absentees.	White.....	9	199	184	392	2.3	50.8	46.9	100.0
	Negro.....	1	69	196	266	0.4	25.9	73.7	100.0
Other Absentees.....	White.....	65	331	93	489	13.3	67.7	19.0	100.0
	Negro.....	3	95	87	185	1.6	51.4	47.0	100.0
Daily Attendants.....	White.....	25	63	7	95	26.3	66.3	7.4	100.0
	Negro.....	...	23	6	29	...	(*)	(*)
Warren (27 schools)....	White.....	55	562	301	918	6.0	61.2	32.8	100.0
	Negro.....	1	92	111	204	0.5	45.1	54.4	100.0
Farm Work Absentees.	White.....	6	135	149	290	2.1	46.5	51.4	100.0
	Negro.....	...	17	42	59	...	28.8	71.2	100.0
Other Absentees.....	White.....	36	336	132	504	7.1	66.7	26.2	100.0
	Negro.....	1	65	60	126	0.8	51.6	47.6	100.0
Daily Attendants.....	White.....	13	91	20	124	10.5	73.4	16.1	100.0
	Negro.....	...	10	9	19	...	(*)	(*)
Total (116 schools)....	White.....	251	2,184	1,077	3,512	7.1	62.2	30.7	100.0
	Negro.....	5	341	495	841	0.6	40.5	58.9	100.0
Farm Work Absentees.	White.....	30	678	623	1,331	2.3	50.9	46.8	100.0
	Negro.....	1	108	289	398	0.3	27.1	72.6	100.0
Other Absentees.....	White.....	160	1,180	395	1,735	9.2	68.0	22.8	100.0
	Negro.....	4	181	179	364	1.1	49.7	49.2	100.0
Daily Attendants.....	White.....	61	326	59	446	13.7	73.1	13.2	100.0
	Negro.....	...	52	27	79	...	65.8	34.2	100.0

(*) Numbers too small for calculating per cent.

National Child Labor Committee

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The younger boys "tie up waste"; the older children help with the stripping. November, 1916.

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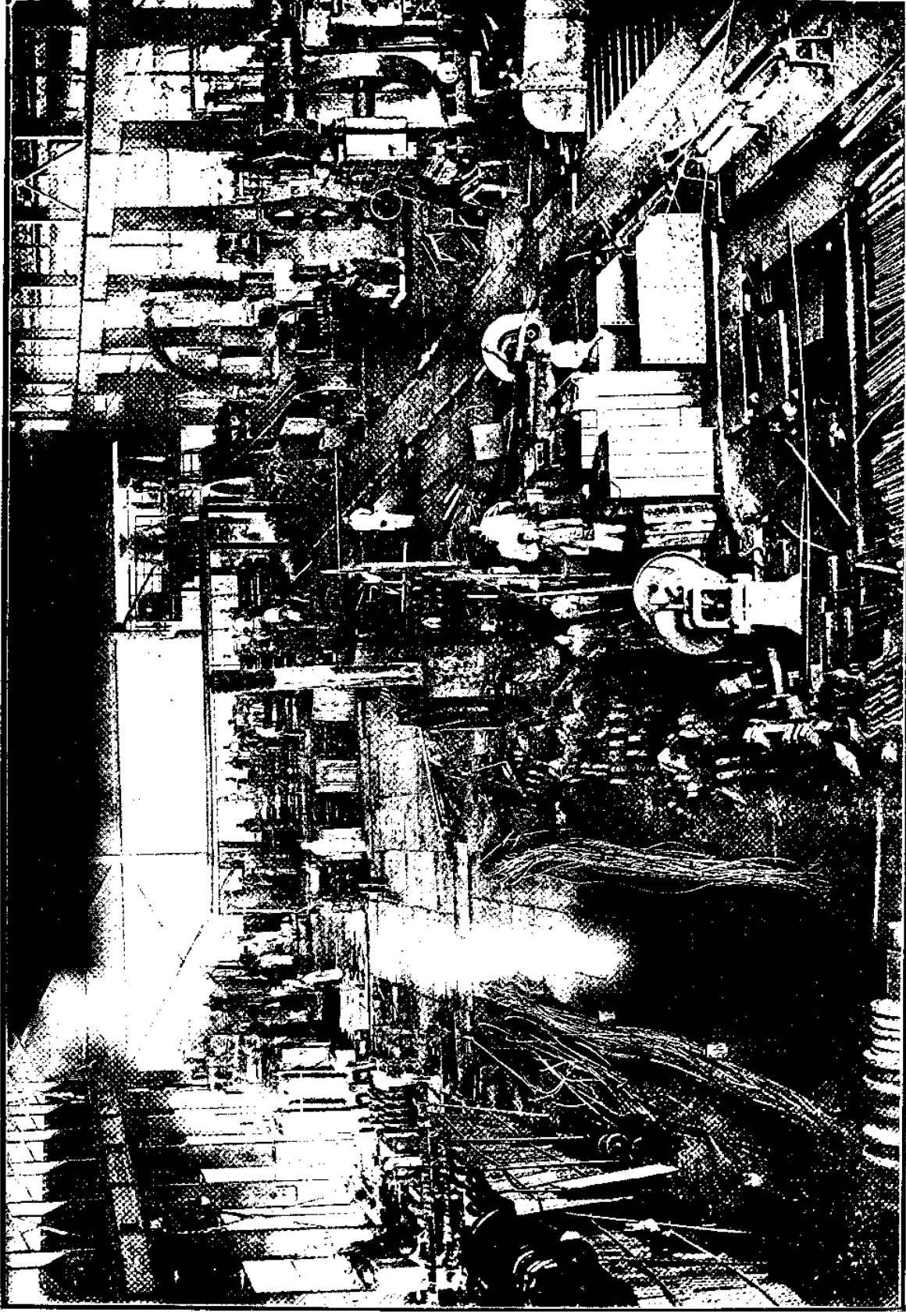


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TATA IRON AND STEEL COMPANY, JAMSHEDPUR.

EDUCATION AT JAMSHEDPUR.

This pamphlet endeavours to give a description of the educational work which is being carried on by the Tata Iron and Steel Company in their rapidly growing town of Jamshedpur. The town lies in the Singhbhum District of Bihar and Orissa, though it is only separated by a river from the State of Seraikela. It is reached by the Bengal Nagpur Railway, being 155 miles from Calcutta on the main line to Bombay.

2. The remarkable success of the Tata Iron and Steel Company since the month of December, 1911, when pig iron was first produced at the works, is a matter of common knowledge, but it may be of use to give a few figures to show the extent of the problem involved. When the Company opened up its works, there were no schools in the vicinity, the land on which Jamshedpur now stands being at that time covered by dwarf trees with here and there small villages inhabited mainly by aboriginals and Hindus of the lower castes. The area now in possession of the Company covers about 25 square miles and at the recent census the population amounted to 71,000; a figure which excludes a considerable number of coolies who come to Jamshedpur daily for their work, but live in the neighbouring villages. The pay-roll now contains 35,000 names and the monthly salaries paid aggregate about Rs. 8 lakhs. Nor do these figures in any way indicate the final development of the town. The Company has already spent some Rs. 10 crores on capital works, but large extensions are still in progress, two more blast furnaces and a number of additional mills being now in course of construction. When these are completed, the works will have an annual output of about 700,000 tons of pig iron and in addition to rails and steel sections, which now form the main part of the finished product of the works, steel plates will soon be placed on the market. Moreover, apart from the developments contemplated by the Tata Iron and Steel Company itself, a number of subsidiary companies are springing into existence. The Calcutta Monifeth Works have recently started to turn out jute mill machinery, while the companies which are about to commence operations include Messrs. Kilburn & Company, who will manufacture enamel ware, the Enfield Cable Company, the Tin Plate Company, who will manufacture tin sheets for petroleum empties, the Wire

The Tata
Works.

Products Company, who will make articles of steel wire, the Agricultural Implements Company, and the Hume Pipe Company, who will manufacture reinforced concrete pipes. When all these companies have started work and the extension of the Tata Iron and Steel Company's plant is completed, the population at Jamshedpur is likely to reach a quarter of a million.

The Schools.

3. The first school started at Jamshedpur was the Mrs. Perin Memorial School which was opened as a middle school in the year 1915 in memory of the wife of the Consulting Engineer to the Company. Since that date this school has developed into a High School and many other schools have come into existence, while still more are contemplated. The Indian Industries Commission in paragraph 130 of their report foreshadowed the establishment at Jamshedpur of an Imperial Metallurgical Research Institute. This has not yet been commenced, but the provincial Technical School mentioned in paragraph 172 of the same report is to be opened in October next. The school will be under the control of the Department of Industries, but it may be convenient here to give a brief summary of the scheme which has recently received the approval of Government. The school is intended to turn out foremen and will give a course of three years to students who have passed the I. Sc. Examination or an equivalent examination to be held at the school. The number of students to be admitted annually will be 50 and in return for the Government grants mentioned below the Company have agreed to reserve one-third of the places for students who are natives of or domiciled in the province of Bihar and Orissa. The cost is estimated as follows:—

<i>Capital.</i>		Rs.
Building		64,200
Furniture and library		45,000
Laboratory		1,50,000
Miscellaneous		40,800
	TOTAL	3,00,000

Of this sum the Government of Bihar and Orissa have promised to pay one lakh during the year 1921-22. It is intended to use for the school the building which was constructed two years ago for the girls' school. This is still the property of the Company and will be sold to the school, another building, or perhaps two separate

buildings in different parts of the town, being erected for the girls' school. The recurring cost is estimated as follows :—

Principal	Rs.	18,000
Teachers on Rs. 1,200, 1,000 and 300(2)	„	33,600
Clerks on Rs. 150, 100(3)	„	5,400
Janitor	„	1,200
Menials	„	2,640
Travelling	„	8,860
Light, power, water and conservancy	„	2,000
Laboratory	„	15,000
Stationery	„	5,000
Books, etc.	„	4,000
Scholarships tenable abroad	„	13,500
Prizes	„	1,200
Miscellaneous	„	9,800
Rent and depreciation	„	15,120
Pay of student apprentices	„	36,000
TOTAL	„	1,71,120 a year.

The above figures will need some revision, for the pay of the apprentices is to be Rs. 360 a year each and the estimate was framed at a time when the course was designed to be one of two years only. Moreover, the item for rent is based on the assumption that the building will belong to the Company and not to the school, but this will presumably not be the case if the buildings are erected with the help of a capital grant from Government. The promised contribution of the Government of Bihar and Orissa to the recurring cost is an annual grant of Rs. 25,000, to be given for ten years in the first instance.

4. The general administration of the remaining schools is in the hands of an influential Committee consisting of employees of the company and two Indian ladies, who all take a keen interest in education. The Secretary of this Committee and his clerk cost Rs. 125 a month, while an expenditure of Rs. 200 a month is incurred on the inspection of the primary schools in the outlying villages and on maintaining a school for the employees of the Company at Panposh in the Gangpur State. It would seem open to consideration whether one Inspector might not be appointed for all the schools, including both those in Jamshedpur and those in the villages, and whether he could not also act as Secretary to the Schools Committee.

The School Committee.

5. The Mrs. Perin Memorial School was until recently a Middle English School, but this year it is working up to class XI. It has been

Mrs. Perin Memorial School.

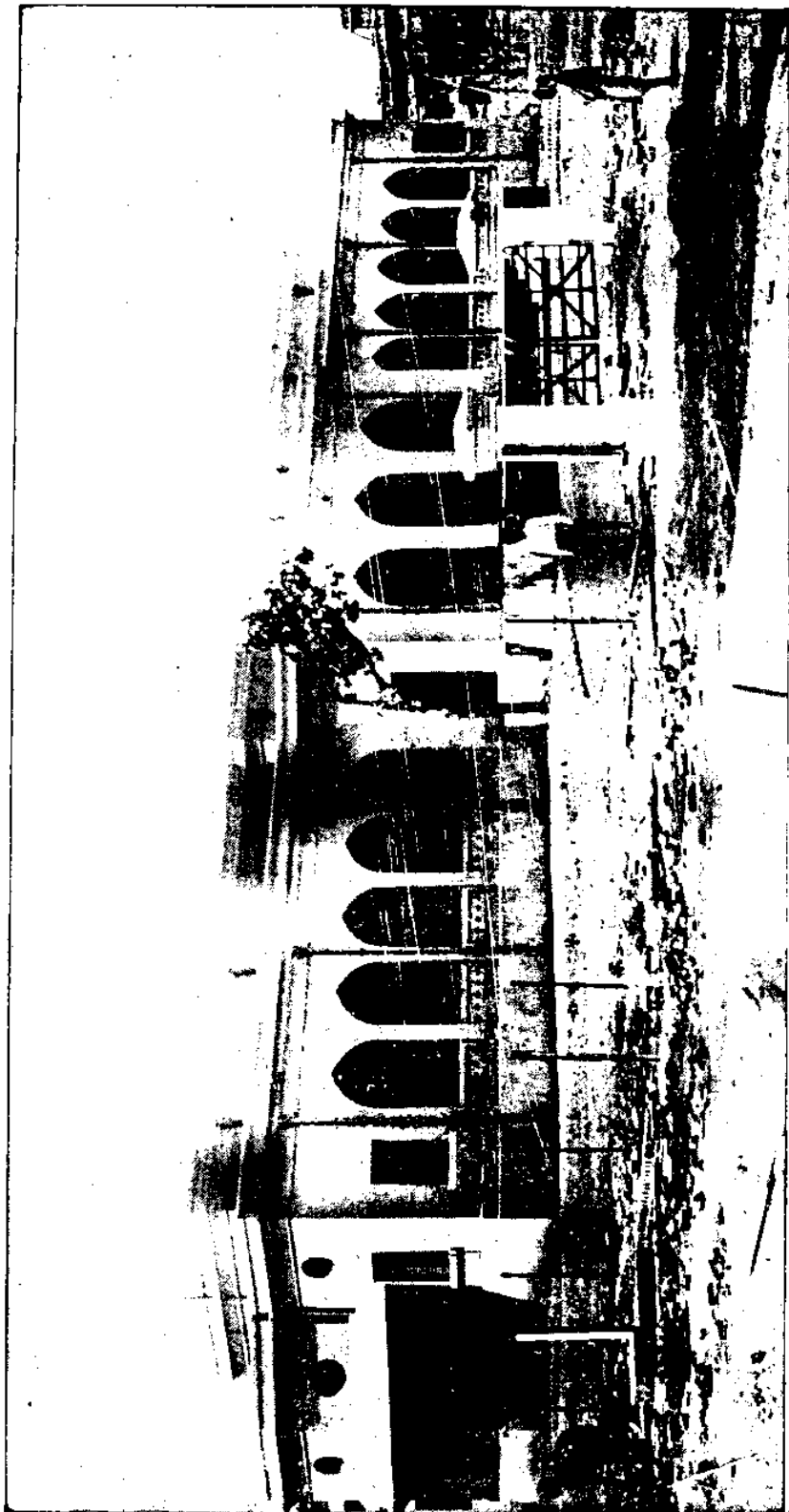
EDUCATION AT JAMSHEDPUR.

recognised as competent to present candidates for the School Leaving Certificate Examination and will do so in the year 1923; the question of permitting it to present candidates for the Matriculation Examination also is still under consideration. The school specializes in the teaching of elementary science and mathematics and its pupils should have a good chance of obtaining employment in the works, particularly if arrangements can be made later to carry on the instruction given up to the standard required for admission to the new technical school. The capital sum spent on the school up to date is Rs. 40,535, exclusive of an item of Rs. 1,500 devoted recently to the erection of four temporary class-rooms. The permanent building consists of two blocks. The older was intended for use as a court house and is not really suitable for school purposes. It contains seven rooms. The new block contains four good rooms and there is a proposal to add a second story to it. Even with this addition, however, the accommodation will be somewhat cramped. The number of rooms provided will be 15, whereas that required is as follows:—

For the four higher classes	4
For the four lower classes which are duplicated into Hindi and Bengali sections.	8
For the Headmaster, office, library and teachers	4
For the laboratory and optional subjects	3
TOTAL	19

It will just be possible to secure this number of rooms if the temporary class-rooms are allowed to remain, but these do not look as if they would stand very long and the question of replacing them will have to be considered. The school also needs a play-ground. There is a piece of adjacent ground which it is intended to give to the school when it has been levelled, but it may prove too damp for use during the rains, which is the best time for football. It might be possible to secure the use of one of the public grounds in Jamshedpur for three or four days in the week.

6. The number of pupils on the roll is 127. This number seems small for so large a town, but apparently many of the boys in Jamshedpur obtain employment in the works when they are young and also the proportion of persons living with their families is probably lower at Jamshedpur than elsewhere, as the provision of house accommodation can with difficulty keep pace with the rapid



GIRLS' PRIMARY SCHOOL, JAMSHEDPUR (BIHAR AND ORISSA).

EDUCATION AT JAMSHEDPUR.

expansion in the number of the Company's employees. The teaching staff consists of 14 teachers paid as follows :—

Name of post.	Pay.			House allowance.			Night-class allowance.			Total.		
	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
Headmaster	230	0	0	22	0	0	252	0	0
2nd Master	130	0	0	10	8	0	140	8	0
3rd "	106	0	0	13	8	0	119	8	0
4th "	106	0	0	12	0	0	118	0	0
5th "	80	0	0	6	6	6	86	6	6
6th "	73	12	0	7	11	9	81	5	9
7th "	73	12	0	73	12	0
8th "	75	0	0	75	0	0
9th "	47	0	0	3	13	2	50	13	2
10th "	53	0	0	53	0	0
11th "	53	0	0	53	0	0
12th "	60	0	0	7	11	9	67	11	9
13th "	73	12	0	73	12	0
14th "	47	0	0	47	0	0
Clerk	40	0	0	40	0	0
House Rent	126	0	0	126	0	0
Other expenses	152	2	10
TOTAL	1,600	0	0

Towards this expenditure Government give a grant of Rs. 225 a month. The night-class allowances are given for teaching English and Arithmetic nightly to about 120 boys from the works. The fees charged are Rs. 2 in class XI, Re. 1-12 in class X, Re. 1-8 in class IX, Re. 1-4 in classes VIII and VII, and Re. 1 in classes VI and V. A reduction of four annas is allowed in each class to sons or wards of the Company's employees.

7. The girls' school is an upper primary school with 88 pupils on the roll. It contains Hindi and Bengali sections, the number of teachers being therefore six. Its building was constructed on unusually elaborate lines and cost Rs. 62,109; as already mentioned, it is now proposed to transfer this building to the Technical School. It has not been decided whether to build one girls' school in its place or two, but in any case the style of building to be erected will be less pretentious, for the Company is alive to the fact that many more schools will soon be required at Jamshedpur and school buildings costing Rs. 62,000 cannot be multiplied indefinitely. The provision of two separate buildings might perhaps be a more convenient arrangement, for Jamshedpur is a large place and the distance between 'G' town and 'L' town, for instance, is nearly two miles. The upper primary girls' school is in 'G' town and, as mentioned below, there is already a small girls' school in 'L' town. It might be better to develop each of these on similar lines, but the expenditure would be considerable, for in each case probably duplication according to

The Girls' school.

vernaculars would be required. The monthly expenditure incurred on the school is as follows :—

	Rs.	A.	P.
Headmistress	192	8	0
2nd Mistress	100	0	0
3rd "	98	0	0
4th "	81	8	0
5th "	75	4	0
6th "	88	12	0
Pandit	45	0	0
Rent	302	8	0
Other expenses	116	8	0
TOTAL	1,100	0	0

Government give Rs. 225 a month towards this school also. The fee charged is twelve annas in the upper primary, eight annas in the lower primary and four annas in the infant classes.

Mrs. Perin
Memorial
Technical
School.

8. The Mrs. Perin Memorial Technical School is a school in which drawing, mathematics, mensuration and mechanics are taught to apprentices in the Steel Works. The number of students now is 120. The school meets in the evening and is allowed the use of two rooms in the girls' school, and two in the boys' school. The expenditure on the Technical School is as follows :—

	Rs.	A.	P.
Superintendent	250	0	0
Headmaster	80	0	0
Instructor	35	0	0
Do.	35	0	0
Other expenses	25	0	0
TOTAL	425	0	0

The school receives a Government grant of Rs. 150 a month while the fees charged are Rs. 2 in the first year, Rs. 3-8 in the second year and Rs. 5 in the third year. The schools mentioned in the following paragraphs are all unaided.

Commercial
school.

9. The Commercial School is designed for the instruction of clerks in shorthand and typing and has 50 students on the roll. It meets in one of the rooms in the girls' school. The expenditure incurred is as follows :—

	Rs.	A.	P.
Teacher	40	0	0
Do.	30	0	0
Other expenses	15	0	0
TOTAL	85	0	0

The fee charged is Rs. 3 a head.

EDUCATION AT JAMSHEDPUR.

10. The English school is designed for the instruction of those children whose parents wish them to be taught through the medium of English. There are now 11 pupils on the roll and the expenditure incurred is Rs. 100 a month for the teacher, an Anglo-Indian lady, and Rs. 20 on other items. The fee charged is Rs. 3 for the first child in a family and Rs. 2 for each additional child. The pupils are in various stages of their primary education, and the school cannot therefore be regarded as a satisfactory one. Jamshedpur, however, is an exceedingly hot place and the parents concerned would probably be well advised to send their children away to school as soon as any rate as they are beyond the infant stage. The new European School which is being started at Ranchi by the S. P. G. Mission should be of great help to the Anglo-Indian community at Jamshedpur and when it is opened the English School at Jamshedpur might be definitely limited to the infant classes unless more teachers can be provided. Meanwhile the community concerned might consider whether better arrangements cannot be made for the education of its children. The English School also meets in the girls' school.

English school.

11. There are two primary schools, one in 'G' town and one in 'L' town, managed directly by the Company. These were built with half walls according to a plan supplied by the Education Department some years ago. The buildings were intended to be cheap, but it was found that six rooms were required, one for an office, one for a teachers' living room and two each for the Hindi and Bengali sections. This greatly added to the plinth area and the type of the building was also improved by providing it with a Raniganj tiled roof carried on a steel frame. As a result, the capital expenditure on one building amounted to Rs. 10,660 and on the other to Rs. 9,228. These buildings belong to the schools and no rent is charged for them. The recurring expenditure incurred is approximately as follows :—

Primary schools.

'G' town school.

	Rs.	A.	P.
Headmaster	52	0	0
English teacher	27	8	0
2nd "	43	8	0
3rd "	40	8	0
4th "	40	8	0
5th "	40	8	0
Other expenses	20	8	0
TOTAL	265	0	0

EDUCATION AT JAMSHEDPUR.

'L' town school.

	Rs.	A.	P.
Headmaster	47	12	0
English teacher	27	8	0
2nd "	40	8	0
3rd "	29	0	0
4th "	40	8	0
5th "	43	0	0
Other expenses	20	12	0
TOTAL	249	0	0

The English teacher is common to both schools and receives Rs. 55 in all. He teaches in each school for three days in the week, the English teaching in these primary schools being a special feature. It will be observed that the rates of pay are unusually high for teachers in primary schools, but the wages offered in the works even to illiterate men are so high that the services of competent teachers cannot be retained on any lower rates of pay. The fees charged are twelve annas in the lower primary and eight annas in the infant classes, a reduction of four annas being made for sons or wards of the Company's employees. The number of pupils in the 'G' town school is 109 and in the 'L' town school 122.

12. As already mentioned, there is a small girls' school held in the same building as the 'L' town school. It has 28 girls on the roll and the monthly expenditure is Rs. 25 for the teacher and Rs. 5 for other expenses. The girls are apparently all taught in Bengali, but there must be Hindi-speaking girls also in 'L' town and one teacher is not enough for a lower primary school.

Free primary schools.

13. In addition to the above schools and that at Panposh there are nine free primary schools with which the Company has a less-direct connection. With the exception of the 'G' town Telugu School, which is held in the building of the girls' school, these are situated in the villages round Jamshedpur. They have in all 768 pupils and 27 teachers, while the monthly expenditure amounts to Rs. 901. Some of these schools were started by the Servants of India Society, which, however, gave up work in Jamshedpur at the time of the strike. On the departure of the Servants of India Society from Jamshedpur, the schools, which had been maintained throughout at the cost of the Company, were placed under the Welfare Department, it being considered that the Schools Committee could not look after schools other than those in Jamshedpur itself, and though this arrangement was modified last year for a short time, it has recently been revived. One of the schools has a building constructed out of

EDUCATION AT JAMSHEDPUR.

the funds of the Schools Committee at a cost of Rs. 1,210. The others have temporary buildings paid for by the Welfare Department. Many of these were damaged last year by storms and the same thing has happened again this year. The question of erecting something more permanent is engaging attention.

14. A proposal is under consideration for establishing a school for the depressed classes. This, however, has not yet matured. Depressed classes.

15. The question of financing the schools is an important one and an application has been made for additional help from Government. The recurring expenditure incurred has been mentioned above, but for convenience may be tabulated as follows:— Finance.

Name of School.	Recurring	Government
	monthly expenditure.	grant.
	Rs.	Rs.
The Mrs. Perin Memorial School	1,600	225
The girls' School	1,100	225
The Mrs. Perin Memorial Technical School	425	150
The Commercial School	85	...
The English School	120	...
Two primary schools and 'L' town girls' School	544	...
Outlying primary Schools	901	...
Inspection, overhead charges and Panposh School	325	...
TOTAL	5,100	600

These figures take no account of the expenditure proposed for the new Technical School. For the year 1920-21 the Company sanctioned a grant of Rs. 52,100 for recurring expenditure and spent Rs. 5,307-13-9 on capital charges. For 1921-22 the Company's grant for recurring expenditure is Rs. 61,000 and a provision of Rs. 18,500 has been made for capital expenditure while in addition the Schools Committee has at its disposal the sums realised in fees, which last year amounted to Rs. 4,005-7-9. The schools have never received any capital grant from Government, though one is likely to be sanctioned for the four new classrooms for the High School, while the recurring Government grant amounts, as will be seen, only to a small fraction of the total cost. On the other hand it must be remembered that the Tata Iron and Steel Co. pays no road cess and that in consequence it would appear

to have little claim on the Singhbhum District Board, while Government do not directly contribute to the support of primary schools in other parts of the province and in any case can scarcely be expected to give specially large grants to the schools at Jamshedpur on the ground that owing to the high rate of wages paid by the Company to its employees generally the teachers at Jamshedpur require specially high salaries. The position may, however, fairly be compared with that of a municipality. The question of establishing a local body at Jamshedpur has been under consideration for some time, but meanwhile the functions of a municipality are being discharged by the Company which manages the schools, hospitals, roads, conservancy, and such matters. Primary schools in municipal areas receive help from Government through the municipality concerned, to which a lump grant is given for the purpose, the amount being usually limited to 3 per cent. of the ordinary income of the municipality. It would therefore seem reasonable that pending the establishment of a local body at Jamshedpur Government should give the Tata Iron and Steel Co. a lump sum for the maintenance of its primary schools. Indirectly, the Company contributes largely to the revenue of Government. The income tax paid by its employees alone exceeds Rs. 1,00,000 per annum, and a substantial amount will now also be recovered from the local contractors and merchants and the employees of the subsidiary companies. The Company spends more than Rs. 1,50,000 a year on medical charges and maintains a free dispensary and hospital for all who care to take advantage of them. Numerous patients other than employees of the Company and its subsidiaries avail themselves of the free medicine and treatment provided there. In addition to this the company spends large sums of money every year on sanitary and other welfare schemes. It may be mentioned that the Company is charging a monthly sum of four annas a head, towards the cost of the hospital, for each employee of each of the subsidiary companies springing up in Jamshedpur. A similar arrangement as regards the cost of education could presumably be enforced in the case at any rate of all subsidiary companies established at Jamshedpur after this date, for all the land belongs to the Tata Iron and Steel Company and a condition of this kind could be inserted in the leases which it grants. This would save the Company from having to shoulder so large a share of the cost of education as it has to do at present.

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INDIA

PAMPHLET No. 9

State Examinations
in Scottish Schools

BY

A. H. MACKENZIE, M.A., B.Sc.
(Indian Educational Service)



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IN INDIA AND CEYLON.

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PREFACE.

The following description of the long-established and popular system of examinations conducted by the Scottish Education Department is of interest in view of the recent establishment of School Final and School Leaving Certificate Examinations in India. Since the regulations for these examinations vary considerably in different Provinces and are not generally available, they have been printed in the form of an appendix for reference and comparison.

J. A. RICHEY,

Educational Commissioner with the Govt. of India.

SIMLA,
July 1920.

STATE EXAMINATIONS IN SCOTTISH SCHOOLS.

There are three * types of schools in Scotland, the Primary School, the Intermediate School and the Secondary School. The Primary School gives an education based entirely upon English to pupils who are, as a rule, below the age of fourteen; the Intermediate School provides at least a three years' course of instruction in Languages, History, Geography, Mathematics, Science, Drawing and "such other subjects as may from time to time be deemed suitable"; the Secondary School provides at least a five years' course of secondary education. All three types have a common basis—an "elementary course" for pupils from five to twelve years of age.

Types of
Schools
Scotland.

Looking at the school system as a whole, we find four well-marked courses. First there is the Elementary Course, the common foundation, and above it there are the three parallel superstructures of further education: the two years' Supplementary Course of the Primary School, the three years' Intermediate Course of the Intermediate School, and the five (or six) years' full Secondary Course of the Secondary School.

At the end of each of these courses there is a State Examination. These are called respectively the *Qualifying Examination*, the *Merit Certificate Examination*, the *Intermediate Certificate Examination*, and the *Leaving Certificate Examination*. The *Qualifying Examination* marks the conclusion of an elementary education and certifies fitness for entering on a course of secondary education; the *Merit Certificate* certifies that satisfactory progress has been made in the 'supplementary' classes of a Primary School; the *Intermediate Certificate* marks the conclusion of a well balanced course of general education, suitable for pupils who leave school at fifteen or sixteen years of age, and fitness for entering on more specialised courses of Post-Intermediate study; the *Leaving Certificate* certifies the completion of a sound general education and functions also as a pass-port to the University or Technical Colleges.

State
examinations
in Scottish
Schools.

The Qualifying Examination. †—This is an examination which all pupils have to pass before they are permitted to go beyond the ele-

* There will probably be modifications, consequent on the Education (Scotland) Act, 1918.

† The *Qualifying Examination* resembles in its main features the examination for the *Certificat d'études primaires* in France. (Board of Education *Special Reports*, Volume II).

mentary stage. Three courses are open to successful candidates: (1) they may enter the Supplementary Classes of the Primary School, with a view to leaving school at the minimum age for exemption from school attendance; (2) they may enter a Secondary School with the aim of taking there either the three years' Intermediate Course or the five (or six) years' full Secondary Course; (3) they may enter the Intermediate Course of an Intermediate School. Thus all pupils who seek an education beyond the elementary stage "must, whatever be their previous training or ultimate educational goal, pass through the gate of the Qualifying Examination."*

Scope of the
Qualifying
Examination.

The Qualifying Examination is open to pupils who have been in regular attendance for not less than six months in the highest class of the "elementary section" of a Primary, Intermediate or Secondary School. There is no age limit, but the normal age is twelve. The teacher of the class and the headmaster must certify the candidate to be "of good proficiency in the work of the class."

The candidate is expected:—

- (a) To read at sight, with good pronunciation and with intelligent phrasing, narrative prose of moderate difficulty.
- (b) To write to dictation, with good spelling and legible and regular handwriting, a narrative passage previously unseen.
- (c) To answer questions as to the subject matter of, and the meaning of words and sentences in, the reading book in use in the class; these answers when necessary to be expressed in complete sentences or in a consecution of sentences.
- (d) To write a composition, the headings being given, or to give in writing the substance of a passage read.
- (e) To know the four rules of Arithmetic as applied to whole numbers, easy vulgar fractions, and decimals to three places, and to be expert in applying this knowledge to calculation, both mentally and on paper, of simple sums in money and in the common weights and measures.
- (f) To be reasonably proficient in the other subjects included in the approved scheme of work of the class.

Method of
conducting
the Qualify-
ing Examina-
tion.*

The examination is conducted by an external examiner, the school Inspector of the district, but the teacher's estimate is the chief factor in determining success or failure in each case. It is he who puts forward the pupils who, in his opinion, deserve to pass or are 'doubtful'.

* A critical account of the Qualifying Examination with reference to the Scottish School system, was given in a paper read before the Educational Science Section of the British Association in 1912 by Mr. D. Macgillivray, M.A., Headmaster of Hillhead High School, Glasgow.

He records, on forms supplied for the purpose, his estimate of the pupil's attainments in each subject of the course. In support of this opinion he files the pupil's 'records', his written exercises and answers to class tests or school examinations. The Inspector, on the occasion of his visit, tests the teacher's assessment by a scrutiny of the pupil's records, and by such control examination, oral or written, as he thinks necessary. Should he think that the selection of candidates has been improperly or carelessly made, or that discrepancies between the results of the control examination and the teacher's estimate cannot be reasonably explained, he is authorised to reject any or all of the candidates. In actual practice it is found that the teacher's estimate has rarely to be challenged.

No certificate is issued to candidates successful in the Qualifying Examination, but a schedule of the names of such candidates, signed by the Class Teacher, the Headmaster and the Inspector is stamped officially by the Department and returned to the school authorities.

Form of certification.

The Qualifying Examination corresponds, in the attainments which it tests to the old Middle Examination of our Anglo-Vernacular Schools. It is true that the Qualifying Examination is taken usually by pupils of twelve years of age, whereas the average age of pupils who sat for our Anglo-Vernacular Middle Examination was not less than fourteen. But the Indian school-boy is approximately two years behind the Scottish boy. There are several reasons for this difference: the school working-day in Scotland is six hours, as against five hours in India; there are considerably fewer school holidays in Scotland; and the Scottish school-boy has the advantage of an invigorating climate. The Qualifying Examination corresponds to the Anglo-Vernacular Middle Examination also in the object which it serves. If we judge the work in our schools by Western standards, the Middle Classes are essentially "primary" and the High Classes "secondary". The Anglo-Vernacular Middle Examination, like the Qualifying Examination, certified fitness for "secondary" education.

The Scottish Qualifying Examination corresponds to the old Anglo-Vernacular Middle Examination in India.

But in regard to the method of testing candidates there are fundamental differences. The Anglo-Vernacular Middle Examination was purely an external examination. There was no oral test, and teachers had no voice in the award of the certificate. The question papers dominated the curriculum, especially in those subjects (*e.g.*, English) in which text-books were prescribed. In the Qualifying Examination there is no prescribed work. The examination is conducted by the class teachers on the school syllabuses, which are submitted to the Department for approval. The external element—the Inspector—comes in only as a check against undue leniency or care-

The Middle Anglo-Vernacular Examination an 'external' examination; the Qualifying Examination an 'internal' examination.

lessness. He may accept the teacher's recommendations *en bloc*, "if he is satisfied that the work of the class shows sufficient advancement and after such examination of individual candidates as he may think fit." He withholds the certificate only upon "sufficient evidence that due care has not been exercised in the promotion of scholars."

The question of reviving the Anglo-Vernacular Middle Examination.

Within recent years some educationists have advocated that the Anglo-Vernacular Middle Examination should be revived. It would be out of place here to enter into a discussion of the vexed question whether there should be a departmental examination at the end of the middle stage in Anglo-Vernacular schools. But, if there is to be an examination at this stage, the Scottish Qualifying Examination would serve as a much better model than the old Anglo-Vernacular Middle Examination.

The Merit Certificate.

The Merit Certificate.—Only a brief reference need be made to this Certificate. It marks the completion of the supplementary course of a Primary School. It corresponds to the certificate granted to candidates successful at the Middle Vernacular Examination in India, but with the important distinction that the Merit Certificate Examination is entirely an 'internal' examination whereas the Middle Vernacular Examination is usually entirely 'external'. Each pupil enrolled in the 'supplementary course' of a Scottish Primary School must keep an individual record of the work done by him. This record, vouched for by the teacher, must be submitted to the Inspector for verification and test at any of his visits and is made the basis of entry upon the Certificate. Thus the awards are made by the teachers, subject to the approval of the Inspector.

Examinations in Secondary Schools.

As far back as 1496 an Act was passed by the Scottish Parliament, which aimed at making secondary education compulsory for children of the well-to-do classes. But there was practically no State control over secondary education until 1882, when the Scottish Education Department obtained statutory powers of inspection. By virtue of these powers the Department in 1888 instituted the Leaving Certificate Examination with the object of testing the efficiency and character of the work in secondary schools.

In its early stages the examination was entirely a written one. Question papers were of three grades: Lower, Higher and Honours. The subjects were not grouped in any way. None was compulsory. Candidates might be presented in any subject and in any grade of it. There was no age limit, either maximum or minimum; but the Department deprecated the entry of candidates under thirteen years of age, in any subject. The selection of candidates was left to school managers. There was no interference with their discretion in this

matter; but in order that the examination might serve as a useful supplement to the annual inspection of the school, the Department suggested that, as a rule, the highest class, or the highest class and that next to it, should be presented.

Even at this early stage the Department endeavoured to secure the co-operation of the Universities in the work of examination. Thus, the Secretary, Mr. (now Sir) Henry Craik, in describing the system, said, "The general supervision, the settlement of the standard of marking, the revision of the work of examiners, and the decision in regard to doubtful cases, is carried on, for each subject, by one principal examiner, who, acting in conference with myself, is also responsible for drawing up the papers. For this work we have for the most part the assistance, in each subject, of a professor in a Scottish University."

Co-operation
with the Uni-
versities.

Another feature was the personal responsibility of the Head of the Department for the results of the examination. "I receive," said Sir Henry Craik, "a report from each person who has taken part in the revision; and from the reports and my own observation of the papers, many of which come before me personally, I am able to form a fairly accurate estimate of the general standard of work in the schools." The tradition of thoroughness, established by Sir Henry Craik, has been fully maintained. 'Doubtful cases' especially receive much consideration. Great pains, involving frequent references to Inspectors and Headmasters, are taken to ensure that no injustice will be done to individual candidates and that the certificate will be granted only to candidates whose work in school has been satisfactory. "The number of cases," said Sir John Struthers, the present Secretary, in his Report for 1915, "in which the verdict of the written papers was over-ruled at the recent examination was 374. In the majority of cases, of course, the change was from 'fail' to 'pass', but a reversal of the process was by no means unknown. The figure given represents but a small percentage of the total number of papers sent in. At the same time the full effect of the procedure is not to be gauged by this or any other figure. It can only be measured by the degree of confidence which the schools on the one hand, and the general public on the other, see fit to accord to our examination as a whole. And in that respect I venture to think that there is a steady advance."

The Depart-
ment's sense
of responsi-
bility.

From its inception the Leaving Certificate system was regarded by the Department as a lever by which official influence could be brought to bear on the spirit and methods of teaching in the schools. It is instructive to note that in Scotland this influence

The system a
lever for im-
proving the
schools.

has increased and has become more enlightened with every step taken in the direction of decentralisation of control over the machinery of education. Delegation to Local Authorities of the work of administration has left the Department free to concentrate attention on the vital point—the class-room. Evidence that stimulus and guidance are now supplied there is revealed in the helpful syllabuses and notes issued to teachers, in the thorough report on the work of candidates and in the skilful manner in which question papers both test and suggest sound methods of teaching.

Criticism of the system as originally devised.*
(i) The grading of certificates.

The system as devised in 1888 was subjected to criticisms, more or less justified.

Objection was taken to the grading of the certificates. It was urged that only the Higher certificate should be regarded as marking a minimum reasonable attainment at the end of the school course; that the Lower certificate therefore should not be designated a "Leaving" certificate, and that, if retained at all, it should be regarded merely as a step on the way to the Higher qualification.

Objection was taken also to the Honours grade. It was contended that the standard was too high: it was, as a matter of fact, equivalent to the standard of the Indian Civil Service examination. It was beyond the reach of even a fairly good pupil and involved special training and preparation; it belonged to the sphere of the University rather than the school. On the other hand the Honours Certificate had the effect of discovering marked talent and gave point to the studies of specially gifted pupils who passed the Higher examination before they were old enough to proceed to the University.

(ii) The question of prescribed books.

No books were prescribed; but there were teachers, who wanted set books. Enlightened opinion was on the side of the Department in this matter. As one critic said, "A commendable feature of the examination has been its breadth and freedom from prescription and it is hoped that in this matter My Lords will continue to have the courage of their convictions. It is true that in the Scottish University Preliminary Examination certain works are prescribed in English, but the teacher must be forgiven who is unable to see the wisdom of this, even though he admit that it conduces to the convenience both of the candidates and the examiner. In all public examinations, whether conducted by the Universities or otherwise, freedom to the individual schools within the widest possible limits is the ideal which should never be lost sight of; it alike prevents

* The materials for this account have been taken from articles which were published in the *Journal of Education* (December 1899, April 1908, May 1914).

† The *Journal of Education*, December 1899.

erating and preserves that diversity in unity which is inseparable from healthy growth." The width of the limits depends mainly on the quality of the school staff. It is of interest in this connection to note that in the United Provinces the Leaving Certificate Board at first gave absolute freedom to schools in the choice of books to be used in English; but after some years it was found that this freedom resulted in the neglect of the intensive study of 'Text.' Teachers set an inadequate amount for intensive study, and pupils would not take seriously study which was not prescribed by the Department for examination. The Board has therefore found it necessary to confine the teacher's choice within the limits of a prescribed list, and to issue a rule excluding from the written examination candidates who have failed to come up to a reasonable standard (defined by the Department) in the school examinations in "English Text."

Some of the criticisms have an interesting likeness to perennial criticisms of our examinations in India. Thus, it was argued from the rise and fall of the percentage of passes in the Scottish examinations that the standard of marking fluctuated. It was pointed out in defence of the examiners that "a question a little out of the common, even if quite fair, may cause considerable havoc among the company of 'doubtfuls' who hover about the pass line, and this may produce a considerable difference in the percentage of passes". This is probably the main reason why the percentage of passes fluctuates in India. Most of the candidates are bunched about the pass line. A slight change in the standard of the examination, due to a novel type of question or to the personal equation of the examiner, may bring many of the 'doubtfuls' under the line.

(iii) fluctuating standard.

There were criticisms of a more fundamental character. While the examinations had a beneficial effect in raising the standard of attainment it dominated the school curriculum.

It was urged that, in order to ensure freedom of teaching, due weight should be given to the teacher's estimate of candidates, and that there should be *visà voce* tests for estimating the progress of pupils in those elements of school subjects to which the direct test of a written examination could not well be supplied.

(iv) An external examination without oral tests.

The system of awarding certificates for separate subjects was open to serious objection. It had justification as a first step in raising the standard of work in secondary schools. It made possible the encouragement of weak schools, which could always present and pass some pupils in some subjects: it gave credit to pupils who, if they made progress in any subject, had something to show for their achievement; at a

(v) The certificate given for subjects, not for a well-balanced course.

time when the Department was occupied in making order out of chaos in secondary education it relieved the administration of the difficult task of laying down a curriculum which would be acceptable to all schools. But it was little better than a system of disconnected examinations in subjects selected without any pretence to educational co-ordination. A Leaving Certificate obviously should mark the completion of a well-balanced course, adequate both in range and quality, taught with due regard to all elements and not merely those that can be tested by written papers.

Reforms.

In reforming the system the Department kept in view five main principles:—

- (I) The Certificate should testify to the completion of the study of a well-balanced *group* of subjects.
- (II) There should be freedom of curriculum and of syllabuses within the widest possible limits.
- (III) The written tests should be supplemented by an oral examination.
- (IV) Consideration should be given to the *deliberate* opinion of the teachers regarding the proficiency of the candidates, as shown by their work in the school.
- (V) Excellence in one subject of the 'group' should be held as compensating for only moderate attainments in another.

The difficulties of prescribing a group of subjects.

In deciding what should comprise a suitable group of subjects the Department had to provide for two classes of pupils, those who leave school at fifteen or sixteen years of age after a three years course in the 'secondary' school and those who take a full secondary course of five or six years. Further it had to decide whether the course in the three lowest forms of the secondary school should be the same for these two classes; if not, there would be an awkward break of gauge at the age of fifteen for pupils who, after entering upon the Intermediate Course, might decide to complete the full secondary course.

The Intermediate Certificate Examination.

The Department thought that a common course was possible for the three junior forms, and accordingly instituted the *Intermediate Certificate Examination*. As already pointed out, this examination serves a double function: for the pupil who leaves school at the age of fifteen or sixteen it testifies to the completion of a well-balanced course of general education; for the pupil who can continue at a secondary school five or six years it serves as a pass-port to some form of more specialised study—literary, scientific or commercial.

The 'group' for the Intermediate Certificate.

It was no easy matter to agree upon a group of subjects for the Intermediate Certificate. It had to satisfy three conditions: (1) It must be a self-contained well balanced course of secondary education;

(2) it must serve as a foundation for higher work; (3) it must be of sufficient variety to enable the teacher to discover special aptitude. After lengthy and careful deliberation the Department decided that all Intermediate courses must make provision for the following compulsory subjects; English, History, Geography, a language other than English, Mathematics, Science, Drawing, Physical Training. Additional subjects might be submitted for approval, but these were the essentials. Schools were given freedom to frame their own syllabuses, subject to the approval of the Department.

For some years this course met with general acceptance from teachers. It represented an attempt to bring the different types of schools into harmonious relation with one another and it helped to produce order in the Scottish secondary system. But within recent years the course has been criticised on the ground that it is too rigid. Thus the Scottish Reform Committee *—a non-official committee of Scottish teachers, representing the Teachers' Associations—reported: "The present Intermediate curriculum is generally satisfactory but does not allow for exceptions. It affords no scope for experiments in types of curricula, and it is only by experiment that certain disputed questions of curricula can be determined. In particular there is urgent need to allow of differentiation between courses taken by boys and girls." The *Secondary School Journal* of Scotland was more emphatic. With reference to the Report issued by the Department in 1915, it said, "It may be doubted whether in the long run it would not have been better for the moral and intellectual life of Scotland if the machine had not been quite so perfect. Necessary as a certain amount of standardisation of methods may be, it becomes a menace to freedom of mind and spirit when carried to excess, and tends to defeat the higher aims of education. More liberty and initiative on the part of the teacher, greater opportunities for a diversity of culture for the pupil, might involve a somewhat poorer scholarship, but there would be ample compensation for the loss in the spiritual gains attendant on a heightened personal responsibility on the part of all concerned."

The Intermediate course too rigid.

Candidates are examined by means of uniform written papers in English (including History and Geography) Languages and Mathematics. In Science and Drawing there is a practical and written examination conducted *in situ*. There is no examination in Physical Training, but the Inspector must be satisfied that all candidates have been through a satisfactory course of physical training. In order to gain a Certificate the candidate must reach a standard "such as to

Examination for the Intermediate Certificate.

* *Reform in Scottish Education* (Scottish Education Reform Committee, 1917).

warrant endorsement on the Certificate," not necessarily the standard of the Lower Grade.*

Course for
the Leaving
Certificate.

A pupil who has gained the Intermediate Certificate and has continued his secondary education for at least two years beyond the Intermediate stage may be presented for the Leaving Certificate. The Department does not attempt to enforce a uniform course of study at the Post-Intermediate stage. But, as a rule, any curriculum to be approved must provide for the continuous study throughout the course of *not less than* four subjects taken from the following list :—

English	Italian	History
Latin	Spanish	Geography
Greek	Gaelic	Drawing
French	Experimental Science	Music
German	Mathematics	Domestic Science

Moreover, the curriculum must in all cases provide for the study of English, on the Higher Grade level, together with a subsidiary study of History (not reckoned as a separate subject). As a rule one language other than English, as well as either Mathematics or Experimental Science, must also be studied to the Higher Grade level, the remaining subject or subjects being any of those enumerated above, without restriction as to grade.† Schools have freedom to frame their own syllabuses in all subjects, subject to the approval of the Department.

Special
courses.

Curricula which conform to the above type, which may be regarded as the *Normal General Course*, need not be specially submitted to the Department for approval. But the Department is prepared to consider departures from the Normal General Course as regards individual pupils in any school, or the formation of more highly specialised courses (including even subjects other than those enumerated above) for groups of pupils in schools where the resources of the staff as regards organisation allow of the formation of fully differentiated curricula. Thus, some school authorities might wish to frame a special course in, say, Higher English, Higher Mathematics, Higher

* The standard for a Lower Grade pass is higher than the standard for endorsement on the Intermediate Certificate. The Department keeps a list of candidates who reach the Lower Grade level in each subject. This list serves two purposes: (1) some examining bodies accept Lower Grade passes as equivalent to passes in the subjects of their examinations, but do not accept the Intermediate Certificate; (2) for the *Leaving Certificate* candidates must pass in three subjects at the Higher Grade Level and in one subject at the Lower Grade Level.

† History and Geography are included in the compulsory course at the Intermediate stage. These subjects, studied at the Lower Grade level, are not reckoned as subjects for the Post-Intermediate course. But "a subsidiary study of History" forms part of the English course.

STATE EXAMINATIONS IN SCOTTISH SCHOOLS.

Experimental Science, and Lower German for a group of pupils with special attainments in Science. Others might wish to have a special group for girls who may be unable to carry either Mathematics or Experimental Science to the Higher Grade level. Others again might wish to have a special group of commercial subjects for boys who intend to enter business.

Definite proposals for such specialised scheme, that fall outside the limits of Normal General Course, are considered on their merits, with regard to the considerations which have led the school authorities to propose them, the facilities which the school possesses for their proper conduct and the object aimed at. In all schemes at least three of the subjects selected must be studied to the Higher Grade level, and one of those must be English. Further, the Department insists that in the examination pupils must make good their claims to admission to a special course. Thus a pupil who had been allowed to offer both Mathematics and Experimental Science on the ground of special aptitude for these subjects would not be granted the certificate if he merely passed in them; he would have to pass well.

In 1918, of the 2,100 candidates who appeared for the Leaving Certificate Examination 147 were presented in special groups. Vocational groups were offered by only a few candidates; thus, only 3 were presented in commercial subjects.

Candidates are examined in all subjects, except subsidiary History (which forms part of the English course) both by written papers and by an oral test. Except in Drawing and Science the questions in the written examination are the same for all schools; as the examinations in Drawing and Science are conducted *in situ*, the questions necessarily vary from school to school. Although there is no written examination in 'subsidiary History' the Inspector must be satisfied that the subject has been studied under satisfactory conditions as regards the amount of time given, the scope of the work, the system of periodical tests, etc.; he may at his discretion conduct an oral examination in the subject.

Examination
for the
Leaving
Certificate.

In order to obtain a Certificate a candidate must gain a Higher Grade pass in English and in at least two other subjects; he must also pass in at least the Lower Grade in a fourth subject. If the candidate has gained a Lower Grade pass in his fourth subject at the Intermediate Examination he need not sit for it again when he comes to take his Leaving Certificate, but the study of the subject must be continued to the satisfaction of the Inspector (the normal time-table requirement being 3 periods per week) throughout the Post-Intermediate course.

No Leaving Certificate is issued except on satisfactory evidence of the successful completion of the course *as a whole*. The subjects included in the approved curriculum are entered on the face of the Certificate, provided they have been systematically studied throughout the Post-Intermediate course and provided also that the standard of a pass in at least the Lower Grade has been reached. On the back of the Certificate an endorsement is made of all subjects in which the standard of a Higher Grade pass has been attained, and of such subjects only.

The oral test in the Intermediate Examination.

The number of candidates for the Intermediate Examination now exceeds 7,000. It is not possible for the Inspectors to carry out with any thoroughness an individual oral examination of this number of candidates. In fact, on account of the large number of candidates, the examination is not an individual test except in two subjects, Science and Drawing. In these subjects there is a practical test conducted by two examiners, usually an Inspector and a college professor or a teacher from an Art school. In other subjects pupils are usually not examined individually, although sometimes there is an individual oral test to settle a doubtful case. There is, however, an oral test of *the class*; its object is to determine whether the school syllabuses are satisfactory, whether for each subject and each branch there is adequate provision in the time-table, and whether due attention has been given to elements in teaching (*e.g.*, oral work in a modern language) which cannot satisfactorily be tested by a written examination. Thus the oral examination at the Intermediate stage is a useful supplement to the ordinary school inspection. But, except in Science and Drawing, it cannot claim to be a satisfactory test of individual candidates for the purpose of awarding the Certificates. It is interesting to note that the Scottish system of examination falls short of the ideal on account of the same difficulties that confront us in India—the large number of examinees and the limited number of competent examiners available.

The oral test in the Leaving Certificate Examination.

At the Leaving Certificate stage the number of candidates is much smaller—only about 2,000. The Department is therefore able to approach more nearly to the ideal method of examination. There is an oral examination of individual candidates in every subject. Doubtful cases receive special attention. The Inspector is given the results of the written examination before he goes to the school. If there is any marked discrepancy between the teacher's recommendation and the marks gained in the written examination, the Inspector, if he is satisfied that *on the whole* the teacher's estimate is a well-considered one, scrutinises the records (note books and school examination answer books) of the candidate and examines him orally. The Inspector then

makes a definite recommendation, to which the Department attaches great weight.

The Department obtains from each school a list of candidates showing for each subject of the Intermediate and Leaving Certificate Examinations the class teacher's estimate of the candidate's attainments. The estimate is given by the teacher after careful consideration of the pupil's 'records' and of the general character of his work during the course. The teacher is instructed to record this estimate by a single mark "representing numerically in relation to a maximum of 100 his opinion of the pupil's attainments in the subject, as ascertained from a consideration of ordinary class work, home lessons and any 'unseen' test that may have been set." In order to secure uniformity in marking, 50 per cent. is taken to indicate that in the teacher's opinion a pupil should pass but no more than pass, the rest of the class being scaled upwards or downwards from this index. When candidates are drawn from several sections that have been under different teachers the marks are adjusted so as to make them relatively correct and uniform. In addition to the teacher's opinion, given for each subject of the course, the Headmaster records his judgment on the merits of each pupil's work as a whole. This judgment is based on a careful collation of the opinions of the various teachers, and is expressed by the use of the terms, "Excellent," "Very Good," "Good," "Fairly Good" and "Fair," it being understood that the mark "Fair" represents work that is not regarded as being, on the whole, satisfactory. As already mentioned, the teacher's estimate is taken into consideration, especially at the Leaving Certificate stage, in order to settle doubtful cases.

The teacher's estimate.

Both in the Intermediate Examination and in the Leaving Certificate Examination excellence in one subject is allowed to compensate for moderate attainments in another. There is no hard and fast system of 'grace marks.' Each case is considered on its merits, special regard being paid to the Headmaster's opinion of the pupil's work as a whole. In any case in which the Department finds it difficult to come to a decision, reference is made to the Inspector, who calls for the pupil's records and then makes a definite recommendation.

The principle of compensation.

The examinations are in fairly close relation to the product of the schools. In 1918 the number of pupils enrolled in the final class of the Intermediate Course was 9,103; of these 7,503 entered for the Intermediate Certificate. The number enrolled in the same year in the final class of the Post-Intermediate Course was 2,579; of these 2,247 entered for a Leaving Certificate. Thus, of the pupils who completed the Intermediate Course 82.4 per cent. entered for the Certificate at the end of that course, and of those who completed the full secondary course 87.1 per cent. entered for a Leaving Certificate.

Number of candidates.

Percentage
of passes.

In 1918, 5,835 candidates (*i.e.*, 77·8 per cent.) obtained the Intermediate Certificate and 1,762 (*i.e.*, 78·4 per cent.) obtained the Leaving Certificate.

The Leaving
Certificate as
a qualification
for admission
University.

The Scottish Universities are well represented on the list of examiners for the Leaving Certificate. The universities therefore know precisely what pass marks connote; they are satisfied with the standard. But they hold the view that a Leaving Certificate which certifies completion of a secondary education does not necessarily certify fitness for a University course: that the University should lay down what groups of subjects constitute a satisfactory pre-University course. They therefore accept the Certificate in lieu of their own Entrance Examination only if it shows passes in certain subjects. It would be misleading to specify here what these are, as the question of the relation of the Leaving Certificate to the Entrance Examination is at present under reconsideration.

Office staff.

Anyone who has been behind the scenes of an office responsible for the conduct of a School Leaving Certificate Examination in India must have been impressed by the amount of work done by the Registrar and his staff. Oral tests and school records involve considerable correspondence with Headmasters and Examiners, and the number and variety of forms to be scrutinised and checked is much greater than in the case of a purely 'external' examination of the matriculation type. The work is rendered intensive by the need for publishing results within a reasonable time after the examination. It may be of interest to give some details regarding the staff engaged in the conduct of the Scottish Intermediate and Leaving Certificate Examinations. The figures reveal one of the main reasons for the successful working of the Scottish system and also demonstrate, when one compares them with the corresponding figures for an office in India, the devoted and strenuous service of our Indian staffs.

The work is divided between two offices, one in London and the other in Edinburgh. The London office is concerned mainly with the written examination, the Edinburgh office with the oral examination.

Permanent
London Staff.

The Staff employed in London on examination work is as follows:—

(i) *Permanent Staff.*

- 1 Head of Section.
- 1 Senior Clerk.
- 4 Subordinate Clerks.
- 2 Boy Clerks.

The written examination commences in the third week in March. For some months before and after this date additional clerks are employed temporarily, as follows:—

(ii) Temporary Staff.

January	6 clerks, 1 typist.
February	2 clerks, making a total temporary staff of 8 clerks and 1 typist.
March	18 clerks and 4 boy clerks, making a total temporary staff of 26 clerks, 1 typist, 4 boy clerks. In addition, 24 permanent clerks, give 2 hours a day overtime.
April	As for March.
May	The staff of additional clerks is reduced by 8; the 24 permanent clerks continue to give overtime service until the end of May.
June to September	The staff of additional clerks is reduced to 6.

In addition to the above clerical staff 1 messenger, 2 night watchmen and 2 cleaners are employed from January to July, and 6 packers for 6 weeks (3 periods of 2 weeks).

The Staff employed in Edinburgh on examination work is as follows:—

(i) Permanent Staff.

- 1 Head of Section.
- 1 Senior Clerk (part time).
- 4 Clerks.

Permanent
Edinburgh
Staff.

(ii) Temporary Staff.

During periods of pressure, *i.e.*, for some weeks before and after the written examination, additional clerks are employed as follows:—

For about 5 weeks before the examination, 6 clerks (whole time and overtime); 4 clerks and 2 typists (part time).

For about 10 weeks after the examination; 2 senior clerks (a considerable part of their time); 6 clerks and 1 boy clerk (whole

Temporary
Edinburgh
Staff.

time and overtime); 9 clerks, 3 boy clerks and 4 typists (part time).

The work is under the general direction of the Principal Assistant Secretary of the Department. His time and that of a Staff Clerk (highest grade) is almost exclusively absorbed in Intermediate and Leaving Certificate work for about 3 months.

The Department's Suggestions.

As already stated, the Department has exercised considerable influence over the spirit and methods of teaching in the schools. Detailed suggestions are given in its *Memoranda on the Teaching of Various School Subjects* (Wyman and Sons). Guidance of a more general character is given in the prospectus of the Leaving Certificate Examination. The following notes summarise the general suggestions regarding English, History and Geography; these in particular are suggestive for teachers in India.

English.

English.—The principles kept in view in the setting of question papers and in the examination of answer books are:—

1. The first and most essential requirement in the examination is a fair power of writing lucid, connected and grammatical English. The candidate's command of English must appear as much in the general type of his answers as in his faculty for writing a set composition on a prescribed theme; accordingly, in the Intermediate Examination at least, the formal essay, as a test in composition, is occasionally dispensed with altogether.

2. He is expected to give evidence of such power of interpretation as may prove that he has been trained to read with care and thought, and to exercise his mental faculties in endeavouring to discover the meaning of a passage of ordinary difficulty.

3. He must show a comprehension of the principles of English grammar, and a general acquaintance with the leading grammatical rules under some system in common use. But his proficiency in this branch is judged less by formal tests than by the range and precision of his general vocabulary, and by his power of applying grammatical knowledge to the interpretation of words and constructions which actually arise in the course of his reading.

4. In regard to English Literature, the Department think that Leaving Certificate candidates should have some acquaintance with the authorship and period of the leading masterpieces. Multiplicity of biographical or bibliographical detail is deprecated. Knowledge of Literary History should in all cases be based upon a firsthand acquaintance with literature itself, acquired by the careful study of a few well-chosen masterpieces, supplemented by more cursory reading.

STATE EXAMINATIONS IN SCOTTISH SCHOOLS.

in a wider but no less carefully selected range of English classics." Such answers as show independent reading, careful and methodical instruction, or intelligent criticism, are accorded full weight.

The following are the main suggestions applicable to the teaching of History in India :—

1. It is generally assumed that History is a subject which can be read up by itself and that if a text-book be supplied and proper precautions taken to see that it is more or less mastered, nothing more need be done. On the contrary, there is no subject in which oral teaching is more valuable and indispensable; none in which the personality and fitness of the teacher count for more. A qualification in English is not in itself a decisive proof of the necessary knowledge and ability to teach History, and it not infrequently leads to the treatment of History as if it dealt with little more than the development of a language.

2. A school should possess a good library in which some, at any rate, of the larger and more important historical works can be consulted. Pupils should be encouraged to go to standard writers for accounts of special episodes or characters. It would be well to have source-books, in which they could be allowed to compare the text-book summary of a great document with the original document. It is imperatively necessary that there should be a good historical atlas for reference and smaller atlases for actual use by the pupils. These and wall-maps should be constantly referred to. Less important, but still valuable, are portraits of distinguished personages and pictures of celebrated buildings, etc.

3. The acquisition of knowledge will naturally centre round the study of good text-books, but this must be vitalized by the personal knowledge and interest of the teacher and supplemented by a wider range of general reading on the part of the pupils. The aim of historical study should be an intelligent, as opposed to a merely mechanical, knowledge of the vital facts. Pupils should not only understand facts in isolation, they should be able to explain the relation of facts to one another, the sequence of cause and effect. Intelligence is more important than mere memory, and the sequence of events than the details of chronology.

The suggestions regarding Geography are as follows :—

Geography.

1. *Scheme of work.*

As a rule these should include work under all the following heads :—

(a) Practical work,

- (b) General Principles,
- (c) Detailed Studies of selected Geographical Regions in various aspects.
- (d) History of Geography and Geographical Exploration.

(a) Practical Work.

(1) *Map-Work*.—All schools should possess one-inch Ordnance Survey contoured maps of the home area. In addition, a few one-inch Ordnance Survey contoured maps of other parts of the country should be available. Map-work should not be confined to the one-inch scale. Six-inch and half-inch scales should also be used, and one-inch coloured maps, hachured maps, etc., should be familiar to the pupils. Nor should map-work be confined to the study of orographical features only; the pupils should have frequent practice in the comparative use of maps illustrative of the distribution of other sets of facts, vegetation, population, commodities, etc., and of their mutual relation.

(2) *Open-air Excursions* are essential. Direct observation of natural phenomena is the starting-point of the whole science; and even when the stage of symbolic representation has been reached, continued practice in the field is necessary if the study of maps is not to remain merely abstract and unreal.

(3) *Weather-Study* ought not to stop short at the making and recording of observations. The practical work must lead up to principles. Weather records, if properly graphed and analysed, should serve to show the main relations between pressure, temperature, winds, and rainfall. This should lead to construction of weather charts, and study of "weather types," e.g., cyclone, etc.

(4) *Surveying*.—The aim should be to give an insight into methods of producing modern maps. Observations of latitude, azimuth, sun-time, sun-altitude at noon, etc., are instructive and can be made with a considerable degree of accuracy. But to make these observations geographical, they must be applied to the interpretation of distributional data.

(b) General Principles.

(1) Some *Mathematical Geography* should be done, e.g., map-projections (from the point of view of their comparative usefulness), day and night, seasons, latitude and longitude. In this connexion stress is laid on "the use of the globe," an old-fashioned study unduly overrated no doubt at one time, but nowadays too much neglected. A great amount of information can be obtained by skilful manipula-

tion of a good terrestrial globe fitted with meridian, horizon and hour-circle.

(2) *The work of rain, rivers and ice* should receive some attention in the light of modern Physiography. Volcanoes and earthquakes should be considered geographically, not geologically. The same remark applies to rock structure and its effect on relief.

(c) Detailed Studies of Geographical Regions.

(1) Every scheme of work should provide for a fairly detailed study of the various geographical aspects of the country or district in which the school is situated. It is suggested that the pupils should prepare conjointly an account of the Home Region, different aspects—rainfall, vegetation, communications, etc.—being allotted to different pupils, and the final account illustrated by photographs or by diagrams made by the pupils themselves.

(2) This should be supplemented by the study of typical regions other than that exemplified by the Home District.

(3) All schemes of work should provide further for a pretty full study of the Home Country (*i.e.*, India for Indian pupils).

(4) Beyond this it is not advisable to lay down any rigid prescription. An encyclopædic knowledge of the whole world is unnecessary. The facts selected should be such as will illustrate geographical principles. Chief among these are the principles that illuminate human activities in History and in Commerce. Attention should also be given to the main facts and determining principles of Commercial Geography. Pupils should have practice in extracting first-hand statistical information from reliable publications, and in making deductions from them.

(5) Pupils should be able to make sketch maps of the region studied, showing such aspects as relief, rainfall or other distributional data.

(d) The History of Geography and Geographical Exploration—should be considered an essential part of any scheme of Higher Geography. The true “atmosphere” of a foreign country is often more accurately obtained from a book of travel than from a text-book.

The Scottish Reform Committee to whose Report reference has already been made, thus sums up the opinion of Scottish teachers on the effects of the Leaving Certificate system on the schools: “It may be granted at once that these Leaving Certificate Examinations have

The Scottish teacher's opinion of the System.

been one of the most important factors in the great improvement that has taken place in the methods and results of secondary education during the past twenty years. They have helped to give definiteness to the work of the teacher, and thoroughness to the work of the pupil. They have done much to standardise teaching, and they have exerted a powerful and, on the whole, beneficial influence on the curricula and methods of the schools."

It would be unwise for us in India slavishly to copy any foreign system, whatever its merits, but a system which has won the approval of singularly critical minded body of teachers is one to which we can safely look for helpful suggestions.

APPENDIX.

**Regulations relating to School Final and School Leaving
Certificate Examinations in India.**

1. Madras.
2. Bombay.
3. United Provinces.
4. Punjab.
5. Burma.
6. Bihar and Orissa.
7. North-West Frontier Province

**There are no School Final Examinations in Bengal and Assam ;
and the School Leaving Certificate Examination previously
held in the Central Provinces has been abolished pending
the introduction of a revised scheme.**

APPENDIX.

MADRAS.

Secondary School-Leaving Certificates.

1. These certificates may be awarded on the completion of their school course ^{To whom} to boys or girls who— ^{awarded.}

- (1) have attended one or more recognized secondary schools from at least the fourth form upwards.
- (2) have attended each of the fourth, fifth and sixth forms either for not less than 60 per cent. of the number of working days in each term and for not less than 120 working days in each school year, or for not less than 150 working days in each school year.

2. (1) The certificates shall be awarded by a Board consisting of the Director ^{By whom} of Public Instruction as President, five officers of the Government Educational ^{awarded.} service and five non-official members and of each of these groups of five members two shall be appointed on nomination by the Syndicate of the University of Madras.

(2) The members of the Board shall be appointed for a period of three years and shall be eligible for re-appointment.

(3) The Secretary to the Commissioner for Government Examinations shall be Secretary to the Board.

(4) The Board shall arrange for the award of the certificates in accordance with the provisions of this scheme.

3. The certificate will take into account the school work done by the pupil from ^{Scope of} the fourth form upwards, and shall also contain the results of a public examination ^{certificate.} conducted by the Board. It shall show exactly what subjects a pupil has studied and discriminate fairly between one pupil and another as to the benefit he has received from a school course.

The subjects of study will ordinarily include those specified in groups A and B ^{Subjects of} mentioned below and one or more of those specified in list C : ^{study.}

A

Elementary Mathematics.
English.*
Vernacular Composition and Translation including a paper on Test-books.*

B

Science.
Geography and History of India for form IV and History of the British Empire with connected Geography for forms V and VI.
Drawing.
Physical training.
Domestic Economy and Sewing (*for girls*).

* Great weight will be attached to handwriting and spelling and to simplicity and directness of expression.

C

One of the following languages :—

(a) Classical	. . . {	Sanskrit.		Arabic.
		Greek.		Persian.
		Latin.		Hebrew.
(b) Foreign	. . .	French.		German.
(c) Indian vernaculars	. {	Urdu (Hindustani).		Mahratti.
		Kanarese.		Uriya.
		Tamil.		urmes.
		Telugu.		nhalese.
		Malayalam.		

History of England and British India.

Algebra and Geometry.

Practical Mathematics.

Trigonometry.

Botany.

Physics.

Chemistry.

Music.

Agriculture.

Commercial Practice and Geography.

Book-keeping and Commercial Arithmetic.

Shorthand (English or Vernacular) and Type-writing.

Précis-writing and Indexing.

Needle-work and Dress-making.

Lace-work.

Physiology.

Any other subject within the secondary school course.

Preparation of
certificate.

4. (1) Every pupil on entering a fourth form shall be provided with a blank certificate to be kept in the custody of the school so long as he remains there, the entries in the certificate for each term being made in due course by the headmaster.

(2) The results of school work done shall be entered against each subject taught in the school in the form of the number of marks gained out of a maximum of 100 for each subject except in the case of physical training where a general remark will be entered.

(3) The school work of a year in which the pupil is not promoted to a higher form shall not be taken into account; and no term certificate shall be accepted which is not gained in one and the same school.

The public
examination.

5. (1) At the end of the course in the sixth form, the headmaster shall forward to the Secretary to the Board the certificates of such of his pupils as wish to complete them by appearing for the public examination conducted by the Board and as are, in his opinion, competent to appear for that examination.

(2) The certificate of no pupil shall thus be forwarded whose age then is less than 15 years unless he will complete the age of 15 years on or before the first day of the month in which the examination is to be held. It shall, however, be competent to the Director to relax this rule in the case of girls.

(3) A fee of Ra. 12 shall be sent along with each pupil's certificate.

(4) The public examination will include the subjects of group A and any of the subjects of list C.

(5) It will be held at such places and on such dates as may, from time to time, be notified.

(6) The marks obtained out of a maximum of 100 in each subject at this examination will be entered by the Board on the last page of the certificate and the Board shall also be competent to moderate the marks obtained in school work except those obtained in the subjects of group B.

6. (1) The certificates thus filled in and completed shall be returned by the Board to the headmaster of each school for delivery to those who are leaving the school. Award of certificate.

(2) The certificate of a pupil who is not, in the opinion of the headmaster, competent to appear for the public examination shall, if he is leaving the school, be endorsed to that effect over the headmaster's signature. It shall then be forwarded to the Secretary to the Board for inspection and when returned to the headmaster shall be handed to the pupil.

(3) Where evidence is laid before the Director showing that any person to whom a certificate has been or is proposed to be given under the rules has been guilty of what is, in his opinion, a serious offence, the Director may himself cancel or withhold the certificate.

(4) The certificates of pupils who take Sanskrit or any classical or foreign languages under group C will not be considered incomplete because they contain no entry under Vernacular Composition and Translation in group A.

7. (1) If a pupil wishes to improve the certificate thus awarded to him, whether in regard to its quality in one or more subjects already brought up or by bringing up additional subjects under list C, he may go back to the same or any other recognized school and appear at a succeeding examination conducted by the Board in any subject or subjects in which the examination is held. Supplementary certificate.

(2) There shall be no limit to the number of times which a pupil may thus be re-examined.

(3) The fee shall be Rs. 12 for re-examination in a subject or subjects in which a pupil has already been examined by the Board, but a pupil who merely presents additional subjects shall pay a fee of Rs. 3 for each, provided that no pupil shall be called upon to pay more than Rs. 12 on any occasion.

(4) In either case, a further endorsement shall be made on the pupil's original certificate with regard to his progress in a manner similar to that laid down for the entries in the original certificate.

8. The Board shall be competent to propose subsidiary rules as it thinks fit for the estimate of school work done, the conduct of the public examination and other matters connected with the award of certificates subject to the provisions of this scheme. Such rules will be notified from time to time by the Director of Public Instruction. Subsidiary rules.

ANNEXURE.

Suggestions for the recording and assigning of marks for school work.

The Board for the award of Secondary School-Leaving Certificates has considered the desirability of framing rules for the award of marks in school. It has decided that it is not necessary to propose rules in regard to this matter, but the following suggestions are published for the information of heads of schools and commended to their careful consideration :—

1. (i) Each teacher should be provided with a mark-book.
- (ii) On one and the same page entries relating to work in one subject should be made in one form only, a separate page (or pages) being devoted to each separate subject (though not to each sub-division of the same subject) taught by the teacher to each form or section of a form. Thus, a separate page or (pages) will be assigned Recording of marks.

to English Form IV, English Form V, English Form VI, by a teacher who teaches English to all the three forms.

(iii) It is recommended that an invariable maximum be not prescribed for each lesson or exercise, nor for each separate subdivision of any particular subject, but this does not preclude a headmaster from issuing such instructions as shall ensure due regard being paid to the relative importance of the subdivisions of the whole subject, *e. g.*, written composition in English and map-drawing in Geography.

(iv) It should be borne in mind always that the final aggregate mark assigned to the pupil should indicate his attainment in the subject as a whole and not in any particular subdivision. Finally, it is incumbent on the headmaster to endeavour to secure a uniform valuation of the work in his school.

(v) Under "Nature of work" should be indicated the particular subdivision of the subject to which the marks relate, *e. g.*, under English - composition, paraphrase, grammar, etc.

(vi) Such a register will contain a detailed record of the regular, ordinary class-work of the pupils.

(vii) The number of entries each month under each subject or under each subdivision of the subject need not be rigidly prescribed but it should be so regulated that the estimate of the regular school work is neither spasmodic nor based upon insufficient data.

(viii) The marks in this detailed register may be totalled, say, once a month, reduced to a percentage and entered in red ink. These totals should be checked and entered by the headmaster in a separate abstract mark-register maintained exclusively by him. The initials of the teacher assigning the marks may also be entered. For the purpose of this entry the detailed mark-books of each assistant master should be submitted periodically to the headmaster, who will return them without delay. The preparation of terminal totals by the headmaster will thus be easy.

(ix) If occasion demands, there is no reason why remarks relating to behaviour or work should not be entered by the form or assistant master in the detailed register.

Suggestions or
the award of
marks.

2. (i) It is opposed to the very genius of the scheme that, in assigning marks exclusive attention should be paid to mere formal oral answers to formal oral questions, or to mere formal examinations held periodically, or to a combination of both.

(ii) A pupil's position must be determined by a valuation of the ordinary, regular work done by him in his progress through the curriculum of work in each subject.

(iii) This of course does not imply that the work of every lesson and of every period must be assessed. The habit of awarding marks for anything and everything cannot be too strongly deprecated. In such a system everything is sacrificed to marks. On the other hand it does not mean that work should be assessed and marks awarded exclusively on formal stated occasions of which due notice has been given and for which special preparation has been made. Neither of these methods will furnish a true reliable estimate of the work done by a pupil in his school career.

(iv) Whatever system of marking is adopted, it must be subsidiary and supplemental to the ordinary school work, and must on no account dominate it.

(v) There are many occasions in the teaching of every subject which lend themselves readily to the assessment of a pupil's work and which taken in the aggregate will furnish sufficient data for a reliable ultimate valuation, *e. g.*, essays, compositions, paraphrase, translation, written answers in every subject, all mathematical work, maps, laboratory work and records of laboratory work, class notes, preparation notes, library reading notes, products of manual work, drawings, field and garden work, recitation, reading, declamation and oral answers to questions.

(vi) Marks will also be assigned for occasional informal tests involving written or practical work and extending over one or more periods, designed to gauge the degree of assimilation of matter taught.

(vii) It is recommended that marks be assigned only for work done in school as distinguished from home-work.

(viii) The terminal marks for entry in the certificates will be based upon the data thus obtained.

(ix) It is finally recommended that in the case of pupils absent on medical certificate or on leave duly sanctioned, their percentage be calculated on the maximum possible to them, *i. e.*, excluding entirely the marks on their days of absence. The number of absences permissible under this ruling is of course governed by the percentage of attendances required by the regulations of the scheme under which the certificates are awarded.

3. Marks should be entered in the form of *whole numbers*: half a mark or more being regarded as one, and anything less than half excluded altogether.

BOMBAY.

School-leaving Examination.

Constitution and
function of the
Joint Examination
Board.

1. The Joint Examination Board for conducting the School-Leaving Examination shall consist of ten members, five of whom, including the Chairman of the Board, shall be elected by the Senate from among the Ordinary Fellows, three shall be nominated by Government, and two school masters of registered schools in the Presidency shall be co-opted by the other eight members.

2. The office of a member of the Board shall be vacated by death, resignation or by the member being absent from three consecutive ordinary periodical meetings.

3. If a member of the Board elected by the Senate ceases to be an Ordinary Fellow he shall cease to be a member of the Board. If a co-opted member ceases to be a Schoolmaster he shall cease to be a member of a Board.

4. In the event of a vacancy occurring under the provisions of the two last preceding rules, the vacancy shall be filled up by the election, nomination or co-option, as the case may be, of an eligible person by the body concerned, and the person so becoming a member shall hold office during the period for which the member whose place became vacant would have held office.

5. The University Registrar shall be the *ex-officio* Secretary to the Board. It will be competent to the Board to provide the necessary establishment to enable the Secretary to carry on the work of the Board.

6. The Board shall conduct the School-leaving Examination as provided for in the Regulations in that behalf, and it shall be competent to the Board to appoint Examiners and to make all necessary arrangements for the purpose.

7. The Board shall receive the fees paid by candidates for the Examination and, after paying thereout the emoluments of Examiners and all other necessary expenses for conducting the Examination and keeping in hand sufficient working balance for establishment and other charges, hand over the net balance to the University.

8. The Board shall have power to frame by-laws and rules for itself and for the examiners appointed by it, not inconsistent with these regulations or any instructions given by the University and Government jointly.

Registration of
Schools.

9. The Board shall keep a Register of schools permitted to present candidates for the School-leaving Examination.

The conditions which shall ordinarily qualify for registration are —

- (i) that the school supplies a want in the locality in which it is situated,
- (ii) that the management is so constituted as to offer a reasonable prospect that the school will be well conducted;
- (iii) that the teaching staff is sufficient and sufficiently qualified;
- (iv) that the school is housed in suitable buildings and adequately equipped;
- (v) that the resources at the disposal of the Managers are such as to afford a reasonable expectation that the school will be efficiently maintained;
- (vi) that the school maintains regular classes from the 4th standard upwards.

The Board may, at any time, and after due warning to the Managers withdraw recognition from any school for failure to maintain the conditions of registration, provided that such withdrawal has been supported by eight out of the ten members of the Board.

10. It shall be the duty of every registered school—

- (a) to supply the Board with such returns and information as it may require;
- (b) to afford facilities for inspection to the members or representatives of the Board;

(c) to maintain a school-record in the prescribed form for every pupil in the 6th and 7th Anglo-Vernacular Standards (or those corresponding to them in the case of other schools).

11. The Examination will be held once a year at Bombay and at such other places * Date of examination. as shall from time to time be determined by the Joint Board, commencing on the third Monday in March. It shall be competent to the Joint Board to hold one additional Examination, at some other convenient time in the year, for such candidates only as are qualified under the Regulations to appear at the March Examination of that calendar year.

12. A candidate for the School-leaving Examination must have completed sixteen years of age on or before the 1st of August next following. Condition for admission to the examination.

13. Candidates must forward their applications to the Secretary one month before the commencement of the Examination.

14. If a candidate, at the date of his application for permission to appear at the School-leaving Examination, belongs to a Registered School, he must submit his application through the Head Master of such School in the prescribed form.

15. If a candidate, at the date of his application for permission to appear at the School-leaving Examination, does not belong to a Registered School, he must appear at a Preliminary Examination to be conducted by any Registered School approved by the Board for that purpose, on payment of a fee fixed by the Board, and submit his application through the Head Master of such School with a certificate from the latter that he considers the candidate a fit person, as regards character and knowledge, to be admitted to the Examination. If such candidate has, during the period commencing from the month of June of the year preceding that in which he applies, attended any Registered School or Schools, his application must further be countersigned by the Head Master of each such School.

16. One month before the commencement of the Examination, each candidate must pay or cause to be paid to the Secretary at Bombay or to such person as he may appoint in the Mofussil, a fee of Rs. 12, for which a receipt will be given.

17. Failure to pass the Examination will not disqualify the candidate for again presenting himself at any subsequent School-leaving Examination on a new application being forwarded and a fresh fee paid.

18. As soon as practicable after the conclusion of the Examination, the Board will publish a list of successful candidates arranged in alphabetical order showing the subjects in which they have passed and the total number of marks obtained by each candidate in each subject and the name of his school. Publication of results.

19. The certificate granted to the candidates will show the subjects in which they have passed, or passed with distinction. Each certificate must bear the holder's signature in English. These certificates will be issued through the heads of the schools from which the candidates appeared. Certificates.

20. The Board will conduct Examinations in the following subjects :—

Syllabus of examination.

- (1) English,
- (2) The Vernaculars of the Presidency (Marathi, Gujarati, Kanarese, Sindhi, Urdu and Portuguese) or an additional course in English,
- (3) Additional languages (Sanskrit, Avesta and Pahlavi, Arabic, Persian, Hebrew, Latin, Greek, French and German),
- (4) Arithmetic,
- (5) Algebra and Geometry,
- (6) History,
- (7) Geography,
- (8) Elementary Science,
- (9) Drawing.

The following places have been appointed by the Board.—Poona, Ahmedabad, Karachi, Surat, Dharwar and Rajkot.

- (10) Manual Training,
- (11) Book-keeping and Commercial Correspondence,
- (12) Shorthand and Typewriting,
- (13) Domestic Science (for girls);

and such other subjects as the Board may approve.

A candidate may present himself in as many of the above subjects or other subjects approved by the Board as he likes.

21. The Board shall frame a syllabus showing the nature of the examination in each subject in accordance with the following instructions or such other instructions as may be given from time to time by the University and Government jointly. The syllabus adopted by the Board shall be reported to the University and Government and published :—

English.—There shall be two papers including questions on prescribed texts and on grammar, composition, a passage for translation from the vernacular (with an option for those who do not offer any vernacular) and unseen passages.

Vernaculars.—There shall be one paper including questions on prescribed texts and on grammar, and composition and unseen passages and translation from English.

Additional Language.—There shall be one paper containing unseen passages for translation from and into English and questions in grammar.

Arithmetic.—There shall be one paper of two hours.

Algebra and Geometry.—There shall be two papers, each of two hours.

History.—There shall be one paper containing questions in the Histories of England and India.

Geography.—There shall be one paper containing questions on general geography (Physical, Political and Commercial) and on the geography of the British Empire in particular.

Elementary Science.—There shall be one paper containing questions on the course approved by the Board.

Drawing.

Manual Training.

Book-keeping and

Commercial Correspondence.

Shorthand and Typewriting.

Domestic Science (for girls).

There shall be one paper in each subject containing questions on the course approved by the Board.

Conduct of the examination.

22. The Examination shall be conducted by means of printed papers and in the following subjects also by *Oral and Practical tests* :—

Shorthand and Typewriting, Manual Training, Drawing, Domestic Science (if the Board deems it necessary). There shall be a written examination but no practical examination in Elementary Science.

23. Prior to admission to the Examination each candidate shall be required to produce a certificate from the Head Master of a registered school showing that he possesses facility in speaking and reading English and that he has completed a course in Vernacular (or Optional English) and Geography prescribed by the Board, and if he offers Elementary Science, that he has carried out satisfactorily the practical course prescribed.

24. The candidates must answer the printed question papers in English.

25. The Board will require the examiners in each subject to submit a detailed report on the work of the candidates examined by them, which will be circulated to the schools, and the Board will, as soon as possible after the publication of the results of each year's examination, publish a general report on the examination.

Pass marks.

26. To pass the Examination the candidate must obtain 33 per cent. of the full marks in each paper in English and in the paper in additional language, 25 per cent.

APPENDIX.

of the full marks in each of the other subjects and 33 per cent. in the grand total. Should a candidate, however, fail by not more than three marks in one paper only in English or by any number of marks in one of the other subjects, he shall be declared to have passed the examination if, on a review of his marks, a majority of not less than two-thirds of the examiners present at the final meeting decide that he should pass, provided always that no candidate shall so pass unless he obtains at least 40 per cent. of the total marks in all subjects.

N. B. (i).—The marks allotted to the papers and practical Examinations are as follows :—

100 marks to each Paper of three hours and to the Practical Examinations in each subject and 75 marks to each Paper of two hours.

To gain distinction in a subject a candidate must obtain 66 per cent. of the full marks in that subject.

N. B. (ii).—For passing under rule 26 Arithmetic, Algebra and Geometry will be considered as one subject and marks will be lumped together for that purpose.

27. The School-leaving Examination certificate will be accepted by the University of Bombay for the purposes of Matriculation, provided the candidate has passed at one and the same examination in English, an additional language, Arithmetic, Algebra and Geometry, History and has produced a certificate from the Head Master of a registered school showing that he possesses a satisfactory knowledge of Geography, Vernacular (or Optional English) and Elementary Science according to the courses prescribed by the Board and has carried out satisfactorily the practical courses prescribed in the latter subject.

Recognition of
the Certificate
for entrance to
the University
and Government
Service.

28. A candidate who produces a certificate from the Head Master of a registered school showing that he possesses a satisfactory knowledge of Geography and who passes the school leaving Examination in English, Arithmetic and History shall be qualified for Government service provided that he also passes at the same examination or within two years in a Vernacular and any two of the following subjects, namely, Algebra and Geometry, Elementary Science, Book-keeping and Commercial Correspondence, Shortband and Typewriting, and (in the case of girls) Domestic Science.

UNITED PROVINCES.

School-Leaving Certification Examination.

Constitution
and functions of
the Central Exa-
mination Board.

1. The Central Examination Board consists of the Director of Public Instruction and the Registrar of Departmental Examinations *ex-officio*, five members appointed by the Government, two members nominated by the University, one member nominated by the Chamber of Commerce, and one member of the staff of the Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee, nominated by the Principal. These nominations will be subject to the approval of Government. Members shall hold office for three years. The Director of Public Instruction is the president of the board.

2. The Registrar of Departmental Examinations is the Registrar of the examination and Secretary to the Central Examination Board.

3. The duties of the board are :—

- (1) to prescribe courses ;
- (2) to consider courses proposed by schools in lieu of those prescribed ;
- (3) to appoint examiners ;
- (4) to lay down rules and standards of examination ;
- (5) to consider the reports of examiners ;
- (6) to bring out the results of the examination ;
- (7) to issue a printed report yearly on the conduct of the examination and the work done.

4. Head masters of recognized schools intending to send up candidates for the examination should inform the Registrar in the month of September of their intention, and should specify the vernacular or vernaculars in which the candidates are to be examined, as also the optional subject or subjects to be offered by them. Applications for admission to the examination should be forwarded to the Registrar not later than the 15th of October.

5. Examiners will be furnished by the Registrar with lists schoolwise of those candidates whose applications have been entertained, and copies of the lists will be furnished to the head masters concerned.

6. Examiners shall send to the Registrar a statement of the marks gained by the candidates, together with their recommendations as to passes and failures. They will also send in therewith a report on the quality of the work in each school, with any suggestions that may be needed for its improvement. The results will be brought out by the Central Examination Board. The general report of the Central Examination Board will be printed for distribution to Inspectors and head masters of schools concerned.

Recognition of
Schools.

7. A school desiring to be recognized for the purposes of this examination should apply in the prescribed forms to the Inspector, in the year preceding that in which it proposes to open classes in preparation for the examination, for permission to send up candidates, stating the optional subjects which it intends to offer. Recognition must be separately obtained for each optional subject taken up. The Inspector, after making such enquiry as he may deem fit, will, if he supports the application, forward it with his recommendation to the Director by March 1st. If the Inspector is unable to support the application he will inform the school specifically of his reasons for rejecting it. An appeal from the Inspector's decision may be made to the Director, whose decision in all cases is final. The schools recognized for the School-Leaving Certificate should report immediately to the Inspector any change in the *personnel*, or in the pay, qualifications and number of teachers.

8. If the Inspector is of opinion that any school recognised for the School-Leaving Certificate Examination in any subject, compulsory or optional, has by reasons of defect in regard to staff, equipment or accommodation become unable to provide due preparation for the School-Leaving Certificate Examination, he shall specify

these defects in writing to the school authorities and report the matter at the same time to the Director.

9. On receipt of this report the Director will direct the Inspector to warn the school authorities that unless within a period, which shall be fixed by the Director, but which shall not be less than one year, the school satisfies the department that it has removed the defects complained of and again attained the standard required by the department, the school will be struck off the list of schools recognized for the School-Leaving Certificate Examination with effect from the school year next ensuing.

10. If within the time fixed by the Director the school fails to satisfy the department that the defects complained of have been removed, the Director may strike off the school from the list of recognized schools.

11. The Director will every year in the month of March furnish the Registrar with a list of schools recognized for the purposes of the examination, specifying the subject or subjects in which recognition has been granted.

12. The examination will be open to all candidates who have completed sixteen years of age on or before May 1st in the year in which it is held, and who have attended a school duly recognized by the department for the School-Leaving Certificate Examination, and have obtained 75 per cent of attendances at school meetings held during the two sessions previous to the date fixed for sending in applications, i.e., one full session in class IX and one in class X up to 15th October, when the names are sent up for the examination. Conditions for admission to the Examination.

Note.—In the case of candidates who failed in the School-Leaving Certificate Examination in a previous year the percentage of attendances for one session only is taken into account (i.e., for the session in class X in which they reattend the class) and the calculation is made up to 15th October, when the names are sent up.

13. Application for admission must be made in the prescribed form. Headmasters are not entitled to detain candidates who have fulfilled the conditions laid down in the rules except in special cases and with the express sanction of the Divisional Inspector.

14. No fee is charged for admission to the examination.

15. Candidates who appear for the examination and fail are eligible for readmission in subsequent years, provided that they continued to attend school regularly but no candidate will be allowed to appear for the examination more than three times. In case of transfer from one recognized school to another, the scholar's records should be transferred to the school to which he migrates.

16. Admission forms shall not be issued by head masters to the candidates till a week before the examination commences, and may be withheld if scholars are irregular in attendance after their names have been sent up for the examination. Scholars from whom admission forms are withheld under this rule will be excluded from the examination and their names and the reasons for exclusion should be at once reported to the Registrar, Departmental Examinations, United Provinces.

17. The following will be the subjects of examination, and candidates will be required to pass in each subject:— Syllabus of examination.

Compulsory.

- (1) English.
- (2) Mathematics, including—
 - Arithmetic.
 - Algebra.
 - Geometry.
 - Mensuration.

- (3) (a) History of India, including an outline of the present system of administration in India.
 (b) General Geography.
- (4) The vernacular of the candidate. Those whose vernacular is English will be examined in an Indian vernacular.

N. B.—The Vernacular from which translation is to be made into English in the first paper of English will be the same as the vernacular offered by the candidate under sub-head (4) above, and a question paper will be given to him accordingly.

Optional.

- (1) One of the following classical languages :—
 Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, and Latin.
- (2) Commerce.
- (3) Science (Physics and Chemistry).
- (4) A further course in Mathematics, including Mechanics and Trigonometry.
- (5) Agricultural Botany.
- (6) Drawing.
- (7) Manual Training.
- (8) A modern European Language.
- (9) Domestic Science.

N. B.—Candidates must take up one optional subject for examination, and no candidate will be examined in more than one. A candidate who has passed the School-Leaving Certificate Examination may present himself for examination in any subsequent year in one or more different optional subjects and will not be required to take the compulsory subjects again. Students studying in Colleges are not allowed to appear in the School-Leaving Certificate Examination in an additional optional subject under this note.

Courses of study.

18. Courses of study are prescribed for each optional subject but schools are at liberty to propose instead their own course on similar lines. The test in each optional subject is laid down in the syllabus.

19. Head masters proposing courses in lieu of those prescribed should submit them to the Registrar through the Inspector in the month of September for the approval of the board. A course which has been approved may not be changed till it has run for three years.

Date and conduct of the examination.

20. The written examination will be held towards the end of March or at the beginning of April. The oral examinations will be held during the months of January, February and March. The exact dates will be communicated to each school by the examiner.

21. In the written examination great consideration will be given to handwriting, spelling and accuracy, and neatness of work.

22. The oral and practical examinations will be conducted at the candidate's school and the written examinations at centres to be notified from year to year. A full record kept by the class teacher of the work done in the subject under examination must be submitted by the head master to the oral or practical examiner, and the question papers and answer books of candidates at terminal examinations must also be produced for reference. A record of all written and practical work done by students in the class rooms must be kept and produced for the inspection of the examiners, together with a list of candidates showing the opinion of the head master as to the abilities of the candidates.

Note.—When the number of candidates in a hill school falls below ten, the candidates may be required to attend another centre for the oral and practical examinations.

Particulars required for each candidate.

23. The head masters should submit to the Registrar before May 1st, in the prescribed form, the following particulars for each candidate :—

- (i) The percentage of possible marks obtained by each candidate in each subject in all school examinations which he had attended during the two years prior to the public examination. The percentages in (a) class tests and (b) periodical examinations should be given separately.

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In the case of candidates who failed in the School-Leaving Certificate Examination in a previous year percentage of possible marks obtained by them during the year in which they reattend class X school be given.

(ii) A recommendation for each subject as to whether in the opinion of the head master -

- (a) the candidate deserves to pass (" P ");
- (b) the candidate does not deserve to pass (" F ");
- (c) the candidate's success is doubtful (" D ").

These particulars will be taken into account in the award of the certificates. To enable the accuracy of the marks to be tested, the head master should not destroy the records of any candidate for one year.

24. A list of candidates who pass the examination will be published in the *United Provinces Government Gazette*. Publication of results.

25. The Registrar of the examination will grant certificates in the prescribed Award of certificates. form to candidates who pass the examination.

PUNJAB

Matriculation and School-Leaving Certificate Examination.Date and centre
of examination.

The Matriculation and School-Leaving Certificate Examination shall be held annually at such places as may be appointed by the Syndicate, and the examination shall begin on the first working day after the sixth day of March or such other date as may be fixed by the Syndicate :

Provided that except with the special permission of the Syndicate, every candidate shall be required to appear at the centre nearest to the place where he has been studying.

Condition of
admission to
the examination.

2. The examination shall be open to—

- (a) any pupil of a recognized school who—
- (i) has his name submitted to the Registrar by the Manager or the Head Master of the recognised school he has most recently attended ;
 - (ii) produces the following certificates signed by the Head Master of the recognised school he has most recently attended :—
 - (1) of good character ;
 - (2) that he will have completed his fifteenth year on or before the 1st April of the calendar year of the examination ;
 - (3) of having completed an adequate course * of study for the Matriculation and School-Leaving Certificate Examination† ;
- (b) any private candidate eligible under the rules prescribed by the University who produces the following certificates signed or countersigned by the Head Master of a recognized school, by the Inspector or Assistant Inspector of the Circle ; or by the Deputy Commissioner of the District, or, in the case of Native States, an officer of equivalent position :—
- (1) of good character ;
 - (2) that he will have completed his fifteenth year on or before the 1st April of the calendar year of the examination ;
 - (3) of not having read in any school whatsoever at any time during the nine months previous to the examination (except in the case of (a) female students of unrecognised schools, (b) pupils of unrecognised Night Schools and (c) other candidates from unrecognised schools who may be admitted as private candidates by the Syndicate) ;

Provided that the Syndicate shall have power to exclude any candidate from the examination if it is satisfied that such candidate is not a fit person to be admitted thereto.

3. Every candidate shall forward his application on the form prescribed to the Registrar at least eight weeks before the commencement of the examination, accompanied by a fee of twelve rupees, or in the case of a private candidate of twenty rupees, and a statement (1) showing the place at and the subjects in which he desires to be examined, and (2) recording the vernacular or vernaculars he proposes to use for translation. Female private candidates shall be required to pay only the ordinary fee of rupees twelve. A candidate who fails to pass or to present himself for the examination shall not be entitled to claim a refund of the fee ; but he may be admitted to one or more subsequent examinations on payment of a like fee of twelve rupees, or in the case of a private candidate of twenty rupees on each occasion.

* " Adequate course " means 75 per cent. of attendances counted from the opening of the class. In the case of those who join the class after having failed the examination, 75 per cent. of attendance should be calculated on the possible attendances from the next month after the publication of the results to the month when the names are sent up for the examination.

† A candidate struck off the rolls of a school after sending up his application ceases to be eligible for the Examination.

4. (a) The examination shall be conducted by means of question papers, the same questions being set in every place where the examination is held. Conduct of the examination.

(b) An oral and practical examination shall be held in the following :—

- (1) Physics and Chemistry.
- (2) Physiology and Hygiene.

English shall be the medium of examination in all subjects; that is to say, the questions set by the examiners shall be set in English, and the answers written by the candidates shall be written in English. Provided that in the case of Oriental and Vernacular languages, the answers shall be written in the vernacular of the candidates.

5. The following are the subjects of examination with the numbers of papers and the scale of marks allotted to each— Syllabus of examination.

<i>Compulsory Subjects.</i>		<i>Marks.</i>
For all candidates—		
1. English, two papers		200
For non-Matriculation candidates—		
2. Arithmetic, one paper		100
<i>Elective Subjects.</i>		
<i>Group A :—</i>		
3. A Classical language, two papers (Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, Hebrew, Latin or Greek).		150
4. Mathematics, two papers		150
5. Physics and Chemistry, two papers (Oral and Practical).		150
6. History and Geography.		150
Any two of the following as one subject :—		
I.—Indian History, one paper		75
II.—English History, one paper		75
III.—Geography, one paper		75
IV.—Commercial Geography, one paper		75
7. Agriculture, two papers (Oral and Practical).		150
8. Physiology and Hygiene, two papers (Oral and Practical).		150
9. Drawing, two papers		150
10. An Indian Vernacular, two papers (Urdu, Hindi, Panjabi, Pashtu, or Bengali).		150
11. French, two papers		150
12. Domestic Economy, two papers		150
<i>Group B :—</i>		
1. Shorthand and Typewriting		150
2. Book-keeping and Commercial Arithmetic		150
3. Dictation, Calligraphy, and Correspondence		150

6. Every non-Matriculation candidate must take English, Arithmetic, and three elective subjects. A candidate for Matriculation must take English, Mathematics and two subjects from Group A, of which at least one must be taken from among (3) a Classical language, (4) Physics and Chemistry, and (5) History and Geography. He may also take one additional subject from Group A; passing in which shall not be necessary for Matriculation.

7. The minimum number of marks required to pass this examination shall be Pass marks. thirty-three per cent. in each subject. In each Science subject this percentage is required in the written examination and in the aggregate, but only twenty-five per cent. in the practical examinations.

Every candidate who passes in English, Arithmetic and at least one other subject shall be entitled to a School-Leaving Certificate stating in what subjects he has passed.

To qualify for Matriculation a candidate must pass in English, and in the three subjects of Group A taken up by him :

Provided that a candidate who obtains *thirty-three* per cent. in the aggregate of five subjects but less than the pass percentage required by not more than five marks in one subject only shall be deemed to have passed in the five subjects. Exception : A candidate must obtain *twenty-five* per cent. of the marks in the Oral and practical test of any Science subject.

8. A candidate who having passed in English, Arithmetic and a group of three other subjects that does not qualify him for Matriculation may present himself for examination in a subsequent year taking one or more subjects from Group A as may be required to complete a group of subjects accepted for the purposes of Matriculation ; and if he pass in these he shall be deemed to have qualified for Matriculation. A candidate who has qualified for Matriculation may present himself for examination in a subsequent year taking one or more subjects from Group B not accepted for Matriculation, and if he pass shall receive a certificate of so passing.

A candidate who has passed in English and one or two other subjects may reappear in the whole examination in a subsequent year, either in the same or in other subjects.

9. Candidates who gain *four hundred and fifty* marks or more shall be placed in the First Division ; those who gain not less than *three hundred* marks in the Second Division ; and all below in the Third Division.

Courses of study. 10. The Courses of Reading are prescribed by the Senate. In cases where text-books are prescribed, the candidates will be required not only to show a thorough knowledge of the text-books, but also to answer questions of a similar standard set with a view of testing their general knowledge of the subject. Test-books can be changed, from time to time, by the Syndicate, with the approval of the Senate.

Publication of results. 11. Six weeks after the commencement of the examination, or as soon thereafter as possible, the Registrar shall publish a list of the candidates who have passed in all subjects, showing in which division each has passed and which candidates have qualified for Matriculation ; a list of those who have passed in English and one or two other subjects ; a list of those who have passed in additional subjects ; and a list of Oriental Faculty candidates who have passed in English only. Each successful candidate shall be granted a certificate showing in what subjects he has passed.

Candidates holding Oriental Titles. 12. Any candidate who has passed the Proficiency, High Proficiency, or Honours Examination in Arabic, Sanskrit, or Persian, shall if he so desire, be exempted from passing in that language, provided that he goes up within two years of his so passing, and that in awarding marks for that language in which he may have obtained a certificate, "pass marks" be taken as representing the value of those marks.

BURMA.

The Anglo-Vernacular High School Final Examination.

1. (a) The Anglo-Vernacular High School Final Examination will be conducted by the Education Department with the assistance of an Advisory Board appointed by the Local Government and consisting of persons representing University and Secondary Education and non-official as well as official educational agencies. The examination will be open to all candidates (male or female) who have completed 16 years of age on or before November 1st and who are in attendance at an Anglo-Vernacular High School recognized by the Education Department, provided that they have been in continuous attendance at the same for the two years *immediately previous* to the date of the examination.

Control.

Conditions for admission to the examination.

(b) Cases of transfer in which exemption from the payment of school fees has been sanctioned by the Inspector of Schools will not be regarded as breaches of continuous attendance for the purposes of these rules.

Transfers.

(c) Candidates who have appeared for the examination but failed will be permitted to appear at the next examination, provided that they rejoin school within 15 days of the declaration of results in the *Burma Gazette* or as soon as the school re-opens after the publication of the results.

Re-examination.

2. Candidates who are not in attendance at any recognized school will not be admitted to the examination except in special cases at the discretion of the Director of Public Instruction, to whom application should be made through an Inspector of Schools. Each application must contain a full statement of the case and must be vouched for by the employer of the applicant or by some other responsible person to whom the applicant is personally known. Applications must be supported by testimonials to education, character and conduct. Candidates permitted to appear should send in their admission fee, together with the form of application for admission duly filled up, to the Inspector of Schools in whose circle they reside not later than the 1st December.

Admission of candidates from unrecognised schools.

3. The following will be the subjects of the examination :—

Syllabus of examination.

(a) *Compulsory*—

- (1) Arithmetic.
- (2) English.
- (3) A Vernacular language (Burmese, Tamil, Telugu, Bengali, Urdu, Gujarati).
- (4) General Geography, with special reference to the British Empire.

(b) *Optional*—

- (1) The History of Burma and a period of Indian or English History.
- (2) Pāli.
- (3) Persian.
- (4) Latin.
- (5) Sanskrit.
- (6) Advanced English—
 1. Six selected books.
 2. A short essay.
- (7) Book-keeping and Commercial Correspondence.
- (8) Mensuration and Elementary Surveying.
- (9) Mathematics.
- (10) Physics and Chemistry.
- (11) Elementary Physiology and Hygiene (for boys only) or Domestic Economy and Hygiene (for girls only).

(12) Shorthand and typewriting.

(13) Drawing.

(14) Agriculture.

(15) Any other subject approved by the Director.

Examination
papers, etc.

4. In addition to the compulsory subjects candidates are required to take two and may not take more than four optional subjects. Candidates who take History as an optional subject may, if they fail in Geography, compensate for such failure by passing in History, provided that they also pass in two other optionals.

5. Papers will be of three hours' length. Compulsory papers on languages will include a short essay as well as questions on grammar, general questions and (in the case of vernacular) translation. In papers on vernacular languages alternative questions which may be taken in lieu of the essay will be set for candidates whose vernacular is English.

6. Practical tests (in addition to written papers in certain cases) will be held in such subjects as admit of such procedure.

7. Special stress will be laid upon spelling, handwriting and neatness, and gross deficiencies in these respects will render a candidate liable to fail.

8. Candidates must pass in the compulsory and in two optional subjects.

9. Candidates will be assigned numbers which they will write in lieu of their names upon their answer papers.

Centres of
examination.

10. The examination will be held at centres to be notified annually by the Department of Education. Such centres will include the following places:—Rangoon, Mandalay, Bassein, Akyab, Prome, Minbu, Moulmein, Tavoy, Henzada.

Applications
for admission.

11. Applications for admission to the examination under Rule 1 must be forwarded to the Inspector of Schools of the circle within whose charge the candidate's school falls by the Superintendent (or in the case of Government schools by the Principal or Head Master) of the school not later than the 15th December.

Time table of
the examina-
tion.
Fees.

12. The date of the examination, together with a scheme of papers and oral or practical tests, will be notified annually six months in advance in the *Burma Gazette*.

13. A fee of Rs. 12, which must be paid to the Inspector of Schools in whose charge the candidate's school falls, will be levied from each candidate. Superintendents, Principals and Head Masters when submitting applications will forward the fees along with them. Fees will not be returned to candidates who, after application for admission, fail to appear for the examination. Candidates will be required to pay a fresh fee for each examination at which they appear.

Publication of
results.

14. A list of candidates passing the examination will be published in the *Burma Gazette*. The list will show successful candidates according to schools. Certificates signed by the Director of Public Instruction will be awarded to successful candidates. The subjects in which a candidate passes will be enumerated on the certificate.

The register numbers of candidates who fail in the examination will be published in the *Burma Gazette*, the subjects in which they fail being indicated.

The results of the examination as published in the *Burma Gazette* are final. The Director will not consider any application for revision of the pass or failure list, and will not enter into correspondence concerning the marks obtained by any candidate.

Annual report
of the examina-
tion.

15. The Director of Public Instruction will issue annually, after the publication of the results of the examination for the year, a memorandum dealing generally with the main features of the examination and indicating points in which progress or retrogression has been noticed in the various subjects.

BIHAR AND ORISSA.

The Bihar and Orissa School-Leaving Certificate Examination.

1. The examination is under the control of a School-Leaving Certificate Control Administrative Board assisted by a Board of Studies.

2. The School-Leaving Certificate Administrative Board consists of the Director of Public Instruction as *ex-officio* President and the Registrar of Examinations, as *ex-officio* Secretary together with eight members appointed by Government, of whom three are appointed on the nomination of the Patna University, and two to represent the recognized non-Government schools. At least three members must be non-officials. The Administrative Board.

3. The duties of the Administrative Board are—

- (1) to frame regulations,
- (2) to conduct, and to bring out the results of the examinations;
- (3) to consider the reports of the examiners;
- (4) to issue a printed report yearly on the conduct of the examination and the work done.

4. The Board of Studies is formed from among the members of the Administrative Board together with such other persons selected by them and approved by Government as may be necessary. It consists of six or eight members and its duties are— The Board of Studies.

- (1) to prescribe courses,
- (2) to consider courses proposed by schools in place of those prescribed,
- (3) to moderate examination papers, and
- (4) to recommend examiners to the Administrative Board

The Board of Studies is divided into six sub-committees, each of which is empowered to co-opt experts at its discretion. The proceedings of the Board of Studies are subject to review by the Administrative Board.

5. A school desiring to be recognised for the purpose of the School-Leaving Certificate Examination must apply to the Inspector in the year preceding that in which it is proposed to open classes preparing for the examination. The application must state the optional subjects which it is intended that the school should teach. Recognition must be separately obtained for each optional subject. The Inspector, after making such enquiry as he may deem fit, will, if he supports the application, forward it with his recommendation to the Director before April 1st. If the Inspector is unable to support the application, he will inform the school authorities specifically of the reasons for rejecting it. An appeal from the Inspector's decision may be made to the Director, whose decision in all cases will be final. Schools recognized for the School-Leaving Certificate Examination must report immediately to the Inspector any change in the *personnel* or in the pay, qualifications and number of their teachers. A school may prepare candidates for both the School-Leaving Certificate and Matriculation Examinations. Recognition of schools.

6. If the Inspector is of opinion that any school recognized for the School-Leaving Certificate Examination in any subject, compulsory or optional, has by reason of defects in regard to staff, equipment or accommodation become unable to provide due preparation for the examination, he will specify these defects in writing to the school authorities and report the matter at the same time to the Director.

7. On receipt of this report the Director will instruct the Inspector to warn the school authorities that, unless within a period, which will be fixed by the Director but which will not be less than one year, the school satisfies the Department that it has removed the defects complained of and has again attained the standard required

by the Department, the school will be struck off the list of schools recognized for the School-Leaving Certificate Examination with effect from the school year next ensuing.

8. If, within the time fixed by the Director, the school fails to satisfy the Department that the defects complained of have been removed, the Director may strike off the school from the list of recognized schools.

9. The Director will every year in the month of August publish in the *Bihar and Orissa Gazette* a list of schools recognized for the purpose of the examination, specifying the subject or subjects in which recognition has been granted.

Nature of the scheme. 10. The scheme for the award of a School-Leaving Certificate consists of three parts :—

- (a) A record of progress in school.
- (b) A public examination.
- (c) An examination *in situ* by the Inspector and, where necessary, others associated with him.

The school record.

11. The school record is prepared by the Headmaster, who is required to submit to the Registrar of Examinations three marks on each subject for each candidate from his school. The first of these marks will give the percentage of marks obtained by the pupil in all school examinations of whatever kind in each subject during the three years prior to the public examination. The second mark will be the average mark of the class in each separate subject. The third mark will give the Headmaster's general estimate of the pupil's ability and industry, based on the teacher's opinion of the candidate's class work as revealed in note books and answers to class questions. When a pupil has spent more than one year in any of the three highest classes, the mark for each year must be shewn. To enable the accuracy of these marks to be tested, Headmasters are required to preserve, for one year after the School-Leaving Certificate Examination, all the exercise books and examination papers written by candidates in the three senior classes of their schools. They are also required to preserve all mark registers. A separate exercise book should be used by each pupil for each subject.

The Public Examination.

12. The public examination will be conducted, as far as practicable, at the candidate's school, but candidates from two or more schools in the same town may be collected at a single centre for the written examination in any subject.

13. The written examination will be held at all centres simultaneously and shortly before the Matriculation Examination. No fee will be charged for admission to the examination. Candidates who appear at the School-Leaving Certificate Examination may also appear at the Matriculation Examination if duly qualified under the rules.

Note.—The School-Leaving Certificate Examination is recognized by the Patna University as equivalent to their Matriculation Examination provided that candidates pass the School-Leaving Certificate Examination in those subjects which would have been compulsory for them had they appeared at the Matriculation Examination; provided also that of the optional subjects included in the School-Leaving Certificate scheme any one of the following shall be accepted in place of a classical language (where such would have been compulsory) :—

- (1) Physics and chemistry.
- (2) A further course in Mathematics, including Mechanics and Trigonometry.
- (3) Botany (for female candidates).
- (4) A modern European language.
- (5) Vernacular literature and grammar, for those whose mother-tongue is not one of the recognized vernaculars.

Syllabus of examination.

14. The following are the subjects of examination :—

Compulsory subjects.

- (i) English.
- (ii) Mathematics.
- (iii) The vernacular of the candidate.

Note.—(1) Those whose vernacular is English will be examined in an Indian vernacular.

(2) The second paper in the vernacular will not be compulsory for those whose mother-tongue is not one of the recognized vernaculars.

- (iv) The History of India, including the outlines of the present system of administration with such parts of the history of England as are connected with Indian history.
- (v) General geography, outlines, including the elements of mathematical and physical geography with the geography of India in further detail.

N. B.—Candidates will be required to pass in each of the compulsory subjects.

Optional subjects.

- (i) One of the following classical languages—
Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, Latin and Greek.
- (ii) Commerce, including book-keeping, commercial arithmetic, commercial correspondence and commercial geography.
- (iii) Office work including type-writing, shorthand, précis writing, indexing, drafting and docketing.
- (iv) Physics and chemistry.
- (v) A further course in Mathematics, including Mechanics and Trigonometry.
- (vi) Botany.
- (vii) Agriculture with Surveying.
- (viii) Drawing.
- (ix) Manual Training.
- (x) A modern European language.
- (xi) Domestic science.
- (xii) Needle-work and dress-making.
- (xiii) Vernacular literature and grammar for those whose mother-tongue is not one of recognized vernaculars.

N. B. (1).—Candidates must take up two optional subjects for the examination and no candidate will be examined in more than two such subjects along with the compulsory subjects. A candidate, who has passed the School-Leaving Certificate Examination, may present himself for examination in the ensuing year in one, or at most two, different optional subjects, provided he has attended instruction in these subjects at school during that year. He will not be required to take the compulsory subjects again.

N. B. (2).—In the written examination great consideration will be given to handwriting, spelling and accuracy, and neatness of work.

15. The following is the scheme of marks for the examination:—

	Maximum marks.	Pass marks.
English (with oral 100)	400	36 per cent
Mathematics	250	30 "
Vernacular	200	36 "
History	100	30 "
Geography	100	30 "
Two optional subjects (200 each) *	400	40 "
Total	1,450	36 per cent.

Scheme of marks.

* Failure in these will not involve failure in the examination.

N. B. (1).—A candidate getting 30 marks or more in an optional subject will be credited with these marks in his aggregate, though in the certificate he will not be declared to have passed in that subject. 100 marks will be assigned to the oral examination in English. A student getting 36 per cent, or more in his oral examination will have this fact noted in his certificate.

N. B. (2).—A candidate who passes in each subject and obtains 75 per cent. of the marks in any one subject (including oral English) will be declared to have obtained distinction in that subject.

16. A syllabus showing the courses in compulsory and optional subjects is prescribed. These courses cover four years, but it is only necessary to keep the records prescribed in rule 11 for the last three years of the course. Schools are at liberty to propose other courses on similar lines in optional subjects.

17. Schools proposing such courses, in place of those prescribed, must submit them to the Registrar of Examinations through the Inspector in the month of January for the approval of the Board of Studies. A course which has been approved must not be changed till it has run for three years.

18. Headmasters of recognized schools intending to send up candidates for the examination must inform the Registrar of Examination in the month of December preceding of their intention and must specify the subjects including the vernacular or vernaculars in which the candidates are to be examined. Applications for admission to the examination must be forwarded to the Registrar of Examinations not later than January.

Conditions for admission to the examination.

19. No candidate will be admitted to the examination unless he is furnished with a certificate of good conduct from the Headmaster of his school. Should the Headmaster withhold such certificate, he will submit his reasons for doing so in writing to the Inspector. It will be open to the Administrative Board, on the advice of the Inspector, to confirm or to modify the action of the Headmaster.

20. Admission forms will not be issued by Headmasters till ten days before the examination commences, and may be withheld if scholars are irregular in attendance. All such cases must be reported to the Inspector, and will be subject to his final orders. Scholars from whom admission forms are withheld under this rule will be excluded from the examination, and their names and the reasons for exclusion must be at once reported to the Registrar of Examinations.

21. The examination will be open to candidates who have completed sixteen years of age on or before 1st July in the year in which it is held, and who have attended a school duly recognized by the Department for the School-Leaving Certificate Examination and have kept 75 per cent. of attendances at the school meetings held during the three years previous to the latest date of sending in the application. Candidates are also required to produce a certificate of having attended a course of not fewer than 10 lectures on hygiene delivered by a medical man of a status not lower than that of an Assistant Surgeon before being admitted to the examination. In the case of transfer from one recognized school to another a certificate in the prescribed form must be signed by the respective Headmasters, and the scholar's record and examination papers should be transferred to the school to which he migrates. Headmasters are not entitled to detain candidates, except under rules 19 and 20 above, and with the express sanction of the Inspector. Where a Headmaster is found to have promoted a pupil quite unfit to study for the examination, or where irreconcilable differences occur between the school marks and those given at the examination, recognition may be withdrawn from the school.

In situ examination.

22. After the marks of the public examination have been tabulated, the Inspector in each division will be supplied confidentially with the records and examination marks of those candidates from his division who have failed in one subject only at the public examination, but passed on the Headmaster's marks. He will then visit each school to conduct the oral or practical examination of such candidates *in situ*, and to report on any special cases of discrepancy which have been referred to him by the Administrative Board and, if necessary, on the school-marking. If necessary, the other examiners appointed by the Administrative Board will also visit the school. On receipt of the report of the Inspector and of the other examiners, the results of each division will be brought out by the Administrative Board and published in the *Bihar and Orissa Gazette*.

Certificates.

23. The Registrar of Examinations will grant certificates in the prescribed form to those candidates who pass the examination.

List of failures

24. A cross-list showing the subjects in which each candidate from his division has failed will be sent to the Inspector for communication to the Headmasters concerned.

Re-admission.

25. Candidates, who appear at the examination and fail, are eligible for re-admission the next year, provided that they continue to attend school regularly.

Report on the examination.

26. A general report on each examination will be prepared by the Administrative Board for distribution to the Inspectors and Headmasters concerned, and will be published in the *Bihar and Orissa Gazette*.

NORTH-WEST FRONTIER PROVINCE.

School Final Examination.

1. A School Final Certificate will be awarded to every pupil who—

Award of
School Final
Certificate.

- (i) has completed not less than 75 per cent. of possible attendances from the date of his admission to the high department;
- (ii) has borne a good character while at school as shown by his Report Book;
- (iii) is adjudged by the Inspector at the close of the year to have completed the High School course. The Inspector will base his decision on the marks obtained by the pupil throughout the course, but will check these marks by an examination of his note-books, and by such oral and practical tests as may appear to him necessary.

The subjects in which the pupil has completed the High School course will be entered on the School Final Certificate, subjects in which the pupil has shown exceptional proficiency being entered in red.

N. B.—A pupil failing to obtain a School Final Certificate may be readmitted in to the Vth High class and may be presented to the Inspector for the award of a certificate at the close of the following year provided that—

- (i) failure has not been due to unsatisfactory conduct;
- (ii) he fulfils during the year the requisite conditions as to attendance and satisfactory conduct;
- (iii) he takes up again the same group of subjects in which he was previously presented.

2. A Mark Register shall be kept by the Head Master for each class in an Anglo-Vernacular Middle or High school.

Award of
marks.

(a) At the close of each fortnight the Head Master shall require each teacher to assign a mark to each of his pupils for every subject in which he teaches them, separate marks being assigned for oral and written work in the Vernacular, in English, or in any other language, and for theoretical and practical work in science, or in any other subject in which both theoretical and practical instruction is given.

The system of marking shall be as follows:—

- For excellent work—A.
- For satisfactory work—B.
- For work of doubtful merit—C.
- For unsatisfactory work—D.

A mark once entered cannot be altered or erased.

(b) At the close of each term, namely in July, December and March, the Head Master shall assign a terminal mark, A, B, or D, to each pupil in each subject. In assigning the terminal marks the Head Master shall take into consideration—

- (i) the average fortnightly mark obtained by the pupil during the preceding term.
- (ii) the attendance and conduct of the pupil as shown in his Report Book.
- (iii) the results of any periodical tests or examinations which he himself may have conducted.

The last two factors will determine a Head Master in assigning B or D to a pupil whose average fortnightly mark in a subject has been C.

Doubtful cases may be referred by the Head Master for decision to the Inspector at his next visit.

(c) The same system of marking (namely A, B, C, D, shall be adopted by teachers when correcting the daily written exercises of their pupils, which must be preserved for examination by the Inspector at his annual visits. The following regulations with regard to the daily written work must be strictly observed—

- (i) A separate note-book must be kept by a pupil for each subject, and this book (or books, if more than one book is completed during the year) must contain all the written work of the pupil in that subject.
- (ii) As a corollary of the above the maintenance of separate note-books for rough and fair work is no longer permissible.

Where it is desirable that a pupil should for instructional purposes make a fair copy of incorrect or untidy work, the fair copy of the original work should be made on an adjoining page in the same book.

- (iii) All written work must be dated by the pupil.

N. B.—The fortnightly and terminal marking throughout the school will be checked by the Inspector twice annually, that of IVth Middle and Vth High class being checked individually and in detail in accordance with Article 1 (iii) above.

Conditions for Admission to the Examination.	3. A pupil who has received a School Final certificate and has completed his 15th year before the date of the examination is entitled to appear at the School Final examination in any one or more of the subjects in which his certificate declares him to have completed the High school course.
Date and Centre of Examination.	4. The school Final examination is held on the third Monday in April of each year at the following centres:—Peshawar, Abbottabad, Dera Ismail Khan and Bannu.
Fees.	5. The fee for admission to the examination is Rs. 3 for each subject in which the candidate submits his name for examination. A candidate who fails to pass or to present himself for examination in any subject is not entitled to claim a refund of the fee.
Application for admission to the Examination.	6. A candidate for admission to the examination must submit an application to the Head Master of the school which he last attended accompanied by— (i) his School Final certificate; (ii) his admission fees; (iii) a list of the subjects in which he wishes to be examined.
	B. —The Head Master will forward to the Education Department on or before April 5th of each year— (i) a statement showing the names of candidates for the examination from his school together with their ages, and the subjects in which each candidate wishes to be examined; (ii) the School Final certificates of candidates; (iii) a receipt for their admission fees.
	<i>N.B.</i> —Head Masters are also required to submit to the Education Department a preliminary provisional list of candidates (showing the subjects in which they wish to appear) on or before February 15th of each year.
Board of Moderators.	7. The examination is under the control of a Board of Moderators, who nominate the examiners, moderate the papers and publish the results. This Board consists of the Director and two other officers of the Department, one representative from each of the recognised colleges in the Province, and two representatives of the educated non-official community nominated by the Local Government.
Syllabus of Examination.	8. The examination consists of two written papers of two hours each in English, Mathematics, and General Knowledge (History and Geography) and of one written paper of three hours' length in each of the other subjects.
Method of marking examination papers.	9. The papers of candidates will be classified by the examiners as A, B, C, or D according as they are—A, Excellent; B, Satisfactory; C, Of doubtful merit; D, Below the standard required for a pass. (a) A candidate will be adjudged to have passed in a subject with distinction if his paper on that subject at the examination is marked A, and his School Final certificate also shows that he displayed exceptional proficiency in that subject while at school. (b) A paper marked B will qualify a candidate for a pass in that subject. (c) Papers marked C will be forwarded by examiners to the Education Department for revision by the Board of Moderators, who will decide whether each of such papers shall be classified as B or D.
Certificate for success at the Examination.	10. The School Final certificate of every candidate will be returned to him immediately after the publication of the examination results. The subjects in which he has passed successfully or with distinction will be duly entered on the certificate in the place assigned for that purpose.
Re-examination.	11. A candidate may present himself for re-examination in any subject or subjects at the succeeding or any subsequent examination on submission of his name in the usual manner and payment of the ordinary admission fee.

12. A candidate rejoining the Vith High Class of a High school for the purpose of re-appearing at the School Final examination will not be eligible for re-admission to the examination unless he has obtained an endorsement on his certificate from the Inspector that he has again qualified for a School Final certificate in at least four of the subjects for which his certificate was originally awarded.

13. (a) Candidates who pass the School Final examination in one year in any complete group of subjects recognised by the Punjab University for its Matriculation test will be considered eligible for admission into a college affiliated to that University.

(b) Candidates who have passed the School Final examination in the subjects selected by the Local Government for its admission test will be considered eligible for admission into Government service.

Publications of the Bureau of Education, India.

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BUREAU OF EDUCATION
INDIA

Pamphlet No. 6
INDIAN STATE SCHOLARSHIPS



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PREFACE.

THIS hand-book has been compiled for the use of candidates for State scholarships, for selected candidates, and for those who are concerned with their selection. It consists of summaries of official documents.

H. SHARP,
Educational Commissioner
with the Government of India.

August, 1919.

INDIAN STATE SCHOLARSHIPS.

I—List of Scholarships.

The following State scholarships have been from time to time sanctioned from Imperial revenues for study abroad.

- (a) Two scholarships of £200 or £250 to be awarded annually by the Universities.
- (b) Technical scholarships of £150 to be awarded to statutory natives of India up to a limit of 30 simultaneously held at any time.
- (c) One scholarship of £200 or £250 to be awarded annually to a male student of the domiciled community.
- (d) Two scholarships of £200 or £250 to be awarded annually for the study of Oriental languages.
- (e) One scholarship of £200 to be awarded annually to a female candidate of the domiciled community.
- (f) One scholarship of £200 to be awarded annually to an Indian woman graduate.

II.—General rules.

(i) Candidates must produce medical evidence of physical fitness to undergo a course of study abroad. Medical certificate.

(ii) Except in the case of State university and technical scholarships for which (subject in the former case to the approval of the Governments of India, Madras or Bombay) the Universities and local Governments and Administrations respectively make their own selection, each local Government is invited to nominate annually a candidate or candidates, as the case may be, and the Government of India select from among those nominated the candidates who appear to them the best fitted to hold the scholarships. For technical scholarships no candidate is to be selected by local Governments on the result of a competitive examination either open or limited. Nomination and selection.

Information
to be supplied.

(iii) Save in the case of university scholars selected by the Governments of Madras and Bombay and of technical scholars, full details including the name and occupation of the scholar's father and place of birth, a summary of his academic career in India and a statement of the course of study proposed to be followed in the United Kingdom, should be sent by the local Governments to the Government of India for transmission to the India Office some time before the scholar's arrival in England. In the case of technical scholars local Governments should forward the necessary papers direct to the India Office; as also in the case of the Madras and Bombay university scholars.

Candidates
already in
United King-
dom.

(iv) When nominating candidates already resident in the United Kingdom, local Governments should give the earliest possible intimation to the Government of India regarding the qualifications of such candidates, the courses of study they propose to pursue and their addresses in the United Kingdom. The Government of India will then communicate these particulars to the Secretary of State, and will await a reply from him before selecting the scholars. The Government of India will transmit to local Governments the views or instructions received from the India Office at the earliest possible date and, if necessary, by telegram.

Plans of
study.

(v) Arrangements should be made to let the India Office receive in good time any special suggestions that may be made by college professors and other educational authorities regarding the course of training which a particular scholar might follow with advantage. This will obviate the difficulties which may arise from scholars forming plans with insufficient knowledge of the requirements demanded or the facilities offered by institutions in Europe.

Advisory
committees.

(vi) Selected scholars should communicate with the local Advisory Committee (in Burma, the local branch of the Burma Society) in order that they may obtain advice regarding certificates, etc., and they should, when proceeding to England, take with them the originals of their certificates, testimonials and other important personal documents suggested to them by the local Secretary to the Advisory Committee.

Arrival in
Europe.

(vii) Except in the case of a technical scholar whose training is to commence with manual work and who should reach England in

March or April, State scholars are required to proceed to England within a reasonable time from the date of their selection so as to arrive there not later than the middle of September, and to reside there for the period of their scholarship unless compelled to return sooner in consequence of ill-health. The scholarship will be payable from the date on which the scholars report their arrival in England. Selected scholars will be provided with a second class passage to London and also with a second class return ^{Passages.} passage if they carry out the instructions of the Secretary of State, and complete the full period of residence, or are compelled by sickness to return within that period. Second class railway fares from the home of the candidate to the port of embarkation and, on the completion of the scholarship period, from the port of arrival to the home of the candidate are also provided. Claims for the expenses on account of the latter journey should be submitted to the local Government by whom the candidate was nominated.

(viii) The scholarships carry with them no conditions as to any subsequent career or service under Government and no expectations of such employment are held out. ^{Government service not guaranteed.}

III.—University scholarships.

Object of scholarships and method of award.—These scholarships were originally created in order “to encourage Indian students to resort more freely to England for the purpose of perfecting their education and of studying for the various learned professions or for the civil and other services in India.”

The Universities, which select the candidates, generally give rules relating to the selection in their calendars.*

* It is open to each University to consider whether a special examination should be held for the selection of the scholars, or whether the selection should be made on the results of the ordinary examinations. If special examinations are held, the regulations which the University concerned may propose to lay down in regard thereto should be submitted for the previous approval of the Government of India, the necessary arrangements for the conduct of the examinations being made under the orders of the University authorities. The candidates for the special examinations, when such examinations are held, must be young men of proved ability, and will be selected by the Vice-Chancellor on the report of the syndicate or governing body, who will in their turn be guided by the opinions of the professors and examiners concerned.

Number of scholarships.—Two scholarships are awarded annually in rotation by the Universities as follows—

Calcutta and Bombay	each award one scholarship in 1921.
Madras and Allahabad	” ” ” ” 1919.
Punjab and Patna	” ” ” ” 1920.

and so on.*

Value of scholarships.—The value of each scholarship is £250 a year when held at a college at Oxford or Cambridge†; but when held elsewhere is £200 a year. A free second class passage to London is provided, and on the expiration of the scholarship period a free second class passage to India is provided. University and college fees, charges for tuition, books, medical attendance, hotels, travelling by railway, etc., will be borne by the scholar.

Period.—Each scholarship is granted for three years; but the Secretary of State for India may terminate it sooner if the scholar fails in health or conduct, or does not comply with the rules laid down, etc. The Secretary of State for India may also extend the scholarship for a further period.

Country in which tenable.—The scholarships are tenable in the United Kingdom, and, as a general rule, at either Oxford or Cambridge.

Eligibility.—Candidates must be Indians who are statutory natives of India.‡

Age limits.—The candidates should be from 22 to 25 years of age. The conditions of study in the candidate's university in the subject selected will be taken into consideration.

Qualification.—A degree of an Indian university.

Date of selection.—The names, etc., of the candidates selected by the Universities of Calcutta, the Punjab, Allahabad, and Patna should be submitted to the Government of India by the 15th May. In the other cases, the report of the selection should reach the Secretary of State early in June and the necessary testimonials, etc., should be forwarded during that month.

* The creation of new Indian Universities may necessitate an alteration in the allotment.

† A non-collegiate scholar at Oxford or Cambridge receives only £200.

‡ The term "Native of India" is not to be interpreted as excluding a person who though born in a State or temporarily residing in a State is domiciled in British India. The local Government or Administration within whose jurisdiction such person is domiciled is at liberty to recommend him, if otherwise suitable, to the Government of India.

Remarks.—The attention of selected candidates is particularly drawn to the *Rules for State Scholars in the United Kingdom* (p. 19).

IV.—*Technical scholarships.*

Object of scholarships and method of award.—The object of the scholarships is to provide such higher technical education as may qualify young men of this country to assist in promoting the improvement of existing Indian industries and the development of new industries likely to be established.* The scholarships are awarded by the local Governments.

Number of scholarships.—There may be 30 technical scholars in Europe at one time, *viz.*, not more than four each from Madras, Bombay, Bengal, and the United Provinces; three each from the Punjab, Burma, Bihar and Orissa, and the Central Provinces and one each from Assam and the North West Frontier Province. The fact of a vacancy existing shall not be considered a reason for awarding a scholarship if a suitable candidate is not forthcoming.

Value of the scholarships.—The value of each scholarship is £150 a year. A free second class passage to London is provided, and on the satisfactory completion of the scholarship period a free second class return passage to India is also provided.

Charges for university and college fees, premiums for practical training, and the necessary railway fares of scholars by second class, or by third class if no second class be available, will be given if previously sanctioned by the Secretary of State. Application for payment of any of these charges should be made through the Local Adviser. Charges for private tuition, unless specially sanctioned, for books, instruments, hotel bills, medical attendance, etc., must be paid by the scholar himself. No claim will be admitted for the payment of any expenditure unless the scholar has obtained *previous* sanction from the Secretary of State.

Period.—The scholarship is granted for two years at least, unless the Secretary of State sees reason to terminate it sooner. The

* The scholarship will not be awarded for the study of law, medicine, forestry, veterinary science, agriculture, civil engineering (other than sanitary and municipal engineering) or geology, nor for the extraction of alkalis or vegetable oil pressing.

scholarship will be forfeited by a scholar, who, not being disabled by illness or prevented by any other cause which the Secretary of State may consider sufficient, fails to comply with the rules laid down. It may be terminated at any time if a scholar fails in health or conduct. It may also be extended up to five years if the Secretary of State decides that such an extension is required to complete the scholar's training.

Country in which tenable.—In Europe or America.

Eligibility.—Candidates must be statutory natives of India.*

Age limits.—Candidates should not ordinarily exceed 25 years of age.

Qualifications.—Academic qualifications vary according to the industry to be studied. A scholar should generally have had at least a year's practical training in a workshop, factory, or mine; and should have proved his capacity to stand the strain. Those who are to study textile industries should have read up to the standard of the B.Sc. or the B.A. (with science), or have obtained an equivalent diploma. Those who are to take up any branch of engineering should have passed the B.A., B.Sc., or B.Eng., should have a knowledge of mechanical drawing and descriptive geometry and should have taken mathematics, physics and chemistry for their degree. Satisfactory evidence of good character is required, and a candidate should ordinarily be of such character and habits and of such an age (not exceeding 25 years) that detailed tutelage should be unnecessary. He should also pass a searching examination as to physical fitness. (Further details as to qualifications are given in the *Special rules regarding State technical scholarships* printed below.)

Date of selection.—Recommendations relating to those scholars whose training is to begin with manual work should reach the India Office by the 1st December, and in other cases by the following January.

Remarks.—The attention of candidates is drawn to (1) the following *Special rules regarding State Technical scholarships*, and (2) the *Rules for State scholars in the United Kingdom* (p. 19).

* See footnote on page 4.

Special rules regarding State technical scholarships.

1. The number of scholarships is fixed at 30 in order to give local Governments the power to award a technical scholarship to any man of suitable age and skill possessing qualifications, hereinafter specified, who has shown exceptional initiative in any branch of industry and who seems likely to add considerably to his usefulness by a special training in Europe.

The various local Governments, though at liberty to consult the Government of India on any point, will in future conduct all routine correspondence regarding the appointment and training of technical scholars in direct communication with the Under Secretary of State in the India Office.

2. The scholar will be required to execute a bond (see Bonds annexure II to these rules) undertaking to repay the amount of the scholarship he has received if he fails to return to India when instructed by the Secretary of State to do so.

3. These scholarships will be given for law, medicine, forestry, veterinary science, agriculture, civil engineering (other than sanitary and municipal engineering) or geology, nor for the extraction of alkalis or vegetable oil pressing. It should also be noted that certain industries in Europe, such as bleaching, dyeing, tanning and manufacture of chemicals, very rarely offer facilities for practical work for students: in other branches of technological study, such as engineering, and the textile industries, adequate opportunities can probably be found for scholars who possess the necessary qualities and training. If it is proposed to award a technical scholarship in any subject in which technical scholars have not hitherto been trained, enquiry should first be made from the India Office several months in advance as to the facilities available. Certain special suggestions regarding particular industries are incorporated in annexure I to these rules.

4. It is very desirable that the training abroad should in most cases be preceded by a practical training of not less than one year and should be followed by a period of about one year's practical work in India; and local Governments are at liberty to give from provincial revenues scholarships not exceeding Rs. 100 per mensem for the preliminary training, and scholarships not exceeding Rs. 150 per mensem for the subsequent period of practical work.

Boards of
selection.

5. A Board of Selection should be constituted in each province, and in the selection of candidates men of business, directors of industry and employers' associations should be consulted. The selection of a scholar to proceed to Europe should be communicated to the India Office in the form laid down in annexure III to these rules. The recommendations should, in the case of scholars who intend to begin their training in England with manual work, reach the India Office by the 1st December and the candidate should ordinarily reach England in March or April of the following year. In cases where a scholar is intended to commence his training in Europe with purely academic work, the recommendation should reach the India Office by January and the scholar should reach England not later than the middle of September.

Selection.

6. The primary object of the selection should be to obtain a candidate whose experience and intelligence justify the expectation that the selection will help in developing the industries of India. As a rule he should not be selected for training in an industry not already established in India unless the co-operation of the promoters can be assured, nor for an industry for training in which facilities are not available in Europe. He should, if possible, be selected for training in an industry in which Indian capital and enterprise is engaged or likely to be engaged; this classification includes not merely textile and mining industries but also industries on a smaller scale such as pottery, tanning, and the making of matches, glass, sugar, pencils and paper; and where possible he should be a man already engaged in the industry. As a general rule, he should have had at least a year's practical training in a workshop, factory or mine, have proved his capacity to stand the strain and have learned enough of the industry to understand the theoretic teaching which must follow. When such training cannot be provided in India, the India Office should be asked to arrange a suitable training in Europe. Attention is also invited to the suggestions regarding special industries which are appended to these rules. If the Board of Selection desire advice from expert officers attached to the Government of India, they are at liberty to address them on the subject; and it is suggested that, if a candidate is to be trained in any industry connected with agriculture, the advice of the Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India

should be obtained. When a scholar has had a preliminary training in India, a report on his work and progress should be sent to the Secretary of State. Any special suggestions which the Board of Selection may wish to make regarding the course of training to be followed in England should be communicated to the India Office, and in making such suggestions the Board should consider the proposals made by the existing employers (if any) of the candidate. If possible, the employers should be induced to guarantee employment to the scholars on their return to India, and in no case shall a technical scholarship be given to a candidate unless there is a definite prospect of his obtaining employment in which he will be able to put to use in India the experience and training he will have gained. Local Governments should supply the India Office with as detailed information as possible as to the kind of employment a scholar is likely to obtain on return.

7. In the case of indigenous industries such as tanning, flour milling, etc., a scholar should, if possible, in addition to an aptitude for the industry, inherited or acquired, have adequate educational qualifications, but in the case of candidates who have not both qualifications these who have the qualification of aptitude for the industry should have the preference, provided that they have sufficient working knowledge of English to follow lectures in that language. Qualifications.

8. The educational qualifications referred to above are as follows. Those who are to study textile industries should have read up to the standard of the B. Sc. degree or the B.A. (with science) or have obtained an equivalent diploma. Those who take up any branch of engineering should have passed the B.A., B.Sc. or B.Eng., should have a knowledge of mechanical drawing and descriptive geometry, and should have taken mathematics, physics and chemistry among the subjects for their degree. Scholars should be provided with certificates from the University showing in what subjects they have passed, what degree of proficiency they have reached and what marks they have secured.

9. Candidates should be made clearly to understand (a) that the scholarships are not intended to endow the holders or prepare them for Government service, (b) that the scholar in each case is selected for a definite purpose and will be expected on proceeding to England to enter at once and without discussion of possible Government service not guaranteed.

alternatives on the course of training laid down for him, and to comply with whatever instructions and to do whatever kind of work it may involve, and (c) that when his period of training is over he will be expected in every case to return to India and to use there the knowledge he has gained for the benefit of his country.

Employment. 10. The local Government should receive an annual report from the India Office of the progress made by each scholar in his training; and the Board of Selection or some similar body should with the assistance of local manufacturers and employers, endeavour to find employment for scholars, whether these are provided with a further scholarship on their return or not. When a scholar has a scholarship after his return, the Board should settle the nature of his practical training while he is drawing the scholarship and should, if they think this fit and practicable, obtain from the new employer a report on the way in which the scholar has progressed during his training and his value as a technological specialist. In such a case the scholar should at the end of his period of training receive from the Board a detailed statement of his training together with the final opinion of the Board on his qualifications. Though scholars are clearly to understand that Government cannot guarantee them employment, the Board should make every endeavour to secure permanent employment for scholars at the earliest possible date after the completion of their training.

11. The local Government should in January of each year send a return to the Government of India and the India Office showing how all scholars from the province who have returned since 1910 are employed and what salaries they are drawing.

ANNEXURE I TO THE SPECIAL RULES FOR TECHNICAL SCHOLARS.

Suggestions regarding special industries.

(I) *Engineering.*—(i) All engineering students of whatever branch should receive a year's preliminary workshop course in a mechanical engineering shop in India.

(ii) Indians who proceed to the United Kingdom for their college course should have taken the B.A., B.Sc. or B.Eng. degree

and have received a training in mathematics, physics, chemistry and engineering-drawing of a sufficiently advanced character to enable them to join a second-year class at once; special instruction in mechanical drawing and descriptive geometry is required, and should be given in India.

(II) *Mining*.—(i) Scholarships in Mining (as distinguished from Geology) may only be given to men who intend to become mine managers or mining engineers.

(ii) In every case the candidate should have actually worked for at least one year in an Indian mine—preferably in a paid position.

(iii) A specially strict test of physical fitness shall be imposed on candidates before selection.

(iv) The candidate should have reached the B.A. or B.Sc. standard in physics (theoretical and practical), chemistry and mathematics, mechanics and practical geometry.

(III) *Mining Geology*.—Candidates should possess a knowledge of economic geology and some experience of surveying and mining methods.

(IV) *Metallurgy*.—(i) Scholarships should be granted only to men who have had previous experience of metal industries, a knowledge even of primitive processes being valuable; and candidates who lack such experience should be sent for some months to metal works in India before proceeding to Europe for their training.

(ii) If possible notice should be given beforehand of the branch of metallurgy that the scholar intends to take up on his return to India.

(V) *Spinning and Weaving*.—Scholars should in all cases have had considerable experience in one or more Indian mills, preferably through having served in a paid position.

(VI) *Bleaching and Finishing*.—It is almost impossible for Indian students to obtain in England anything more than the training given in technological colleges, and, in order that they may complete this by practical experience, efforts should be made to secure openings for a few carefully selected men in up-to-date bleaching establishments in India; but in the woollen industry facilities for practical training are procurable to a limited extent in Europe.

(VII) *Dyeing*.—Candidates must possess some knowledge of the dyeing industry as carried on in India, and should have reached the B.Sc. standard in chemistry.

(VIII) *Tanning*.—(a) As regards students who aim at becoming owners or managers of tanneries—

(i) Hereditary connection with the leather industry is desirable, and a knowledge of Indian methods is essential.

(ii) Where these conditions are satisfied, high academic qualifications need not for the present be insisted upon; a fair knowledge of chemistry, physics, and some knowledge of mathematics and acquaintance with the metric system of weights and measures will suffice.

(b) As regards those who intend to take up scientific research as applied to the leather industry—

(i) The scholarship may only be granted after the student has received the highest scientific training in India.

(ii) The candidate must have shown considerable aptitude for research work.

(IX) *Chemical Manufactures*.—The grant of scholarships for the study of chemical industries in the United Kingdom is of doubtful utility; training in India would be preferable, and before any such scholarship is granted, inquiry should be made as to the possibility of providing in Europe a complete training in the special branch of industry concerned, full particulars being furnished to the India Office as to candidates' qualifications and prospects of finding employment on their return to India.

ANNEXURE II TO THE SPECIAL RULES FOR TECHNICAL SCHOLARS.

Know all Men by these presents, that We,
(undergoing a course of instruction in connection with a Government Technical Scholarship) and

do hereby bind ourselves, and each of us, our and each of our heirs executors, and administrators, to pay to the Secretary of State for

India in Council,
the penal sum of £1,000.

Sealed with our seals, dated this _____ day of
one thousand nine hundred and _____

Whereas the above bounden
_____ has been nominated to a Government Technical
Scholarship :

And whereas the above bounden

as nominee of such Scholarship is entitled under certain conditions
to £150 per annum for _____ years, tuition fees, certain travel-
ling expenses, and also a second class return passage from India to
England and back.

Now the condition of the above written obligation is that :—

If, in the event of the above bounden

not returning to India, as and when, directed by the India Office
or the Government of India, or the local Government by which he
was nominated he shall forthwith refund to the Secretary of State
for India in Council

_____ paid to him or on his
behalf in respect of the said Scholarship, tuition fees, travelling
expenses, or second class return passage.

Then the above written obligation shall be void and of no
effect, otherwise it shall be and remain in full force and virtue.

Signed, sealed, and delivered by the	}	
above bounden		
	}	
in the presence of		
Signed, sealed and delivered by the	}	
above bounden		
	}	
in the presence of		

N.B.—The names of some members of the scholar's family, or other persons
interested in him should be included in the bond, so that (if necessary) legal proceed-
ings may, without difficulty, be taken in India: and it may be hoped that the fact
that these persons would be liable to suffer in the event of his breaking his contract,
will exercise a restraining influence on his conduct. If the scholar's name alone
appears, the bond will be of no practical value.

ANNEXURE III TO THE SPECIAL RULES FOR TECHNICAL SCHOLARS.

Form in which recommendations for State technical Scholarships should be made.

No.	Name of candidate and place of origin.	Age.	Parentage (Father's name, occupation, &c.)	Academic and practical qualifications of the candidate.	Subject chosen for study.	Whether physically fit to undergo the necessary training.	Prospects of employment on return.	Remarks.

V.—Domiciled Community—Scholarships for Males.

Object and method of award.—The object in view is to assist scholars to take up university courses in England.

The scholarships are awarded by the Government of India on the recommendations of the local Governments, and in making the awards due regard will be paid to the claims of each province to participate in the scheme in turn.*

Number of scholarships.—One scholarship is awarded each year.

Value of scholarships.—The value of each scholarship is £250 a year when held in a College at Oxford or Cambridge, otherwise

* (i) The two main principles which govern the grant of the scholarships are:—

(a) that as the object in view is to assist a scholar to take up a university course in England, the scholarship will, when possible, be awarded to a young man at the close of his school career in India so that he may join the university as far as possible at the same age as boys educated in England;

(b) the scholarship will be given to the scholar who is most fitted to benefit from a course of study at a university, *i.e.*, preference will be given to graduates.

(ii) In making the selection due regard will be paid to the claims of each province to participate in its turn in the scheme.

it is £200.* A free second class passage will be provided to London, and on the satisfactory completion of the scholarship period a free second class return passage to India will be provided.

Period.—The scholarship will continue for three or four years as the circumstances may require.

Country in which tenable.—The scholarship is ordinarily tenable in the United Kingdom, but with the special sanction of the Secretary of State it may be held in some other country.

Eligibility.—Candidates must be European or Anglo-Indian male students and natives of India† within the meaning of statute 33, Vict. Cap. 3, Section 6.

Age.—The candidates must be over 18 and under 22 years of age on the 31st March of the year in which the scholarship is to be awarded.

Qualifications.—The candidates must have passed the European High School examination or have obtained a degree of an Indian University. Preference is given to graduates.

Date of selection.—Nominations should reach the Government of India by May 15th each year.

Remarks.—The attention of selected candidates is particularly drawn to the *Rules for State scholars in the United Kingdom* (p. 19).

VI.—Oriental Languages Scholarships.

Object and method of award.—The object of these scholarships is to enable Indian students who possess a sound knowledge of Sanskrit or Arabic to acquire the critical and scientific methods of western scholarship. The scholarships will, as a rule, be awarded to candidates who have passed examinations in India which will obtain for them admission to a university in Europe as an 'advanced' or 'research' student. Some elementary knowledge of French and German should, if possible, be acquired by the scholars before leaving India.

In the selection of scholars for the study of Sanskrit regard should be paid to the following considerations. As the vast range of Sanskrit literature makes it necessary for a scholar to select some special field of Sanskrit learning in which to specialise, the choice of the special branch of study should be made in India and

* See the second footnote on page 4.

† See the third footnote on page 4.

the pertinent preparatory studies completed before the scholar leaves for Europe. Professors of Sanskrit in various European universities have complained that individual language scholars have been unable to enter at once on the course of study best fitted for them, through lack of preliminary knowledge which could quite well have been acquired in India. Accordingly if a Sanskrit scholar wishes to specialise on

- (a) Veda or philology, he should have some knowledge of Latin and Greek;
- (b) philosophy, he should have studied one of the systems of Indian philosophy in the original texts, and have read some Plato and Aristotle;
- (c) post-Vedic literature, his reading should have extended considerably beyond the limits of the courses prescribed for the M. A. Examination of an Indian University.

The scholarships are awarded by the Government of India on the recommendations of the local Governments.

Number of scholarships.—The scholarships are awarded in alternate years as follows—

First year.—One scholarship for Sanskrit and one for Arabic.

Second year.—Two scholarships for Sanskrit.

Third year.—As in first year, and so on.

Value of scholarships.—Each scholarship is £200 a year, or if held at a college of Oxford or Cambridge,* £250 a year. Each scholar pays his own university fees, etc. But necessary travelling expenses by second class (or by third class if no second be available) will be defrayed by the Secretary of State, subject to his previous sanction being obtained. These expenses should be claimed on forms obtainable from the Local Adviser.

Period.—Each scholarship will ordinarily be held for two years.

Country in which tenable.—The scholarships are tenable in a European or American university selected by the Secretary of State.

* See second footnote on page 4, and also second footnote on page 20.

Eligibility.—Candidates must be Indians who are also statutory natives of India*.

Age limits.—No limits are imposed.

Qualifications.—Candidates must possess a genuine taste for oriental studies. Professors and teachers of Sanskrit and Arabic are eligible.

Date of selection.—Nominations by local Governments should be sent to the Government of India by the 15th of May each year.

Remarks.—The attention of selected candidates is particularly drawn to the *Rules for State scholars in the United Kingdom* (p. 19).

VII.—Scholarships for Women—(1) Domiciled Community.

Object and method of award.—The scholarship is granted for educational or medical training. 'Educational training' is construed in a wide sense so as to include training (1) of a secondary character for the teaching profession, (2) in domestic science, (3) as teachers of modern languages, (4) as music mistresses, (5) as art teachers, (6) in kindergarten methods.

The scholarship is awarded by the Government of India on the recommendations of the local Governments.

Number of scholarships.—One scholarship is awarded each year.

Value of scholarships.—The value of each scholarship is £200 a year. Charges for university and college fees, for private tuition, for books, instruments, hotel bills, medical attendance and travelling must be borne by the scholar. A second class passage is provided to London, and on the satisfactory completion of the scholarship period a return second class passage to India is provided.

Period.—The scholarship is granted in the first instance for three years, unless the Secretary of State sees reason to terminate it sooner. Failure to comply with the rules set forth will entail forfeiture of the scholarship, which may also be terminated if the scholar fails in health or conduct.

Country in which tenable.—The scholarship is generally tenable in the United Kingdom, but; with the special sanction of the Secretary of State, it may be held in some foreign country.

* See footnote on page 4.

Eligibility.—The candidate must be a European or Anglo-Indian female student who is a native of India* within the meaning of Statute 33 Vict. Cap. 3, Section 6.

Age limits.—(No limitations are imposed.)

Qualifications.—Candidates should possess a degree of an Indian university. For music the candidate must, in addition to the highest certificate in music obtainable in India, have passed the European High School examination or an equivalent examination.

Date of appointment.—The local Governments should send their nominations to the Government of India by May 15th each year.

Remarks.—(i) The attention of selected scholars is particularly drawn to the *Rules for State scholars in the United Kingdom* given on page 19.

(ii) If a selected scholar has friends or relatives in the United Kingdom willing to receive her during vacations, their names and addresses might with advantage be forwarded to the Educational Adviser in London.

Scholarships for Women—(2) Indian Women.

Object and method of award.—The scholarship will be awarded usually for the study of medicine, and occasionally, for other educational or professional courses. The scholarship is awarded by the Government of India on the recommendations of the local Governments.

Number of scholarships.—One scholarship is awarded each year.

Value of scholarships.—The value of the scholarship is £200 a year. Charges for university and college fees, for private tuition, for books, for instruments, hotel bills, medical attendance and travelling will be borne by the scholar. A second class passage to London will be provided and on the satisfactory completion of the scholarship a return second class passage to India will also be provided.

Period.—The scholarship is tenable for three years in the first instance, unless the Secretary of State sees reason to terminate it sooner. Failure to comply with the rules set forth will entail

* See footnote on page 4.

forfeiture of the scholarship, which may also be terminated if the scholar fails in health or conduct.

Country in which tenable.—Ordinarily the scholarship will be tenable in the United Kingdom, but with the special sanction of the Secretary of State it may be held in some other country.

Eligibility.—The candidate must be an Indian who is also a statutory native of India.*

Age limits.—(No limits are specified.)

Qualifications.—The candidate must have a degree of an Indian university or some professional qualifications.

Date of appointment.—The recommendations of the local Government should reach the Government of India by May 15th each year.

Remarks.—(i) The attention of selected scholars is particularly drawn to the *Rules for State Scholars in the United Kingdom* below.

(ii) If a selected scholar has friends or relatives in the United Kingdom willing to receive her during vacations, their names and addresses might with advantage be forwarded to the Educational Adviser in London.

VIII.—Rules for State scholars in the United Kingdom.

1. All Government scholars are required to avail themselves of the information and advice which the Educational Adviser for Indian Students and the Local Advisers at university centres are in a position to give them, and to apply to their Local Adviser for instructions as regards their studies and in any circumstances of difficulty. The Local Advisers at Oxford, Cambridge, Manchester, Edinburgh and Glasgow have charge of State scholars studying at those Universities. Scholars studying at other British Universities will be under the charge of the Local Adviser in London. The Adviser is the proper person to bring before the Educational Adviser for Indian Students any matter requiring the sanction of the Secretary of State in Council.

2. Every scholar should on reaching England at once report himself (herself) to the Local Adviser in London at 21, Cromwell

* See footnote on page 4.

Road, S.W. Accommodation for new arrivals (men only) is provided in that house. After seeing the Local Adviser in London and consulting with him in regard to his course of study, he should also call on the Educational Adviser for Indian Students at the India Office.

Obedience to instructions.

3. Every scholar must obey all instructions which he (she) may receive, either through the Educational Adviser for Indian Students or through his (her) Local Adviser, and must consult his (her) Local Adviser regularly in regard to his (her) work. Any course of study which requires and has received the sanction of the Secretary of State may not be changed without similar sanction.

Progress reports.

4. Every scholar must from time to time, whenever the Local Adviser requires it, submit a certificate from the proper college or university authority, showing that his (her) conduct and progress in study have been satisfactory.

Payment of stipends.

5. Subject to a due compliance with the above conditions, the scholar's allowance will be paid quarterly in advance by the India Office to the Local Adviser under whose charge he (she) is. It will begin from the date of the scholar's reporting his (her) arrival in England, and the Local Adviser will disburse it to the scholar in such instalments as convenience may dictate. Three months after the date of reporting arrival, the amount to the ensuing official Quarter Day* will be paid to the Local Adviser, and subsequent payments will be made in advance on or after each official Quarter Day.¹

* NOTE.—The official Quarter Days are the 1st of January, the 1st of April, the 1st of July and the 1st of October.

¹ For *University Scholars* and for *Domiciled Community* male scholars the allowance is £200 a year, except in the case of scholars admitted to colleges at Oxford or Cambridge, whose allowances will be increased to £250 a year, to cover the additional expenses involved.

For *Technical Scholars* the allowance is £150 a year.

For *Language Scholars* the allowance will generally be at the rate of £200 a year, and language scholars at Oxford or Cambridge will be expected to become non-collegiate students, and permission to join a college will not be granted unless admission to the university is not otherwise possible, or unless the scholar is of undergraduate age and has rooms offered to him in college. In the event of a language scholar having to join a college at Oxford or Cambridge, his allowance will be increased to £250 a year, to cover the additional expenses involved.

For *Women Scholars* the allowance is £200 a year.

6. Every male scholar is required to lodge with the Educational Deposits. Adviser for Indian Students at the India Office, London, before his arrival in England, a certain sum for initial expenses.¹ He will have no claim to payment of any instalment of his scholarship until this deposit has been made.

7. Charges for university and college fees, for private tuition Charges. for books, hotel bills, medical attendance, and travelling (except the two journeys between England and India), must ordinarily be borne by the scholar².

8. The scholarship is granted for three years, unless the Termination of scholar- Secretary of State in the exercise of his discretion sees reason to terminate it sooner. Every scholar will forfeit his scholarship who, ships. not being disabled by illness or prevented by any other cause which the Secretary of State may consider sufficient, fails to comply with the rules here set forth. It may be terminated at any time if a scholar fails in health or conduct.

9. On the expiration of the scholarship a scholar is provided Passages. by the India Office with a free second class passage to India, and he (she) should apply for it without delay through his Local Adviser. He (she) is not entitled to make his (her) own passage arrangements, and to claim an allowance in lieu from the India Office. If a scholarship be forfeited, or if it be resigned before completion of its term, or if the holder of it, on completion of its term, declines to return to India when instructed to do so, the scholar will lose his (her) claim to a free passage back to India.

¹ For all but Technical Scholars the sum is £25; for Technical Scholars it is £15.

² For *Technical Scholars* charges for university and college fees, premiums for practical training, and the necessary expenses of scholars by second class, or by third class if no second be available, will, if sanctioned, be defrayed by the Secretary of State. Applications for payment of all these charges should be made through the Local Adviser. But charges for private tuition, unless specially sanctioned, for books, instruments, hotel bills and medical attendance must be paid by the scholar himself.

For *Language Scholars* the necessary travelling expenses of scholars abroad by second class, or by third class if no second be available, will be defrayed by Secretary of State. These expenses should be claimed on forms obtainable from the Local Adviser. Travelling expenses in the United Kingdom will be borne by the scholars themselves. Charges for university and college fees, for private tuition, for books, hotel bills and medical attendance must be paid by the scholar himself.

No claim can be admitted for the payment of any expenditure unless the scholar has obtained previous sanction from the Secretary of State.

The following rules apply to *technical scholars only* :—

- Bonds, etc.** Every scholar must give a written undertaking that he will at once and without discussion of possible alternatives devote himself exclusively to the course of training laid down for him, comply with whatever instructions and do whatever work it may involve ; and also that on return to India he will devote himself to the industry which he has studied. Any scholar who neglects his studies, or tries to work for any other profession concurrently, will render himself liable to forfeiture of his scholarship. He must also execute a bond undertaking to repay the amount spent on him if he fails to return to India when instructed to do so.
- Diaries.** Every scholar will be required to keep a concise diary, to be submitted at the end of each term to his Local Adviser, and to be forwarded through the Local Adviser at the end of each academic year to the Secretary of State for transmission to India.
- Vacation work.** Scholars will be expected to continue their studies during vacations with the exception of three weeks in each year. Vacation study should, as far as possible, take the form of practical work.
- Plans for vacation work, accompanied by a complete estimate of any extra expenses for fees or travelling involved, should be sent in to the Local Adviser six weeks before the end of any academic term. Scholars are not entitled to any subsistence allowance in addition to the scholarship allowance during the time spent on vacation work, but a scholar who receives permission to visit the Continent may, if the Secretary of State for India in Council considers that the circumstances render it desirable, be granted a subsistence allowance calculated at such rate as the Secretary of State may decide.

IX.—References to the orders of the Government of India.

(a) *University scholarships.*—Government of India, Home Department, Resolution No. 1-45-57, dated the 12th February 1886.

(b) *Technical scholarships.*—Government of India, Home Department Resolution No. 41, dated 20th January 1904, Department of Education, Circular No. 175, dated the 18th March 1918.

(c) *Domiciled community scholarship (Male)*.—Government of India, Home, Department, Resolution No. 221-238, dated the 19th March 1907.

(d) *Oriental languages scholarship*.—Government of India, Home Department, Resolution No. 731-743, dated the 1st September 1908.

(e) *Domiciled community scholarship (Female)*.—Government of India, Department of Education, Resolution No. 1233-1247, dated the 10th July 1913.

(f) *Indian women's scholarship*.—Government of India, Department of Education, Resolution No. 399, dated the 1st May 1916.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION
INDIA

Pamphlet No. 5

**NOTES ON VERNACULAR
EDUCATION IN CEYLON**

By H. SHARP, C.S.I., C.I.E.



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INTRODUCTION

IN November 1918 I went to Ceylon to make some enquiries about the system of compulsory vernacular education and the scheme of village self-government through committees and tribunals which is there in vogue. My investigations were interrupted by the celebrations incident on the armistice, which temporarily closed schools and village courts; and I was then summoned to return to Delhi before my work was completed. The effective time at disposal for my researches was thus barely a fortnight and my stay in the island only seventeen days. Notwithstanding this, I was able, through the helpfulness of all whom I met, to get together a considerable amount of information.

It would be presumptuous to attempt any systematic report on vernacular education and the working of the compulsory Ordinances on so short an acquaintance with the system; and anyone in Ceylon who is conversant with educational problems would be more competent to perform such a task than I. The following pages are merely a few rough notes intended to bring out certain points in the Ceylon system which may be found of interest in India at a time when the question of mass education is being much discussed and local legislatures are introducing measures permitting the adoption of compulsion. They are intended for readers in India. I regret that, imperfect as the notes necessarily are, my present duties have prevented my bestowing that care which I should have desired upon their editing.

By way of preface it is necessary to state that in 1911 Ceylon was found to contain 4,110,000 inhabitants. Though the number has now probably risen to $4\frac{1}{2}$ millions, I have, in making calculations, taken the population figures of 1911 for both Ceylon and India. Of the total in Ceylon, 66 per cent. are Sinhalese. The next most numerous class are Tamils. Europeans, Burghers and Eurasians form 9 per cent. There is a small sprinkling of Mubammadans (called Moors) and of Malays.

The administrative staff is considerably larger than that which would be found among a population of the same size in India. The progress which the island has achieved is no doubt partly

ascribable to the fact that the units of administration are not unwieldy and that officials have time to tackle local problems. In addition there is the system of village self-government, which is found over the larger part of the island and is carefully fostered by the Government Agents. Much of the short time at my disposal was taken up in studying this system; but it is mentioned in this pamphlet only as it incidentally affects education.

I must express my thanks to Mr. E. B. Denham, the energetic Director of Education, for all the help which he gave me in my enquiry; also to the Hon'ble Lieutenant-Colonel Chapman for assistance regarding plans of school buildings; to Mr. Leigh Smith, the Principal of the Government Training College, and to the other members of the educational staff with whom I came in contact. I should also like to take this opportunity of thanking those also who aided me with much information about the system of village communities, which, though it does not form the subject of these pages, sheds light on the educational organisation. The Hon'ble Sir Anton Bertram, Chief Justice of Ceylon, the Hon'ble Dr. H. M. Fernando and the Hon'ble Mr. Tillekeratna spared no pains to give me such information.

H. SHARP,

*Educational Commissioner
with the Government of India.*

April, 1919.

VERNACULAR EDUCATION IN CEYLON

I.—The Educational System of Ceylon.

Elementary education is the subject of these pages. But a few words regarding the general system of education in Ceylon are required.

There is a Director of Education with a staff of inspectors and sub-inspectors. The proportion of government institutions is much higher than in India—between one-fourth and one-fifth of the total. Practically all expenditure is either from public revenues or from fees and other private sources. There are District School Committees with certain powers of expenditure on buildings, etc., and other powers shown on pages 5 and 6. But there are no local funds*. The District School Committees manage no schools but exercise supervision in various ways over government schools. They have nothing to do with aided schools, which are subsidised by government. The village committees act as Divisional School Committees; but their functions appear to be largely confined to placing any small available funds at the disposal of the District School Committees. There is no university; students are prepared in some of the secondary schools and colleges for the Cambridge School Certificate Examinations, the London Matriculation, and the London Intermediate; and they can and do appear for the external degrees of the London University.

There is a law enforcing attendance at vernacular schools and quite recently an amendment has been passed making it incumbent on persons opening an English school to notify the fact to the Education Department in advance. As attendance at a school not recognised by the Director or under other conditions not approved by him would not count as attendance under the law, this provision constitutes a safeguard against the opening of inefficient institutions.

Schools are divided in accordance with their status and the language taught. Thus, there are schools with two infant classes and five standards; these are called primary or elementary schools according as the instruction is in the vernacular or in English.

* It is now proposed to give local bodies the power to raise such funds for the establishment of schools.

The addition of three more standards up to the eighth constitutes a middle or a secondary school, the distinction of name again depending on the language in which instruction is conducted. More advanced classes prepare for the Cambridge School Certificate, the London Matriculation and the London Intermediate. There are no regular classes for the London B.A. and B.Sc., pupils prepare privately for these examinations. Again, schools are divided as Vernacular, Anglo-vernacular and English. In Anglo-vernacular schools, English is begun as an optional second language (reading, writing and conversation) in the third standard. In English schools the whole of the instruction is in English. The grading in all classes is that just described; and there are a number of English elementary schools. All the principal English schools are aided institutions save the Royal College, which is maintained by government. There is no separate system of European schools.

Expenditure. It is impossible to compare total expenditure with that in India, since fees, etc., in aided schools are not entered in the returns. The total recorded annual cost is Rs. 23,53,591, of which Rs. 22,93,723 is cost to government. This latter figure represents an expenditure from public funds at the rate of Re. 0.55* per head of the population, the answering figure for India (inclusive of expenditure from local and municipal funds) representing Re. 0.25 per head. Vernacular education is free. Fees in English schools are high compared with India; in one aided institution which I visited I found them fixed at Rs. 15 a month for the top classes; and on the whole the rates are two and a half times greater than in corresponding institutions in Madras.

Teachers. The training of teachers is carried on in a government college, in aided training schools and in certain schools which are allowed to take pupil teachers. The system largely depends upon the employment of monitors in ordinary schools. While the organisation is excellent, it has not been long in existence, with the result that the proportion of trained teachers is not more than one to four untrained. Teachers of English, being almost wholly employed in aided schools, are variously paid; those whom I saw were

* The coinage in Ceylon is in rupees and cents. The plan of showing any sum less than a rupee by two decimal figures has accordingly been adopted in this pamphlet.

generally receiving from about Rs. 100 to about Rs. 150. In a government Anglo-vernacular school I found the trained headmaster getting Rs. 75—100 a month and the untrained assistants Rs. 30—40. The pay in vernacular schools is given in detail on page 12. It is necessary to point out the difference in the value of money when these figures are compared with Indian rates.

The grant-in-aid in English schools is given on the capitation ^{Grant-in-aid system.} system—Rs. 10 a year for each unit of average attendance in standards I—IV, Rs. 15 in standards V—VIII and the Cambridge Junior Class, and Rs. 20 for each pupil studying for the Cambridge Senior School Certificate. Other grants are given, *e.g.*, a grant of Rs. 2 a year for each unit under instruction by a trained teacher. Reductions of 25 or even 50 per cent. may be made for bad work. The amount of grant is subject to certain limitations with reference to the amount of private resources, etc. One of them is to the effect that no grant is permissible for units in excess of 350 in an upper English school or 200 in the secondary department of an elementary school. Among the general conditions of grant three are worth mentioning. No class in charge of one teacher may exceed 32; either the head teacher or two other teachers must be trained; 13 square feet of floor space are required for each pupil in a class of 25 or more pupils and 15 square feet in smaller classes.

Grant-in-aid in vernacular schools is given almost wholly on the results system (see page 12).

There is a medical college but there is no facility for training ^{Professional education.} engineers. Industrial education is being developed in night schools, carpentry classes attached to ordinary schools, etc.

The hostel system is not much developed. Discipline struck ^{Discipline, etc.} me as excellent and the tone as good. There are two inspectors of drill and games. Thirty-eight schools have troops organised under General Baden-Powell's Boy Scouts Association, and there are 1,600 scouts.

It is remarkable to find that there is no regular system of ^{Lack of scholarships.} scholarships. Government gives two annual scholarships tenable abroad of the value of £200 a year on the result of the London Intermediate Examination. There are a few bursaries (not to exceed fifteen in number) for would-be teachers, and students

NOTES ON VERNACULAR EDUCATION IN CEYLON.

at the Training College are boarded at public cost. But there are no ordinary scholarships. Mr. Denham has evolved a scheme of private scholarships under which he has obtained Rs. 32,000 from the public. Each subscriber gives a scholarship which is individually bestowed on a pupil upon the result of an examination. The pupil must have passed vernacular standard IV and be under eleven years of age. English schools are excluded and a knowledge of English would be regarded as a disqualification. The scholarships are intended to carry village boys on to English education. The scholarship-holders are collected into a single class under a special teacher at the practising school of the Royal College, and this concentration of specially bright boys from the villages is regarded by Mr. Denham as a feature of the scheme. The boys live in a special boarding house where only English is spoken. Each scholarship is of the value of Rs. 1,200 and payment of it is spread over five years. These scholarships are regarded with great enthusiasm. English education is keenly sought after.

General characteristics of system.

This lack of public scholarships is a curious hiatus in a system which otherwise has much to commend it. The retention of a monitorial system and of grant by results would not appeal to certain critics; but their effects in Ceylon seem on the whole beneficial. Generally speaking, Ceylon, if its size be considered, is far more adequately equipped than most parts of India. The quality and tone of the schools is good. They are under better control than in India, and there is a genuine keenness for *good* education.

Figures of pupils.

The numerical result is a school population of 400,933 out of a total population of 4,110,000 or 9.76 per cent. of the population at school as against 3.2 in India. Of these, 125,779 are in government, 253,241 in aided and 21,913 in unaided schools; 32,642 are in English, and 346,378 in vernacular, government and aided schools, the remainder in schools of other kinds; and 126,871 are girls.

II.—*The Ordinances.*

Influence of the system on elementary education.

The foregoing sketch is necessary to enable the reader to place the vernacular primary school in the general educational system. The excellence of a widespread secondary education and the general control which the authorities can exercise render the maintenance of a good standard possible in primary institutions.

The level of intelligence attained by various classes of the population reacts by minimising the difficulties of a compulsory system. Besides the educational, there are of course other factors which contribute to the result. These are described in section VI.

The rest of these pages is devoted to vernacular primary education. The first things to describe are the law on this subject and its working. There are two Ordinances regarding vernacular education.

The compulsory education of village children in the vernacular is provided for by the Rural Schools Ordinance of 1907, as subsequently amended. The Rural Schools Ordinance, 1907.

It can be enforced only in rural areas and is not applicable to municipal or local board towns or to small towns. Each revenue district (or, where a province is not divided, then that province) is constituted a school district, and this again is divided into school divisions identical with the sub-divisions of a chief headman's district, *i.e.*, the unit represented by a village committee, and consisting generally of a collection of hamlets. The Governor in Council can apply the Ordinance to any of these divisions and can also withdraw its application. Application of the Ordinance.

Each school district has a district school committee, consisting of the Government Agent as chairman, the Director of Public Instruction, a chief headman nominated by the Government Agent and one or more school managers or others interested in education, nominated by the Governor. Nominated members hold office for three years. District school committees—their duties.

This committee is an important agency in the educational system. It is provided with a certain amount of funds, consisting of not more than one-third of the value of the labour of the inhabitants appropriated for the maintenance of roads. If this amount is very small, provision may be made by government and applied by the committee to buildings, furniture, etc. It is also the duty of the committee to prepare a scheme for the establishment of vernacular schools for the education of all male children and, if they think fit, of all female children. This scheme shows the number of children in each school division, the facilities already existing in the way of government and aided schools, the government schools which it is proposed to construct or enlarge

and an estimate of the cost. Before any such scheme comes into operation it has to receive the approval of the Director; and an interval is prescribed for the lodging of objections against the establishment of new schools. It then becomes the duty of the village committees to place annually at the disposal of district school committees the money or labour available out of the tax imposed under the Village Communities Ordinance.

Rules
compelling
attendance,
etc.

Where the schools in any village school division are in the district committee's opinion sufficient for the education of the children, the district committee may compel the attendance of children by means of by-laws. The period of compulsion is between 6 and 14 years of age save for Muhammadan and Tamil girls, who are not required to attend after 12 years. The attendance must be either at a public vernacular school, a grant-in-aid school or one from which an application for grant is under consideration; or it must be under arrangements certified as adequate by the Director. Exemptions from such attendance are permitted on production of a certificate from the Director recommending that the child be exempted or if attendance would involve going to a school at a distance of over three miles. No parent may be fined if he can prove to the court sickness or any other unavoidable cause of absence. The by-laws may determine the penalty for non-attendance, within the limits of a fine of Rs. 20 or imprisonment for fourteen days and an additional fine up to Rs. 10 a day for continuance of non-attendance; the days and hours of attendance; the course to be prescribed on the recommendation of the Director, etc. By-laws and their alteration or revocation require the sanction of the Governor in Council. They must also, after publication in the gazette, be laid before the Legislative Council, and any part of them may be annulled by a resolution passed within forty days thereafter. Offences against the Ordinance or by-laws are tried by the village tribunal or committee, or, if neither exists, by the Police Court. All fines are paid into the fund of the district school committee.

Village school
committees.

A village school committee is to be established for each school division. Where the Village Communities Ordinance is applied, this shall be the village committee constituted for general purposes; elsewhere it shall be similarly elected. The committee can

make rules subject to sanction regarding the construction and repair of school buildings and the provision of money or labour for such purpose. The school committee is also required to make provision, by means of its own money or labour, for the accommodation of school-children not otherwise provided and to place such money and labour as can be made available at the disposal of the district school committee.

The Ordinance also specifies certain powers of the Director ^{Powers of the Director, etc.} and of the committee. The Director has the power of appointment in vernacular schools provided by the village school committee. He and the chairman of the district school committee can inspect any school whether in receipt of aid or not. The chairman of the village school committee can inspect any government or aided school. It is specially provided that private land required for school buildings, teachers' houses, school gardens or play grounds, may be acquired.

An amendment made in 1917 requires any person who desires ^{Notification of intention to open a school.} to open a school or give instruction in English or any other language in a schoolroom or building previously not used by him for this purpose to any class attended by children of school-going age, to report to the nearest educational officer at least one month before work commences and thereafter to supply such information as the Director may call for.

The Ordinance provides that religious instruction may be given ^{Religious instruction.} only during the times specified in the time table and only to pupils of the denomination to which the school belongs, that other pupils be employed, if necessary in another part of the building, in other study during the time of religious instruction, and that a copy of the section dealing with this subject be posted up in the school in English, Sinhalese and Tamil.

A separate part of the Ordinance applies to estates, the children ^{Estate schools.} on which may be educated in the ordinary schools, if this can conveniently be done, or in a school which the superintendent of an estate or a group of estates is required to provide. The superintendent is required to submit returns and the schools are open to inspection. If these duties are neglected, the Governor in Council can authorise a person to make the necessary provision and recover the cost from the estate.

The Town
Schools
Ordinance,
1906.

Another Ordinance applies in municipal and local board towns and in towns under the operation of the Small Towns Sanitary Ordinance. It is known as the Town Schools Ordinance, 1906, and can be applied to any town by the Governor in Council. The local authority (*i.e.*, the municipal council, the local board, or, in the case of small towns, the Board of Health) is empowered to make provision for schools, and, under the same sanctions which are imposed in the case of the district school committees, to make by-laws compelling the attendance of children between 6 and 12 years old (or 6 and 10 years in the case of Tamil and Muhammadan girls), etc. On the requisition of the local authority the Director may appoint attendance officers, who are paid out of its funds. The attendance officer is armed with various powers, including those of search of premises; and obstruction to him or the giving of false information is punishable with a fine up to Rs.100 or imprisonment up to six months rigorous. Prosecutions for non-attendance take place before police or municipal magistrates and a magistrate may, if the child is habitually vagrant or in bad company, place it in an industrial school at the expense of the local authority and its parent. Any fines imposed are paid into the funds of the local authority. This Ordinance also provides that religious instruction shall not be given in any school provided by the local authority and that no school where religious instruction is given may be recognised as one in which efficient vernacular instruction is given unless it fulfils the conditions in this matter which are laid down in the Rural Schools Ordinance.

III—The Working of the Ordinances.

Application
of the
Ordinances.

The Ordinances apply practically over the whole island. They are in reality permissive measures; for it is not incumbent on a local authority, even in an area to which the measure has been applied, to make the by-laws which compel education. But they have been adopted everywhere save in two towns where their adoption is unnecessary since all children are already receiving instruction. In the north of the island and in the city of Colombo (where the Director reports 10,813 children not yet at school but where new schools are now being opened) they have only recently been applied. The system of compulsion, the Director told me, makes itself felt by three-fourths of the children of school-

going age ; out of the remaining one-fourth, half the children are prevented from coming to school by the fact that no school is available.

The reasons for this almost universal application of a permissive measure are, first that the people want education, second that there is a sufficiency of schools. Numbers affected.

This being so, it might be expected that more than 9·63 per cent. of the total population would be at school. Large as is this proportion in comparison with the percentage of 3·2 in India, it represents only 64·2 per cent. of the children of school-going age (reckoned as 15 per cent. of the population). The reasons for this appear to be as follows. As already stated, the Ordinance has only recently been brought into force in Colombo and the north of the island. Future returns will no doubt show the effect of this extension. There is no compulsion upon the children of the emigrant coolie. The aboriginal Veddas have as yet but little education. In some backward tracts, where there is no school within three miles of a village, children cannot be made to go to school, though the Ordinance is in force. In communities where *parda* is observed (*e. g.*, the Kandyans and the Moors, among whom the figures of female literacy are very low), the Ordinance is cautiously worked ; indeed its general success is partly attributed to the judicious manner in which government agents have applied its penal sections. There are also the exemptions permissible under the Ordinance. Finally there is no doubt a certain amount of slackness in some aided schools, where the managers are themselves constituted attendance officers and, unwilling to incur odium or to court unpopularity with their flocks, fail to report cases of non-attendance. Where government schools have been established, things are stricter and attendance is better. The results of the policy pursued have been satisfactory. Between 1889 and 1911, literacy (notwithstanding a stricter standard) rose from 24·6 to 40·4 per cent. among males and from 2·5 to 10·6 among females.

A second matter in which better results might be expected is Attendance. the proportion between enrolment and actual attendance. Attendance in vernacular schools in Ceylon is only 66·7 of the enrolment ; in primary schools in India it is 80·7. The explanation is that the attendance register in a school in Ceylon contains the name of

every child who ought to be at school, and not merely of those whose parents desire to send them. This fact naturally tends to depress the attendance. It is remarkable to find a much higher percentage in some girls' schools—in one I discovered that the average attendance during the past year had been 92 per cent.

Penalties
for non-atten-
dance.

The general opinion expressed to me was that cases of prosecution for non-attendance are not numerous. Nevertheless, the statistics for 1917 show that, out of a total of 128,229 civil and criminal cases instituted under the Village Communities Ordinance, 28,819 related to school offences.

General effect.

On the whole, the working of the Schools Ordinances is undoubtedly beneficial. Compulsion is not a burden on the people, because children are not required for labour (save in certain parts of the Island, where parents sometimes actually prefer to pay fines rather than forego their children's wages) and there is a genuine keenness for education. This keenness is naturally exhibited chiefly in the richer parts of the island. In some parts I was told there is apathy among many parents. But the Ordinances are not over-rigidly enforced. Social custom and other exigencies are taken into consideration and hardship is thereby avoided.

IV—The Vernacular School.

Organisation.

The vernacular school consists of an infant class in two divisions, and five primary standards. Such a school is known as a primary school. To this may be added three middle standards, the addition of any of which converts the institution into a middle school. Promotions from class to class are in all cases made by the inspecting officers and in aided schools grants are awarded on the result of their examinations. On the examination held in standard VIII a certificate is in future to be awarded to successful candidates, which will be considered in making various minor Government appointments.

Curriculum.

The curriculum of vernacular schools does not substantially differ from that pursued in India and requires no detailed description here. Arithmetic is worked throughout in English numerals, and beginning from standard IV calculations are taught in English as well as in local money, measures of length, weight, capacity, etc. Observation lessons on nature study are a feature throughout the curriculum. In the lowest classes these take the form of observation of the qualities of solids, of colours, etc. Next come simple lessons on animals, plants and common products. In standard IV

The children begin to use a book of simple botanical facts mainly connected with products of the island. Finally in the middle classes more elaborate work on the same subject is given. Sanitation is taught in standards IV to VI. Needlework is admirably done throughout the course in girls' schools, the main subjects being plain sewing, button-holing and the making of simple garments. This greatly adds to the popularity of the girls' schools for the work taught is useful in the home and may also become a source of income. I saw hardly any embroidery or other fancy work. That which is done is of a very simple nature. In some schools the making of the local lace on cushions is taught. The only manual work regularly prescribed for boys consists of simple occupations in the infant divisions. But drawing is generally taught and is good. It is proposed to introduce some forms of vocational training, *e.g.*, carpentry. Action songs are taught and collections of old folklore and cultivation songs have been introduced.

The staff consists partly of regular teachers (some of whom, **Staff**, and in Government schools a large proportion of whom, have been trained) and monitors. The system of training is more particularly described in the section on that subject. Suffice it to say here that a monitor (who has generally been through standard V and in the largest schools standards VI and VII) is required to pass yearly examinations over a maximum period of three to six years and the school or the monitor earns an allowance in accordance with his qualifications. Teachers are ordinarily drawn from among the monitors, sometimes after these have undergone a course of two years training in the government Training College, one of the aided training schools or an institution authorised to train teachers. An untrained certificate may be obtained by private study and the passing of a government examination.

The proportion of regular staff to monitors varies. Sometimes I found two teachers to three monitors, sometimes three teachers to five monitors. In a large aided Buddhist school, containing nearly a thousand boys and girls, I found ten male teachers, of whom nine held certificates, seven female teachers, of whom five held certificates, and two monitors. This school earned Rs. 3,000 as annual grant.

This system of monitors is regarded as very useful from the point of view of training, but I was told by some that it is not

calculated to improve instruction and that more regular teachers are required to supervise the work. Such complaints are natural wherever an arrangement of this sort prevails. But in Ceylon the competition for the teachers' profession is keen, with the result that monitors have to wait for vacancies and have time to acquire much skill in teaching. I came across one monitor teaching in a school who had passed his third year or highest examination four years ago. Assistants of this kind are likely to give effective aid. Girls' schools are staffed with women, whose training arrangements and scale of pay are similar to those for men. There seems to be no difficulty in getting women of excellent qualifications.

In *government schools*, a head teacher is paid according to his qualifications:—

Rs. 240 rising after 25 years to Rs. 270 a year for a 3rd class certificate holder.

Rs. 240— $\frac{3}{5}$ —480 for a 2nd class certificate holder.

Rs. 420 rising after 5 years to Rs. 480 for a 2nd class head teacher and in large schools by triennial increments of Rs. 60 to Rs. 600.

Rs. 450— $\frac{3}{5}$ —660 for a 1st class certificate holder.

Rs. 600 rising after 5 years to Rs. 660 for a first class head teacher and in large schools by five triennial increments of Rs. 60 to Rs. 900.

Assistant teachers draw Rs. 180 and, on obtaining a 2nd class certificate, Rs. 240. The teacher in charge of the school also gets 30 cents for every boy or girl in standards I to V and 50 cents in standards VI to VIII. All teachers in government schools, who draw pay not less than Rs. 270 and have rendered satisfactory service, are eligible for pensions.

In *grant-in-aid schools* the results system prevails. The management receives Rs. 1.50 for each of the 3 R's in which each pupil passes the examination of the inspecting officer in standards I or II, Rs. 2 in standard III, IV or V, and Rs. 2.50 in standards VI, VII or VIII. A girl can also earn for the management an almost similar sum for needlework, and in higher classes, grants are given for geography, grammar and history. Thus the manager can earn for a fully successful boy Rs. 4.50 a year in standards

I and II, Rs. 6 in standard III, Rs. 9 in standards IV and V, Rs. 11.50 in standard VI and Rs. 14 in standards VII and VIII. The rate for a girl is Rs. 2 or Rs. 2.50 higher than for a boy in the various standards. In addition to this, the principal teacher (as apart from the manager) earns a personal bonus equivalent to 5, 10 or 15 per cent. of the grant earned by the school, according to the enrolment and the number of passes, provided he holds a first class certificate and his work is well reported by the inspecting officer. Grants are also given for gardens—Rs. 30 for not less than a third of an acre, Rs. 50 for an acre.

There is no regular provision for pensions or provident funds in aided schools, though the code permits of this and though a scheme has been drawn up.

Pay such as this would be wealth to the elementary teacher in India, who receives, on the average, in a board school Rs. 11 a month, in a municipal school Rs. 15-4, and in a privately managed school Rs. 7-8. At the same time, the enormous difference in the value of money and the cost of living must not be forgotten.

Ordinarily speaking, boys and girls are educated in separate institutions. But there are also mixed schools. In such schools a mixed staff of men and women is maintained and needlework is taught to girls. The small children are trained on kindergarten methods. In one case I saw a special school house just built for the infant classes of the two neighbouring schools. The boys from one and the girls from the other were to be collected in this building and placed under the charge of women teachers. This plan (which is being generally introduced) has the advantage of relieving large schools of the pressure of numbers, of the cheerful though disturbing noises incidental to an infant institution, of bringing the small children together and of placing them under the care of women. The school pupils appear thoroughly alert and intelligent. Discipline is good and, conducted on rational lines, by no means robs them of animation. Teachers and pupils fraternise in garden work without any apparent loss of dignity on the part of the former.

The school building is quite a feature in Ceylon. Nearly all the village schools which I saw (and they occur at frequent intervals along the roads) were built on one general pattern. There

is also an admirable pattern for town schools. The main feature of both is their open-air character—a half-wall of about four feet, and a high roof carried on pillars. Plans of both types are given and several pictures of specimens are reproduced.

The village school is ordinarily a long plain building, from 20' to 30' broad and of any length, according as it is intended to accommodate 100 or 1,000 children. Teachers are required to live on the spot, and the headmaster's house is sometimes built at one end of the long school-room and under the same roof. This is shown in the plan and some of the pictures. Separate houses are however found more satisfactory. The material varies. In the newer schools the floor and walls are ordinarily *pucka* and the roof of good tiles; a building of this kind costs about Rs. 2.30 per superficial square foot. In other types I found *kutcha* floors (generally with *pucka* edging), *pucka* walls and pillars and palm-leaf roof; one such building which I inspected had cost only Re. 0.80 per square foot and yet remained in excellent preservation and as good and healthy a building as one could desire. Most of the aided village schools are built on the same type, but sometimes the materials used are humbler. This kind of school-house has great advantages—abundance of space, good light, airiness and cheapness. Its drawback is the noise created by a number of classes working in the same room. To remedy this defect the house is sometimes broken up into several buildings, arranged near to each other in a square, a T or some similar pattern. Where there is only one building the Director proposes to lessen the disadvantage by the use of partitions.

The town school is more elaborate. Several class-rooms are connected with the main room. The teacher's house (shown in one of the pictures) is separate from the school. A certain amount of architectural effect is attempted and undoubtedly achieved. When this is said it is not to be understood that the village type is unpleasing in appearance; its proportions, simplicity and obvious suitability for the purpose it serves constitute a sufficient charm. The town school is a distinct ornament to the quarter in which it is built.

Government schools are built by contractors acting under the district school committee and thoroughly supervised. The

village committee is under an obligation to execute repairs. The newer type of school probably seldom wants repair.

I was greatly struck by the good compounds of the schools, in the country often spacious, in the town not cramped, and always neatly fenced and kept, often with a good school garden. The furniture and equipment are simple but sufficient. The walls are cemented inside to serve as blackboards. War pictures and general illustrations are fairly numerous. The War leaflet has been used as a reader in the schools. Mr. Denham has instituted the practice of presenting special pictures to schools whose condition he finds particularly meritorious.

The open type of building adopted in Ceylon is not unknown in India. The Ceylon plan has been tried.* The trial is reported not to have been altogether successful. Reasons for this suggest themselves. Tradition is in favour of the full wall. Strong fencing (it is often of barbed wire in Ceylon) is required if cattle are to be prevented from committing depredations. The headmaster's house on the premises is a guarantee against theft and needless damage. Doubtless there are some parts of India where climatic conditions would tell against such a type or where the materials best suited for its construction are lacking. But I can see no particular reason against its adoption over large areas.

V. - The training of teachers.

The recruitment of teachers is based largely upon a system Monitors. of monitors in the village schools. Promising boys who have ordinarily passed standard V may become monitors and remain on, learning and teaching in the school. After a year's work they appear at the first year monitors' examination, the teacher receiving a bonus of Rs. 20 for each who passes. After the succeeding one and two years they pass the second and third year monitors' examination, the teacher receiving on these occasions bonuses of Rs. 30 and Rs. 40. The last of these examinations is considered equal to a third class teacher's certificate. The course consists of such subjects as Sinhalese literature, grammar, geography, arithmetic and drawing—in fact, a continuation of the school course. But the monitor also teaches under supervision in the school and thus undergoes a useful practical training. If he

* Indian Education in 1913-14, page 19.

airy class-rooms, simple but excellent dormitories and houses for the staff. A picture is reproduced of the interior of one of the class-rooms, with two classes of students. (These two classes, one of male, the other of female students, are separately taught and normally sit at opposite ends of the room; for purposes of photographing they were placed together.) In addition to the Principal and the Lady Principal (who are missionaries) there are six teachers, four of whom are men and two are women. At the time of my visit there were 35 male and 31 female students. The qualification for admission is either the third year monitors' examination or the government entrance examination for training classes. The course is of two years, the student earning the second class trained certificate or, if his work is not good enough, the third class. The girls are also generally put through a preliminary course of a year in general knowledge. The course is rather lighter than that prescribed for the government training college. On the completion of five years' satisfactory service after obtaining the second class certificate a teacher earns the first class trained certificate in contrast to those who have been trained in the government college and who earn this only after ten years. A neighbouring government Anglo-vernacular school is used for practice. I was informed that twice a week two students teach a lesson to a class in two sections, while the others listen to the lessons. But, in addition to this, an arrangement had recently been made under which a class is put wholly in charge of the students of the first year for six weeks and in that of second year students for a like period. The government grant is calculated in the way shown on page 17. The passed students are sometimes employed in government schools but generally in the service of the mission, where they earn from Rs. 15 to Rs. 20. The institution is clearly inspired by a spirit of enthusiasm. The students are smart, well-dressed and obviously absorbed in their studies.

Training
classes in
aided schools.

Aided schools, whether English or vernacular, are also encouraged to train students on a system not dissimilar from that of monitors and monitresses in government schools. In vernacular schools a pupil teacher can be maintained, provided he has passed standard V and is 14 years of age. The course is of three years (two in the case of English teachers) and includes practical work in the school. Examinations are held, and for each pupil teacher who passes and

earns a good report on his practical work, the management receives the full grant for a pass in standards VI, VII or VIII, plus Rs. 30, Rs. 50 or Rs. 75 respectively in each examination.

VI.—Reasons for success of the Educational System.

It has already been pointed out that the percentage to the population of those who attend school in Ceylon is just three times what it is in India. The percentage of literacy for males is 40.4 and for females 10.6 against 10.6 and 1.0 respectively in India. The visitor who is acquainted with Indian village conditions will be impressed in Ceylon by the wholesale way in which things are done and also by the excellence of the education imparted. He will be thinking of the small, dark building, stuffy in summer and sunless in winter, with its fifty pupils, mainly crowded together in the infant classes, which so often represents the educational centre of an Indian village; and he will contrast it with these open school-rooms, spacious and airy, with anything from 100 to 1,000 pupils divided into well-proportioned classes, each with its teacher and monitor. The school in Ceylon is alive and things go with a business-like energy which is too frequently lacking among the stagnant lower classes which overload Indian institutions. There are reasons for this contrast; and, when we consider them, it is only fair to bear in mind that India too can show many admirable elementary schools—indeed whole tracts where such schools abound. The contrast is between the average institutions found in the two countries.

The natural wealth of the island is a potent factor among these causes. It permits of a reasonable expenditure upon education and of the retention of the children at school beyond the age when they become useful for agricultural or other work. The ancient stories of this "land of the ruby and the hyacinth" are no myth and are as true now as in the days of the Greek writers. Tea, rubber, plumbago, cocoa, the arcca nut, cinnamon and above all the coconut and its products, to say nothing of precious stones, constitute an unfailing mine of riches. Here the cultivator is indeed blessed; the earth pours out for him an easy livelihood and

a few acres of coconut palms bring him a solid monthly income.* There is no income tax, no land revenue. Indeed, the only form of direct taxation is a poll-tax of Rs. 1.50 a year on all males between 18 and 55 years of age. The revenue is derived from customs, the railway and other such sources. The annual value of exports is £3.6 per head of the population against £0.53 in India. The revenue is £1.1 per head against £0.37 in India.

Thus Ceylon is in a position to afford a good educational system. The expenditure on education from public funds per head of the population is more than double that in India. And yet this result is accomplished by the allotment to education of a smaller percentage of the public revenue. Ceylon spends 3.5 per cent. of her public revenue on education, India spends 4.3.

General desire
for education.

Then again there is the Ordinance, which it is easy to enforce with reasonable strictness because of the abundance of educational facilities and the general desire on the part of the people for instruction. The wealth of the island and the advanced state of civilisation to which most of its inhabitants have arrived render education popular. Caste and *parda* are of minor importance. Sinhalese girls come readily to school. This fact radically affects the attitude of the people towards education; the literate mother regards literacy as the rightful heritage of her offspring. The only extensive area in India which can compare in the matter of education with Ceylon is Burma, which also is mainly a Buddhist country. In Burma 37.6 per cent. of the male population and 6.1 of the female are literate.

Westernising
influences.

Westernising influences have been strong in the island and, without breaking down the national characteristics, have left their marks in many ways upon the life of the people. The missionary element is potent and adds considerably to the educational assets of the island. The European element in the population is substantial and (including Burghers and Eurasians) amounts to 9 per cent. No less than 0.8 per cent. of the population are enrolled in English schools. The number of males literate in English in 1911 was three and a half times the corresponding

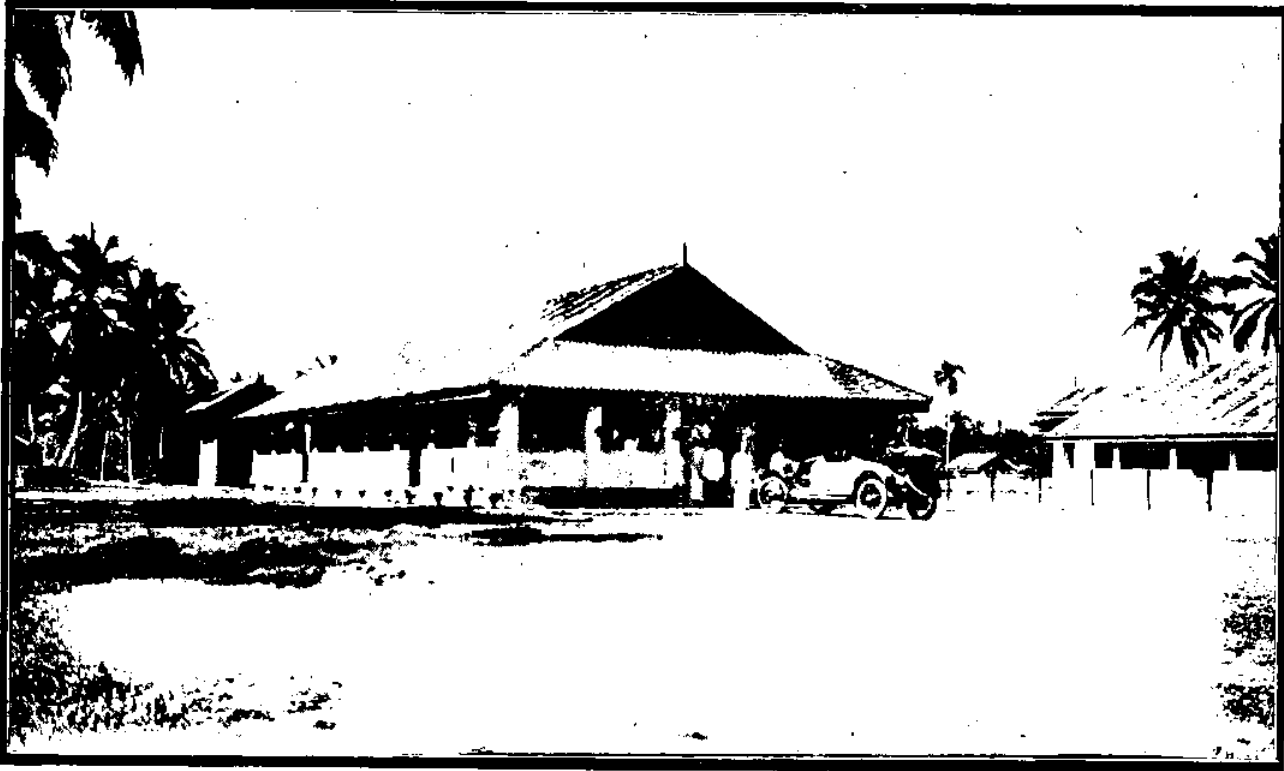
* I was informed that an acre of coconut gives Rs. 20 a month, i. e., from the mere sale of the produce. Others told me that this was so only in the richer parts of the island, but admitted that the return was large even elsewhere. Such calculations make no reckoning of the further return from the manufacture of oil, coir and copra, with which the cultivator has nothing to do.

figure in India and the number of females was twelve times. In some of its aspects Ceylon appears to have parted from the habits of the immemorial East and to have adopted European ways and requirements.

Again, vernacular education in Ceylon is worth having, not only because the people feel the need of it, but also because it is good. The teachers are reasonably paid. Training, though by no means universal, is thorough. The headmaster is alert and takes pride in his school. Control is effective. Much of the education is imparted in government schools, which are sufficiently numerous to set a high standard. Inspection is adequate. For a population which is not larger than that of some Indian districts there are a Director of Education and an Assistant Director; there are three inspectors, one inspectress, an inspectress of drawing and an inspectress of needlework—all Europeans, who tour throughout the island; there are five inspectors of English schools, with territorial jurisdiction; and there are 30 sub-inspectors. An Indian district has on the average one-third of the services of a single inspector, one-third of those of an assistant inspector, one deputy inspector and half the services of a similar officer, and four sub-inspectors or officers of like grade. For a district containing four millions of people, the allowance of inspecting officers would ordinarily be larger than this—possibly three times as large. But, even so, the contrast is remarkable.

Such, so far as I could ascertain, are the reasons which render compulsory education a fairly easy problem in Ceylon and which keep the instruction at a high level. The natural advantages of the country are its own and cannot be artificially reproduced elsewhere. But perhaps these few notes may be found to contain some suggestions not altogether inapplicable to India.

ILLUSTRATIONS & PLANS:



Village school—Separate Buildings for boys and girls.

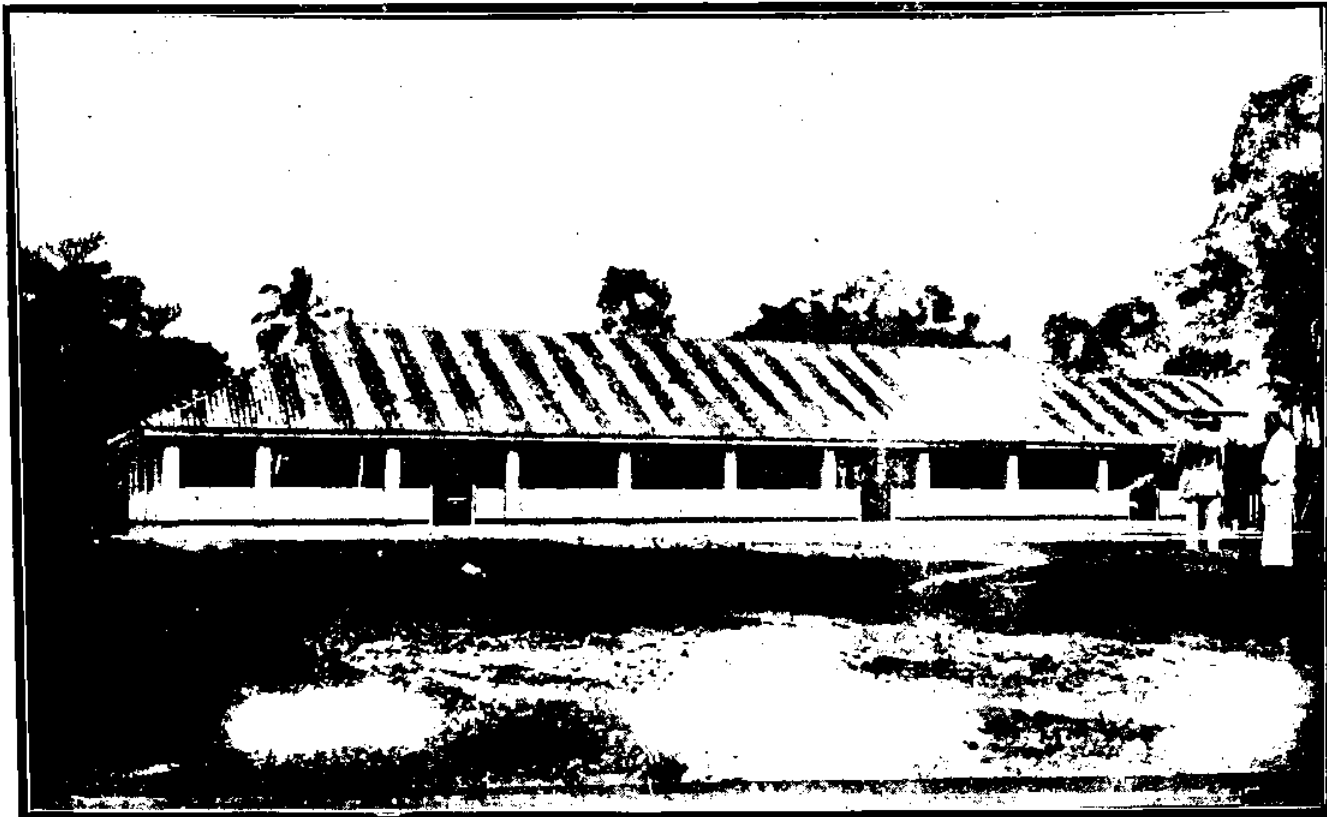
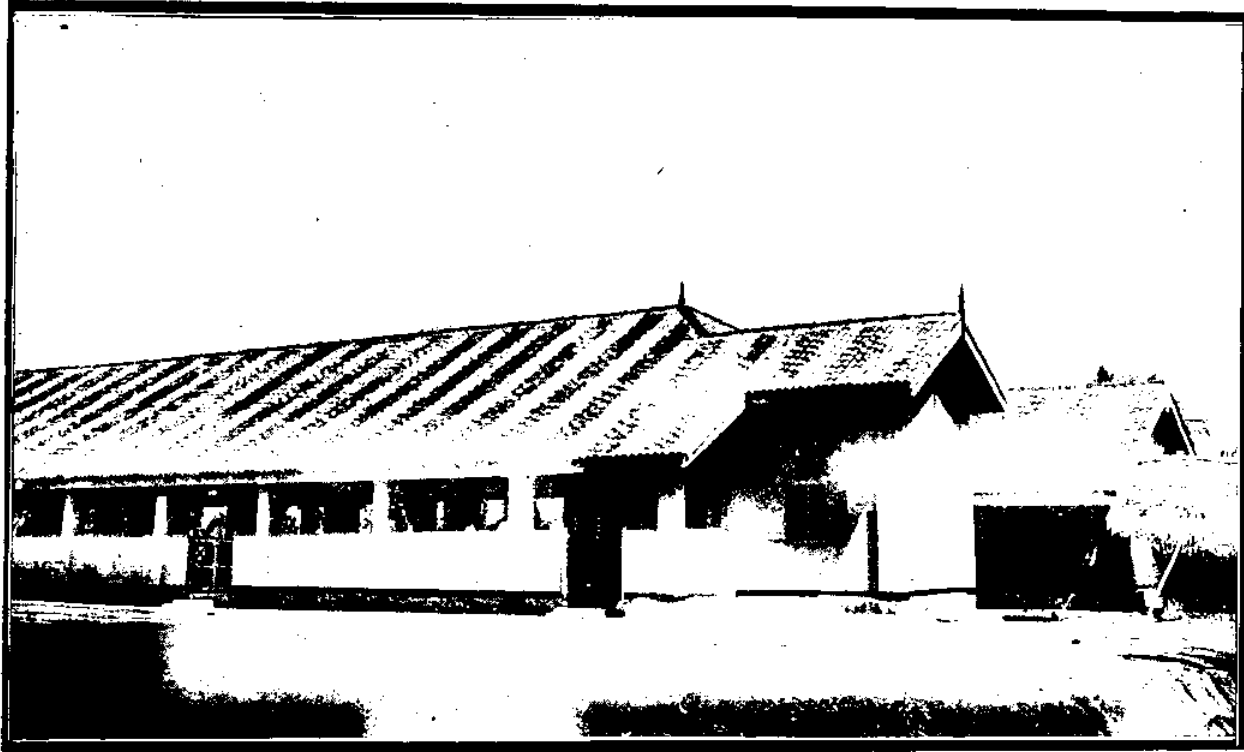


Photo.-Mechl. Dept., Thomason College, Roorkee.

Village school.



Infant class school.



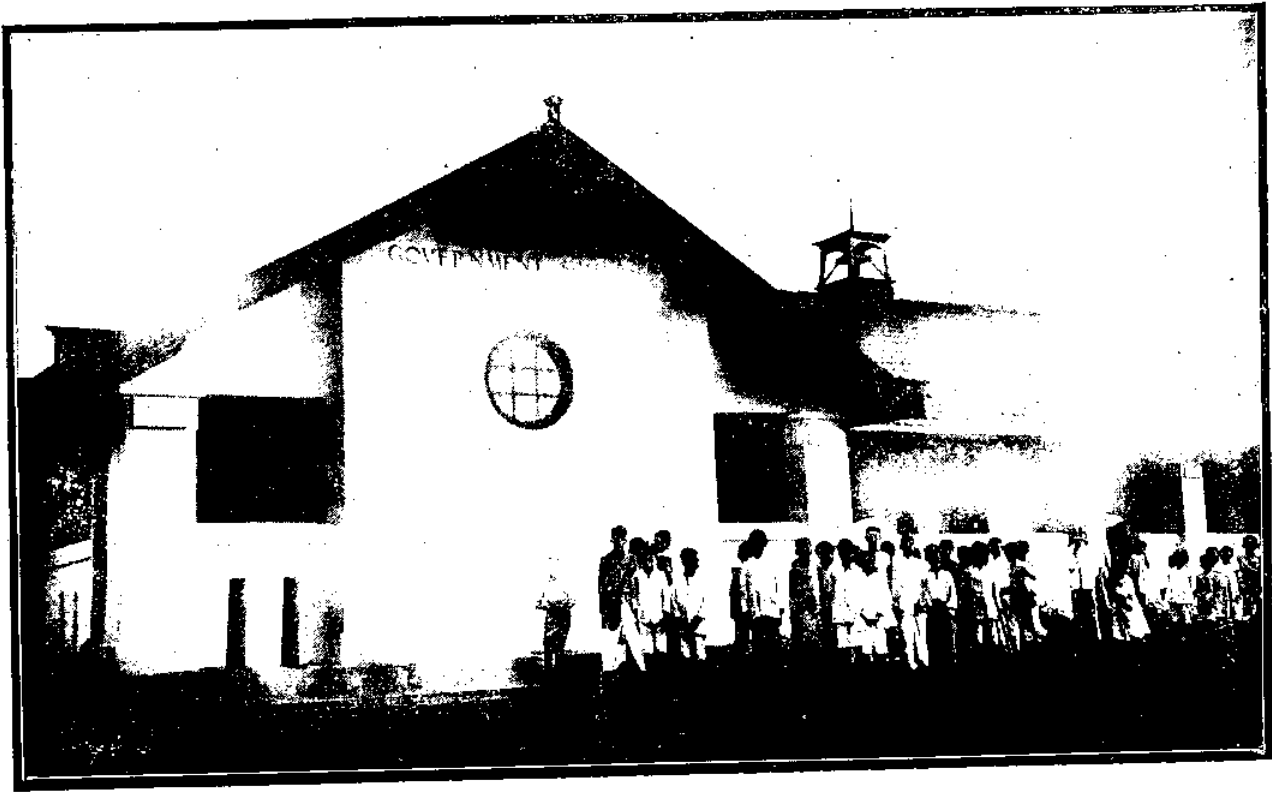
Photo.-Mechl. Dept., Thomason College, Roorkee.

The Training Colony, Peradeniya.



Photo.-Mechl. Dept., Thomason College, Roorkee.

Village Schools of humbler type.



Town school.



Photo.-Mechl. Dept., Thomason College, Roorkee.

Town School—Corner of school and headmaster's house.



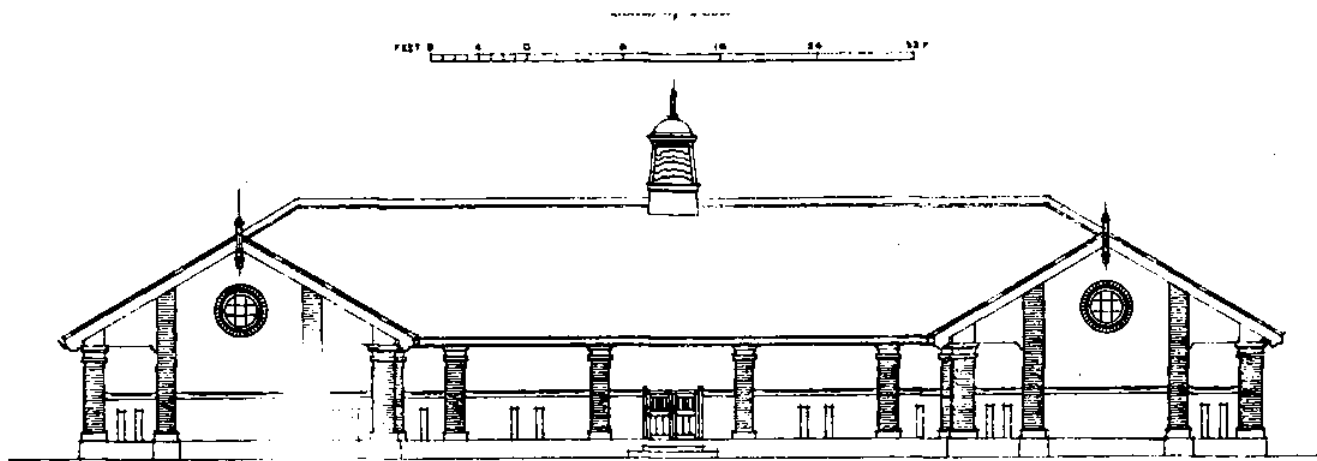
Photo.-Mechl. Dept., Thomason College, Roorkee.

School gardens.

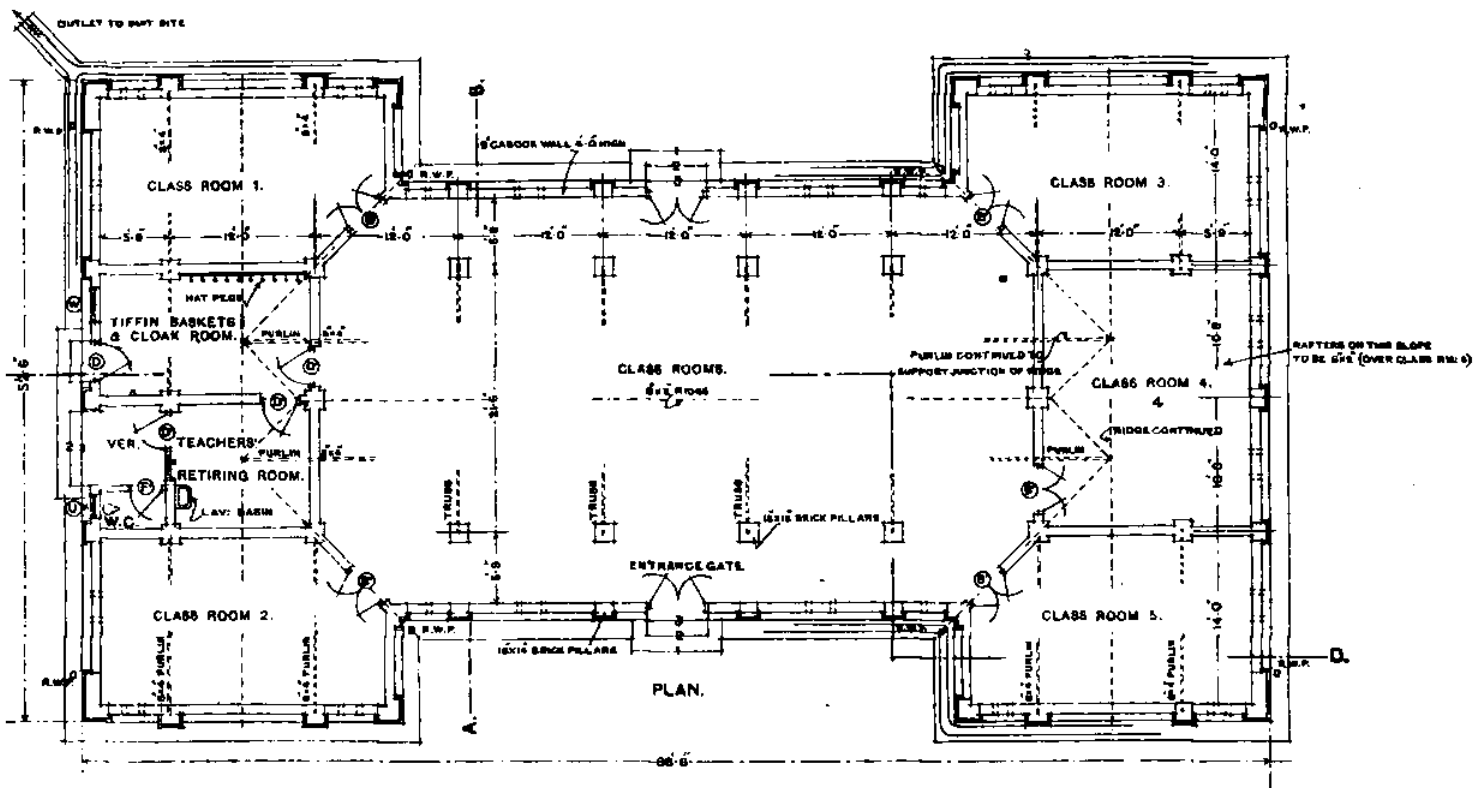


Photo.-Mechl. Dept., Thomason College, Roorkee.

School garden.

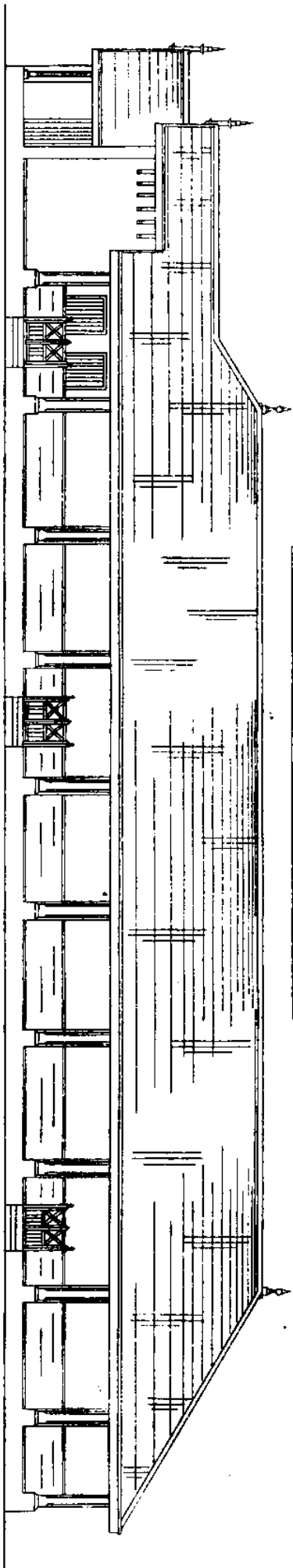
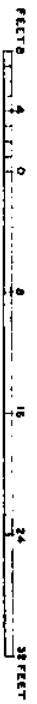


FRONT ELEVATION.

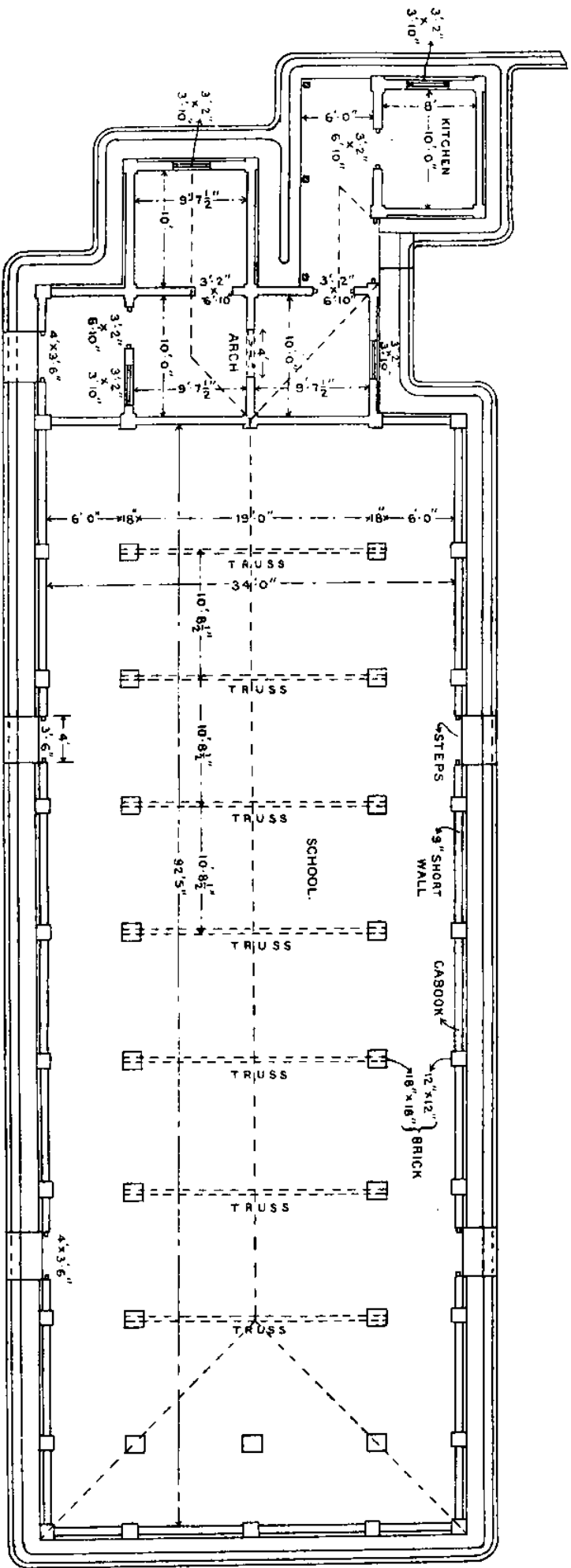


PLAN FOR VILLAGE SCHOOL.

Scale of Feet



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BUREAU OF EDUCATION
INDIA

Pamphlet No. 1
DRAWING AND MANUAL TRAINING
IN PUNJAB SCHOOLS

By J. Y. BUCHANAN
Inspector of Drawing and Educational Handwork, Punjab.



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PREFACE.

THIS is the first of a series of pamphlets which it is hoped to publish from the Bureau of Education, India, from time to time. It was decided at the Conference of Directors held in February 1917 that such a series would serve a useful purpose. These pamphlets will differ from the Occasional Reports in being of a less formal and elaborate nature. They will deal, in a few pages, with any subject which appears to deserve treatment, with any recent development with which it appears desirable that educationists throughout India should be acquainted. These subjects, as in the case of similar series published in other countries, are likely to be of a varied kind. Where a particular method of instruction or an institution is described, it will be for the reader to consider which of its characteristics are worthy of imitation or possible of introduction among the circumstances which prevail elsewhere. It is not pretended that what is described represents a counsel of perfection or will be universally applicable. The views expressed will be those of the writer in each case.

The present pamphlet deals with drawing and manual instruction. Some of the principles which should underlie the teaching of drawing as a work of instruction were discussed in the fourth Occasional Report. Here the actual working of a definite system is described. Whatever the particular method pursued in a school, the general aim will be the same. 'It is now beginning to be understood,' says Mr. Buchanan, 'that the purpose of drawing is not merely to obtain certain mechanical results on paper, nor to produce artists, but to give to the pupils a new power of expression serviceable for the ordinary needs of life.' The use of incidental drawing and delineation in ordinary class lessons is also a valuable aid to the acquisition of knowledge and the expansion of the faculties. 'The ideal state of the teaching of drawing in schools would be to have every class master able to teach drawing to his class.'

The importance of manual training has been recognised by the Government of India in the Education Resolution of 1913 and elsewhere. The difficulties of its wide introduction in India are undeniable. The account here given of the centre at Lahore

shows how these can be at least partially overcome in towns. An inspection of this centre forcibly reminded me of similar centres which I have seen doing successful work in the cities of America and other countries.

One of the principal difficulties connected with manual instruction is the provision of capable teachers. A few facts have accordingly been collected which may be of assistance to those who contemplate the introduction of such instruction into their schools. In the Punjab itself no special facilities are offered for the production of such teachers, though a few undergo a short course at the Lahore centre. Teaching experience and a knowledge of drawing are regarded as essential, and practically all the men selected thus far are certificated drawing masters whose hereditary craft is carpentry. In the United Provinces arrangements exist at the training colleges of Allahabad and Lucknow, the qualification for admission as manual instructors being the intermediate examination at the former place and the school leaving certificate at the latter. In Madras two special instructors in manual training have been appointed. One of these is attached to the Teachers' College, Saidapet, where his principal function is to instruct teachers, ordinarily of the secondary grade, for employment in secondary schools and colleges. The course of training extends over two years. All students of the secondary grade, too, are allowed to undergo training, with a view to enabling them to become either general teachers or manual instructors. Twenty students are reported to have joined the class in the present year. Twenty teachers have undergone instruction in Bombay. The Inspector General of Education in Mysore has favoured me with a description of the operations in that State. Graduate teachers are trained in wood sloyd at Bangalore and Mysore, and receive Rs. 15 a month in addition to the pay of ordinary teachers. The total expenditure on the teaching of this subject in the schools is Rs. 10,000 a year.

As to the cost of teachers, the stipend given during the short course at Lahore is Rs. 30 a month. No regular scale of salary

has been fixed for the instructors; but appointments have been made on Rs. 50. In the United Provinces, the monthly stipend during training is Rs. 15 and the pay of instructors in Government high schools ranges from Rs. 40 to Rs. 70, and in training colleges from Rs. 60 to Rs. 100. In Madras too the stipend is Rs. 15; the pay ordinarily secured by passed students is from Rs. 25 to Rs. 35 a month in privately managed schools.

H. SHARP.

Delhi, 1918.

DRAWING.

In preparing this note the writer has endeavoured not only to present an account of what has already been done in the schools and training institutions of the Punjab, but also to state the general principles and aims which underlie the courses of instruction. Outlines of the courses followed in drawing and manual training are given, in the hope that they will be of practical value to inspectors, headmasters and teachers.

The introduction of drawing into Punjab Schools is of comparatively recent date. In 1897 drawing became a compulsory part of the Lahore Training College course, where the subject was taught mainly from a professional stand-point. Student teachers were required to show that they possessed a serviceable power of diagrammatic representation, and that they could use it in the form of blackboard drawing, for the illustration of lessons. The class teacher's certificate examination included a test in blackboard drawing. It was recognised, however, that in the absence of any previous training it would be impossible in the very short college course to give sufficient time to drawing to ensure that class teachers would be able to teach it as a class subject. History.
Training institutions.

Special teachers had to be trained; and the Punjab education authorities determined to introduce a special course for drawing masters in their School of Arts at Lahore. Accordingly in 1899 a course was established in the Mayo School of Arts, Lahore, and a certificate, called the drawing master's certificate, was awarded to successful candidates by the Education Department. External students were allowed to enter for the examination; since 1915 this privilege has been withdrawn, and the course now covers a period of three years. Drawing master's certificate.

In 1901 Mr. H. T. Knowlton, Principal of the Government Central Training College, Lahore—to whose efforts the progress already made is largely due—prepared a course in drawing and educational handwork for the normal schools, and in 1903 he published a course for primary schools. In 1903 drawing became an optional subject of study in the middle and high schools of the Province. Drawing introduced into middle and high schools.

Difficulties.

The efforts to introduce drawing were greatly handicapped by the difficulty experienced in obtaining trained teachers, and also by the attitude of parents, school managers, and even District Inspectors, many of whom regarded the subject as an accomplishment, useful no doubt to some, but of little practical value to the average pupil. This attitude is fortunately slowly changing to one of appreciation.

Changes in drawing master's certificate course.

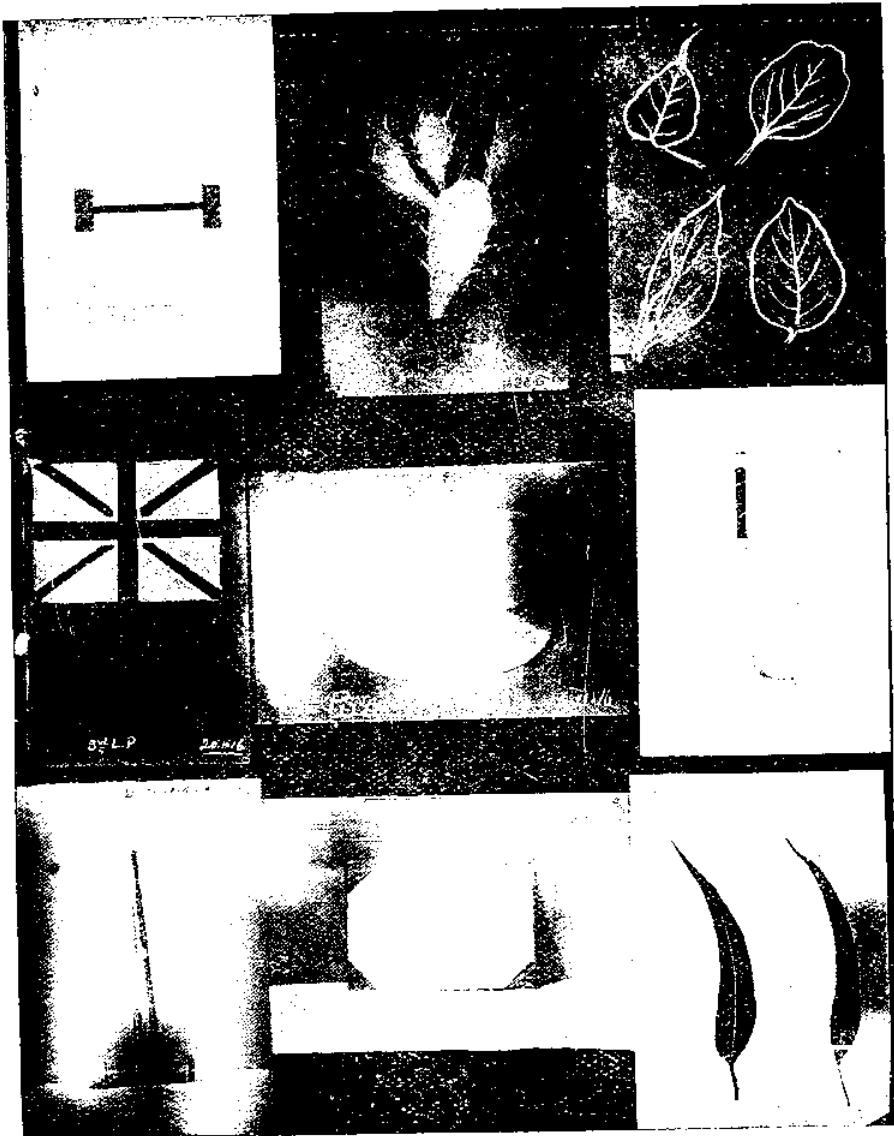
As regards the drawing masters, not only were they few in number, but the men obtainable, although frequently good draftsmen, were deficient in general education, and they had had no training in the methods and practice of teaching. During the year 1914-15 two important changes were made in the drawing master's certificate course. In the first place, a standard of general education was fixed for all candidates, *viz.* that they must have passed the vernacular middle examination, and secondly lectures on the methods and practice of teaching were added to the course. It is hoped that these changes will result in providing a better type of teacher.

Appointment of a specialist.

In 1913 the writer was sent out to the Punjab as a specialist in drawing and educational handwork in order to organise and develop the teaching of these subjects. After a year's experience of Punjab conditions he was asked by the Director of Public Instruction to revise the school drawing courses, and to bring them into line with *modern practice*. That this was necessary is not surprising in view of the great and universal changes that have taken place in the teaching of drawing during the last decade.

Changes in training institutions.

Accordingly in 1914 new schemes of work were prepared and introduced; they will be described later. In 1915 the courses prescribed for class teachers in the training institutions were changed and brought into line, and the class teacher's certificate examination now includes a test in object and nature drawing, as well as that in blackboard illustration. Students who have had instruction in drawing during their school course are now entering the training institutions, and we hope shortly to be able to provide class teachers able to teach drawing as a class subject.



1. Examples of primary school Drawing.



(2). Examples of middle school Drawing.

In 1914 special classes were formed for the further training of teachers. These were held in the headquarters of each district, and all special teachers of drawing, as well as selected class teachers attended. The duration of the classes was usually a fortnight, during which period a series of lectures on drawing was given, and the teachers worked through a course of school drawing. The classes met daily from 10 A.M. till 3 P.M. The lectures dealt with the theory and practice of teaching drawing, and practical demonstrations in class teaching were given. The classes are being followed up by visits of inspection, when practical difficulties are dealt with. At the close of each class the work was exhibited, and the exhibitions were attended by many parents, teachers and pupils; the practical value of the subject was recognised, and much interest was aroused.

It is now beginning to be understood that the purpose of drawing is not merely to obtain certain mechanical results on paper, nor to produce artists, but to give to the pupils a new power of expression serviceable for the ordinary needs of life. During the course of the lectures it was shown that drawing is the primary means of expression in the constructive and decorative arts; that it promotes the close observation, muscular control, and skill of hand, which are necessary in the practice of every craft, and are the ground of intelligent appreciation and good taste; that the study of drawing opens to the mind the wealth of human treasure that exists in the form of architecture, sculpture, painting, and leads to a keener appreciation of the beauties of nature, thus greatly increasing the pleasure and significance of life.

While the main object of special classes was the further training of those already engaged as special teachers, it was thought desirable to include a number of vernacular class teachers, in the hope that through their agency, drawing might be introduced into the vernacular, middle and primary schools, whose budget does not permit them to afford special teachers. Subsequent visits have shown that many of these teachers have been able to introduce drawing into their schools, and their pupils are doing good work. Such teachers have the great advantages of knowing how to teach, as well as a personal knowledge of their pupils, advantages which the special drawing teacher finds it difficult to gain. The ideal

state of the teaching of drawing in schools would be to have every class master able to teach drawing to his class.

New course
in drawing.

In the new school drawing course introduced in 1914, the subjects to be studied and represented are classed generally under two heads—nature forms and manufactured objects, a judicious balance being maintained between them. The examples selected are graded to suit the different classes, and are arranged so as to follow each other in a progressive course. Throughout the course the proper manipulation of the pencil, brush and pastel are carefully taught with the view not only of giving technical skill, but of the formation of habits of thoughtful and accurate observation. Drawing with coloured pastels and water-colours forms an essential part of the new course.

Drawing
models.

In choosing examples for the school drawing work two important considerations have been kept in mind, first, that as far as possible the objects and natural forms to be drawn should be such as may be found in every village, and secondly, that the additional expenditure involved should be kept as low as possible. In the latter connection it should be remembered that the waste material of the school and the home, jars, empty tins, bottles, cooking and drinking vessels, cardboard, wood and tin boxes of different forms and colours, the workshop, the laboratory, the school museum and the fittings of the classroom will all provide excellent studies. The pupils too, in the writer's experience, have proved most willing to help as far as lies in their power, and if each object mentioned in the following lists suggests only one other of a similar kind, there will be no lack of material. Throughout the course the endeavour is to make the pupils feel that they are searching for the truth and recording it as they see it. The photographs (Figures 1, 2 and 3) illustrate typical primary, middle, and high class work in object and nature study. The following directions and schemes of work were issued by the Punjab Education Department as a memorandum on school drawing.

EXTRACTS FROM THE MEMORANDUM ON ART DRAWING FOR PUNJAB SCHOOLS.

Drawing with instruments.

Use of instru-
ments.

The pupils of all the classes should have practice in the use of rulers, compasses, and set squares, in measuring, in setting out

figures and in drawing to scale, etc. This should be taken rather as a development of arithmetic in the younger classes, and as a branch of mathematics in the elder, than as a part of the instruction in art drawing.

The use of these instruments will also come in connection with several of the manual occupations, chiefly in cardboard modelling and in woodwork, for both of which drawing with instruments is a matter of first importance. Drawing to scale in plan and elevation, the development of surfaces, and exercises in solid geometry, should always form an important part of the syllabus for these subjects. All such occupations, which depend upon drawing with instruments for their basis, should be established and developed as branches of applied geometry.

Drawing to scale should invariably be done from actual measurements made by the pupils themselves. As the measurements are taken, they should be noted on rough sketches previously drawn by the pupils. The most convenient scale to adopt should be determined by the pupils from their own calculations, and not selected for them by their teacher. Each pupil should construct his own scale, on the edge of a straight strip of paper, so that it can be applied directly to the drawing for measurement and setting off sizes. These strips should be kept by the pupils for use in future exercises.

Two or three views of the object should, as a rule, be made—usually the front and side elevations, and a plan—and these should always be placed in proper relation to each other on the paper, and showing the system of projection. Scale drawing can thus be made to lead up to, and include the elements of solid geometry. The educational value of this work is very great, and every endeavour should be made to develop it to the full.

Art Drawing.

The children in the infant and lower primary department should spend a considerable part of their time in drawing from simple forms and objects connected with nature study and object lessons. They should be provided with pieces of stout mill-board 17" x 12", which can be readily obtained in the bazar at a cost of one anna each; these should be treated with Indian ink so that

the drawings may be clearly seen, and they should be secured to the desks in an upright position at about arm's length; where there are no desks, the walls of class rooms may be painted black at a suitable height. On these the children should be taught to draw boldly with chalk many of the simple forms, natural and manufactured, mentioned in the scheme. This free drawing is to be carried on in addition to formal drawing on tinted and white paper. The mill-boards may also be used by the children as flat surfaces on which to rest their paper when engaged in crayon or pencil drawing.

Mass-drawing. As a preparation for formal drawing the young children of the first two primary classes should also be practised in mass-drawing, by which is meant the rubbing on of chalk, or crayon in masses. When beginning this work, round and elliptical forms are best, as the motion required to produce them is the easiest for children, being not unlike a child's natural scribbles, except that they are brought under control. These should be combined with simple lessons on the primary and secondary colours. The teacher should frequently vary the mass-drawing lesson by one on outline. Having provided each child with a leaf he should explain the method of drawing it, by means of the blackboard. He should be careful to rub out his illustration before allowing the children to begin. At this stage the children should be encouraged to represent all they can see both in form and in colour; each child having his own box of crayons should select the colours required.*

Teacher's sketches on blackboard.

SCHEMES OF WORK.

First and Second Primary Classes.

Infants and 1st primary class. To draw to a large scale on blackboards, mill-boards, or *takhtis*, with chalk, and to a small scale with coloured crayons on tinted or white paper, from objects of simple form and attractive colour, such as discs of red, blue, and yellow colour, not less than 12" in diameter, coins, biscuits, envelopes with stamps, book covers, flags, playing-cards, kites, hoop, beads, flag and staff, etc.

*NOTE.—The results at this stage from an adult's point of view may be poor indeed; the teacher should not be discouraged however, but by careful instruction and correction he will lead the children to a more correct rendering of form and colour.

Luggage label, blotter, book with coloured binding, punkha, Chinese lantern, toy mallet, kites, school room scrolls, walking stick, toy rattle, etc. In these classes flat objects have as far as possible been chosen, in order to avoid the difficulties of perspective representation.

Leaves of simple form, such as *ber*, *pipal*, etc., and simple fruits.

The above list is suggestive, but not by any means exhaustive. Some of the large examples such as kites, punkhas, flags, etc., will serve as class exercises for demonstrating methods and principles, while of the smaller objects such as biscuits, envelopes, etc., there should be one specimen for every child. Along with this systematic drawing, where proper supervision can be secured, the children should be encouraged to illustrate in their own way the stories told to them by their teachers. Such work, though it may not be correct "drawing," is of great value as a means of expression and should have a place in the drawing scheme.

Third Primary Class.

In this class formal drawing, that is, drawing with pencil in outline, will begin, and while continuing to practise the free drawing with chalk of natural forms and objects on mill-boards, exercises must now be given in space judging and practice in drawing lines, combinations of lines, curves, simple and compound. These may be taught in an interesting and intelligent fashion by arranging stout string on the blackboard in the forms required. A reference to the drawings illustrated for this class will show how advantage is taken of space judging to introduce the use of the brush and water colour.* Primary colours should be used at this stage and at the beginning of the session secondary colours may be introduced, and the children allowed to prepare their own colours. The teacher will demonstrate how to hold and use the brush. The greater part of the time should now be spent on pencil drawing and painting, and there will not be time for more than one or two crayon studies.

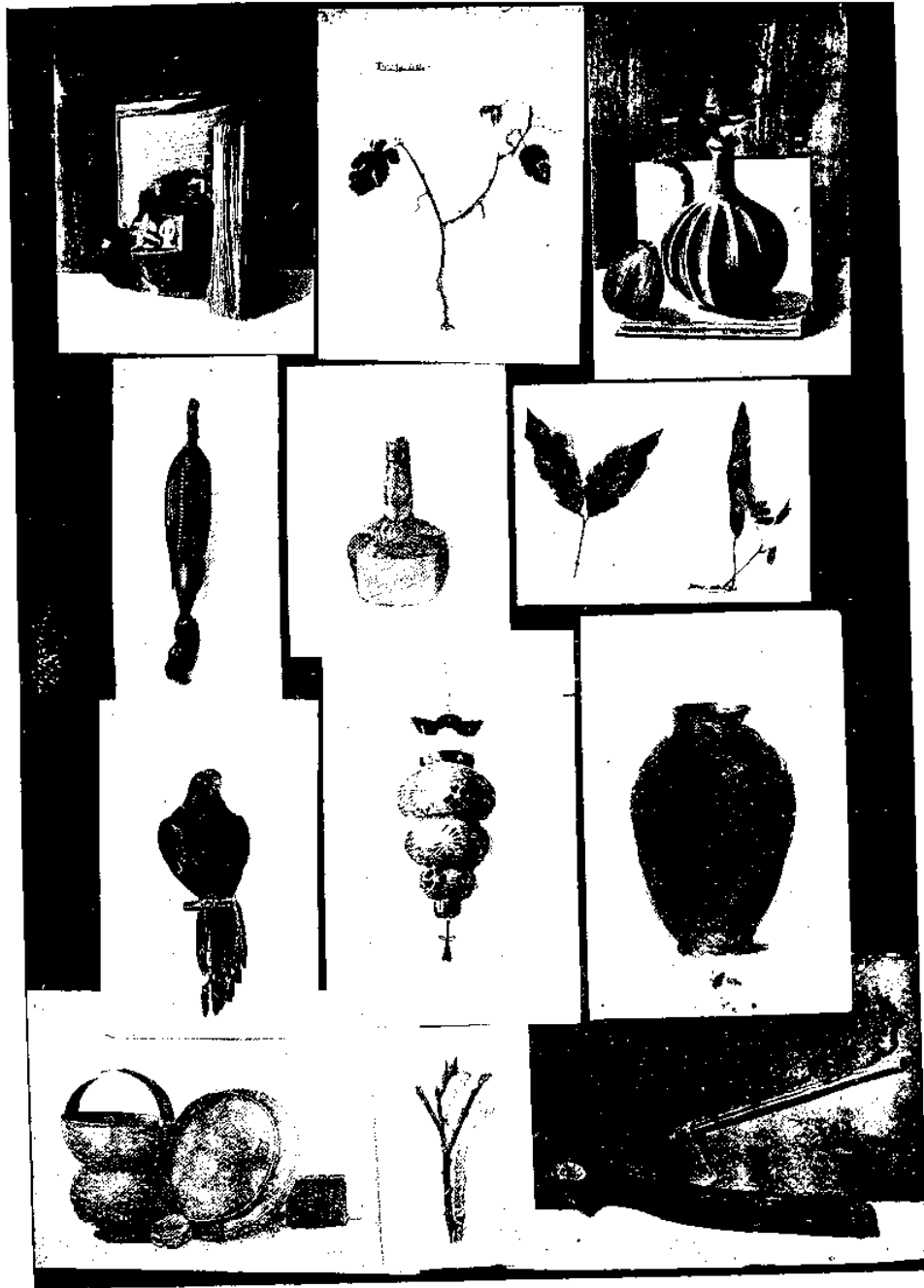
To draw to a large scale on blackboards or mill-boards, with chalk, and to a small scale with pencil, brush, and coloured crayons on tinted and white paper.

* See "Art Drawing for Indian Schools." Publishers, Macmillan & Co., Bombay.

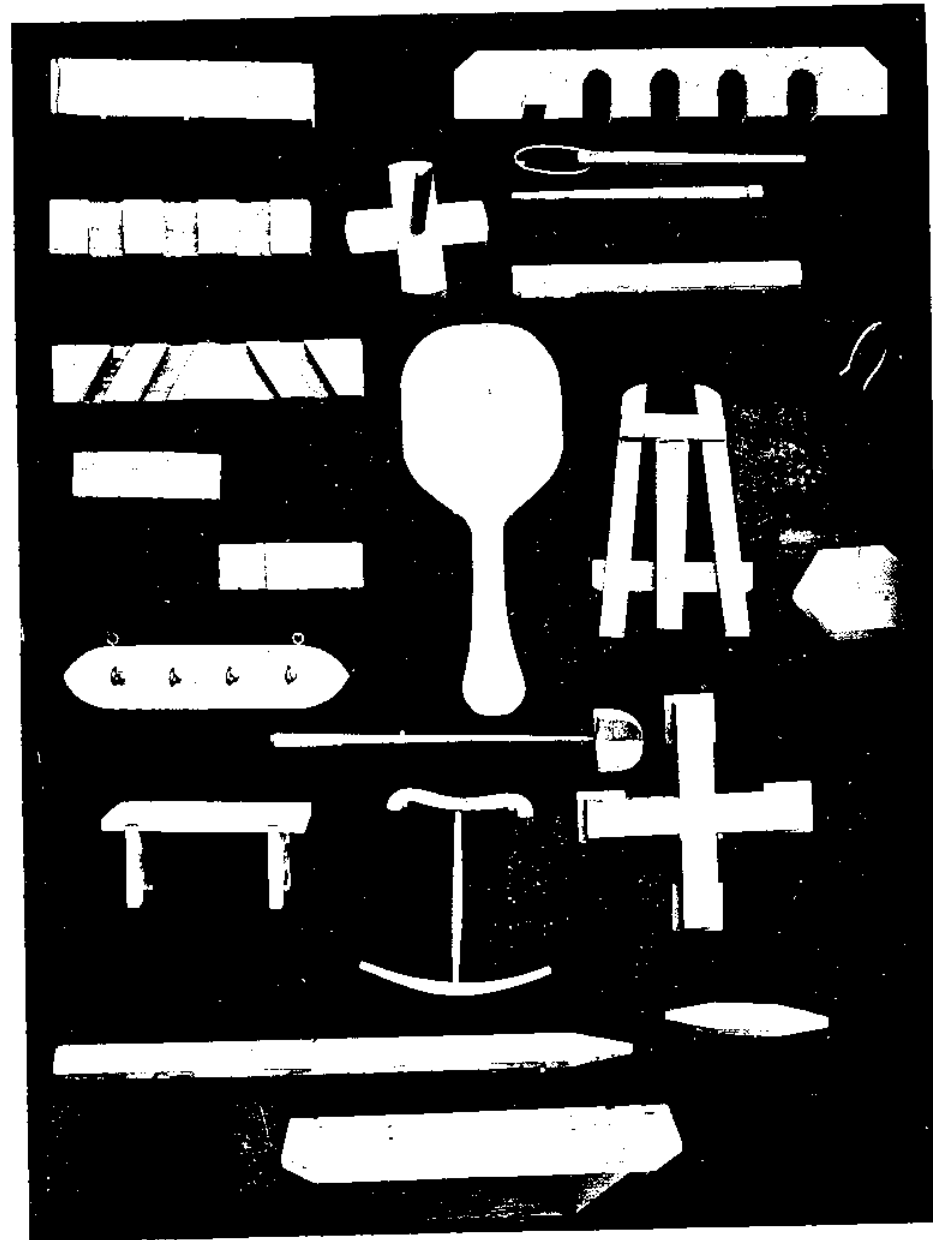
Space judging.	Simple exercises in space judging combined with practice in drawing lines, horizontal, vertical, and oblique, combinations of lines, angles, triangles, square, rectangle, simple and compound curves.
Objects.	The school bell, a piece of coloured paper with a corner turned down, tennis racquet, a whip, bow and arrow, <i>takkhi</i> , sword, cane stick with red head, envelopes, set squares, etc.
Natural forms.	Leaves— <i>lasure</i> , <i>angur</i> , <i>bar</i> , <i>ber</i> , etc. Fruits—coconut, grapes, cherries, etc.

Fourth and Fifth Primary Classes.

Circle in perspective.	While continuing the work done in the previous class, using objects of greater difficulty, in these classes it is necessary to introduce the circle in perspective and to draw from objects based thereon. Preliminary practice should be given in drawing a hoop or hoops suspended at various levels, until the pupils can judge fairly well the ellipses required to represent the circle in perspective.
Illustration of principles.	Several objects from the scheme should then be selected and put before the class at the same time, and the teacher should show by demonstration that the root principle underlying the representation of any or all of them is exactly the same. For example objects such as <i>chattu</i> and a <i>chakla</i> may be used as examples of a class of objects whose abstract form is the cylinder, a <i>kif</i> or a drinking glass may be used to illustrate the cone. These objects can then be drawn in turn at subsequent lessons. There is no need for the whole class to be drawing the same object; generally at least two objects will be necessary, unless the specimen is very large.
Two objects necessary.	
Backgrounds.	The objects should be correctly drawn in outline and much importance placed on correct proportion. Suitable backgrounds of paper or cloth of primary and secondary colours should invariably be used. Early in the session, further lessons on primary and secondary colours should be given, and the pupils taught how to mix and lay on washes of the same as illustrated in the scheme.
Colour lessons.	Towards the end of the session the pupils may be encouraged to attempt to render the simple effects of light and shade on common objects with pencil.



3. Examples of high school drawing.



4. Examples of first year wood work.

The meaning of light and shade should be carefully explained. A sheet of paper displayed in a good light, first as a flat surface, and then bent to a cylindrical form will be found useful for this purpose. The object to be drawn should be placed on a flat surface such as a drawing board and in a good light with a sheet of white paper placed vertically behind it so that it may be more clearly seen, and also to give a standard of comparison. The positions of objects relative to the eye-level should be varied from time to time. Objects such as a hanging lantern or an electric light pendant should be represented in their natural position above the eye-level.

Light and shade.

Position relative to eye-level.

In connection with nature study, leaves, twigs, fruits, etc., the children should be encouraged to represent all they can see both in form and colour. No attempt should be made to press the leaves. Small pieces of clay or plasticine will be found useful for supporting leaves, shells, etc., in the desired position in front of the pupils.

Nature study.

Fourth Primary Class.

To draw with pencil, brush and coloured crayon on tinted and white paper.

Punkha, drinking glass, *chakla*, *mohali*, *kif*, *thali*, *mungli*, horseshoe, *guddi*, brush, football, hockey stick, etc.

Objects.

Leaves—*chanane*, *moti*, *loqat*, *nakh*, twigs, buds, fruits of simple form, eggs, feathers, etc.

Natural forms.

Fifth Primary Class.

Further exercises should be given in this class in drawing circular forms. The objects after being carefully drawn in good proportion should be rendered in light and shade as truthfully as possible, care being taken to have the high lights left white, and to show reflected lights and shadows correctly.

High light and shadows.

Leaves, feathers, fruits, vegetables, grasses, etc., will enable the pupils to keep up their practice with the brush and water colour. These provide excellent material for colour study and should be painted as like the actual colours as possible.

Natural forms.

Water colour studies.

Ghara, *martaban*, cricket-bat and ball, reel of cotton, drinking glass, shields (various), mallet, chisel, stick of chalk, pencils, matches, pins, cardboard knives, hooks, keys, toys, etc.

Objects.

Natural forms.

Leaves—*kaner, pipal, khatte*, feathers, vegetables, pumpkin, *gobi*, etc., grasses and grains of various kinds.

At this stage the pupils should show a greater appreciation of form and colour.

First, Second and Third Middle Classes.

Perspective.

The properties of the circle in perspective must again be clearly explained and demonstrated, carefully drawn outline and good proportion insisted on, and in these classes the study of *practical perspective as applied to all rectilinear forms* such as boxes, books, parcels, etc., should be begun and continually practised. In order to secure the full advantage of the training in accuracy of observation and rendering to be gained from the study of rectilinear objects, the methods of representation should be as simple and direct as possible. All elaborate systems of construction lines should be avoided and the pupils taught to estimate relative distances and levels, and to compare one mass with another.

Simple methods of representation.

The principles of perspective should be learnt from observation rather than by rule. Great care should be taken to secure the correct rendering of details such as handles, spouts, etc.

Nature of representation in colour.

As a rule the common object studies will be in black and white, but in the third middle class promising students should be allowed to attempt a simple group in water-colour. In connection with nature study, many of the specimens used in the lower classes will again be used, a more perfect rendering of form and colour being insisted on.*

Memory Drawing.

Importance of memory drawing.

In order that the knowledge of form obtained by careful drawing from objects and natural forms may be impressed upon the pupils' minds, memory drawing should be included in the scheme: it affords splendid exercise for the memory and for training the eye to quick and intelligent observation. It is in fact a kind of drill, having a similar relation to drawing as mental arithmetic has to ordinary arithmetic, and should occasionally be practised in all the classes.

* *Note.*—The successful representation of leaves and sprays of leaves depends mainly upon drawing accurately the radiation of a number of lines from the main stalk, and the pupils' attention should be frequently directed to the form of the junction of the leaf and stem.

The subject may be taught thus:—an object or natural form ^{Method of} may be exhibited for a few minutes and, if considered necessary, ^{teaching.} passed round the class for examination, then put away; the pupils should proceed to draw it without help or comment by the teacher, or the lesson may be based on the memory of a previous drawing of an object or natural form. The fact that they may be required to reproduce a drawing from memory compels the pupils to concentrate their attention on such things as proportion and the relation of parts to each other. At the close of the lesson the object may be shown, the drawing compared with it and special attention drawn to common errors.

Recreative Drawing.

In some schools the giving out of drawing books to the ^{Supplemen-} scholars of the primary classes for home and recreative drawings, ^{tary work.} to be inspected by the teacher periodically, has had encouraging results; not only does it afford a pleasing recreation, but it is a useful supplement to the school lessons, the children being allowed to draw from memory or to select any subject they please.

First Middle Class.

To draw with pencil, brush, or coloured crayons on tinted and white paper.

Objects consisting of circles at the top and bottom, joined by ^{Objects.} vertical, oblique, or curved lines, such as *piyala, dol, gumla, lambiga*, black bottle with label, *mohla*, beaker, *ukhli, chhuri*, ink-bottle, leyden jar, tea box, cigar box, large book, etc.

In addition to the foregoing a large number of interesting ^{Individual} examples similar to those given in the junior classes can be ^{work.} obtained. Being small, they will serve mainly for individual work—such as knives with open blades, wrenches, padlocks, buckles, hinges, scissors, etc., and apt pupils may be encouraged to represent these in water-colour.

Leaves, *tut, kale, angur, shahtut*, simple sprays of two or three ^{Natural} leaves, budding twigs, feathers, tomato, orange, etc.; these provide ^{forms.} excellent material for colour studies.

Second Middle Class.

- Objects.** *Chapni, dawat, fire bucket, martaban, book, tableknife, box, Indian club, barrel with hoops, hukka, cup and saucer, mortar and pestle, paint-pot and brush, tools from the workshop, shavings, etc.*
- Natural forms.** *Leaves and simple sprays, jaman, amrud, sukhechain, shisham, spray of rose leaves, reeds, grasses, broken cocoanut, apple, plum, etc.*
- Note.*—Outlines preparatory to painting or shading should be very lightly drawn.

Third Middle Class.

- Objects.** *Rectilinear forms such as chalk-box, large books, parcel tied with string, barrel, lota, diva, chatti, topis, parat, Chinese umbrella, and groups of two simple objects, such as tumbler and lemon, axe and block of wood, ink-bottle and chalk-box, brick and trowel, etc.*
- Individual studies.** *Small objects for individual studies, such as a shoe, tools from the workshop, screw-driver, pincers, chisel, and toys of all kinds.*
- Natural forms.** *Leaves and sprays of leaves, tun, am, thore, seed-pods, shells, feathers, fruits, etc.*

Fourth and Fifth High Classes.

- Study of colour.** *The pupils in these classes should have acquired the power of representing almost any object, or simple natural form, in light and shade. Further instruction will now be necessary in colour-mixing and in colour matching, and many of the objects should be rendered in water-colour. Groups consisting of two or three objects which have already been drawn may now be given, and as a rule, these groups should consist of an object based on the circle, one based on the cube, and one of an irregular form such as a fruit or vegetable, etc., or two rectangular forms may be placed one above the other; these afford excellent practice in the study of practical perspective. Occasionally the objects should be suspended above the eye level.*
- Groups.**
- Progressive nature study.** *Nature study should be continued from leaves, sprays and buds, twigs, fruits, etc. Studies of twigs and buds should be made at various stages of development.*

The question of composition and space-filling should form part of the drawing instruction. The pupils should be accustomed to regard every drawing on a sheet of paper as an exercise in composition and space-filling. The drawing should be so placed on the page as to fill it in a satisfactory manner being neither too big nor too small, and suitable margins should always be left.

Fourth High Class.

To draw with pencil, brush, and coloured crayons, on tinted and white paper.

Objects and simple groups of objects, *surahi*, tripod and beaker, ink-bottle and quill, *handi*, *khopi*, large box with divisions, *kulah*, *dauri*, books, pair of shoes, turban, *chimta*, travelling trunk, orange or apple in a plate, flag hung in folds, loaf of bread on a plate, etc.

Leaves and sprays, *nia*, *dharek*, *arand*, buds, rose bud and spray of leaves, shells, melon with part cut out, vegetables, fruits, etc.

Natural forms.

Fifth High Class.

Objects and groups of objects, umbrella, *hal*, *gangasagar* and glass, fan, *tarazu* and weights, large book and roll of paper, *hukka* and open book, ink-bottle and chalk box, etc.

Simple sprays, buds, twigs, flowers, fruits arranged on plate, pea pods, feathers, moths, butterflies, birds, etc.

Natural forms.

Materials.

	Rs.	A.	P.	
Mill-boards 17" x 12"	0	1	0	each. Approximate cost.
Crayons	0	2	0	per box.
White paper	10	0	0	„ ream.
Drawing books	0	2	0	and Re. 0-4-0.
Brushes	0	4	0	each.

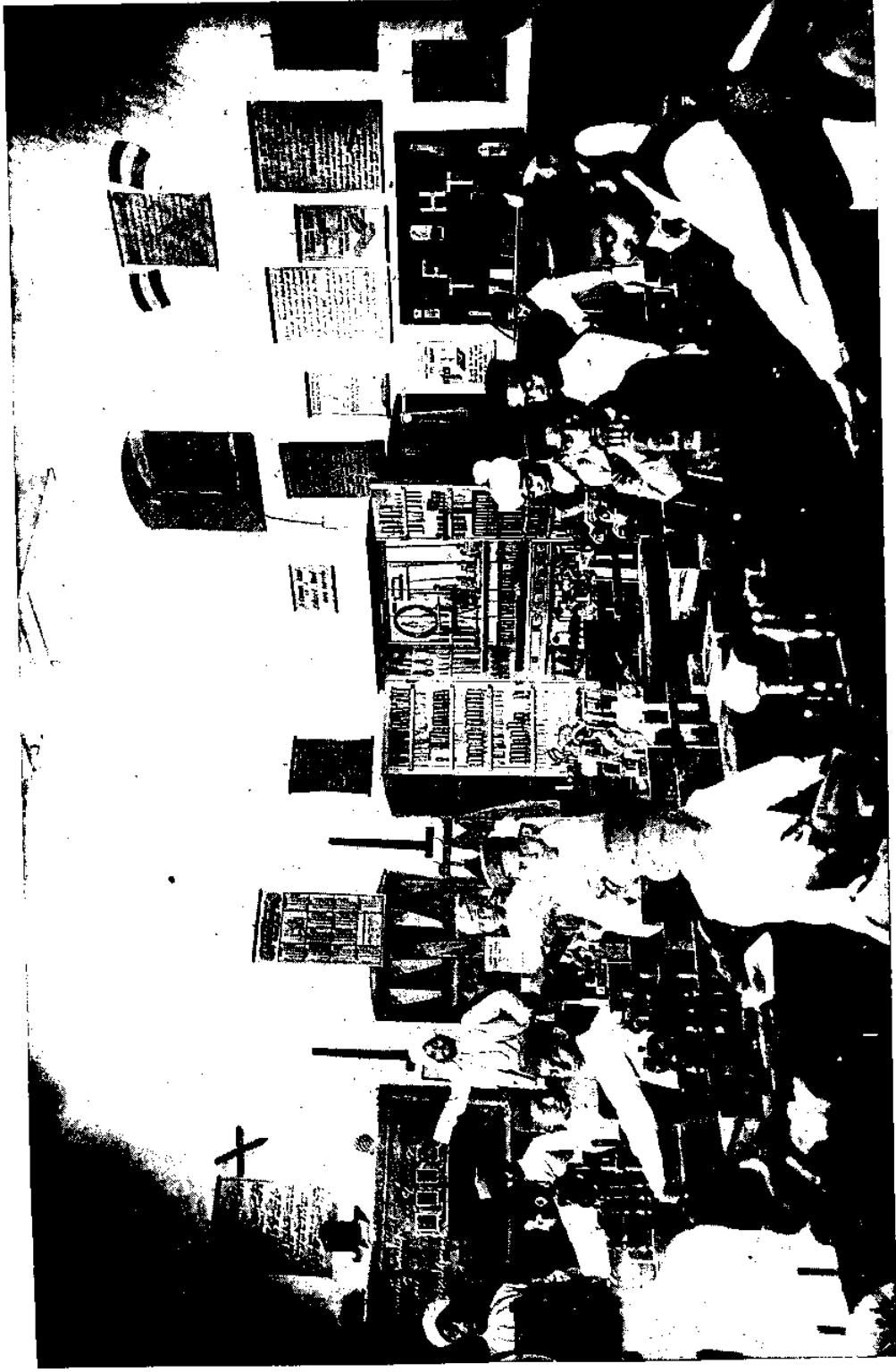
Colour pigments can be bought in the bazar at a very small sum and are suitable for the primary classes. These pigments should be mixed with water and boiled before being used.

In the middle and high classes each pupil should have Reeves' three-colour box of water-colours costing ten annas.

Drawing materials kept by teacher. In many secondary schools in England a charge of about Rs. 2 per head per annum covers the cost of colour, pencils, rubber, brushes, paper, etc., and this arrangement works well in Punjab schools.

The materials remain with the teacher and are always ready for use, thus saving time and trouble.

Note.—For further details and illustrations of those schemes in drawing, see “Art Drawing for Indian Schools” published in English and in Urdu. Publishers Macmillan and Company, Limited, Bombay and Calcutta.



5. A Manual Training Room.

MANUAL TRAINING.

Manual Training was begun at the Central Training College, ^{Begun in} Lahore, in 1906 in connection with the science classes. For lack of room the work was carried on for some time in a closed-in verandah; in 1912 a special room was built and equipped at a cost of about Rs. 5,000. This subject is now taught to all senior Anglo-Vernacular students of the college, and since 1914, it has been an optional subject for B.A. students, about 50 per cent. of whom take it.

Manual Training is an optional subject in Punjab schools, and ^{An optional} has within recent years been introduced into several Government ^{subject.} and aided schools. Grants are made towards the cost of tools and equipment.

Modern secondary schools in England have as a rule a well ^{Manual} equipped manual room attached to the school building; such an ^{training in} arrangement is ideal. In the case of older schools, however, it ^{English} was found impossible on account of the expense involved to ^{schools.} provide manual training rooms for every school, and this gave rise to what is known as the "Centre" system, which has been widely adopted by city school authorities.

When in 1915 manual training was begun at Lahore, it was ^{The} decided to adopt the "Centre" system experimentally in ^{"Centre"} connection with three city high schools. It seems desirable first to ^{system.} explain what the "Centre" system is, and then indicate the scope and aims of manual training, before giving details regarding the Lahore "Centre."

The "Centre" is a room or rooms situated in a central school or building, to which the boys of three or four neighbouring schools go for training. As a rule centres are built to accommodate from twenty to forty boys at a time, and from four to six hundred boys may receive instruction weekly, in each. This system, although convenient for city schools, is not suitable for country districts, because of the greater distances between the schools.

The aims in manual training are two-fold, first that the ^{Aims.} pupils shall acquire manual skill which shall increase their usefulness

and adaptability in whatever occupations they may afterwards engage. That this is important will not be disputed, for manual dexterity not only plays an important part in the life of a craftsman, but is necessary also in the majority of professions, *e.g.*, in surgery, science, sculpture, painting, dentistry and engineering. The second object in manual training, is the mental and moral discipline resulting from such exercises. The educational results are incontestable; one of these is that manual training has exercised a beneficial reaction on other school studies, and boys, discouraged through failure in literary subjects, have not only "found" themselves in the practical work of the manual training classes, but have taken fresh heart and made better progress in their ordinary school work.

Mental and moral results.

The moral results have been no less valuable; for practical work develops among other things, precision, honesty, and self-reliance. *Precision*, because in making the objects absolute accuracy is insisted on; *honesty*, because in constructive work it is impossible to dissimulate, and conceal ignorance by ambiguity; while *self-reliance* is developed and increased by the acquisition of the power to do things.

In constructive work boys learn to think for themselves about the work in hand, and to form and trust their own judgment.

The Lahore Centre.

The work in Lahore was begun in a hired building, conveniently situated for the schools concerned: it was fitted with ten dual wood-working benches and tools. The building, although it was the best obtainable, was small and badly lighted; at the end of the first year the head-master of one of the schools offered to give a large well lighted room on certain conditions which were agreed to, and since June 1916 the work has been going on under favourable circumstances. Originally equipped to accommodate twenty boys, the centre has recently been enlarged, and now 40 pupils are taken at a time. The following particulars are given for the guidance of those who may have to design a manual training room. The room should be rectangular, well lighted and ventilated, its size will be determined by the number of pupils and the lighting should be obtained from the north side of the room. The benches should be placed in rows along the room having their ends turned towards the windows to ensure good light to

The manual room.

the workers. Assuming that the room is arranged in this manner, and that each bench is approximately 4' 6" long × 2' 6" wide, the width of the room required will be 23 ft.; this allows for a central passage 6 ft. wide, and passages at each side of the room 4 ft. wide. The length of the room will be determined by the number of benches; the space between them should be 3 ft. There should be a clear space of 10 ft. in front of the class; on this, the teacher's demonstration bench, almirah, etc., may be placed. Another 10 ft. will be taken by the teacher's room and store. This will make the length of the building about 50 ft. (See figure 6.)

Benches.—The benches should be strongly and soundly constructed, and fitted with cast steel, instantaneous grip vices. Wood screw vices are cheap, but inefficient. A suitable size for a dual bench is 4' 6" by 2' 6" and the height should range from 2' 4" to 2' 7" to suit the boys; it is an advantage to have them fitted with drawers in which drawings and unfinished work may be kept. A drawing of an inexpensive bench is given. (See figure 8.)

Tools and tool racks.—Tool racks are shown on the top of the bench; they should be constructed to hold the bench tools of two boys. A list of tools is appended; when lack of funds makes the provision of a full outfit impossible, the tools marked by an asterisk need not be purchased.

Almirahs.—Three almirahs should be provided, one of which should have a glass front in which specimens of finished work may be exhibited; one should be fitted for the storing of special tools, and one pigeonholed for unfinished work.

Ambulance outfit.—A simple ambulance outfit, consisting of a roll of 2" cotton bandage and a bottle each of carbolic oil and 'new skin,' should be kept in every Manual room, so that in case of accident simple remedies may be at hand.

A collection of specimens of the different kinds of timber used in the district should be made. After having been properly labelled and classified, these may be used in connection with the lessons on the growth and structure of timber.

A store room in which to keep timber and materials is necessary. Along two adjacent walls of the store room iron bars

should be inserted at distances of two feet apart to support the timber, which may be placed on end, or horizontally, as desired. Shelving should be fitted round the remaining walls for storing nails, glue, metal and sundries.

Teacher's room.

A small room, simply furnished, should be provided for the teacher's use, it should contain an almirah for stationery, etc.

Methods of instruction.

In every class, boys vary greatly in manual skill, ingenuity, and resourcefulness, and their instruction should be varied accordingly. The work should be based on an ordinary sequence of tool operations. As a rule, a new piece of work should involve some one new difficulty; for example, the use of a new tool or the use of a familiar tool in a new way. Definite instructions in the use of new tools, and of new materials are always necessary, and practical demonstrations should be given of every difficult bench operation.

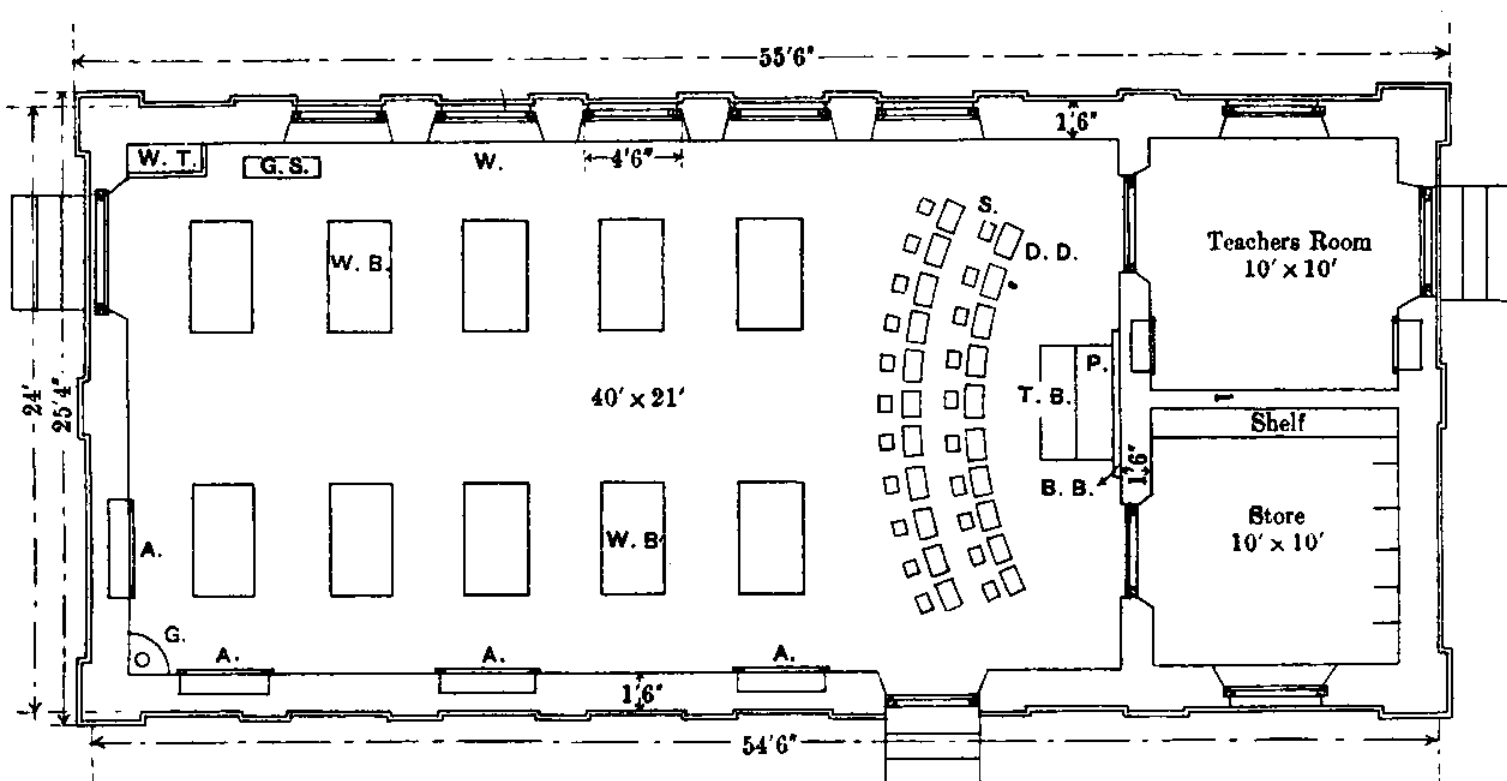
Scheme of work.

Some teachers adopt a rigid scheme of work consisting of "exercises" and "models" carefully graded in difficulty. This plan has its advantages; at the end of the course pupils have learnt how to use certain tools and to perform certain operations; all the pupils have made the same things, and healthy competition has been aroused.

The weakness of such a scheme lies in the small demand made on the inventive powers of the pupils. Many teachers have adopted another plan, allowing their pupils to suggest the objects or to modify their size or shape. In Lahore we have tried to combine both the methods described, and it has been found possible to retain a satisfactory gradation of difficulty, and at the same time encourage originality. It should be remembered, however, that until a boy has acquired a working knowledge of the ordinary tools and some skill in their use, he cannot be thrown on his own resources. At every stage a boy's own suggestions should be welcomed.

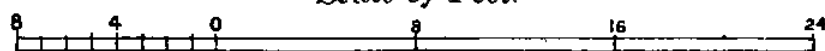
Skill and accuracy.

Importance should be attached, not only to principles and methods, but also to craftsmanship. A degree of accuracy suitable to the material and to the development of the pupil should always be demanded. Accuracy should increase with experience. Too great a degree of accuracy should not be looked for in the earlier stages.



- REFERENCES.**
- P. Platform
 - B. B. Black Board
 - T. B. Teachers Bench
 - D. D. Drawing Desk
 - S. Stool
 - W. B. Work Benches
 - W. T. Water Tub
 - G. S. Grinding Stone
 - G. Glue Pot
 - A. Almirah
 - W. Windows

6.—PLAN OF MANUAL TRAINING ROOM FOR A HIGH SCHOOL.
Scale of Feet.



No. 607-1.2000.

The course should include the construction and use of the simple joints employed by carpenters. This work (though subordinate in character, since it is only a means to an end) needs to be carefully taught. The type of models made will naturally vary with the locality. In agricultural districts, the objects may properly be taken from the farm; the more advanced boys might, for instance, make an egg box, a pigeon box, a hencoop, models of farm implements as a plough, etc.; in iron work, a hasp, a bolt, different kinds of hooks, hinges, etc., may be included.

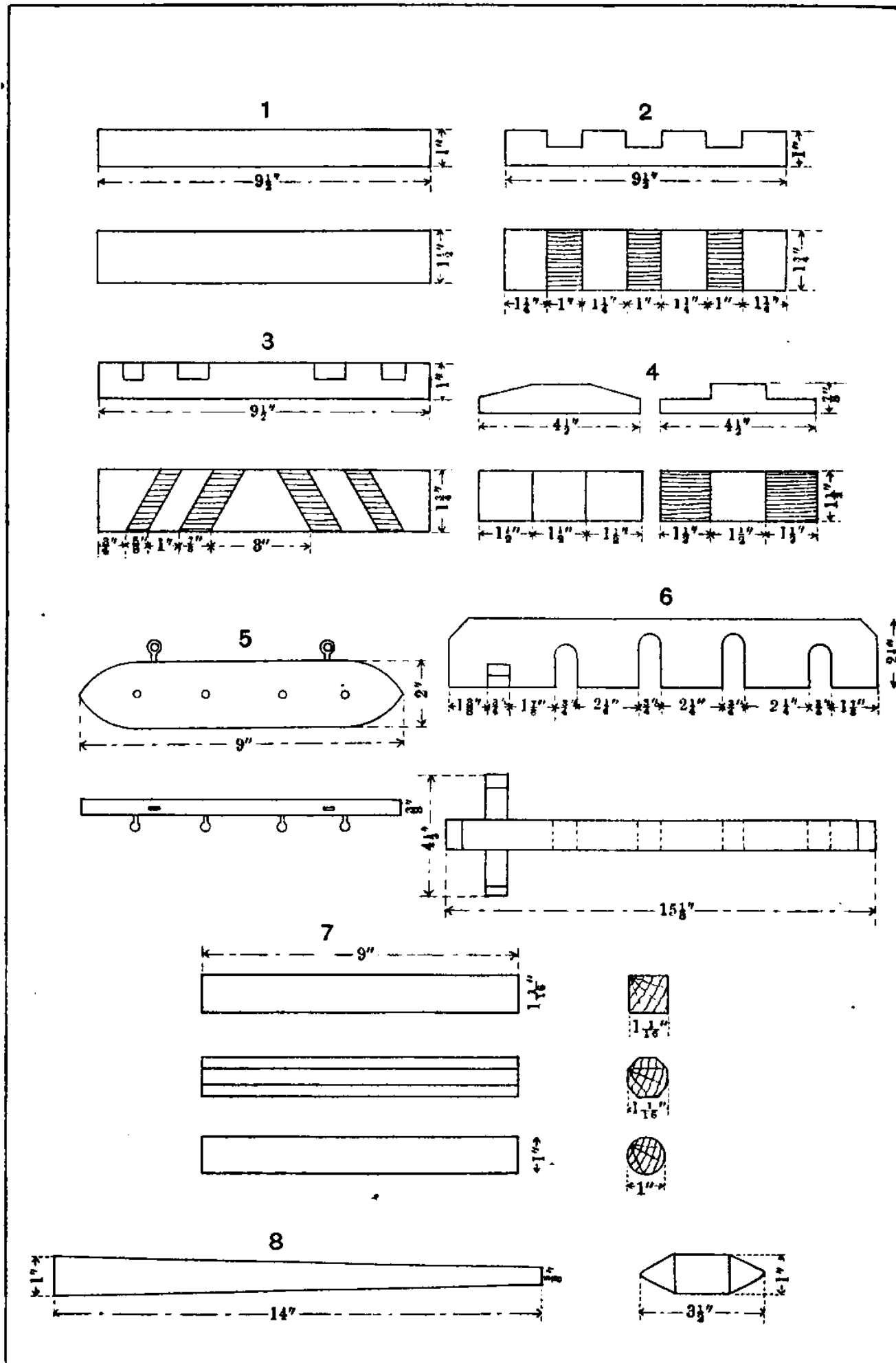
In practical life much of the work done with tools at home is connected with mending and repairs; a good course will include such work.

In the earlier stages rectilinear work of different kinds should predominate, and curved work should be introduced gradually; the course should be associated with the special interests of the boys in practical life, and will include the construction of simple apparatus and working models. Boys who show a special bent should be encouraged, and given every opportunity for carrying out original ideas.

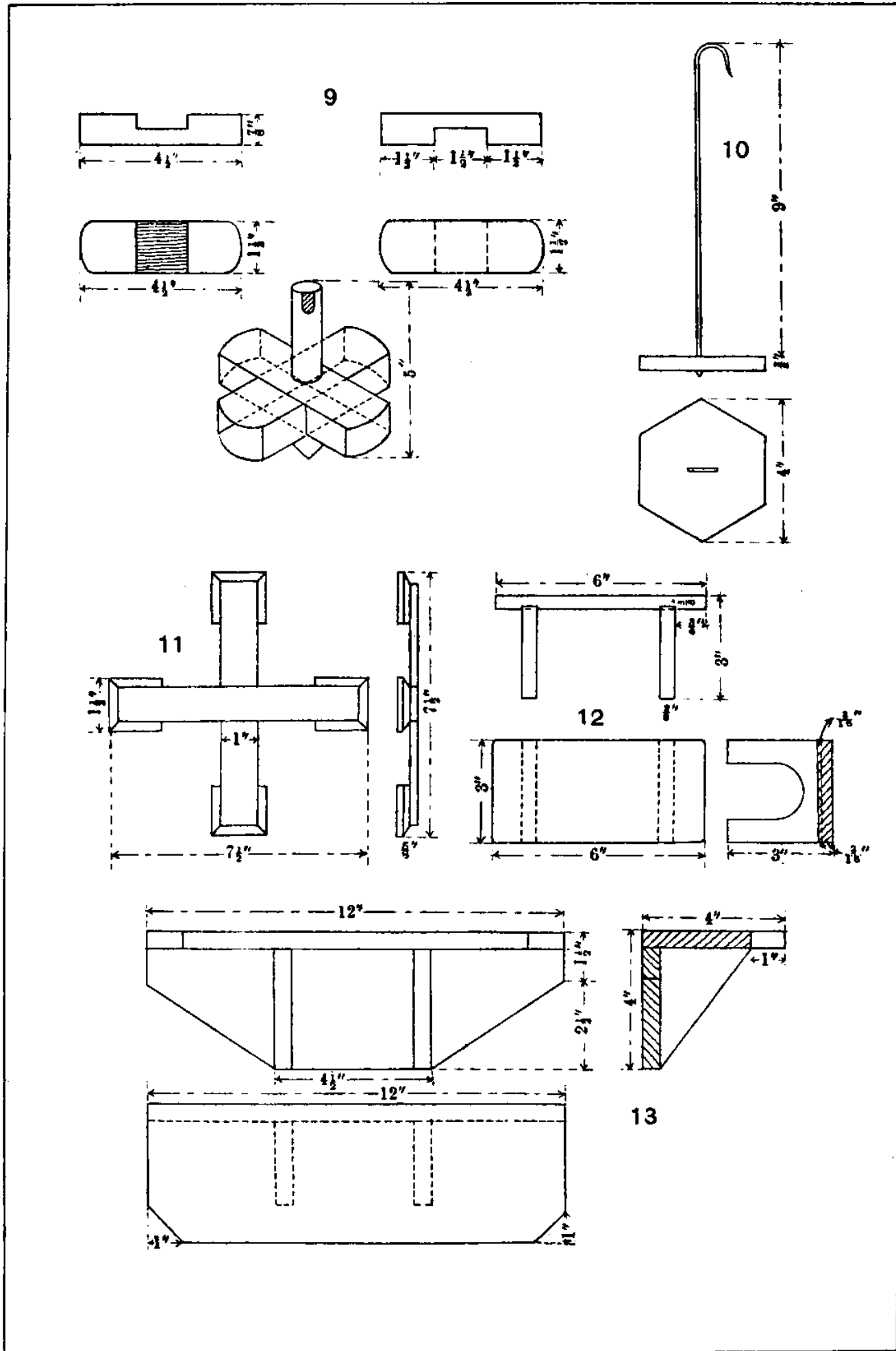
It is often an excellent thing to arrange for the co-operation of more advanced boys in doing a larger piece of work. Such objects as a set of book-shelves for the school library, or a cabinet for the museum, etc., may be made in this way. The value of this work is increased where the control is taken by the boys themselves, the teacher acting only in a consultative capacity.

Where it is thought desirable to make metal the medium of instruction rather than wood, special metal work benches fitted with smiths' vices will be necessary. For forge work, an annexe with a fire proof floor is desirable. The work may begin with bent iron and flat sheet metal work. After soldering has been taught, it will be possible to introduce the construction in sheet metal of many simple objects, such as are made by zinc-workers and tin-smiths. Later the boys may go on to screw cutting with stocks and dies; drilling and rivetting are important operations, and can be taken comparatively early. Simple forging operations, for instance, "drawing down," "upsetting," "scarfing," "tempering" and simple "welding" are useful and interesting, and within the capacity of boys of 15 years of age.

- Care of tools.** The course should invariably include instruction in the care of tools. Boys at wood-work should learn how to set and sharpen their tools. They may begin by learning to sharpen a chisel on the oil stone, and as they grow stronger, go on to learn the use of the grindstone.
- Drawing.** Drawing should be associated with wood and metal work. Boys should be taught to make scale drawings and dimensioned sketches, and to work from them. In the earlier stages the pupils should use the ruler and set squares only. Drawing boards and T-squares should be introduced as soon as the boys have learnt how to use the ruler and set squares.
- The drawing may frequently be made from a completed model the dimensions being taken by the boys themselves directly from the object. Isometric projections may occasionally be made.
- The ability to read drawings is essential, and to gain this, much practice is required.
- Drawing desks.** The drawing desks should have hinged lids so that drawing boards, T and set squares may be kept in them; stools should be provided. The desks should be about 2' 10" high and the tops should have a slope of about fifteen degrees. A good sized black-board should be provided and a platform on which the teacher's demonstration bench may be placed.
- Correlation with other subjects.** Manual training should not be regarded as an isolated subject, but should be associated with science, geography, art, etc. The manual training room should be looked upon as a place not only where formal lessons are given, but also as a place where a boy may carry out his constructive ideas and experiments.
- The ordinary boy is full of constructive curiosity which if wisely directed may have far-reaching results, important alike for the individual and the community.
- Models to be returned to pupils.** A point I should like to emphasise is that it is essential to the success of a manual training scheme that the objects made should become the property of the pupils. It will be found that boys very naturally desire to have possession of their work, and the knowledge that at the end of the year the models will be returned, adds greatly to the interest and diligence of the pupils.
- Cost of building and equipment.** As regards the cost of a building and equipment it is difficult to speak with certainty, as prices for buildings vary in almost



7.-A FIRST YEAR'S



every district, and, owing to the present war, the prices of tools have increased, and are likely to go on increasing.

The following is an approximate minimum estimate for a room to accommodate twenty pupils :—

	Rs.
<i>Brick building</i> (see figure 6) having a wood block floor, with accommodation for 20 boys, a wood store, and teacher's room; inside sizes 50' x 23'	3,000
<i>Benches, Tools, etc.</i>	1,000
Total	<u>4,000</u>
10½ wood work benches (see figure 8) at Rs. 25	262.8
21 instantaneous grip vices at Rs. 10	210
21 sets of bench tools at Rs. 15	315
Special tools including grindstone	200
Freight, say	12.8
	<u>1,000</u>

The amount of timber or metal, etc., required, will vary with the course followed; an approximate estimate would be Rs. 2 per pupil per annum.

The following models are suitable for a first year's course; dimensioned drawings, in plan and elevation, are given in the plate attached (Figure 7).

1. Sawing and planing exercise.
2. Cross notching.
3. Oblique „
4. Door fastener.
5. Key rack.
6. Marble board.
7. Round Ruler.
8. "Guli danda."
9. Spinning top.
10. Letter file.
11. Stand for flower-pot.
12. Science bridge.
13. Bracket.

The models shown in the photographs were made by Lahore boys.

TOOLS AND EQUIPMENT.

The following tools and appliances are required for a class of 20 pupils:—

Planes—

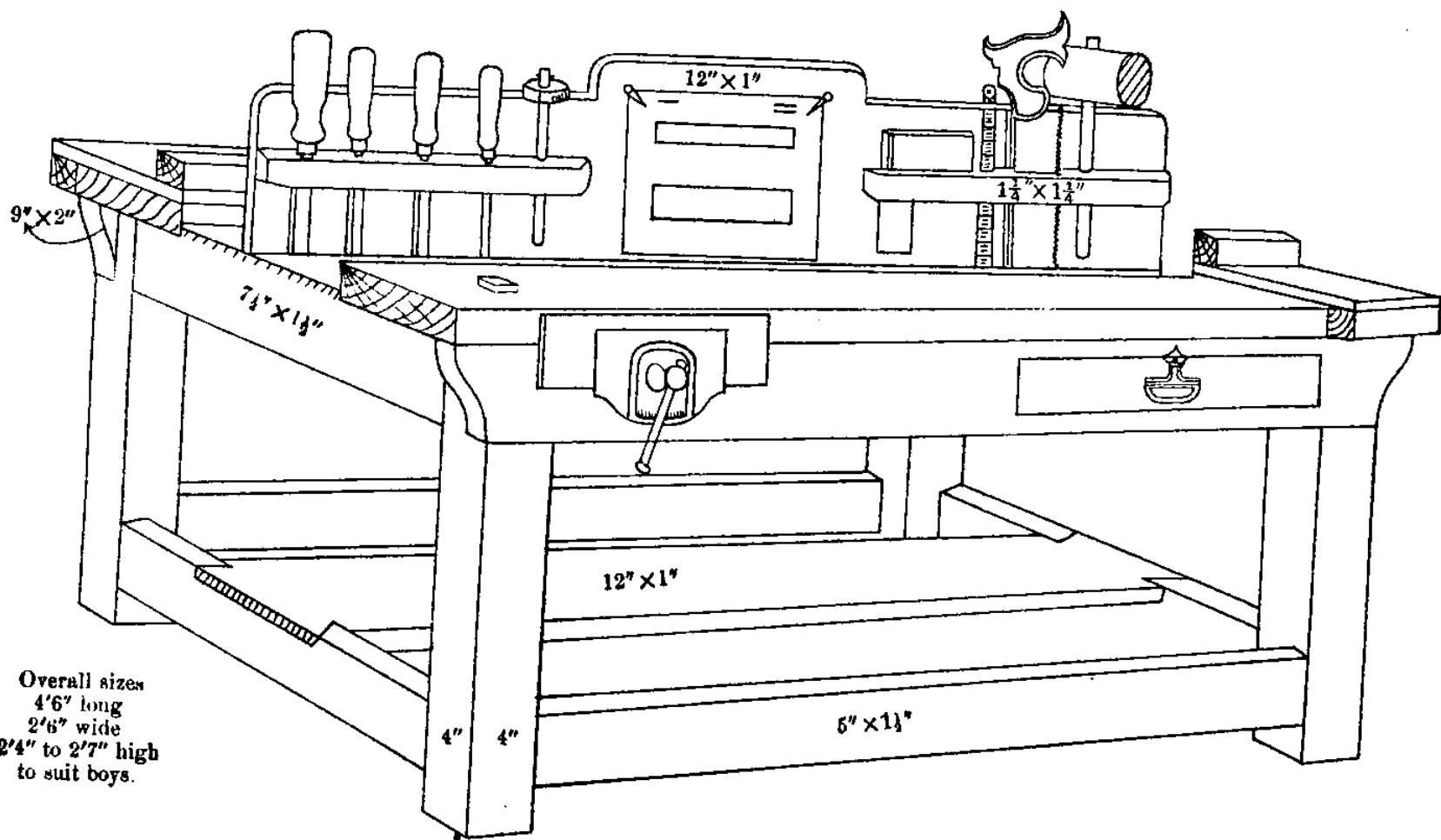
- 20 Jack 2" iron; *may be of country pattern.*
- * 2 Trying 2½" iron.
- 6 Smoothing 2".
- 1 Stanley iron smoothing 9".
- * 2 1¼" Rebate (skew mouth).
- * 1 Side fillister.
- 1 ¼" Bead plane (boxwood slip).

Saws—

- 20 Tenon 10" brass or iron back; *may be of country pattern.*
- 4 Panel 22".
- 2 Rip 24".
- * 2 18" Frame bow, three spare blades.
- 2 14" " " " " "
- 1 Pad saw with ebony handle, 3 spare blades.

Chisels with handles—

- 20 Firmer chisels 1".
- 20 " " ¾".
- 20 " " ½".
- 20 " " ¼".
- 10 " " ⅛".
- 6 American Socket ¼".
- 6 " " ⅜".
- 10 " " ¼".
- 6 Gouges firmer 1".
- 6 " " ¾".
- 6 " " ½".
- 6 " scribing ¾".
- 6 " " ½".
- 20 Try squares 4½".
- 1 Try square 12".
- 20 Marking gauges (beech); *may be made locally.*



8.—WOODWORK BENCH FOR TWO PUPILS.

No. 607-3-2000.

TOOLS AND EQUIPMENT—*continued*.

- 2 Mortice gauges, thumb screw slide.
- 2 Pairs iron (wing) compasses 6".
- 20 Steel 2' 0" rules having English and metric markings (Rabone & Sons, No. 1644).
- 10 Bench Brushes 10" size.
- 3 Basolas.
- 2 Glue brushes.
- 1 Wire brush for cleaning files.
- 1 Pair blackboard compasses.
- 1 Blackboard ruler.
- * 2 Cramps 30" (steel).
- 12 Half round rasps 8" medium.
- * 4 Round files 6" handled.
- 6 Saw files triangular section.
- 6 Claw hammers, American pattern.
- 20 Carpenter's mallets; *may be made to order*.
- 2 Washita oil stones.
- 6 Oilstone slips for gouges (assorted sizes).
- 2 Pair pincers 7".
- 3 Pairs round nosed pliers 5".
- 3 Pairs bell hanger's cutting pliers.
- 10 Screw drivers 9".
- 3 Stanley iron spokeshaves 2".
- * 3 Iron spokeshaves round face 1½".
- 5 9" Bevels (rosewood).
- 2 Ratchet braces 8" sweep.
- 2 Sets centre bits from ¼" to ¾" by ⅜".
- 2 Sets shell bits from ¼" to ¾" by ⅜".
- 1 Each wood countersink bits ¾" and ½".
- 1 Each brass countersink bits ¾" and ½".
- 2 Country drills.
- * 1 Set Jennings auger bits.
- * 1 Expansion bit 3".
- * 12 Assorted bradawls (handled).
- 1 Glue pot ½ pint.
- 1 Grindstone 24" by 3½" fitted with iron stand and Isley's grinding attachment complete.

24. DRAWING AND MANUAL TRAINING IN PUNJAB SCHOOLS.

TOOLS AND EQUIPMENT—*concluded.*

- 2 Country turning lathes and tools.
- 2 Sawing trestles 2' 6" long.
- 12 Nail punches (assorted).
- 2 Oil cans bench small.
- 1 Oil stove with iron tray for glue.
- 1 60° black board set square 18".
- 1 45° " " " " 18".
- 20 Drawing boards.
- 20 Set squares 45°.
- 20 " " 60°.
- 20 T-squares.

Estimates for the supply of tools may be obtained from Bombay and Calcutta firms.

Materials for one session's work—

- 1 Quart sperm oil.
- 1 Quart linseed oil (raw).
- 4 lbs. Scotch or French glue.
- 3 Quires each glass paper Nos. 1, 1½ and 2.

Oval wire nails—

- 2 lbs. 1½".
- 3 lbs. each 1", and ¾".
- Brass escutcheon pins.
- 2 lbs. each 1" and ¾".

Screws—

- 1 Gross each, 1½" No. 10, 1¼" No. 10.
- 1 " " 1" No. 8, ¾" No. 6, ½" No. 4, ¼" No. 4.
- Brass screw (round heads).
- 2 Gross each, ¾" No. 4, ⅝" No. 3, ½" No. 3.
- 2 Gross cup hooks ½" brass or iron.
- 1 Gross drawing pins.
- 2 Reams drawing paper.
- 2 lbs. India rubber.
- 1 lbs vaseline.

The amount of wood or metal required will depend on the course followed.*

* *Manual Training for Indian Schools* (Oxford University Press, Bombay) by Mr. J. Y. Buchanan, may also be seen.

Educational Publications of the Government of India.

Quinquennial Reviews.

- Progress of Education in India, 1892-93 to 1896-97. Third Quinquennial Review. By J. S. Cotton. Rs. 3.
Progress of Education in India, 1897-98 to 1901-02. Fourth Quinquennial Review. By R. Nathan, C.I.E. 2 Vols. Rs. 7.
Progress of Education in India, 1902-07. Fifth Quinquennial Review. By H. W. Orange, C.I.E. 2 Vols. Rs. 5-8.
Progress of Education in India, 1907-12. Sixth Quinquennial Review. By H. Sharp, C.I.E. Vol. I, Rs. 4; Vol. II, Rs. 2.

Reports.

- Report on the Conference on the Education of the Domiciled Community in India, July 1912. Re. 1.
Report on the Enquiry to bring Technical Institutions into closer touch and more practical relations with the Employers of Labour in India. By Lieutenant-Colonel E. H. de V. Atkinson, R.E., and T. S. Dawson. As. 10.
Papers regarding the Educational Conference, Allahabad, February 1911. Re. 1-8.
The Essentials of a University in a Great Centre of population. *Not for sale.*

Occasional Reports.

- No. 1. Rural Schools in the Central Provinces. By H. Sharp. Re. 1.
No. 2. Vernacular Reading Books in the Bombay Presidency. By J. G. Coverton. (*Out of print.*)
No. 3. The Educational System of Japan. By W. H. Sharp. (*Out of print.*)
No. 4. Furlough Studies. By J. Nelson Fraser, H. Sharp and G. W. Küchler. Rs. 2.
No. 5. Training of Secondary Teachers. By H. R. James, H. Sharp and J. Nelson Fraser. As. 8.
No. 6. Educational Buildings in India. Rs. 5.
No. 7. Methods of School Inspection in England. As. 8. By H. G. Wyatt.

Annual Narratives.

- Indian Education in 1913-14. Re. 1-8.
Indian Education in 1914-15. Rs. 2.
Indian Education in 1915-16. As. 8.

CALCUTTA
SUPERINTENDENT GOVERNMENT PRINTING, INDIA
8, HASTINGS STREET

26TH ANNUAL REPORT OF THE
BOARD OF
CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS
OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA

FOR THE FISCAL YEAR ENDED JUNE 30

1919



WASHINGTON
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
1919

MEMBERSHIP OF THE BOARD AT THE CLOSE OF THE FISCAL YEAR

	Date of original appointment.	Expiration of present term.
Mrs. Thomas H. Carter.....	June 13, 1911	Oct. 5, 1915
William Knowles Cooper.....	Oct. 5, 1913	Do.
William W. Millan.....	Feb. 5, 1917	Do.
George E. Fleming.....	Oct. 23, 1914	Oct. 23, 1920
Mrs. Gilbert H. Grosvenor.....	Feb. 5, 1917	Do.
Dr. William A. Warfield.....	June 10, 1913	Do.
Hon. George C. Aukam.....	Oct. 1, 1918	Oct. 1, 1921
Hon. J. Wilmer Latimer.....	do.....	Do.
Mrs. Walter S. Ufford.....	Aug. 17, 1915	Do.

President, Mr. Cooper.
 Vice President, Mr. Millan.
 Secretary, Mrs. Ufford.

STANDING COMMITTEES.

Advisory.—Dr. Warfield (chairman), Mrs. Carter, Judge Latimer, Mr. Millan, Mrs. Ufford.

Institutions.—Mrs. Ufford (chairman), Mrs. Grosvenor, Judge Aukam, Mr. Fleming, Dr. Warfield.

Estimates and appropriations.—Mr. Cooper (chairman), Mrs. Ufford, Dr. Warfield, Mr. Millan.

OFFICIAL STAFF.

Position.	Name.
Agent.....	J. Lawrence Solly.
Clerk.....	Miss Jessie Logie.
Do.....	Karl E. Kritch.
Record clerk.....	Miss Mary E. Jefferis.
Stenographer.....	Miss Helen L. Smith.
Placing and investigating officer.....	Miss Sara L. Bucher.
Do.....	Miss Octa L. Bassett.
Do.....	Walter S. Davis.
Do.....	Miss Anna Herdina.
Do.....	Mrs. Lucy M. Holmes.
Do.....	Miss Agnes K. Maxwell.
Do.....	Miss A. Patricia Morss.
Do.....	Doddridge W. Pickett.
Do.....	Mrs. Florence M. Ryan.
Do.....	Miss Helen A. Snell.
Do.....	Mrs. Ellen Von Herbulis.
Messenger.....	Miss Margaret Morris.
Laborer.....	James M. Sneed.

TWENTY-SIXTH ANNUAL REPORT
OF THE
BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS
OF THE
DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

WASHINGTON, D. C., *October 1, 1919.*

To the BOARD OF CHARITIES OF THE DISTRICT OF COLUMBIA.

GENTLEMEN: In presenting the Twenty-sixth Annual Report of the Board of Children's Guardians, though the figures for the year ended do not show a greater number of children cared for than during any previous year, we believe that at no time in our history have we given a larger service.

This is partly due to the fact that every additional year gives us a fuller understanding of the needs of our children, needs which we can not consider separate from their present and future relation to their own families and to the community at large.

GROWTH OF WORK.

Family rehabilitation, wherever possible, must go hand in hand with special service to a particular child, whether that child has been committed to us for a short or for a long period. Great effort is made to select foster homes of the highest possible type for our children and to supervise them carefully after they are placed. We are also trying harder than ever to give the boys and girls a chance for work for which they are especially fitted rather than allow them to drift into blind-alley jobs with nothing definite ahead.

We are very proud of the medical work done for our children. They are carefully examined as soon as committed to us, medical corrections at once made, and other necessary follow-up work done.

Our service in conference and advice is greater each year. We are more frequently called upon for advice and information concerning the welfare of children, both from organizations and from individuals, and we work, when possible, in close cooperation with them.

NUMBER OF CHILDREN HELPED DURING THE YEAR.

Not including the needs of the children and of their families that have been referred to other agencies, the Board of Children's Guardians has this year dealt with 2,729 different children. Of these, 1,733 were permanent wards, 909 were temporary wards, and 87 others were carried on the roll of the feeble-minded. During the year 153 children were received as permanent wards, 412 were placed with the board temporarily, and in addition 14 feeble-minded were received under care. In the same period 203 permanent wards, 413 tempo-

rary wards, and 17 carried as feeble-minded passed from our care, there remaining on June 30, 1919, 1,530 permanent wards, 496 temporary wards, and 70 others carried on the roll of feeble-minded. The table of distribution is to be found in the appendix.

WORK OF INVESTIGATORS.

A thorough investigation must be made of the home and of the family where the attention of the board has been called to conditions of neglect, cruelty, immorality, and general unfit surroundings. During the year such conditions in 581 families were reported and investigated. Of these it was found necessary to bring 100 cases before the juvenile court.

Of those remaining, cooperation was sought from relatives, church and social agencies, with the idea of correcting conditions and raising the family standards so that their children could properly remain with them.

When children are committed to the board for a short time there must be another investigation of the home before they can be returned to it. The number of such temporary commitments reinvestigated last year was 405.

Where parents, financially able, have failed or refused to make payments toward the support of their children, placed under the board, a nonsupport case is entered against them. Ninety-two such cases were filed last year.

This very important work, only partly described, is done by our investigators, known as "court workers," of whom there are three. We need more of them to get the success we especially should have in family rehabilitation.

Both money and energy are wasted unless parents are being helped and trained at the same time that their children are being provided for, if the children are to be later returned to them.

The following table shows the figures of the work of the investigating department during the past fiscal year.

Number of complaints of families received during the year:	
On new cases.....	407
On old cases.....	174
Temporary commitments reinvestigated (number of families).....	581
Parents of wards taken to juvenile court for nonsupport.....	405
Carnal knowledge cases involving wards.....	92
Bastard nonsupport cases involving wards with children.....	18
Incorrigibility, taking property of another, etc., involving wards.....	14
	65
Total number of cases handled.....	1,175

HOME FINDING AND PLACING.

It is not an easy task to find foster homes for children. It requires hard work, good judgment, and understanding on the part of the workers. As good free homes are difficult to find, it makes it necessary to board a large proportion of our children, the younger ones—of whom there are many—and those who, for various reasons, physical and otherwise, are not acceptable for normal home life.

Only the best type of home should be used, and after this is found, comes the very important work of fitting the right child into it.

After being given this right start, he must be visited by the placing officer, cooperation with relatives secured, wherever possible, and, with the help of the foster parents, general supervision must be given to school work and to church, health, and recreational needs.

We have many excellent homes. We would like many more. A larger number of placing officers is needed to find a sufficient number of good ones, and to properly supervise the care of our wards after they are placed.

Our visitors each have over 200 children in their care. Organizations throughout the country doing the best work for children are assigning not more than 40 and 50 to a worker.

SOME PRESSING NEEDS.

MOTHERS' PENSION BILL.

The board regrets that the mothers' pension bill, submitted last year, was not passed by Congress. If it becomes a law it will, by providing sufficient income, enable mothers to remain at home to take care of their families, and will prove, beyond doubt, the most profitable kind of investment for the State. It will be the means of promoting good citizenship and preserving family life; it will make happy mothers and well cared for children, and will cause many of our present family problems to disappear. Children who can start with a normal family life at home are later much less likely to become delinquents or to need any outside care.

INSTITUTION FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED.

After speaking of the means of providing normal home life by giving allowances to mothers, we will call attention to the great need of our abnormal children—the feeble-minded. We have no greater need here than an institution for this group who are least able to care for themselves, and many of whom can not, and should not, be provided for in the usual family life. We can send some of our white children to institutions in Vineland, N. J.; Elwyn, Pa.; and Falls Church, Va., but there is no place at all for the feeble-minded colored children.

Hundreds of mentally deficient boys and girls, both white and colored, of our city are going without adequate care and training because there is no nearby institution for them. The bill introduced by Mr. Tinkham provides for this. Congress just now can do no greater kindness to Washington than to give us such an institution.

TEMPORARY RECEIVING HOME.

We should have a temporary receiving home where children can be sent as soon as committed by the court and where emergency cases could be received. Opportunity would be given there for necessary medical examination and care. Our physician would then have a suitable place to make a physical examination of all our wards. It would also give proper opportunity to our workers to study the particular needs of the different children with a view to placing them in suitable homes.

NEED FOR VOCATIONAL AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING.

Some of the children who come to us should have institutional care, and for these there ought to be provided in the institution proper facilities for vocational and general industrial training. At the Industrial Home School (white) for boys and girls there are at present many of the wards of the board of children's guardians, ranging in age from 6 to 16 years. These children should be receiving during their stay vocational training that will give them a right start in life. Even those who are there for a short time would receive great benefit from the help they would get in vocational training.

At the present time the buildings now in use at the Industrial Home School are old and inadequate, the congregate instead of the cottage system being in use.

The board regrets that Congress did not approve the appropriation asked by the commissioners for a new site for the institution. It is hoped that this will be granted at an early date. Up-to-date buildings in ample grounds and equipped for vocational training should be substituted, with the expenditure of enough money for securing high-type teachers to direct such work.

The board of children's guardians feels that one of its greatest needs is an industrial school for colored girls. We have no institution to send these large girls, who particularly need industrial training.

We are grateful for our excellent industrial school for colored boys, but even more buildings could be used to great advantage for the care and training of other boys who should be there. The board always has a waiting list for this institution.

BABY FARMS AND DAY NURSERIES.

The board heartily indorses the active effort of the health department to secure legislation to provide supervision for the so-called baby farms and day nurseries. Any person desiring to maintain a day nursery, home, or boarding home for young children should first be required to secure a license from the health office, and the home should be subject to later inspection at proper intervals by that office.

THE CHILDREN'S YEAR.

It is greatly to be hoped that the interest stimulated by the children's year committee, both in the back-to-school drive and in the physical welfare of young children, will not be allowed to wane.

NEW CHILD-LABOR BILL.

The back-to-school drive showed that hundreds of children were at work who ought to be in school. As a result of this drive, through the interest of the chairman, Mrs. Louis Brownlow, a new child-labor bill for the District of Columbia has been drafted and will be introduced at the present Congress. Too great stress can not be laid on the value of such legislation. It will keep boys and girls in school who ought to be there, and will rightly protect the children who are in industry.

REPORT OF BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS.

REGULAR MEDICAL EXAMINATIONS FOR CHILDREN OF PRESCHOOL AGE.

As regards the physical welfare of young children, the medical examinations given those under 6 years, at the time of the weighing and measuring test, showed that out of nearly 6,000 children in this city who were carefully examined more than 2,000 were found to be suffering from some physical defect. Our board sees to it that our young children receive regular medical examinations, and that the needed corrections are made.

The Washington Diet Kitchen Association is doing excellent work with the cases that come to them. School physicians and nurses are doing their part for children of school age, and the Modern Health Crusaders' movement, made possible by the National Tuberculosis Association and the Junior Red Cross, is being used with good effect in the schools.

We hope that the time will soon come when people generally will appreciate the importance of regular medical examination of all children of preschool age.

OUR THANKS TO MANY.

Reference has already been made to the excellent medical work accomplished for our children. This has been made possible through the efforts of the board's physician, Dr. Edward Hiram Reede, who has been able to secure valuable volunteer help from many of the city's best physicians and surgeons. We are very grateful to Dr. H. H. Hazen for his continued service in the treatment of skin diseases and syphilis, and to Dr. William H. Hough for making blood examinations for us.

Dr. Thomas V. Moore, C. S. P., Ph. D., M. D., has given and is giving us invaluable service in his mental examinations of our children and in his important suggestions for their guidance. The board is also most appreciative of the assistance given by the various hospitals and clinics.

We are grateful to the following organizations for their helpful cooperation: The juvenile court, the health department, the Associated Charities, the Social Settlements, the Hebrew Charities, the Washington Diet Kitchen Association, the Instructive Visiting Nurse Society, the Red Cross Home Service, the Juvenile Protective Association, the Christ Child Society, and the police department.

In conclusion, the board wishes to state that it feels that no service of the year has been greater than that being given to Washington by the Russell Sage Foundation in its survey of child-helping organizations of this city, done under the direction of Mr. C. Spencer Richardson. This comprehensive study should reveal each of us to ourselves in a most helpful way, and the suggestions and recommendations from such a study must prove invaluable to our group of child-helping agencies.

We are most fortunate indeed to have this service given us, both for the sake of standardizing the work done in our city and for the great benefit which must come to those most concerned—the children themselves.

Respectfully submitted.

WILLIAM KNOWLES COOPER,
President.

A FEW OF OUR STORIES.

A family of five children, white, ranging from 6 months to 13 years, and a mother and father, were brought together after the children had all been committed to the Board of Children's Guardians. The mother and father had not lived together, and all of the children were illegitimate. The mother was from a good family, and had been entirely separated from her relatives on account of her life. The father was a man in a good position, but had denied the children, and the mother had repeatedly refused to prosecute him. They were both of the same religion, and had known each other from childhood, the first child being born to them when the mother was only 16 years of age. When the oldest child, a boy of 13 years, begged the father, whom he called "Big Frank," to do the right thing by his mother and was refused, the child threatened to commit suicide. This was about the time the children were committed. After years of persuasion from social workers, the woman finally refused to see the father of the children after they had been removed from her care, and the couple were married within six weeks. This was six years ago, and the family is still united and the parents and children happy.

Robert, aged 10, was an habitual truant and stayed away from home for days at a time. Because the home had failed to control or guide the boy, he was placed with the Board of Children's Guardians. One of the workers became so much interested in him that he took him into his own home in the country. Five months of good care, affection, and understanding has worked wonders with Robert. He is now a model pupil at school and gives no trouble in any respect.

A 9-year-old colored girl, when committed to the board, had spent most of her life in the street, having been deserted when 3 years old by her mother, who had left her with an elderly couple unable to give her proper attention. The girl would not go to school. She was said to have very vulgar habits and to be generally incorrigible, and fought the placing officer who first took her from the court. In one month's time she had so responded to kindness and affection that she was making a fine record in her foster home and at school. In five months the foster mother was so fond of her that she asked to have the girl placed free with her. She would like to keep her always as her own child.

Several years ago a tiny girl was rescued from a drunken mother, where both were living in a house of ill-fame. No relatives could be located to take care of the child, but a good foster home in the country was found by the Board of Children's Guardians. The girl has been reared very carefully by this family, given every advantage, and treated as their own daughter. She is now a fine, capable girl, with the best kind of home influences around her.

How one family has been provided for by the love and fine spirit of one woman can be told only poorly in a few words. Miss Jenkins, first quite accidentally, became interested in a small boy who had been hurt. She found that the father was dead and that he had a very bad mother. She was anxious to do something to help the boy. About that time the four children of the family were committed to the board, and Miss Jenkins was allowed to have on trial adoption

the boy in whom she was interested. Hoping to prevent him from being lonesome and selfish, she adopted his next brother to grow up with him. Then because she thought her boys should have their sister with them, the sister was adopted and, later, the youngest brother, so that this one woman has given a whole family a chance for as much family life as could be possible for them. She has been brave and patient, working to cure their various physical defects and their many shortcomings, that have developed largely because of heredity and early environment, and through it all she is happy to have her children, and with money she herself has earned is giving them the education and training for which each is fitted.

When six months old Paul was left in a city park for some stranger to find, no one guessed that he would later have a new father and mother who would give him all of the chances that a baby like Paul ought to have. The Board of Children's Guardians have placed him with foster parents where he has great affection and every advantage for an education and cultured home life.

We wish that many more such homes will be opened to our children, that they can be adopted, or placed free or to board where they can have a real share in the home life to which they are entitled.

FINANCIAL STATEMENT.

Appropriation for contingent expenses.....	\$3,500.
Appropriation for salaries.....	18,200.00
Board and care of children:	
Primary appropriation.....	\$120,000.00
Deficiency appropriation.....	39,000.00
Payments made by relatives.....	6,608.15
	165,608.15
Maintenance of feeble-minded:	
Primary appropriation.....	30,000.00
Deficiency appropriation.....	2,000.00
Payments by relatives.....	992.27
	32,992.27
Total.....	220,300.42
Contingent expenses:	
Furniture, printing, and stationery.....	\$686.48
Telegrams.....	27.23
Telephone.....	27.35
Travel and transportation.....	2,717.89
	3,458.95
Salaries.....	17,071.88
Board and care of children:	
Boarding homes.....	\$119,884.51
Children's Temporary Home.....	17,108.33
Industrial Home for Colored Girls.....	894.69
National Junior Republic.....	299.04
House of Good Shepherd, colored, Baltimore.....	1,266.89
House of Good Shepherd, colored, Philadelphia.....	100.00
House of Good Shepherd, white, Philadelphia.....	144.00
House of Good Shepherd, white, Washington, D. C.....	115.58
House of Mercy.....	479.46
Jewish Foster Home.....	193.28
St. Joseph's Male Orphan Asylum.....	2.15
St. Mary's Industrial School.....	3,318.69
St. Vincent's Female Orphan Asylum.....	91.78
Burial.....	58.00
Clothing.....	16,247.50
Dentistry.....	3,451.00
Drugs.....	113.10
Medical attendance and supplies.....	1,712.79
	165,480.79
Maintenance of feeble-minded:	
Boarding homes.....	6,622.88
Children's Temporary Home.....	2,813.17
Gundry Home and Training School.....	7,836.86
Pennsylvania Training School.....	12,060.69
The Training School at Vineland.....	3,322.62
	32,656.22
Total expenditures.....	218,667.84
Unexpended balances:	
Contingent expenses.....	41.05
Salaries.....	1,128.12
Board and care of children.....	127.36
Maintenance of feeble-minded.....	336.05
	1,632.58
Total.....	220,300.42

REPORT OF BOARD OF CHILDREN'S GUARDIANS.

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Appropriation for the care and maintenance of children under a contract to be made with the National Association for the Relief of Destitute Colored Women and Children.....	\$9,900.00
Payments by relatives.....	28.00
Expenditures.....	9,928.00
Balance.....	5,179.17
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Appropriation for the care and maintenance of children under a contract to be made with St. Ann's Infant Asylum.....	6,000.00
Payments by relatives.....	73.00
Expenditures.....	6,073.00
Balance.....	5,729.21
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Appropriation for the care and maintenance of children under a contract to be made with the Washington Home for Foundlings.....	6,000.00
Payments by relatives.....	32.68
Expenditures.....	6,032.68
Balance.....	4,870.92
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Balance.....	1,161.76

Distribution of feeble-minded children at the close of the fiscal year.

[Including permanent and temporary wards classed as feeble-minded.]

	Not wards.				Permanent wards.				Temporary wards.			
	White.		Colored.		White.		Colored.		White.		Colored.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Boarding homes.....			1	7			8	19			2	
Children's Temporary Home			1				11				1	
Gundry Home and Training School.....	15	11				4			1	1		
House of Good Shepherd, colored, Baltimore.....								1				1
House of Mercy.....			1									
Industrial Home for Colored Girls.....												2
Pennsylvania Training School.....	15	11	1	1	6	5				1		
Training school at Vineland.....	3	2			2	3			1			
Hospitals.....							2					
Industrial Home School.....						1						
Industrial Home School, colored.....							2					1
St. Elizabeths Hospital.....						1	3					
Apprenticed and wages.....					1			4				
Free with relatives and friends.....				1	6	3	3	4				
Whereabouts unknown.....					2		4	3				1
Total.....	33	25	3	9	17	17	33	32	2	2	5	3

Distribution of permanent and temporary wards at the close of the fiscal year

[Not including those classed as feeble-minded.]

	Permanent.				Temporary.			
	White.		Colored.		White.		Colored.	
	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.	Male.	Female.
Boarding homes.....	37	34	149	130	22	11	108	47
Children's Temporary Home.....			25	10			53	3
House of the Good Shepherd, colored, Baltimore, Md.....								
House of the Good Shepherd, white, Philadelphia, Pa.....		1						
House of the Good Shepherd, white, Washington, D. C.....		3						
House of Mercy.....		6						
Industrial Home for Colored Girls.....								2
Jewish Foster Home.....					1	1		
St. Mary's Industrial School.....					2			
St. Ann's Infant Asylum.....	6	2			7	6		
Washington Home for Foundlings.....	7	1			15	9		
Hospitals.....	3	1	4	3	2	6	1	2
Industrial Home School.....	31	15			38	14		
Industrial Home School, colored.....			46				41	
Apprenticed and wages.....	37	6	39	18				1
Free with relatives and friends.....	120	84	163	121	27	3	12	3
Indenture.....	6		8	9				
Trial for adoption.....	4	7	16	14				
Whereabouts unknown.....	61	14	133	57	19	3	24	1
Total.....	312	174	583	362	133	53	239	59

Movement of population during the fiscal year.

	Permanent wards.	Temporary wards.	Feeble-minded.
Number under care July 1, 1918.....	1,580	497	73
Number received during year.....	153	412	14
Total.....	1,733	909	87
Discharged:			
Adopted.....	12		
Attained majority.....	131		
Committed during minority.....		80	
Committed to national training schools.....	16	8	
Died.....	23	17	8
Expiration of term of commitment.....		283	
Married.....	18	2	
Order of commitment set aside.....	3	23	
Returned to relatives.....			9
Total discharged.....	203	413	17
Remaining under care June 30, 1919.....	1,530	496	70
Total.....	1,733	909	87

The Position of Indian Students in the United Kingdom.

On the 19th July 1916, a representation was addressed by the Indian Students' Friends' Society to His Excellency the Viceroy and Governor-General in Council in which were set forth certain grievances from which it is alleged that Indian students suffered in the United Kingdom. As the allegations cited had reference to the Department for Indian students at the India Office and certain institutions such as the universities of Oxford and Cambridge, London medical schools, the Inns of Court and the Institution of Civil Engineers, the representation was forwarded to the Secretary of State and in reply the Secretary of State has forwarded the following memorandum dealing with the main points put forward in the representation.

MEMORANDUM.

Some perplexity has been felt in India in regard to the origin and the working of the Students' Department, and a memorial from the Indian Students' Friends' Society, presented to the Viceroy in July 1916 re-echoes the sentiment:—"The genesis of this department has all along been shrouded in mystery. It is not known to the public in this country why the department was started, and at whose instance. It is not known that the students concerned had ever asked for it. All that we know is that a Departmental Committee of the India Office recommended such an institution, and it was assumed that it would be for the benefit of the students" (page 9, paragraph 20).

To appreciate the benevolent intention of the Secretary of State in establishing the Students' Department, it is necessary to go back to the period when Indian students first began to come to this country for purposes of education. Up to the seventies the number was very small, and when the National Indian Association was founded in 1871 with the object of extending the knowledge of India in England, of co-operating with all efforts made for advancing education and social reform in India, and of promoting friendly intercourse between English people and the peoples of India, it was not anticipated that Indian students would tend to absorb the major part of its activities, and the "superintending of the education of young Indian students in England" was at the outset looked upon merely as a subsidiary part of its work. From 1877 to 1905 Miss Manning was the Honorary Secretary of the Association, and as she possessed an ample private fortune she was able to devote the whole of her time to the care of such Indian students as sought her help. But by the date of her death the number of Indian students in this country had so much increased that no private individual could deal with all the problems connected with their difficulties, nor could any unofficial agency adequately represent them to the educational institutions into which they sought entry in yearly increasing numbers. Several persons, both English and Indian, interested in the welfare of

Indian students, drew the attention of Lord Morley, when Secretary of State for India, to the need of some provision for the welfare of Indian students during their residence in this country, and on the 14th of April 1907 he appointed a committee "to enquire and report upon the position in this country of young Indians who come to England, otherwise than as Government scholars, to study for university degrees, or for the Bar or other professions, and to make recommendations." This committee interviewed a number of Indian gentlemen, who strongly advocated the establishment of some organisation for the assistance and guidance of students; among them were older Indian gentlemen temporarily resident in this country, as well as students in Oxford, Cambridge and London. The proposal to establish such an organisation was also welcomed by the authorities of universities and other educational institutions, and in consequence of the evidence collected by the Committee, and the recommendations which it submitted to the Secretary of State, a Bureau of Information was instituted in April 1909, which afterwards developed into the present Students' Department. There is hardly a university or college in this country, to which Indian students resort, that has not continuously availed itself of the assistance given by the Students' Department in regard to the admission of Indian applicants; such educational establishments had previously no means of testing the value of credentials brought from India, as they were in many cases written by persons with whom the authorities in the United Kingdom were not personally acquainted, and the organisation of the Indian universities was little known or understood in this country. Even the University of Edinburgh (which at the outset was hostile, under the misapprehension that the creation of a Bureau of Information in London "would act prejudicially to Edinburgh's interest, as in the course of time it would probably become a mere recruiting agency for the London Schools") appointed in 1913 a representative of the Secretary of State to act when desired as guardian to Indian students, to secure facilities and introductions for them, and to render such other assistance as circumstances might require.

The recommendations of the committee as to the Bureau of Information were that its functions should be—

- (a) to provide information upon educational matters to Indian parents and students;
- (b) to draw up and keep on record a list of suitable lodgings and boarding houses in London, and of suitable families throughout the country who may be willing to receive Indians as paying guests during the vacations or at other times;
- (c) to furnish Indian students with such references or certificates as may from time to time be required of them by institutions to which they desire admittance;
- (d) to consider cases in which the regulations of British universities or other academic bodies impose unintentional

hardship upon Indian students, or in which the system in force at colleges or universities in India does not harmonise with the requirements of educational institutions in this country ;

- (e) to bring out a handbook of information on matters relating to academic and technical education, general particulars as to the conditions of life in various centres in the United Kingdom, the expenses of living, and any other details which may be useful to an Indian parent who contemplates sending his son to this country ;

to assist Indian students in this country with advice on all matters—social, financial, or educational in which such advice is sought ; also on the expressed request of parents in India to undertake or to entrust to responsible persons the duties of guardianship of Indian students in general or special matters, and, if desired, to send home periodical reports as to progress and conduct.

The Bureau of Information started its activities on the 27th of April 1909 on the lines indicated in these recommendations. From the outset it was faced with the difficulty of reconciling educational institutions to the possibility of an increased admission of Indian students, and, on the other hand, of removing the distrust which any official activity was apt to incite in the mind of the Indian student himself. With regard to educational institutions in this country the difficulties that presented themselves and the efforts made by the Students' Department to deal with them will be considered separately later on, but speaking generally it may be stated that the universities and colleges of this country are self-governing corporations, jealous of their own honour and privileges and of their independence as secured to them by Royal Charter or otherwise. They are in no way bound to pay any consideration whatsoever to representations of the Secretary of State for India, and at the time there was a considerable amount of dissatisfaction felt in regard to the Indian students to whom they had granted admission. In urging further liberality in regard to the admission of Indians, the Students' Department was met with objections that consisted mainly of complaints in regard to (a) offences against morals ; (b) indebtedness to colleges and lodging-house keepers ; (c) failure on the part of Indian students to avail themselves of the educational facilities provided ; and (d) their holding aloof from the social life at the colleges (particularly in Oxford and Cambridge).

In regard to the Indian students themselves, feeling was at the time much excited over the question of the partition of Bengal, and in London Shyamji Krishnavarma was actively engaged in an anti-British propaganda, and the attitude of the student was thus described by one of the Indian witnesses (a distinguished barrister), who gave evidence

before the committee appointed by the Secretary of State: "The opinions of most of them are revolutionary; their motto is distrust and hatred." The murder of Sir Curzon Wyllie by a student of University College, London, on the 1st July 1909, a few months after the Bureau of Information began its work, was followed by a large increase of police activity—quite unconnected with the Students' Department—which created widespread suspicion that the Department had been established for the purpose of spying upon the students and interfering with their freedom. The fact that the report of the Committee, on whose recommendations the Bureau had been established, was never published, gave rise to many surmises as to its purpose and the nature of its activities. A group of students, among whom Hardyal, Sarvarkar and V. Chattopadhyaya have since become notorious, fostered the feeling of distrust, and, sometimes openly, sometimes covertly, carried on a campaign against the Department, and succeeded in imbuing a certain number of the students with a feeling of hostility towards any organisation connected with the India Office.

But apart from any attitude of political hostility, it must be remembered that students between the ages of 18 and 22, whatever be their nationality, are apt to resent any show of authority and anything that appears to them like an infringement of personal liberty; and their interpretation of liberty is apt to leave out of count the interests of the community and the rights and privileges of organised corporations.

With such material to deal with, it is rather a matter of surprise that the Students' Department has achieved so much success as it has. In one year, more than 1,000 students availed themselves of the help that the Department could give them, and it has had as much as 21,000*l.* entrusted to its care by parents and others for the guardianship of students in the course of a single year (1910-11). In Sir C. E. Mallet's Reports from 1912 to 1916, detailed figures are given,

and these* show that the majority of the students who come to this country have at some time or other derived advantage from the efforts of the Department on their behalf.

The memorialists state: "Our society believe that it is not at all necessary to maintain a whole department for the purpose of supplying information about curricula and boarding houses; there is nothing in this direction which cannot be done by private agency in less time, at less cost and with less trouble." A perusal of Sir C. E. Mallet's Reports on the work of the Indian Students' Department from July 1912 to June 1916, will show how multifarious and varied is the work this Department has to carry on. Indeed, beginning merely as a bureau of information on educational matters, it has developed into an organisation to which Indian students apply for assistance in reference to any difficulties whatsoever they may happen to meet with in this country; and, on the other hand, its help is sought by English persons interested in the welfare of Indian students or in any way concerned with them.

*Published as Parliamentary Papers, price 2½*d.* each, and obtainable through any bookseller.

The following is a summary of the various kinds of work the Department has to carry on :—

- (1) co-operation with the 11 Advisory Committees in India, supplying them with the information they require, collecting and supplying them with the calendars and prospectuses of educational institutions in the United Kingdom, keeping them acquainted with such changes in rules and regulations as affect Indian students, answering enquires sent by these Advisory Committees, supporting their recommendations in every way possible, and sending reports on the work and progress of students who have come to this country with letters of recommendation from one or other of these Committees ;
- (2) correspondence with the Secretary to the Delegacy for Oriental Students in Oxford, the Secretary of the Intercollegiate Indian Students' Committee, Cambridge, and the local advisers to Indian Students at Manchester, Edinburgh, and Glasgow, in regard to Indian students seeking admission to either of these universities or residing there under the charge of one or other of these persons ;
- (3) making arrangements for the studies of the Government of India scholars and other scholars that have from time to time been placed under the charge of the Department by the Governments of Mysore, Patiala, Travancore, etc., and by the Tata and Wadia Trustees, superintending the studies of these scholars, and furnishing reports upon them ; since 1913 the women scholars, sent to this country by the Government of India, for the study of medicine and a training in the methods and practices of education, have been placed under the charge of this Department, and special arrangements have had to be made for such scholars ; similarly, the Dufferin Fund has entrusted the care of its scholars to the Students' Department ;
- (4) caring for other students placed under guardianship by their parents ; the number of such students varies from year to year ; there were 91 in 1911, 137 in 1912, 144 in 1913, 157 in 1914, 144 in 1915, and 138 in 1916 ; the duties connected with such guardianship are often arduous and responsible, especially as the total sum of money that has to be administered is considerable, and difficulties are apt to arise owing to delay in the arrival of remittances from India, the death of a parent, etc., to say nothing of the circumstances connected with the career of the student himself ; such students under guardianship include not only young men pursuing a course of study in a university or college, but also school-boys, who require more constant attention and for whom suitable families have to be found to provide them with a home during the school vacations ;

- (5) making arrangements for meeting students on their arrival at the docks, or at a railway station (if they travel overland from Marseilles), and arranging return passages ;
- (6) furnishing students with references and certificates to enable them to enter educational establishments, particularly the Inns of Court ;
- (7) giving advice to students in regard to educational facilities in this country, the choice of a profession, and the most suitable university, college, school, or technical institute, in which the course of study or practical training may be profitably pursued ; the subjects in regard to which the Department has been consulted are multifarious, and include not only the Arts studies in regard to which information is readily accessible through familiar academic channels, and other well-recognised university courses, such as those in medicine, engineering, law, agriculture, and forestry—but also technical studies, facilities for which are not so easy to find ; among the technical subject on which the Department has been consulted are photo-lithography, glass manufacture, soap-making, the manufacture of cutlery, pottery, bakery, and biscuit-making, the manufacture of oils and fats, weaving, dyeing, bleaching, calico printing, ribbon manufactory, sericulture, electro-plating, tobacco-curing, telegraphy, the motor-car industry, tanning, tailoring, and veterinary science ; students who wish to become architects, accountants, bankers, or solicitors, have also applied to the Students' Department for guidance as to the best course to follow ; in many cases reference has to be made to specialists, before a satisfactory answer can be given, and by an arrangement made between the Secretary of State for India and the Board of Education, the Students' Department is in a position to consult the Department of Special Enquiries in the Board of Education in regard to technical studies, and to obtain for students undergoing a training as teachers, opportunities for visiting schools and other facilities ; as it is in touch with every form of educational activity in this country, the Board of Education is in a position to furnish the most recent and trustworthy information in regard to almost every branch of study and intellectual training. In regard to medical studies, the Students' Department is able to profit by the advice of the President of the Medical Board and Medical Adviser to the Secretary of State. For the benefit of engineering students, the Secretary in 1910 appointed Mr. J. M. Campion, M.I.C.E., to act as Engineering Adviser, and he is in close touch with the various Institutions of Engineers, and with companies and firms willing to afford students opportunities for practical work, and most of the students who come to this

country to be trained as engineers, avail themselves of his advice. In other technical matters, the Students' Department is able to obtain for students the advice of the Board of Agriculture, the Director of the Imperial Institute, and a large number of other experts ;

- (8) in the more difficult matter of obtaining opportunities for practical training and experience, the Students' Department has since its inception secured for Indian students admission into manufactories and works of all kinds, and facilities for a practical training in electrical and mechanical engineering, sugar manufacture, flour-milling, tanning and pottery-manufacture have been obtained for a large number of students, who but for the recommendation of the India Office would have experienced great difficulties in endeavouring to obtain them by their own unaided efforts, and would in some cases have found it quite impossible ;
- (9) recommending suitable lodgings, finding families who will admit Indian students into their household, and arranging for holiday homes and vacation residences ; before the outbreak of the war, similar arrangements were made for students who wished to spend a vacation in France or Germany ; to build up a useful connection of this kind is the work of many years, and much care and tact is needed in making use of it ; but it has been possible thereby to introduce a large number of Indian students into English households, which have become their homes during their residence in this country and in which they have formed pleasant and helpful friendships ;
- (10) compiling the Handbook of Information, which gives details of the various university and professional studies commonly followed by Indian students in the United Kingdom, together with advice as to outfit and preparations requisite before leaving India, the cost of education in this country and the best means of profiting by it ; in addition to this Handbook the Students' Department issues some pamphlets and leaflets, such as an account of the work carried on in 21, Cromwell Road, and the advantages that students can obtain there, " Rules and Suggestions for Indian Students entering Oxford and Cambridge," " Rules for the Guardianship of Indian Students in Great Britain," " Notes and Suggestions for Indian Students for the English Bar," and " The Cost of Living for Indian Students in Great Britain" ;
- (11) obtaining passports for students returning to India ; since the outbreak of the war, the procedure in regard to passports has become complicated and often involves considerable correspondence ;

- (12) relieving students in financial difficulties, by co-operation with the Distressed Indian Students' Aid Committee (which is an outgrowth of the Students' Department); students are frequently embarrassed owing to the failure of remittances to arrive in time, or (less frequently) through the death of a parent and the consequent confusion in monetary arrangements; and the temporary loans made by this Committee (to which is attached one of the members of the staff of the Students' Department) have relieved distress for which previously there was no adequate remedy;
- (13) the care of students who fall into ill-health, arrangements for the burial and winding up of the affairs of any who die, the extrication of students from difficulties into which they have fallen, litigation, etc;
- (14) the promotion of social intercourse with English undergraduates and others in this country (in this connection the Hospitality Committee has been one of the most recent developments);
- (15) lastly, the organisation of the many-sided work at 21, Cromwell Road, and especially its social activities and the various literary and debating societies which have met there.

It is of interest to note that several societies have from time to time been founded to carry on some such work as is done by the Students' Department, and their very existence and their number bear testimony to the recognition of the need of such an organisation; but none has met with much measure of success, except the National Indian Association (founded in 1871), and most of them have perished after a brief existence of one or two years. The fact is that the work is so exacting that only a permanent staff entirely devoted to it can cope with the multifarious character and volume of the work, and only an official body can command the confidence of educational institutions, which ask for guarantees, or of parents who wish to entrust to a guardian large sums of money to be administered on behalf of their sons.

As Sir C. E. Mallet states in his Report, 1914-15 (paragraph 21): "There will always, perhaps, be a few critics to protest that Indian students would get on better in this country if they had no connection with the India Office, and no department to help and advise them, to supply information about English life and education, to receive new arrivals and start them on their way, to secure them the introductions for which they ask, to support their admission to institutions which they wish to join. But this view is only tenable by people who know little of English institutions, and still less of Indian students' needs." Again in his Report, 1915-16 (paragraph 21): "Objection has been raised to the Students' Department on the ground that it means official intervention where no such intervention is required. But no one who realises the circumstances in India and in England will admit the

soundness of this plea. There are now thousands of enquiries received every year in the two countries from Indian students who want information as to British examinations, exemptions, diplomas, and degrees. The enquiries are often complicated and minute in character, and need careful and detailed replies. No voluntary organisation exists which can deal satisfactorily with these enquiries. The need for the machinery of the Advisory Committees, set up by Government in India has been repeatedly proved by the applications made to them. In the same way on this side, it has been shown by experience that Indian students, when they come to this country, need in many cases some organisation to put them on their way, to receive and start them in their new surroundings, and to introduce them to the institutions which they wish to join. Here again, no voluntary organisation has yet grown up which is equal to the task, and it is simply because the Department is needed that Indian students apply to it for help. Besides that, the standpoint of English institutions should be understood. Bodies like Oxford and Cambridge Colleges or the London Inns of Court, which set store on the facilities they offer, and have their own traditions and standards to maintain, will not admit any new candidate, be his nationality what it may, until satisfied that he is qualified for admission. It is not enough for a student to wish to join them. He must produce such credentials as they require; he must satisfy them that his credentials are of value, and he must make his application at the proper time. It often happens that institutions in this country feel unable to judge of the value of testimonials brought to them by students of whom they know nothing, and in such cases it is no reflection on the students, it is simply a matter of reasonable precaution, that they should apply to the authority in England which can best tell them what these testimonials are worth. In the case of an Indian student the India Office is the source of information to which English institutions naturally turn. If any critic is tempted without consideration to protest against official action in this matter, he should ask himself what the position would be if the India Office refused to intervene, and declined to accept any responsibility or to give any recommendations for Indian students. The result would inevitably be the closing of doors which official influence has been able to keep open."

In the memorial from the Indian Students' Friends' Society the Government of India is asked to "take immediate steps to remove all the just grievances of young Indians in the United Kingdom," and a number of complaints are brought forward against various educational institutions in the United Kingdom which admit Indian students. The problem is more perplexing and complicated than the memorialists have recognised it to be, and cannot be made clear unless it is dealt with in some detail, specially as the complaints made are stated in general terms and no specific examples of injustice are adduced in support of them.

It is proposed to consider these complaints in regard to the institutions referred to, in the following order: (A) the Universities of Oxford

and Cambridge ; (B) the Medical Schools ; (C) the Inns of Court ; and (D) the Institution of Civil Engineers.

(A) The Universities of Oxford and Cambridge.

It is an error to suppose that the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge have ceased to welcome scholars and men of personality of whatever race or creed, but they wish to admit students who are likely to profit by the opportunities afforded them there and keep alive the traditions of sound learning. From about the year 1905 the number of Indian applicants for admission increased considerably, and by 1909 a number of colleges, which had found a difficulty in obtaining adequate information as to the character, financial standing, and intellectual qualifications of their Indian students, became reluctant to admit Indian students at all. It was directly in consequence of representations from the India Office that almost all the colleges promised to reserve a number of vacancies for Indian applicants ; the India Office, on its part, undertook to make arrangements whereby students in India could be advised as to the expenses, conditions of admission, and courses of study, &c., and the colleges, on the other hand, receive information as to the suitability of candidates for admission ; at the same time, financial guarantees were provided in the case of colleges that would not admit Indian students without them, by an arrangement whereby parents placed their sons under the guardianship of the Educational Adviser and sent remittances of money to him. There are several references in the memorial to compulsory guardianship. It cannot be too emphatically stated that the Students' Department only undertook the guardianship of a student if asked by the student himself or his parent or his natural guardian to do so. The memorialists quote the report of a Sub-Committee of the London Advisory Committee which asserts that an "element of compulsion has been imported into what was originally avowed to be a purely voluntary system." This opinion was based on a misunderstanding of the circumstances under which the Department used to undertake the guardianship of students admitted to Oxford or Cambridge ; such guardianship was only undertaken in order to help students to obtain admission in cases when guardianship was made a condition of admission. Some few out of the Colleges at Oxford and Cambridge, and the Censor of Non-Collegiate Students at Oxford, would not admit Indian students unless they were under guardianship, chiefly with the object of having someone in this country, who would be responsible for the payment of the students' dues. If this regulation may be described as compulsion, the compulsion was a matter of college regulations, for which the Department was not responsible, and the Department intervened only to help the students in cases where there was no one in this country forthcoming to undertake this responsibility. Several Indian gentlemen resident in England acted as guardians, and were thus able to secure for their wards admission

to colleges, and the Department performed a similar office for other students. It is an error to represent what was a detail of college discipline as being compulsion on the part of the Department. But at the present time there is no ground even for such a misapprehension. In accordance with the new arrangement made in 1916 at Oxford and Cambridge (explained by Sir C. E. Mallet, in paragraph 10 of his Report for 1915-16), no student at either of these Universities will be under the guardianship of the Department; colleges as before may insist upon students being under guardianship, but that function will be performed by university officials, the Secretary of the Delegacy for Oriental Students at Oxford, and the Secretary of the Intercollegiate Committee at Cambridge, responsible only to the university body that appoints them, and the decision in the matter will rest entirely with the college concerned. As the Secretary of the Delegacy for Oriental Students at Oxford has said, "It cannot be too clearly or too frequently pointed out that this is a matter that rests entirely with the colleges (and the Non-Collegiate Body) to decide. There is no forcing of guardianship on our part. If a college elects to accept an Indian student without it, there is no objection. We simply place ourselves at the disposal of the colleges if they desire to employ our agency."

As henceforth students at Oxford or Cambridge will be under the guardianship of officials of their own university only, all shadow of suspicion as to any compulsion in regard to guardianship by the Students' Department should pass away, as in these universities guardianship has now become a matter merely of domestic discipline with which the India Office has nothing to do.

The memorialists are incorrect in stating (paragraph 17) that "Trinity and Magdalen Colleges at Oxford refuse to admit any student of Indian nationality" since these colleges have distinctly expressed their willingness to consider applications from Indian students; nor has Corpus Christi College, Cambridge, refused to admit Indians on the ground of their race or nationality; it is a small college, which grants admission to applicants on principles that exclude several classes of English students besides Indians, and in this respect occupies a position different from that of the other colleges in this university. In view, therefore, of the actual attitude of the colleges, as explained above, it is difficult to understand the statement in paragraph 17 of the memorial, "This attitude on the part of the colleges towards students works as a great hardship and creates a most painful impression on the public mind in India." No instance has ever been adduced of an Indian student fitted for admission to Oxford or Cambridge, who has applied in good time, and passed the necessary tests, having failed to obtain admission; on the contrary, there have been many instances of colleges having generously relaxed their rules, and departed from their usual practice, in favour of Indian students who have brought with them good educational credentials.

Indeed, the arrangements made imply a special degree of consideration for Indians, such as is shown to no other class of students except the Rhodes scholars at Oxford, in that vacancies are reserved for Indian applicants, and almost every college has from time to time exceeded the limit of the number of Indian students it has undertaken to admit each year, for it cannot be too strongly emphasised that whatever limit there may be is a minimum, not a maximum. Accordingly it is not correct to say "the most liberal institutions admit two every year" (paragraph 17), for some colleges at Cambridge frequently admit three or four, and Fitzwilliam Hall six to eight; in the years 1911—15 there were 18 occasions on which one college or another admitted more than two Indians in one year. It is true that none of the colleges can admit an unlimited number of Indian students in any one year, but it must be remembered that (i) in each case the accommodation is limited by the fact that no tutor can take charge of more than a certain number of students; (ii) each college has to meet a great many claims, urged by schools with which it has a long re-established connection, by old members of the college, &c.; Indian students and their parents fail to recognise how much pressure is put upon colleges in this manner, or what efforts are made to secure the privileges of admission; *e.g.*, many Indian students who come to Oxford expect to be admitted to Balliol College immediately on application. An English parent sometimes thinks it necessary to put his son's name down as a candidate for admission three years ahead; (iii) in the case of some colleges each Indian student who is admitted implies the exclusion of an English student, and the reserving of places for Indian applicants *qua* Indians is a privilege not granted to students of any other nationality (with the solitary exception of the Rhodes scholars at Oxford). There is one consideration among others that has led the authorities of individual colleges to arrange to make the number of Indian students in residence at any one time bear some proportion to the aggregate number of those admitted to the college, namely, the desire that the Indian undergraduates should be absorbed into the social life of the place; experience has shown that if the number of Indians in a college exceeds a certain proportion of the total number of the students, the Indians are very apt to congregate together and keep aloof from the common life of the college. It has been found at Edinburgh for example, where there is no college system and where the Indians form a large distinctive group, that their isolation from the general life of the University has made their situation more difficult and has even excited racial feeling; and generally speaking, wherever Indian students gather in large numbers in any British institution, it is not so easy for them to reap advantage from their stay there, as they can in places where their numbers are so small as to enable them to be absorbed in the society of their fellows. The limitation of numbers in any individual college therefore has in most cases been found to have had good results, and no Indian student who is companionable and is prepared to accommodate himself to the spirit of the institution, has reason to complain of race or colour prejudice. There have been several

instances of students, both at Oxford and Cambridge, who have been among the most popular men in their colleges; as Sir C. E. Mallet has said * " every Indian who accepts the ways and traditions of the university he joins, does well in its schools, enters into its spirit and occupations, and makes himself liked, as Indian students can, will find a not ungenerous welcome, and will render easier the way for those who follow in his steps."

Though no Oxford or Cambridge College is prepared to admit an unlimited number of Indian students (and, as explained above, this restriction operates to the advantage of the Indian students themselves), the accommodation available in colleges and in the non-collegiate body together, has hitherto enabled provision to be made for every qualified Indian student who has sent in his application for admission in good time and in accordance with the regulations of the university. The following statement gives the number of Indian students who were admitted to the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge since the establishment of the Students' Department, and the total number in residence at the close of each academic session (*i.e.*, June in each year).

Session.			Oxford Matriculates.	Total Number in Residence.
1908-09	14	9
1909-10	21	45
1910-11	31	56
1911-12	21	62
1912-13	20	66
1913-14	33	70
1914-15	23	61
1915-16	14	70
Session.			Cambridge Matriculates.	Total Number in Residence.
1908-09	34	9
1909-10	43	126
1910-11	47	128
1911-12	31	111
1912-13	32	117
1913-14	35	100
1914-15	36	108
1915-16	39	103

Though these figures fluctuate from year to year, and though the war has undoubtedly affected recent numbers, it is noticeable that the total of matriculates rose from 48 in the first year after the establishment of the Department to 68 in the year before the outbreak of the hostilities.

The memorialists in paragraph 17 imply that a gross injustice is done to students by a "wholesale exclusion of Indian students" from Oxford and Cambridge as being "the best training ground for the Indian Civil Service." There is no evidence of any such exclusion, and, as Sir C. E. Mallet points out (*loc. cit.*), "while the figures of the Indian Civil Service examinations during the last 15 years, from 1902 to 1916, show that the number of Indians who have secured places in any given year has rarely, if ever, exceeded one or two from Oxford and seven from Cambridge, any suggestion that these two Universities are, by limiting admissions, keeping Indians out of the public service of their country would be quite without justification."

Nor is there any ground for the statement (paragraph 2) that Indian students suffer from any "disabilities in the matter of Fellowships, or are excluded from College Fellowships" (paragraph 18). It is true that the Hon. Mr. R. P. Paranjpye is the only Indian who has obtained a Fellowship so far, but this single instance is sufficient to show that there is no disability in the case of an Indian candidate. At the same time it must be remembered that the number of Prize Fellowships is small, and that other Fellowships can only be held by recognised teachers of the university or by those occupying some official position, either in the university or on the governing body of some individual college. In these respects there is no analogy between Fellowships in Oxford or Cambridge Colleges on the one hand, and Fellowships of an Indian university, or even of other learned bodies in the United Kingdom on the other.

The memorialists omit to mention the large number of *scholarships* and *exhibitions* that have been awarded to Indian students in various colleges, especially at Cambridge (where of recent years Indian students have been distinguishing themselves more than at Oxford). A long list might be given of these, beginning with the name of the late Professor S. Sathianadban, who in 1880 held a Foundation Scholarship at Corpus Christi College, Cambridge. Indian students have been awarded studentships, scholarships, and exhibitions at Clare College, Pembroke College, Trinity Hall, King's College, St. Catherine's College, Jesus College, Christ's College, St. John's College, Magdalene College, Trinity College, Sidney Sussex College, and Emmanuel College, Cambridge; and at the last-mentioned College an Indian student has received a Research Studentship of 150*l.* a year. At Oxford the number of such distinctions gained has been fewer, but among them have been a scholarship at Balliol College, and an exhibition for law and a research scholarship at Christ Church. Such awards are given as readily to Indians whose merit has deserved them as to any other candidates, and no distinction as to creed or race is made (except, of

course, in the case of specifically theological endowments, but even these are available for Indian Christians). Indian students have been allowed to compete for, and have won, Entrance Scholarships, and poor students have received special grants from college funds. The more brilliant students engaged upon research work have been given grants from both university and college funds. The generous welcome given in Trinity College, Cambridge, to S. Ramanujan, the mathematician, is typical of the reception which every genuine scholar receives in an English university. There have also been instances in Cambridge of Indians who have been given post-graduate appointments as demonstrators in scientific laboratories or as Directors of Studies. The Board of Civil Service Studies in the same university has appointed an Indian as university teacher in Marathi, and at the present time an Indian holds the post of university teacher in Hindustani. An Indian has also been lecturer in Sanskrit at the University of Oxford. These facts indicate none of the race prejudice of which the memorialists complain, but rather show that Indian students enjoy there "an equality of treatment and of opportunity" (paragraph 5).

(B) The Medical Schools.

As regards the medical schools and colleges, the limited accommodation for British students and the need of a constantly fresh supply of members of the medical profession make the authorities of these institutions unwilling to exclude their fellow-countrymen to the advantage of foreign applicants. Accordingly, restriction on the admission of Indian students to medical colleges in London there certainly is; but the petition much exaggerates the consequent difficulties in their way. Sir C. E. Mallet sums up the present situation in his Report for 1915-16: "As regards medicine, it cannot be fairly said that any Indian student of character and education is now prevented from securing in the United Kingdom, the medical training which he needs. Both in London and in Edinburgh, Indian medical students are admitted in considerable numbers; and it is too often forgotten that there are several other universities in Great Britain—Birmingham, Durham, Manchester, Leeds, and Liverpool may be mentioned among them—where a first-class medical training can be procured, of which few Indians have as yet taken advantage. It would be unfair to the great London hospitals, and it would overlook the special position they hold and the many demands they have to satisfy, to suggest that they are as a body illiberal in offering facilities to Indian students. But it is the fact, whatever may be the cause, that in some the facilities are much fewer than in others. It is perhaps not too much to ask that every hospital, according to its abilities, should admit the obligation of keeping a fair proportion of its vacancies for Indian students, and that the hospital authorities should recognise that, among the large numbers of oversea students whom they admit, Indians as British subjects have a strong and even a preponderating claim. There is reason to hope that with a fuller recognition of the needs of India the number of Indian medical students in the London hospitals might be appreciably increased. But

even as matters stand, there is nothing to prevent any Indian student, with a fair record and with the preliminary education needed, from getting the highest kind of medical training at one centre or another in Great Britain."

The memorialists state (paragraph 13) that "Indian medical students prefer to be educated in London, as the teaching in the London colleges is superior to what is available at provincial centres." Those who are in a position to judge of the teaching given in some of the great medical schools in the North of England and in Scotland would undoubtedly dispute the accuracy of this statement. But the chief reason given for the preference is that the students may be able to compete on equal terms in the Indian Medical Service Examination, which is held in London. But a scrutiny of the pass lists of this examination does not show that study in a London college is essential to success. From the following statement it will be seen that of the successful candidates at the last 11 competitive examinations for the Indian Medical Service, no less than 63 obtained their qualifications at medical schools outside London :—

Date of Examination.	No. of successful Candidates holding London qualifications.	No. of successful Candidates holding Provincial qualifications.
January 1910	4	9
July 1910	6	9
January 1911	7	6
July 1911	8	4
January 1912	6	5
July 1912	8	4
January 1913	7	5
July 1913	8	4
January 1914	9	9
July 1914	7	6
July 1915	4	2
Total for 11 Examinations ...	74	63

In regard to post-graduate appointments in the medical colleges and hospitals, there is no justification for speaking of the "virtual exclusion" of Indian students from such appointments (paragraph 14), for resident appointments have been given to Indian medical students in St. Thomas' Hospital, the Middlesex Hospital, University College Hospital, Charing Cross Hospital, the London Lock Hospital, St.

Mark's Hospital, the Cancer Hospital, St. Peter's Hospital, Chelsea Hospital for Women, York Road Lying-in Hospital, Brompton Hospital for Consumption, East London Hospital for Children, Seamen's Hospital (London School of Tropical Medicine), Royal Free Hospital, and the New Hospital for Women. These are some of the hospitals in London in which residential appointments have been given to Indian medical students; in the provinces, instances are much more numerous, and the authorities of those isolated London hospitals that have shown a reluctance to give residential posts to their Indian students have secured for them such appointments in hospitals in the provinces. It is not correct to say that "In the case of examinations like the M. D. and M. S. (London) the holding of a residential appointment for a particular period is one of the necessary qualifications for admission to such examinations" (paragraph 14). The Regulations of the University of London in regard to the holding of a hospital appointment for a candidate for the M. D. degree state that he must send to the Registrar a certificate either

- (i) of having been engaged in professional practice for not less than five years; or
- (ii) in the case of Branch I, of having held for at least six months an approved appointment at a hospital recognised for the purpose; or
- (iii) in the case of Branch II, of having held for at least six months an approved pathological appointment at an institution recognised for the purpose; or
- (iv) in the case of Branch III, of having held for a period of six months an appointment in an asylum approved for this purpose by the university; or
- (v) in the case of Branch IV, of having held for at least six months an approved appointment in Obstetrics or Gynæcology at a hospital recognised for the purpose.

For the degree of M.S. Branch I, Surgery, a candidate must forward a certificate of having held for at least six months an approved surgical appointment at a hospital recognised for the purpose; Branch II, Dental Surgery, a similar certificate of having held an approved appointment at a dental hospital.

The University publishes a list of these approved appointments.

For the M. D. examination:—

Branch I. There are more than 200 appointments in the United Kingdom of which at least 34 are non-residential appointments, and 39 which may be held either in Bombay or Calcutta.

Branch II. There are 53 appointments, of which 51 are non-residential.

Branch III. Any appointment that can only be held by a registered medical practitioner at a large number of asylums.

Branch IV. There are some 48 appointments in the United Kingdom of which about 17 are non-residential appointments, and 5 which may be held either in Bombay or Calcutta.

For the M.S. examination :—

Branch I. There are over 200 appointments in the United Kingdom, of which 37 are non-residential appointments, and 38 which may be held either in Bombay or Calcutta.

(There has never been any candidate for the M.S. examination, *Branch II*; so no list of recognised institutions has been compiled.)

The memorialists have failed to notice that for Branch I (Medicine) and Branch II (Midwifery and Diseases of Women) of the M.D. examination, and for Branch I. (Surgery) of the M.S. examination, the condition as to having held an approved appointment can be fulfilled in India; that a large number of the approved appointments in England are not residential appointments; that even where they are residential, they have in several instances been held by Indian students; and that as a matter of fact no Indian student wishing to appear for the M.D. or M.S. examination has ever failed to get a post-graduate appointment if he were fitted for it.

A detailed consideration of the pertinent facts does not show that there is so much ground for complaint as the memorial suggests. But there are certainly difficulties connected with the question of the medical studies of Indian students, and it has received, and will continue to receive, the earnest attention of the Students' Department, so that the sympathetic interest of the authorities of hospitals and colleges may be secured for Indian medical students.

(C) The Inns of Court.

In regard to the Inns of Court, the memorialists make two complaints :—

(i) That whereas " prior to 1910 any Indian student who had passed the Matriculation examination of any Indian university was entitled to be admitted to the Inns of Court, since that year he is required to be a graduate of an Indian university; this raising of the standard prevents a large number of Indian students from getting the benefit of legal education in England and places them at a disadvantage with their British fellow-subjects."

The Consolidated Regulations of the Inns of Court do not bear out this statement; they require the applicant for admission to have passed one of the qualifying examinations set down in an attached schedule; among these examinations is the Cambridge Senior Local Examination which can be passed in India, and any Indian student having passed it before leaving home can come to England and join an Inn without any

delay; the schedule also includes the Matriculation examination of eight of the English universities and the Preliminary examination of the Scottish universities. It is difficult, therefore, to see how the change of regulations can prevent "a large number of Indian students from getting the benefit of legal education in England," or how it constitutes "a great and undoubted hardship" and they are certainly not "at a disadvantage with their British fellow subjects." The only examination of an Indian university included in the schedule is that for the B.A. degree. The memorialists consider that this is a reflection on the Indian universities and would recommend the substitution of the Inter-Arts or Previous examination of an Indian university. Sir C. E. Mallet has discussed this proposal in his Report for 1915-16, paragraph 15, and points out that "the attitude of the Inns of Court is, necessarily, to some extent dependent upon that of Oxford and Cambridge, and unless the latter admit that the standard of the Indian Intermediate examination—not in one university only, but in all the Indian universities alike—is, in an educational sense, fully up to the level of Responsions (at Oxford) and the Previous examination (at Cambridge), complaints made against the Inns of Court are not likely to lead to an alteration of the rule. The remedy seems to lie with the universities of India. If they, by some united action, setting forth in detail the educational tests involved, could convince the universities of Oxford and Cambridge that the Indian Intermediate Examination ought to be accepted as the proper equivalent of Responsions and the Previous examination, then the Inns of Court could be more effectually urged to follow suit."

The High Courts in India would probably deprecate any lowering of the standard for admission to the Inns of Court, nor are the Indian universities likely to sympathise with such a proposal, since they insist upon a candidate for the L.L.B. examination having first taken the B.A. degree.

(ii) The other complaint refers to the certificate of character required from candidates for admission.

The Consolidated Regulations of the Inns of Court require from Indian applicants certificates of good character, one of which shall be (a) if he has received, or is still receiving, his general education in the United Kingdom, a certificate from the head of his school or college, or from his tutor; (b) either a certificate from the Collector or Deputy Commissioner of the district in which his family resides, or a certificate from the Secretary for Indian Students appointed by the Secretary of State for India. The memorialists omit to notice that the Inns of Court only accept a certificate from the India Office, provided that the official signing it (now the Educational Adviser for Indian Students to the Secretary of State) certifies that he has made enquiries from the Advisory Committees in India. Seeing that the Advisory Committees are largely made up of the heads of schools and colleges in India, in practice the procedure assumes much the same character as the proposal made by the memorialists; with this difference, that the Inns of Court

deal with an individual whom they can hold personally responsible and against whom they can complain, in the event of carelessness or dereliction of duty, to his superior, the Secretary of State. The suggestion that applicants should present certificates signed by persons resident in India, is open to the objection that the Inns of Court have no personal knowledge of the signatories and no means of complaining in the case of dissatisfaction.

The ultimate responsibility for the recommendation for admission thus rests with the Advisory Committees, who can easily get into touch with the applicant's teachers and family; the Advisory Committees can see to it that their recommendation is duly communicated to an Inn of Court and that the interests of the student with whom they are concerned are safeguarded. There is in practice no "such absolute power in the hands of an official living in England" as the memorialists suggest (paragraph 9), and no reason to fear that he may abuse his power; if such an event ever occurred the student would find an advocate ready in the Advisory Committee that recommended him.

(D) The Institution of Civil Engineers.

The memorialists also complain (paragraph 6) of the attitude of the Institution of Civil Engineers as "a standing source of injustice to Indian students," but give no details or explanation of such a charge against a corporation that has always shown itself sympathetic to Indian students and ready to listen to representations from the India Office on behalf of Indians taking up engineering, and has admitted a large number of them into its own body as associate members. It is incorrect to say that its "rules govern the recruitment for the Public Works Department in India," for the A.M.I.C.E. is only one of the alternative qualifications, which comprise 24 different degrees of British universities or "such other diploma or distinction in engineering" as the Secretary of State may decide to accept in any particular case.

The reference is possibly to a matter discussed by Sir C. E. Mallet in his Report for 1913-14 (paragraph 20), which shows that the grievance mentioned has already, principally owing to the intervention of the India Office, been removed:—

"One point, which was a matter of complaint among engineering students, was dealt with during the year. It was alleged that the rules in regard to appointments made in England to the Public Works Department followed too closely the rules of the Institution of Civil Engineers, and thereby prejudiced students who had obtained Indian degrees, and were entitled in consequence to certain exemptions at universities in Great Britain. The rules of the Institution of Civil Engineers restricted such exemptions. During the year, however, the Institution relaxed many of the restrictions in respect of university degrees exempting from its A.M.I.C.E. examination, and in regard

to the remaining restrictions it was decided by the Secretary of State that they should not be imposed in the case of Indian candidates for appointments in the Public Works Department. In the latest issue of regulations of the Public Works Department, it is made clear that students with Indian B.Sc. degrees, going for instance, to the Universities of Durham or Birmingham, will not be required to take the matriculation examination there, or to spend three years in a university which is willing to give them their degrees in two."

In regard to all these institutions, the Students' Department has, since its inception, advocated the cause of Indian students, and has met with a considerable degree of success. The deans of the medical schools and hospitals and the authorities of the Inns of Court, have shown a willingness to pay consideration to representations from the India Office on behalf of Indian students. But (as pointed out above) these are self-governing institutions, jealous of their own honour and privileges, and their independence is secured to them by Royal Charter or otherwise. They are apt to resent whatever may have an appearance of interference on the part of any outside body, and relations with them, to be successful, must be conducted with tact and consideration. Such violent methods of coercion as proposed by the petitioners in paragraph 23 would certainly not have the result of bringing "these institutions to a reasonable frame of mind in their attitude towards Indian students," and might indeed have results very injurious to Indian claims and aspirations.

In regard to engineering and technological students, the memorialists state (paragraph 16) that their chief grievance is "the want of facilities in getting practical training in factories and workshops . . . being foreigners in the United Kingdom, the majority of Indians possess no influence which can secure their entrance into any manufacturing or contracting firm of engineers for the purpose of practical training." It is true that facilities for practical training in civil engineering are difficult to obtain; but it would be wrong to suggest that Indians as Indians are shut out from opportunities of such training in Great Britain, which other students can easily obtain. For this difficulty is not confined to Indians; it applies to all civil engineering students in Great Britain, and is due to the fact that there are now in this country comparatively few openings in the way of new railways or new public works which afford facilities for training students. Many English students of civil engineering have to go abroad in order to seek opportunities for practical training, and it is a matter for regret that Indians who want practical training in civil engineering should leave India, where such opportunities exist in plenty, in order to look for them in Great Britain, where from the nature of the case they are much less likely to be found.

As regards practical training, however, in other branches of engineering, there is no special difficulty, and for Indians of capacity and good conduct studying mechanical or electrical engineering admittance to works can in most cases be obtained. Similarly, in other industries

it has been found possible to obtain for Indian students good opportunities of practical training in English firms, sometimes without the payment of a premium. Many students have owed to the efforts of the Department (especially at Glasgow and Manchester), admittance into electrical and mechanical works, railway workshops, sugar factories, flour mills, tanneries, etc. A long list of firms that have responded to requests from the Students' Department, to grant to Indian students opportunities for obtaining practical experience, might be given; among them are :—

For Electrical Engineering :—

Messrs. G. Gilkes & Co., of Kendal,
 The Shawinigan Water and Power Company, of Montreal,
 The Lancashire Dynamo and Motor Company,
 The British Westinghouse Company, of Manchester,
 Manchester Corporation Electricity Department,
 The South Metropolitan Electric Tramways,
 The Amsterdam Electricity Works,
 Messrs. T. Bell & Co., Lucerne,
 The Lancashire Electric Power Company,
 The General Electric Company, Birmingham,
 The British Thomson-Houston Company, Rugby,
 Messrs. Siemens Bros. London and Stafford;

For Railway Engineering :—

The Caledonian Railway Company,
 The Glasgow and South-Western Railway Company

For Civil and Mechanical Engineering :—

The Hornsey Engineering Company,
 Messrs. H. Symington and Son,
 Messrs. Brown and Kincaid,
 Messrs. Kyle, Dennison and Laing,
 The Glasgow Corporation,
 Messrs. Warren and Street,
 Messrs. MacFarlane,

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- For Practical Experience in Tanning :—
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- For Practical Training in Pottery :—
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 Messrs. Pilkington's Tile and Pottery Works, Clifton Junction,
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or Flour Milling :—

Messrs. Bulstrode, Pimm & Co., Wandsworth,
 The Albert Flour Mills, Gloucester,
 The Hovis Mills, London and Manchester,
 The Daren Mills, Dartford ;

For the Manufactory of Iron and Steel :—

Messrs. Bell Brothers, Middlesbrough,
 The Platt Iron Works Company, Dayton, Ohio, U.S.A.
 St. Peter's Milling Iron Works, Ipswich,
 Sir Alfred Hickman, Limited, Wolverhampton,
 The Barrow Haematite Steel Company,
 Messrs. Samuel Fox & Co., Stockbridge, Sheffield.

In March 1912 the Secretary of State appointed a Committee "to inquire and report as to the facilities available for Indian students for industrial and technological training in this country." This Committee visited Glasgow, Manchester, Leeds, and Birmingham, and was everywhere cordially received by the university authorities and the leading industrial men of the neighbourhood. They found no evidence of race prejudice against Indian students, and were able to stimulate among the owners of industrial concerns whom they met, a feeling of interest in Indian technical students, which has been of great value to the Students' Department in arranging facilities for the practical training so essential for such students.

In fact, English manufacturers and firms have shown remarkable liberality in admitting Indian students into their works, and there are, moreover, "cases where an employer will sometimes grant to a student from India opportunities which an English student would ask for in vain."*

* Report for 1915-16, paragraph 19. Certain trades, of course, have trade secrets which are jealously guarded, and it was, for example, found to be impossible to obtain for a Government of India scholar admission into alkali works, but such difficulty of access has no reference whatever to race. The difficulties to which the memorialists refer, arise in most cases from the fact that Indian students try to get practical training for short periods only, for a year or even for a few months, whereas many engineers are unwilling to accept pupils for less than two years, and manufacturing firms generally insist on a still longer period of training.

In order to meet the difficulties of the situation it is in no way necessary for the Secretary of State to adopt the suggestion made by the memorialists in paragraph 16, and change the policy according to which the Stores Department deals with firms on a purely business basis.

In regard to the complaint that Indian students are excluded from the Officers Training Corps at the universities and the Inns of Court, there is a considerable body of opinion in favour of their admission in the future, and there is good hope of a change being effected.

The details given above show that it is hardly correct to say of the Students' Department: "All that it does is to keep Indian students in 'leading strings throughout their stay in England by enforced guardianship.'" (Paragraph 21.)

The memorialist laments "the unfortunate manifestation of race and colour prejudice against Indian students even at the seats of learning." This is a difficult subject and presents problems which are hard to solve, for where race prejudice or colour prejudice are found to exist, rational considerations are apt to fail to exercise their due influence. But, on the whole, any unprejudiced observer finds more grounds for satisfaction than for discouragement, as far as the treatment of Indian students in this country is concerned. "Race or colour prejudice amounts to very little. It is rarely found and never encouraged among English people whose opinion counts." *Report for 1915-16, paragraph 23.

It may be stated definitely that so far as concerns the colleges of arts, sciences, and engineering in the Universities of London, Manchester, Birmingham, Sheffield, Leeds, Liverpool, Bristol and the Scottish Universities, the admission of Indian students is not hampered by any considerations of race or colour prejudice whatever. In the older Universities of Oxford and Cambridge, where the residential system makes special demands from Indian students, experience has made some heads of houses feel at times a reluctance to admit Indian students into their societies. But such instances constitute a negligible minority and tend to decrease in proportion as the Indian students justify their presence in the university. The Secretary of the Indian Students' Inter-Collegiate Committee at Cambridge rightly lays stress on this aspect of the question: "My experience," he says, "leads me to the belief that the colleges will increasingly help to the extent to which they see that there is an importance and a value in their doing so, and thus the better the men who come here, and the more interest the India Office takes in their education here, the larger the response it is likely to get from the colleges." †

†Report for 1915-16, paragraph 9. To form a judgment on the status of Indian students at Oxford and Cambridge in the light of the attitude of one or two narrow-minded individuals, is to do an injustice to the liberality with which these universities have thrown open their doors to Indian students for the last 50 years, and have let them share in their endowments whenever they have merited scholarships and prizes. Some instances of race prejudice on the part of colonial students and others can no doubt be adduced. But these are happily rare, and it sometimes happens that students who complain of race or colour prejudice are men who find this to be an easy and flattering explanation of their personal unpopularity, or those who misinterpret some of the rebuffs and discourtesies (which almost every man is

apt to encounter sometime in the course of his life), as evidence of racial prejudice.

There is a genuine desire on the part of authorities of universities and colleges in this country to make the stay of Indian students here profitable and pleasant to them ; but there is some feeling of disappointment in the lack of response to such a welcome on the part of the Indian themselves. It is complained that many of them fail to take advantage of the facilities offered, either through lack of intelligence or of interest in study, or through the inadequacy of their previous training and education. The officers of the Students' Department are frequently asked why some process of selection is not made in India, so that only those students should come to England who would be likely to derive profit from a course of study. If the Advisory Committees in India could so influence public opinion that only the best type of students went to England, the position of the Indian students in this country would much benefit thereby. The late Mr. Gokhale gave expression to much the same feeling in the speech printed in Appendix C. of the memorial (p. IX.), when he said "that it was necessary that their select young men should come to this country, but not in the helpless manner they now come."

BUREAU OF EDUCATION
INDIA

Pamphlet No. 11

Education at Jamshedpur

BY

G. E. FAWCUS, M.A.,

(Indian Educational Service)

AND

M. D. MADAN, M.L.C



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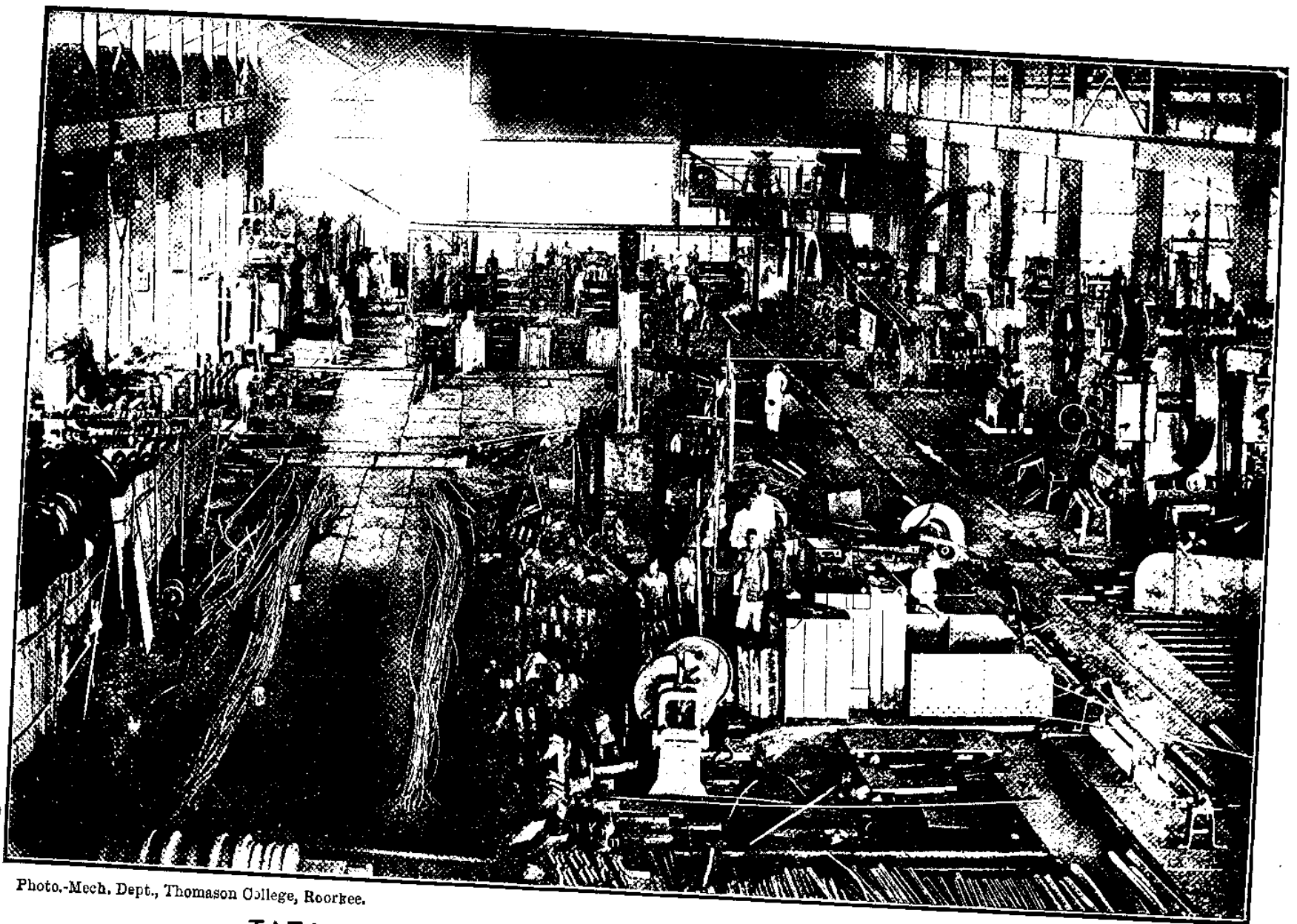


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TATA IRON AND STEEL COMPANY, JAMSHEDPUR.

EDUCATION AT JAMSHEDPUR.

This pamphlet endeavours to give a description of the educational work which is being carried on by the Tata Iron and Steel Company in their rapidly growing town of Jamshedpur. The town lies in the Singhbhum District of Bihar and Orissa, though it is only separated by a river from the State of Seraikela. It is reached by the Bengal Nagpur Railway, being 155 miles from Calcutta on the main line to Bombay.

2. The remarkable success of the Tata Iron and Steel Company since the month of December, 1911, when pig iron was first produced at the works, is a matter of common knowledge, but it may be of use to give a few figures to show the extent of the problem involved. When the Company opened up its works, there were no schools in the vicinity, the land on which Jamshedpur now stands being at that time covered by dwarf trees with here and there small villages inhabited mainly by aboriginals and Hindus of the lower castes. The area now in possession of the Company covers about 25 square miles and at the recent census the population amounted to 71,000, a figure which excludes a considerable number of coolies who come to Jamshedpur daily for their work, but live in the neighbouring villages. The pay-roll now contains 35,000 names and the monthly salaries paid aggregate about Rs. 8 lakhs. Nor do these figures in any way indicate the final development of the town. The Company has already spent some Rs. 10 crores on capital works, but large extensions are still in progress, two more blast furnaces and a number of additional mills being now in course of construction. When these are completed, the works will have an annual output of about 700,000 tons of pig iron and in addition to rails and steel sections, which now form the main part of the finished product of the works, steel plates will soon be placed on the market. Moreover, apart from the developments contemplated by the Tata Iron and Steel Company itself, a number of subsidiary companies are springing into existence. The Calcutta Monifieth Works have recently started to turn out jute mill machinery, while the companies which are about to commence operations include Messrs. Kilburn & Company, who will manufacture enamel ware, the Enfield Cable Company, the Tin Plate Company, who will manufacture tin sheets for petroleum empties, the Wire

The Tata
Works.

Products Company, who will make articles of steel wire, the Agricultural Implements Company, and the Hume Pipe Company, who will manufacture reinforced concrete pipes. When all these companies have started work and the extension of the Tata Iron and Steel Company's plant is completed, the population at Jamshedpur is likely to reach a quarter of a million.

The Schools.

3. The first school started at Jamshedpur was the Mrs. Perin Memorial School which was opened as a middle school in the year 1915 in memory of the wife of the Consulting Engineer to the Company. Since that date this school has developed into a High School and many other schools have come into existence, while still more are contemplated. The Indian Industries Commission in paragraph 130 of their report foreshadowed the establishment at Jamshedpur of an Imperial Metallurgical Research Institute. This has not yet been commenced, but the provincial Technical School mentioned in paragraph 172 of the same report is to be opened in October next. The school will be under the control of the Department of Industries, but it may be convenient here to give a brief summary of the scheme which has recently received the approval of Government. The school is intended to turn out foremen and will give a course of three years to students who have passed the I. Sc. Examination or an equivalent examination to be held at the school. The number of students to be admitted annually will be 50 and in return for the Government grants mentioned below the Company have agreed to reserve one-third of the places for students who are natives of or domiciled in the province of Bihar and Orissa. The cost is estimated as follows:—

<i>Capital.</i>		Rs.
Building		64,200
Furniture and library		45,000
Laboratory		1,50,000
Miscellaneous		40,800
	TOTAL	3,00,000

Of this sum the Government of Bihar and Orissa have promised to pay one lakh during the year 1921-22. It is intended to use for the school the building which was constructed two years ago for the girls' school. This is still the property of the Company and will be sold to the school, another building, or perhaps two separate

buildings in different parts of the town, being erected for the girls' school. The recurring cost is estimated as follows :—

Principal	Rs.	18,000
Teachers on Rs. 1,200, 1,000 and 300(2)	„	33,600
Clerks on Rs. 150, 100(3)	„	5,400
Janitor	„	1,200
Menials	„	2,640
Travelling	„	8,660
Light, power, water and conservancy	„	2,000
Laboratory	„	15,000
Stationery	„	5,000
Books, etc.	„	4,000
Scholarships tenable abroad	„	13,500
Prizes	„	1,200
Miscellaneous	„	9,800
Rent and depreciation	„	15,120
Pay of student apprentices	„	36,000
TOTAL	„	1,71,120 a year.

The above figures will need some revision, for the pay of the apprentices is to be Rs. 360 a year each and the estimate was framed at a time when the course was designed to be one of two years only. Moreover, the item for rent is based on the assumption that the building will belong to the Company and not to the school, but this will presumably not be the case if the buildings are erected with the help of a capital grant from Government. The promised contribution of the Government of Bihar and Orissa to the recurring cost is an annual grant of Rs. 25,000, to be given for ten years in the first instance.

4. The general administration of the remaining schools is in the hands of an influential Committee consisting of employees of the company and two Indian ladies, who all take a keen interest in education. The Secretary of this Committee and his clerk cost Rs. 125 a month, while an expenditure of Rs. 200 a month is incurred on the inspection of the primary schools in the outlying villages and on maintaining a school for the employees of the Company at Panposh in the Gangpur State. It would seem open to consideration whether one Inspector might not be appointed for all the schools, including both those in Jamshedpur and those in the villages, and whether he could not also act as Secretary to the Schools Committee.

The Schools Committee.

5. The Mrs. Perin Memorial School was until recently a Middle English School, but this year it is working up to class XI. It has been

Mrs. Perin Memorial School.

recognised as competent to present candidates for the School Leaving Certificate Examination and will do so in the year 1923; the question of permitting it to present candidates for the Matriculation Examination also is still under consideration. The school specializes in the teaching of elementary science and mathematics and its pupils should have a good chance of obtaining employment in the works, particularly if arrangements can be made later to carry on the instruction given up to the standard required for admission to the new technical school. The capital sum spent on the school up to date is Rs. 40,535, exclusive of an item of Rs. 1,500 devoted recently to the erection of four temporary class-rooms. The permanent building consists of two blocks. The older was intended for use as a court house and is not really suitable for school purposes. It contains seven rooms. The new block contains four good rooms and there is a proposal to add a second story to it. Even with this addition, however, the accommodation will be somewhat cramped. The number of rooms provided will be 15, whereas that required is as follows:—

For the four higher classes	4
For the four lower classes which are duplicated into Hindi and Bengali sections.	8
For the Headmaster, office, library and teachers	4
For the laboratory and optional subjects	3
TOTAL	19

It will just be possible to secure this number of rooms if the temporary class-rooms are allowed to remain, but these do not look as if they would stand very long and the question of replacing them will have to be considered. The school also needs a play-ground. There is a piece of adjacent ground which it is intended to give to the school when it has been levelled, but it may prove too damp for use during the rains, which is the best time for football. It might be possible to secure the use of one of the public grounds in Jamshedpur for three or four days in the week.

6. The number of pupils on the roll is 127. This number seems small for so large a town, but apparently many of the boys in Jamshedpur obtain employment in the works when they are young and also the proportion of persons living with their families is probably lower at Jamshedpur than elsewhere, as the provision of house accommodation can with difficulty keep pace with the rapid



GIRLS' PRIMARY SCHOOL, JAMSHEDPUR (BIHAR AND ORISSA),

expansion in the number of the Company's employees. The teaching staff consists of 14 teachers paid as follows :—

Name of post.	Pay.			House allowance.			Night-class allowance.			Total.		
	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.	Rs.	A.	P.
Headmaster	230	0	0	22	0	0	252	0	0
2nd Master	130	0	0	10	8	0	140	8	0
3rd "	106	0	0	13	8	0	119	8	0
4th "	106	0	0	12	0	0	118	0	0
5th "	80	0	0	6	6	6	86	6	6
6th "	73	12	0	7	11	9	81	5	9
7th "	73	12	0	73	12	0
8th "	75	0	0	75	0	0
9th "	47	0	0	3	13	2	50	13	2
10th "	53	0	0	53	0	0
11th "	53	0	0	53	0	0
12th "	50	0	0	7	11	9	57	11	9
13th "	73	12	0	73	12	0
14th "	47	0	0	47	0	0
Clerk	40	0	0	40	0	0
House Rent	126	0	0	126	0	0
Other expenses	152	2	10
TOTAL	1,600	0	0

Towards this expenditure Government give a grant of Rs. 225 a month. The night-class allowances are given for teaching English and Arithmetic nightly to about 120 boys from the works. The fees charged are Rs. 2 in class XI, Re. 1-12 in class X, Re. 1-8 in class IX, Re. 1-4 in classes VIII and VII, and Re. 1 in classes VI and V. A reduction of four annas is allowed in each class to sons or wards of the Company's employees.

7. The girls' school is an upper primary school with 88 pupils on the roll. It contains Hindi and Bengali sections, the number of teachers being therefore six. Its building was constructed on unusually elaborate lines and cost Rs. 62,109; as already mentioned, it is now proposed to transfer this building to the Technical School. It has not been decided whether to build one girls' school in its place or two, but in any case the style of building to be erected will be less pretentious, for the Company is alive to the fact that many more schools will soon be required at Jamshedpur and school buildings costing Rs. 62,000 cannot be multiplied indefinitely. The provision of two separate buildings might perhaps be a more convenient arrangement, for Jamshedpur is a large place and the distance between 'G' town and 'L' town, for instance, is nearly two miles. The upper primary girls' school is in 'G' town and, as mentioned below, there is already a small girls' school in 'L' town. It might be better to develop each of these on similar lines, but the expenditure would be considerable, for in each case probably duplication according to

The Girls' school.

vernaculars would be required. The monthly expenditure incurred on the school is as follows :—

	Rs.	A.	P.
Headmistress	192	8	0
2nd Mistress	100	0	0
3rd "	98	0	0
4th "	81	8	0
5th "	75	4	0
6th "	88	12	0
Pandit	45	0	0
Rent	302	8	0
Other expenses	116	8	0
TOTAL	1,100	0	0

Government give Rs. 225 a month towards this school also. The fee charged is twelve annas in the upper primary, eight annas in the lower primary and four annas in the infant classes.

Mrs. Perin
Memorial
Technical
School.

8. The Mrs. Perin Memorial Technical School is a school in which drawing, mathematics, mensuration and mechanics are taught to apprentices in the Steel Works. The number of students now is 120. The school meets in the evening and is allowed the use of two rooms in the girls' school, and two in the boys' school. The expenditure on the Technical School is as follows :—

	Rs.	A.	P.
Superintendent	250	0	0
Headmaster	80	0	0
Instructor	35	0	0
Do.	35	0	0
Other expenses	25	0	0
TOTAL	425	0	0

The school receives a Government grant of Rs. 150 a month while the fees charged are Rs. 2 in the first year, Rs. 3-8 in the second year and Rs. 5 in the third year. The schools mentioned in the following paragraphs are all unaided.

Commercial
school.

9. The Commercial School is designed for the instruction of clerks in shorthand and typing and has 50 students on the roll. It meets in one of the rooms in the girls' school. The expenditure incurred is as follows :—

	Rs.	A.	P.
Teacher	40	0	0
Do.	30	0	0
Other expenses	15	0	0
TOTAL	85	0	0

The fee charged is Rs. 3 a head.

EDUCATION AT JAMSHEDPUR.

10. The English school is designed for the instruction of those children whose parents wish them to be taught through the medium of English. There are now 11 pupils on the roll and the expenditure incurred is Rs. 100 a month for the teacher, an Anglo-Indian lady, and Rs. 20 on other items. The fee charged is Rs. 3 for the first child in a family and Rs. 2 for each additional child. The pupils are in various stages of their primary education, and the school cannot therefore be regarded as a satisfactory one. Jamshedpur, however, is an exceedingly hot place and the parents concerned would probably be well advised to send their children away to school as soon as any rate as they are beyond the infant stage. The new European School which is being started at Ranchi by the S. P. G. Mission should be of great help to the Anglo-Indian community at Jamshedpur and when it is opened the English School at Jamshedpur might be definitely limited to the infant classes unless more teachers can be provided. Meanwhile the community concerned might consider whether better arrangements cannot be made for the education of its children. The English School also meets in the girls' school.

English school.

11. There are two primary schools, one in 'G' town and one in 'L' town, managed directly by the Company. These were built with half walls according to a plan supplied by the Education Department some years ago. The buildings were intended to be cheap, but it was found that six rooms were required, one for an office, one for a teachers' living room and two each for the Hindi and Bengali sections. This greatly added to the plinth area and the type of the building was also improved by providing it with a Raniganj tiled roof carried on a steel frame. As a result, the capital expenditure on one building amounted to Rs. 10,660 and on the other to Rs. 9,228. These buildings belong to the schools and no rent is charged for them. The recurring expenditure incurred is approximately as follows :—

Primary schools.

'G' town school.

	Rs.	A.	P.
Headmaster	52	0	0
English teacher	27	8	0
2nd "	43	8	0
3rd "	40	8	0
4th "	40	8	0
5th "	40	8	0
Other expenses	20	8	0
TOTAL	265	0	0

EDUCATION AT JAMSHEDPUR.

'L' town school.

	Rs. A. P.
Headmaster	47 12 0
English teacher	27 8 0
2nd "	40 8 0
3rd "	29 0 0
4th "	40 8 0
5th "	48 0 0
Other expenses	20 12 0
TOTAL	249 0 0

The English teacher is common to both schools and receives Rs. 55 in all. He teaches in each school for three days in the week, the English teaching in these primary schools being a special feature. It will be observed that the rates of pay are unusually high for teachers in primary schools, but the wages offered in the works even to illiterate men are so high that the services of competent teachers cannot be retained on any lower rates of pay. The fees charged are twelve annas in the lower primary and eight annas in the infant classes, a reduction of four annas being made for sons or wards of the Company's employees. The number of pupils in the 'G' town school is 109 and in the 'L' town school 122.

12. As already mentioned, there is a small girls' school held in the same building as the 'L' town school. It has 28 girls on the roll and the monthly expenditure is Rs. 25 for the teacher and Rs. 5 for other expenses. The girls are apparently all taught in Bengali, but there must be Hindi-speaking girls also in 'L' town and one teacher is not enough for a lower primary school.

Free primary schools.

13. In addition to the above schools and that at Panposh there are nine free primary schools with which the Company has a less-direct connection. With the exception of the 'G' town Telugu School, which is held in the building of the girls' school, these are situated in the villages round Jamshedpur. They have in all 768 pupils and 27 teachers, while the monthly expenditure amounts to Rs. 901. Some of these schools were started by the Servants of India Society, which, however, gave up work in Jamshedpur at the time of the strike. On the departure of the Servants of India Society from Jamshedpur, the schools, which had been maintained throughout at the cost of the Company, were placed under the Welfare Department, it being considered that the Schools Committee could not look after schools other than those in Jamshedpur itself, and though this arrangement was modified last year for a short time, it has recently been revived. One of the schools has a building constructed out of

EDUCATION AT JAMSHEDPUR.

the funds of the Schools Committee at a cost of Rs. 1,210. The others have temporary buildings paid for by the Welfare Department. Many of these were damaged last year by storms and the same thing has happened again this year. The question of erecting something more permanent is engaging attention.

14. A proposal is under consideration for establishing a school for the depressed classes. This, however, has not yet matured. Depressed classes.

15. The question of financing the schools is an important one and an application has been made for additional help from Government. The recurring expenditure incurred has been mentioned above, but for convenience may be tabulated as follows:— Finance.

Name of School.	Recurring monthly expenditure.	Government grant.
	Rs.	Rs.
The Mrs. Perin Memorial School	1,600	225
The girls' School	1,100	225
The Mrs. Perin Memorial Technical School	425	150
The Commercial School	85	...
The English School	120	...
Two primary schools and 'I.' town girls' School	644	...
Outlying primary Schools	901	...
Inspection, overhead charges and Panposh School	325	...
TOTAL	5,100	600

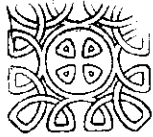
These figures take no account of the expenditure proposed for the new Technical School. For the year 1920-21 the Company sanctioned a grant of Rs. 52,100 for recurring expenditure and spent Rs. 5,307-13-9 on capital charges. For 1921-22 the Company's grant for recurring expenditure is Rs. 61,000 and a provision of Rs. 18,500 has been made for capital expenditure while in addition the Schools Committee has at its disposal the sums realised in fees, which last year amounted to Rs. 4,005-7-9. The schools have never received any capital grant from Government, though one is likely to be sanctioned for the four new classrooms for the High School, while the recurring Government grant amounts, as will be seen, only to a small fraction of the total cost. On the other hand it must be remembered that the Tata Iron and Steel Co. pays no road cess and that in consequence it would appear

to have little claim on the Singhbhum District Board, while Government do not directly contribute to the support of primary schools in other parts of the province and in any case can scarcely be expected to give specially large grants to the schools at Jamshedpur on the ground that owing to the high rate of wages paid by the Company to its employees generally the teachers at Jamshedpur require specially high salaries. The position may, however, fairly be compared with that of a municipality. The question of establishing a local body at Jamshedpur has been under consideration for some time, but meanwhile the functions of a municipality are being discharged by the Company which manages the schools, hospitals, roads, conservancy, and such matters. Primary schools in municipal areas receive help from Government through the municipality concerned, to which a lump grant is given for the purpose, the amount being usually limited to 3 per cent. of the ordinary income of the municipality. It would therefore seem reasonable that pending the establishment of a local body at Jamshedpur Government should give the Tata Iron and Steel Co. a lump sum for the maintenance of its primary schools. Indirectly, the Company contributes largely to the revenue of Government. The income tax paid by its employees alone exceeds Rs. 1,00,000 per annum, and a substantial amount will now also be recovered from the local contractors and merchants and the employees of the subsidiary companies. The Company spends more than Rs. 1,50,000 a year on medical charges and maintains a free dispensary and hospital for all who care to take advantage of them. Numerous patients other than employees of the Company and its subsidiaries avail themselves of the free medicine and treatment provided there. In addition to this the company spends large sums of money every year on sanitary and other welfare schemes. It may be mentioned that the Company is charging a monthly sum of four annas a head, towards the cost of the hospital, for each employee of each of the subsidiary companies springing up in Jamshedpur. A similar arrangement as regards the cost of education could presumably be enforced in the case at any rate of all subsidiary companies established at Jamshedpur after this date, for all the land belongs to the Tata Iron and Steel Company and a condition of this kind could be inserted in the leases which it grants. This would save the Company from having to shoulder so large a share of the cost of education as it has to do at present.

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Social Progress and Educational Waste

BEING A STUDY OF THE "FREE-PLACE" AND
SCHOLARSHIP SYSTEM

By

KENNETH LINDSAY, B.A. Oxon.

With an Introduction by

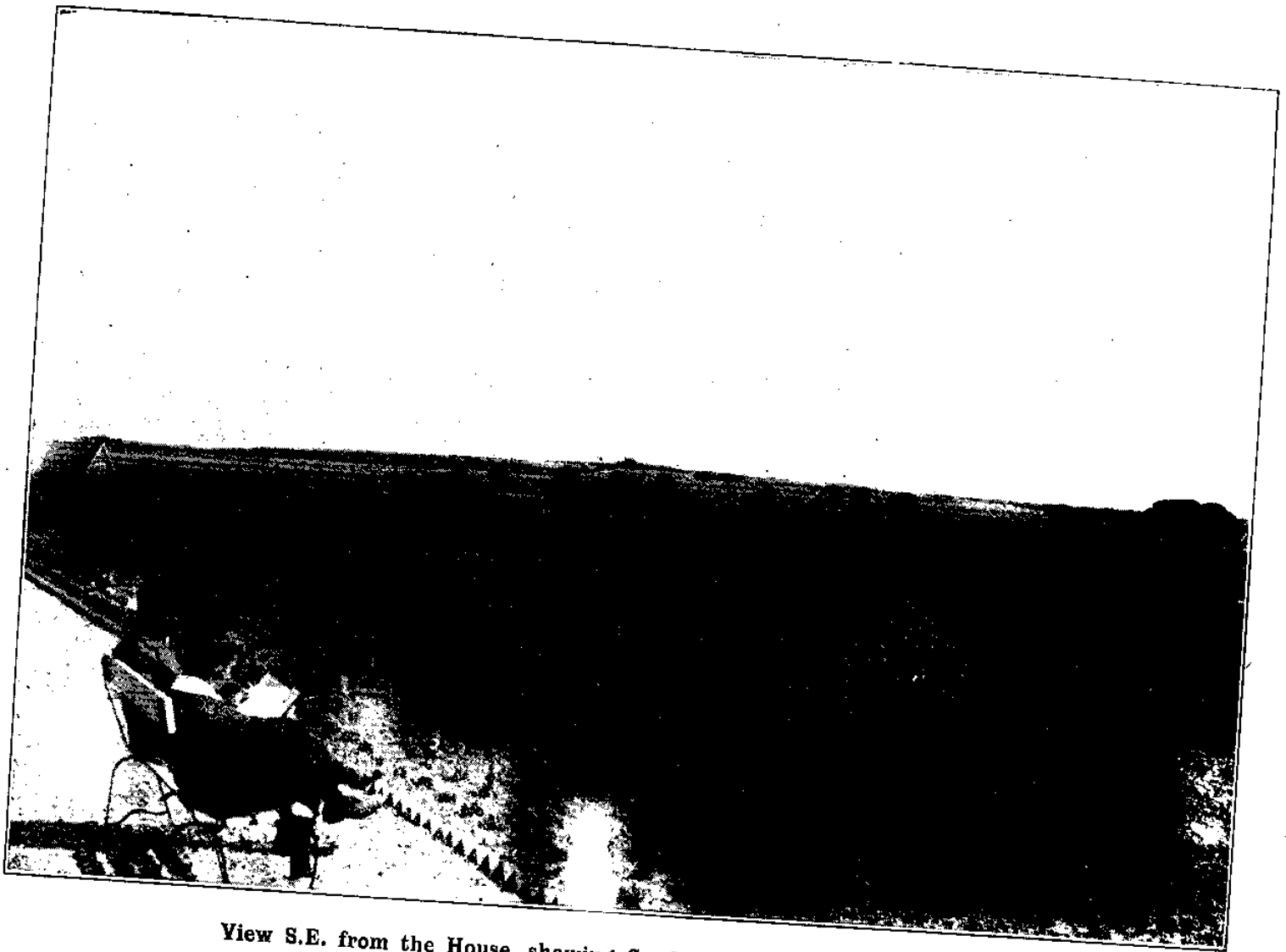
VISCOUNT HALDANE

"How far is secondary education easily accessible to children attending the primary schools? What proportion of them receive it, and for how long? What should be the relations between the primary and secondary stages of education, and between education and industry? What are the obstacles which impede easy access to the secondary school, and by what measures should they be removed? These are questions of vital significance for the future, not only of English education, but of English society. They have too rarely been made the subject of detailed and impartial study. Mr Lindsay has done something to fill the gap. His work is thorough and objective."

—From the *Introduction*.



View of School House (right) and Hillel House (left) from the Playing Field looking N.W.



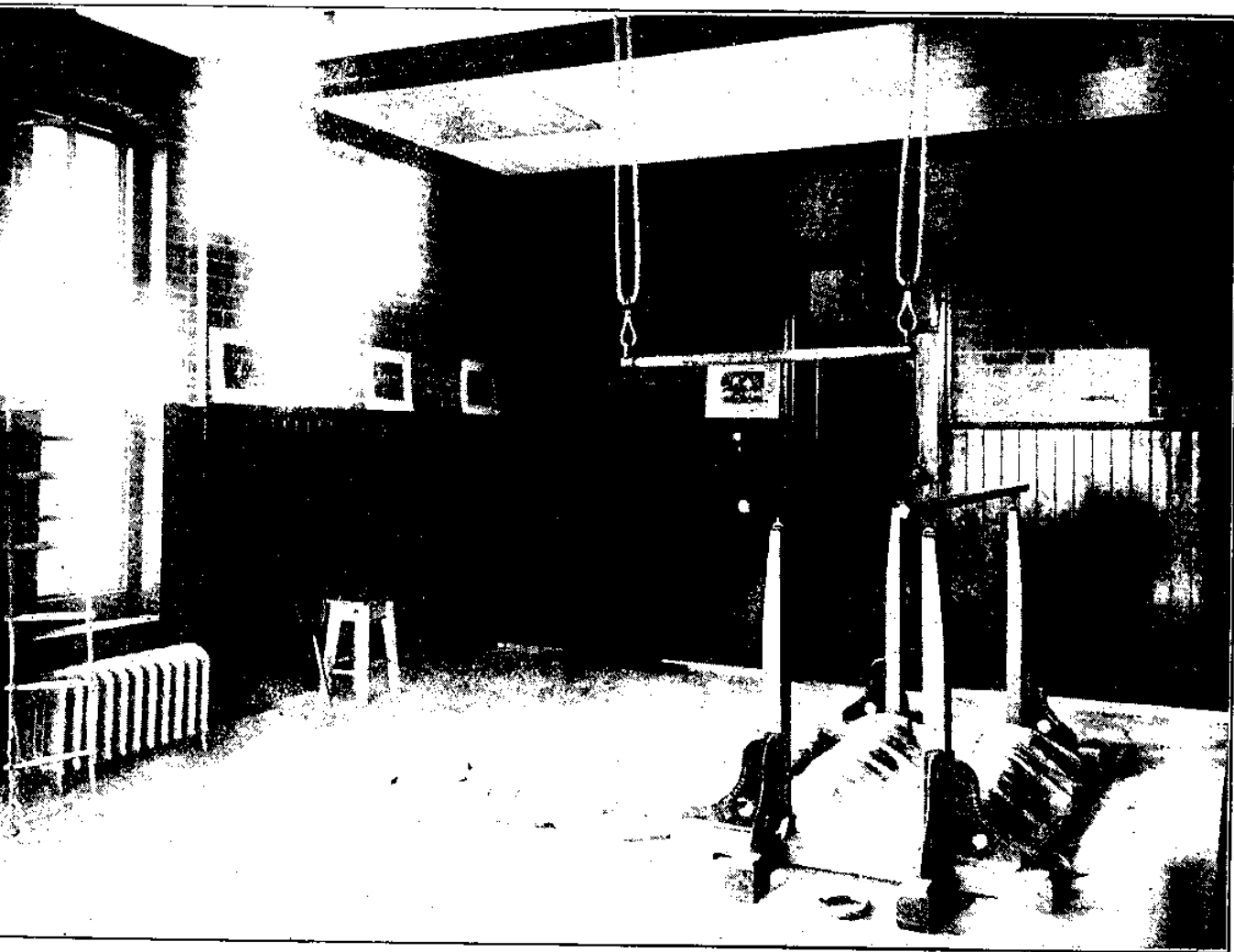
View S.E. from the House, showing Garden and Playing Field beyond.



The Entrance Hall.



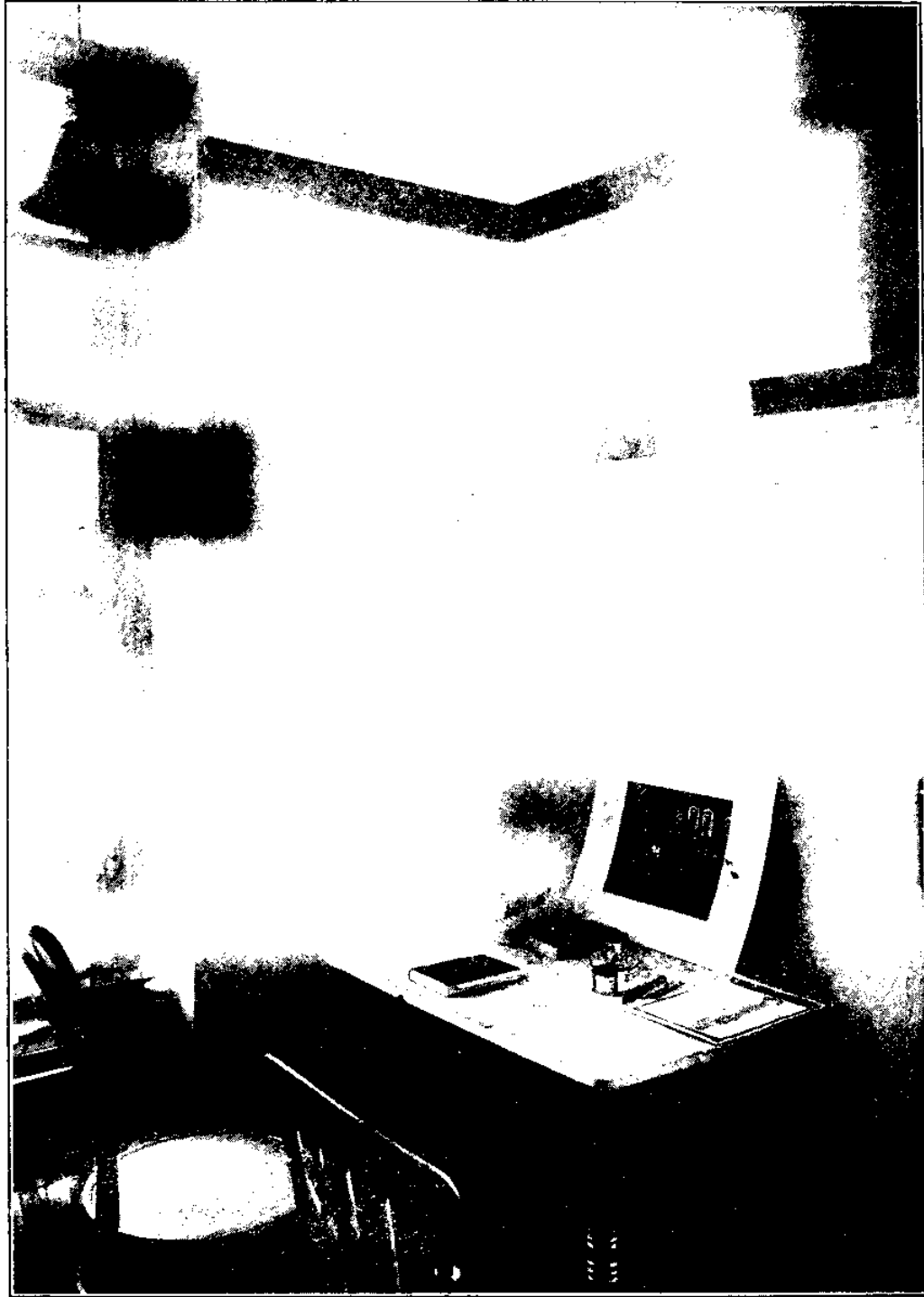
The Dining Hall.



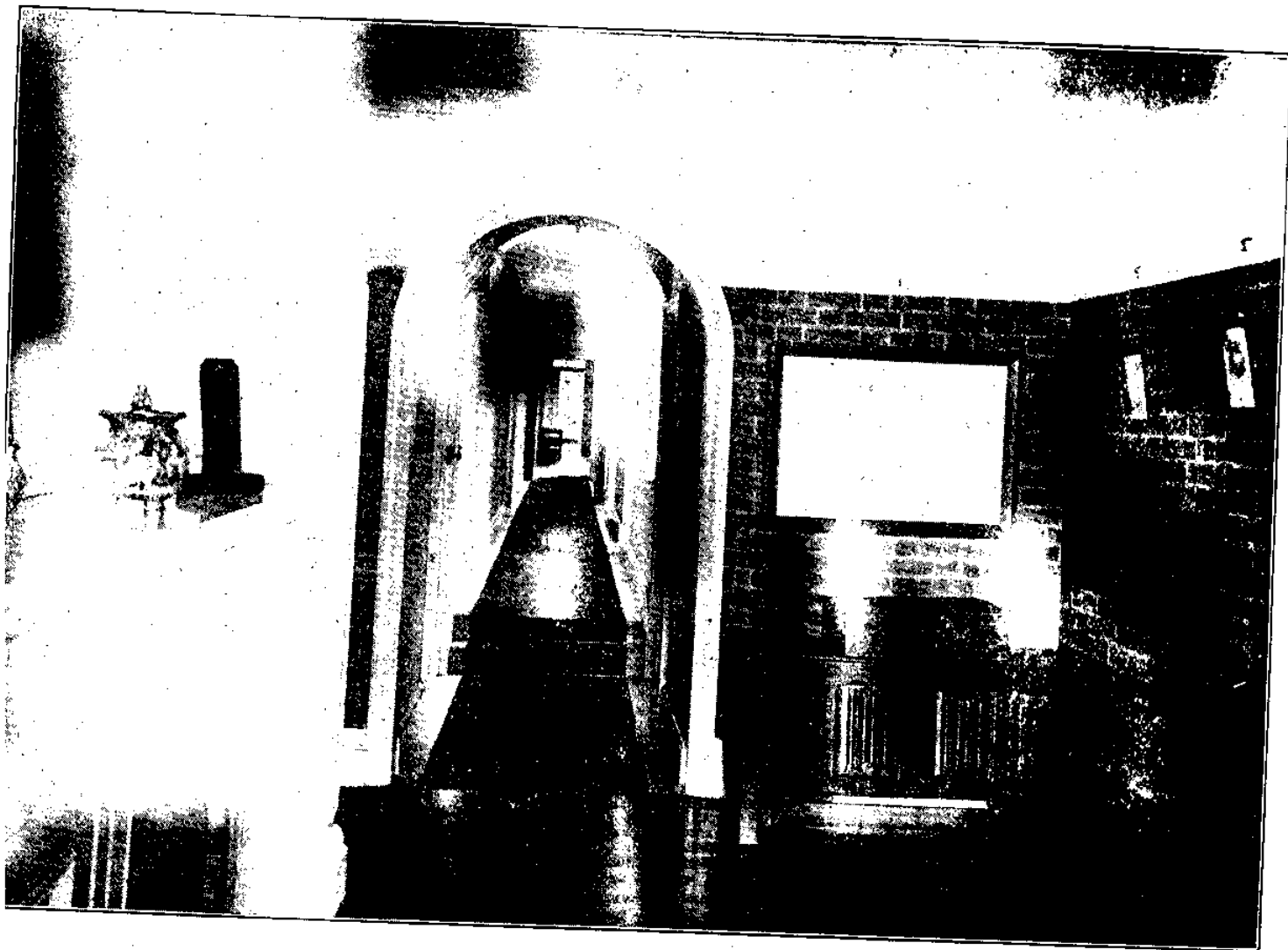
Playroom and Gymnasium.



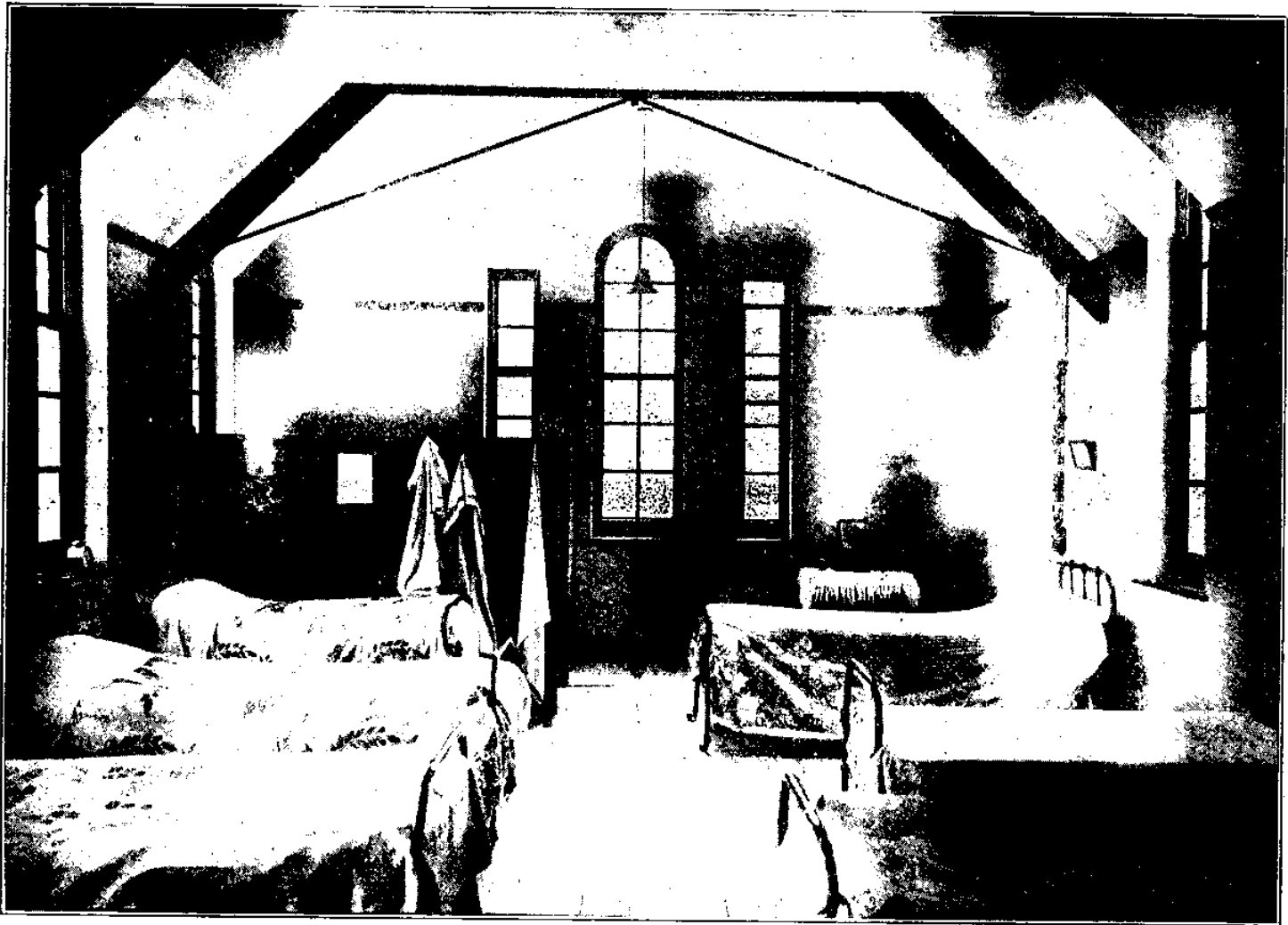
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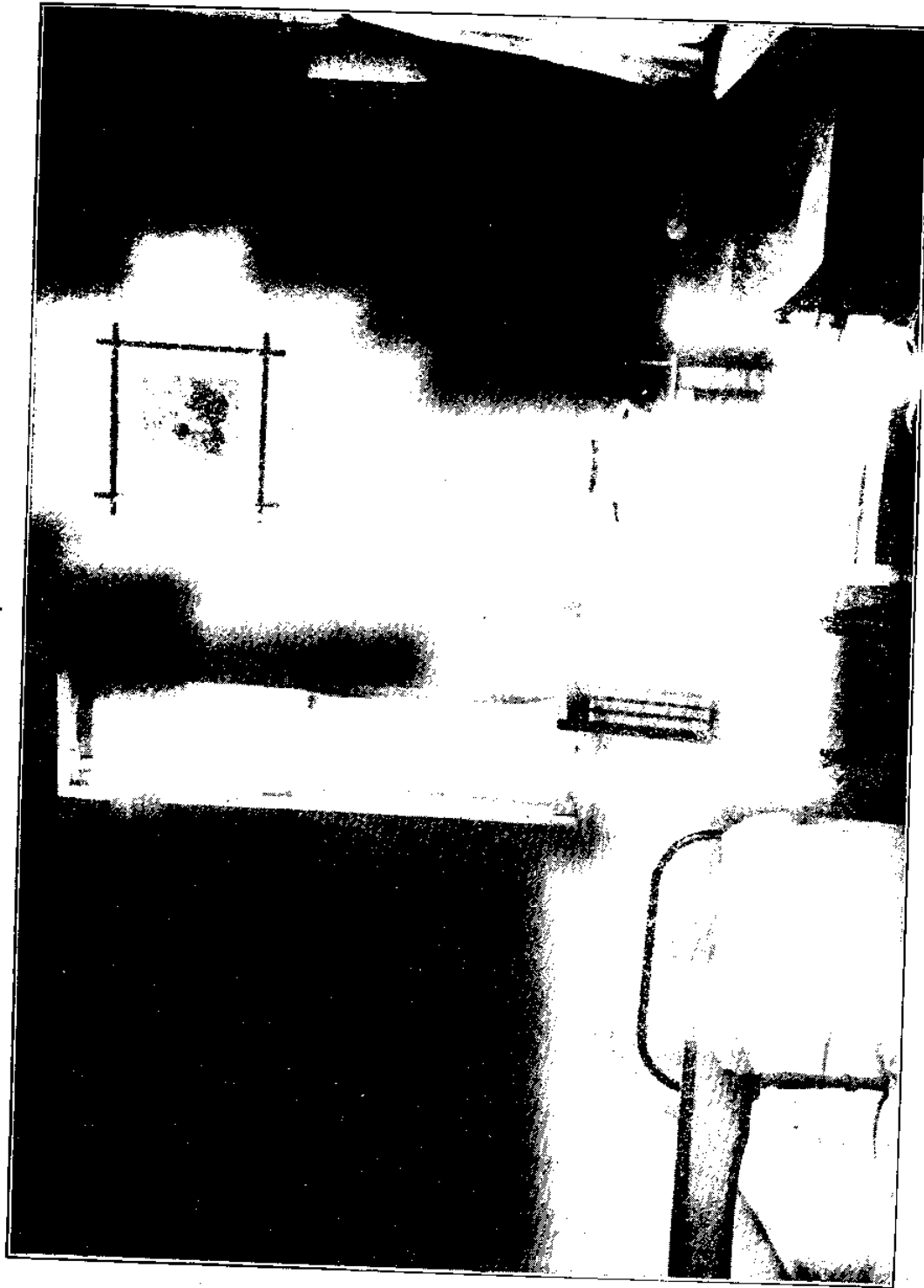
A Study.



View through long upper Corridor into the end Dormitory.



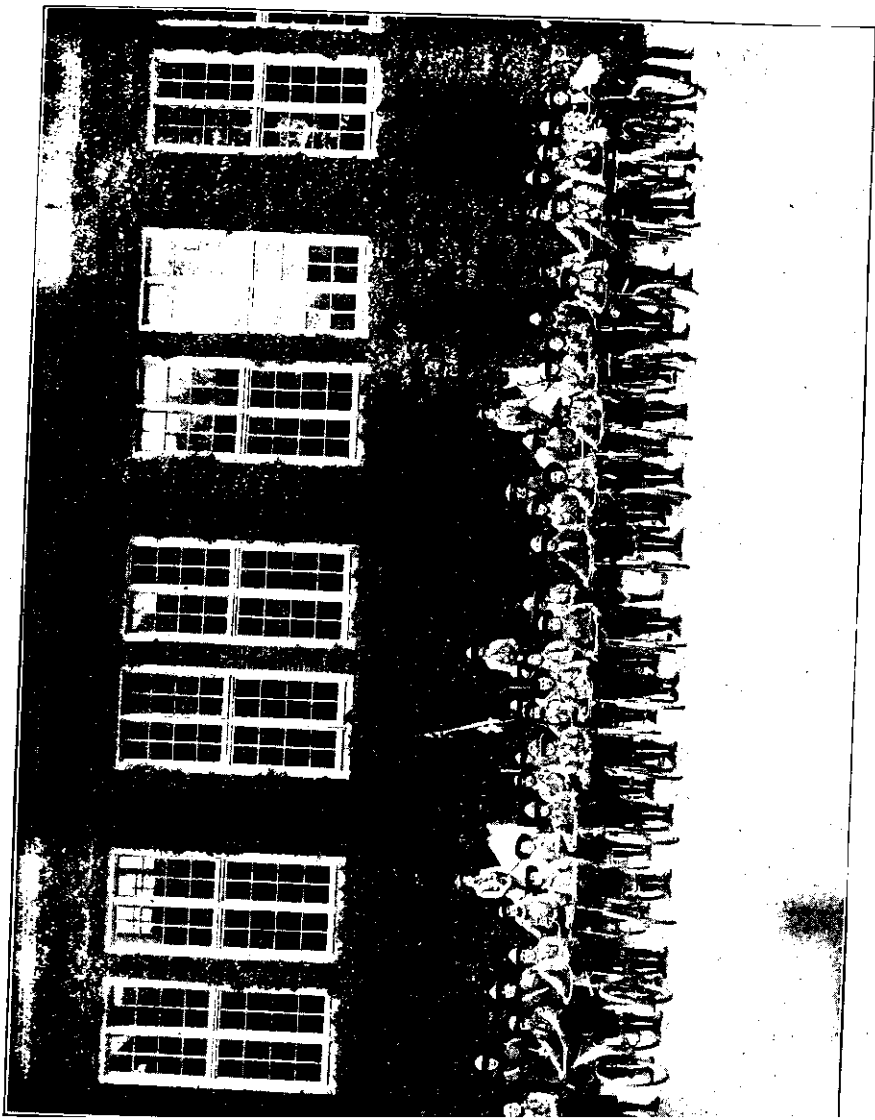
A Dormitory.



One of the Sick Rooms.



House Group.





Group of a Latin Play.



Scene from a Latin Play.

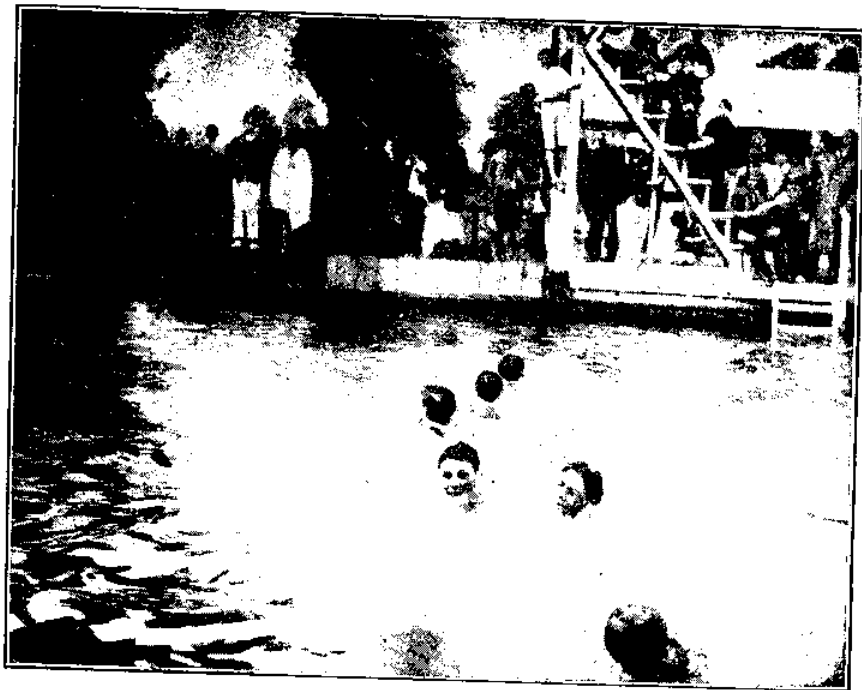




Swimming Sports.



A Lesson in Practical Geography.



Swimming Sports.



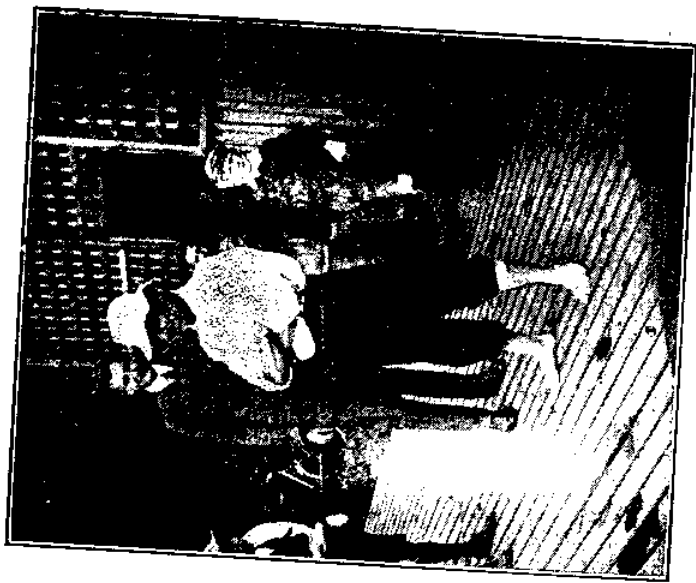
Field Sketching.



Gardening.



Fives.



Bathing Shed.



Horse Parade.



House Group, 1916.



Athletic Shields, 1918.

LOCAL EDUCATION SCHEMES

MEMORANDUM *submitted to the* BOARD OF EDUCATION
by the EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE *of the* LABOUR PARTY

The Executive Committee of the Labour Party desires to place on record its uncompromising opposition to "economy" in Education. In 1913-14 the State expenditure on education was £19,450,000. In 1919-20 it had risen to £38,841,000, which represented an increase of considerably less than that of the rise in the general level of prices. During the present financial year (1920-1), the estimates put the expenditure upon education at £56,081,000, a sum which, having regard to the rise in prices and the inadequate provision made for education before the war, cannot be regarded as extravagant. Indeed, it is insufficient. The Labour Party holds that one of the greatest needs of our time is a concerted policy for the development of educational opportunities, and for the improvement of the existing educational services. It therefore presses upon the Board of Education the desirability of proceeding with the formulation and adoption of local schemes of education, and urges that the following recommendations should be made by the Board to Local Education Authorities.

Nursery Schools

Adequate provision should be made for the training of Nursery School teachers, and steps should be taken by means of classes, lectures, and visits to acquaint infant school teachers with the best available experience of Nursery School methods and practice.

Elementary Education

The establishment immediately of the necessary minimum number of Nursery Schools is regarded as indispensable in every area. The schools should not be attached to existing infants' schools. They should be conducted on open-air lines, and every school should possess a garden.

Hygienic standards of Elementary Schools should be brought to the level of those in good Secondary Schools. This will involve, in many cases, the replacement of antiquated buildings and the provision of new equipment.

Proper playing fields for outdoor games should be provided for the children of every elementary school. School baths should be instituted and swimming-bath accommodation should be so enlarged that every child may be taught to swim.

No scheme should be approved which does not provide for the reduction in the size of classes within five years to a maximum of 35. All new schools should be designed for the use of classes not exceeding 30.

It is advisable to give opportunity for the growth of free association among the children within the elementary schools, and they should be encouraged to organize and manage their own corporate activities.

The general aim of the schemes should be to make the elementary schools such centres of instruction and culture that no class of the community will regard them as unfit to receive its children.

Training of Elementary Teachers

It is necessary, in the view of the Labour Party, that all teachers should receive the fullest possible higher education. Steps should be taken to make all training colleges conducted by a local authority integral parts of a university.

Continuation Schools

The Labour Party regards these schools as a temporary expedient only, but insists that so long as they form part of the system of compulsory education, they should be adequately staffed and equipped. The Labour Party, moreover, is emphatically of the opinion that no more schools of this type should be established on employers' premises in connection with industrial and commercial concerns, nor should local authorities make grants out of local funds to such "works schools."

It is hoped that continuation schools will be made centres of culture and social life, and that students will be encouraged to resort to them voluntarily in evenings and spare time. For this and other reasons they should be situated near the place of residence of the students.

The Board should not accept, without careful inquiry, any scheme which provides for fewer than 320 hours of compulsory attendance per annum. It should ensure that all classes shall be held as early in the day as possible.

The curriculum should be framed on broadly humanistic lines. The qualifications, status and pay of teachers in these schools, should be equal to those of teachers in secondary schools.

Central Schools

The Labour Party views with grave misgiving the establishment of Central Schools as at present constituted. They are of the opinion that the setting up of a proper system of secondary education is being retarded by the establishment of central schools. They submit that existing central schools should be converted into secondary schools at the earliest possible moment, and to this end they suggest:

1. That all central schools be given the same status as secondary schools.
2. That all narrowly vocational subjects should be eliminated from the curriculum.
3. That grants should be given from the same sources and on the same scale as grants to secondary schools.
4. That the qualifications, status and pay of the teachers should be those of teachers in secondary schools.

Secondary Education

It is of the utmost importance that secondary school accommodation shall be increased largely, with a view to inaugurating a system of universal secondary education at an early date.

The number of pupils in each secondary school should not exceed 400, and no class should contain more than twenty-five pupils.

Fees should be abolished in all secondary schools for which the local authority accepts full responsibility; in the meantime the clause of the 1918 Act which abolishes fees for elementary education, should be interpreted to cover the preparatory departments of all schools receiving grant aid.

Maintenance

The Labour Party is of the opinion that the Board of Education should encourage local authorities to provide generously for maintenance allowances by contributing 80 per cent. of the cost.

There should be no schedule of maintenance allowances based on the income of the parents, but each case should be considered on its merits in the light of the guiding principle that no child shall be debarred by its parents' financial disabilities from enjoying continued education.

Vocational Instruction

No vocational instruction should be given in any school to a child below the age of 16.

Technical Education

The Labour Party recognizes the national importance of good technical education for which more extensive facilities should be provided. Training should not be confined to the bare details of technical processes, but should be liberalized by the most intimate connection with general education.

Medical Treatment

The Labour Party insists on the provision of adequate facilities for the medical and dental treatment of any child who may require it.

Physical Training

Sufficient facilities for the physical training of every child should be instituted. All training should be of a non-military character, and there should be no military organizations within any school receiving financial aid from the State.

Holidays

Holiday camps should be available to all children who wish to use them. The provision of holiday facilities should be obligatory on the local authority, which should make special provision for children of subnormal vitality and physique.

In this connection the possibilities of the School Journey idea should be explored by every local authority.

Status of Teachers

The Labour Party urges that the teachers shall be given a wide measure of control within the school, and that an adequate number of representatives of the organized teachers shall sit on all local Education Authorities, Committees of Management, and Boards of Governors.

Advisory Bodies

Steps should be taken to establish in each area :

1. A Council composed of representatives of the teachers and of the Local Education Authority in equal numbers.
2. An Advisory body, representing all interests and opinions relating to education, including the teachers, the parents, the Workers' Educational Association, and Trades Council and similar bodies.
3. Regular meetings of parents in connection with each school.

As the Labour Party attaches extreme importance to continued education, they consider that primary and secondary teachers, as a rule, should be equally represented on all educational bodies, on the analogy of the Teachers' Registration Council.

Education

Local Education Authorities in their schemes should make adequate provision for forwarding education among adults. They should give effect to the principal recommendations of the Adult Education Committee of the Ministry of Reconstruction. Their activities among adults should be assisted by substantial grants from the Board of Education.

The Labour Party is, however, of opinion that the extent to which working men and women can be induced to attend classes will depend on the activities of voluntary organizations in which the working class have confidence. It therefore recommends that working class voluntary organizations should organize and retain effective control of their own classes, and be responsible to the Local Education Authorities for the carrying out of the regulations and for the standard of work done.

Where desirable, Local Education Authorities should establish joint committees with the voluntary organizations on which the voluntary organizations should have equal representation with the Local Education Authority.

The functions of such a joint committee should be to approve tutors recommended by the voluntary organization, to accept financial responsibility for the cost of tuition, the travelling expenses incurred by the tutor, and to satisfy itself, in co-operation with the voluntary organization, as to the standard of work done.

Where no joint committee exists these functions should be undertaken by the Local Education Authority.

Local Education Authorities should make sufficiently large grants to University Tutorial Classes Joint Committees in respect of each tutorial class organized in its area, and their contributions towards one year classes should be such as would ensure the payment of reasonable tuition fees.

All adult classes should be self-governing. They must, therefore, be permitted to:

1. Select their own subjects.
2. Have the final voice in the selection of their tutor.
3. Decide for themselves when and where they will meet.
4. Determine the syllabus in consultation with the tutor.

The number attending the class, the continuity of study, and the standard of work done should be the only criteria considered in the recognition of a class and in the amount of grant awarded.

Libraries

Where existing facilities are deficient, the Local Education Authority should establish circulating libraries. This is an urgent need in most rural areas and county education authorities should be pressed to exercise the powers conferred by the Public Libraries Act, 1919, to adopt the Public Libraries Act. It should be made obligatory on Local Education Authorities to make adequate library provision where the Public Libraries Acts are not in operation.

June, 1921.

Further copies of this Memorandum can be obtained from THE LABOUR PARTY, 33, Eccleston Square, London, S.W. 1, at the rate of 6d. per dozen, 2s. 6d. per 100, post free.

GARDEN CITY PRESS, LETCHWORTH, HERTS.

MADRAS PROVINCIAL EDUCATIONAL
CONFERENCE.

Salem : 12th May 1920.

Presidential Address of Mr. C. R. Reddy.

GENTLEMEN,

I thank you most warmly for the honour you have done me in electing me to the presidentship of this Conference. Through your suffrages I have been chosen to the Captainship, however temporary, of the Army of Enlightenment in Southern India and I feel proud of the position. This is the second time that you have drawn on the resources of Indian States which, believe me, though I say it, are not so slender as some imagine, for help and guidance in your Councils. The spirit of Indian States' administration has yet to play its rightful part in the public life of the country and supplement, as it well might do, the grand spirit of British administration.

NEW UNIVERSITIES PROJECTED.

We are meeting this year under conditions of more than usual importance and in an atmosphere charged with academic enterprises. A large number of Indian States, following the noble lead set by Mysore, are endeavouring to organize Universities of their own and I have no doubt that if they proceed with due care and circumspection and after taking a full measure of modern academic requirements and their capacity to meet the charges that they entail, the results would be a great advance in educational content and organization,

of which the country will be justly proud. We should not be blind to the great cost these institutions involve. If you want the reality and not the name you must provide for a unitary University containing all the important faculties—humanistic, scientific and technological including Agriculture—and carry on also extension work on a large scale as pleaded for by Sir P. S. Sivaswami Iyer in his Convocation Address at Madras. Modern Universities are in most cases non-residential; they are not modelled on the pattern of Oxford and Cambridge; but adequate hostel accommodation should be provided.

THE REFORMS ACT AND PARTY POLITICS
IN EDUCATION.

The two greatest educational events of recent times are the Reforms Act of Mr. Montagu and the Report of Dr. Sadler's Commission. The educational bearings of the Reforms Act are manifold. It introduces on a scale unprecedented in the annals of India, democracy and Responsible Government, though to a partial, limited extent, which in their turn, as has been pointed out in the Report on Indian Constitutional Reforms, necessitate, in order to endow them with reality and success, the rapid expansion of education. By making education a transferred subject it gives Indian Statesmanship at last a chance of proving its mettle. Education is the key of all progress and that has been wisely handed over to us. We cannot be too grateful to the British Government for the grant of *Swaraj* in Education. It remains to be seen what use we shall make of this potent opportunity, though personally I have the fullest confidence that we shall meet our obligations in full. But there is a risk which we had better recognize at once and prepare to face

manfully. The shadow of party politics is likely to stretch across the field of Education. In a recent manifesto by a famous nationalist leader there is a call on the people to press forward with projects of freedom, on which there is practical unanimity, and to postpone the consideration of what are termed the projects of power, such as Education; regarding which there are likely to be deep differences of opinion. Let me not be understood as accepting the rationality of this classification or the soundness of the strategy and tactics foreshadowed, for I have nothing to do with politics. I mention it as showing a recognition on the part of one of the influential leaders that education is sure to be a field of contentious opinion. There is nothing surprising in this admission seeing how closely Education and Politics are related. But take note of the warning that education is likely to be the subject matter of party controversy.

Aristotle, that great master of political philosophy, treats Education as a part of politics and indeed all the Greek Philosophers did so. It is manifest that Education should be correlated to our political and social ideals, and that in their turn Education and enlightenment exert a powerful influence on political and social evolution. Marquis Ito, the maker of Modern Japan, denied that such a thing as Education in the abstract which prepared you for nothing in particular existed, and insisted that education should be a preparation for citizenship in the largest sense of the term. In Hindu history the narrowness and exclusiveness of our social polity found their reflection in the educational facilities provided or denied to the different communities. Whether you view it on historical grounds or on theoretical, you cannot effect a complete separation between the

two. If it is true, as Hoffding contends, that moral ideals should be socially realisable, it still further strengthens the bond between social and political ends on the one side and education on the other, since education or enlightenment is one of the basic elements of moral life. I am afraid that in our country at present there are wide cleavages of opinion as regards the future policy to be pursued in the matter of social reconstruction and redistribution of political power and influence, which are likely to make themselves felt in educational discussions. The revivalist and the reformer, the conservative and the liberal are not likely to agree in substance; and though they may utter the same blessed formulas at times to keep up an appearance of unity, they attach different meanings and address different diets. I trust that there will be a manly recognition of the truth here hinted at and that all liberals will unite to produce a better correlation between education, both in content and organization, and the ideal of a united Indian nationality. It is because of the chance that has been given to us to put our house in order that I have placed the great Reforms Act of Mr. Montagu in the forefront of the formative influences which are shaping our destiny in all directions.

DR. SADLER'S COMMISSION'S REPORT.

The other great factor is Dr. Sadler's Report, and from a purely educational point of view there has not been a greater in the history of Indian Education. If the principles therein advocated are adopted, they would result in a drastic, organic reconstruction of our educational system.

But we are told that Dr. Sadler's Commission sat for the exclusive benefit of Bengal and that it would not be therefore polite and proper on our part to benefit

by their criticisms and recommendations; that Bengal is not Madras; and that the Report has little or no application to our conditions and system. My revered friend, Mr. Macphail, is one of the leading spokesmen of this view and I notice that he has been repeating it on several occasions. I fancy that the only way in which such a view could gain currency is by mechanical repetition though I doubt if even thus it will gain currency in well-informed quarters. I am not here to deny the good that has been achieved by or under the existing system. Much progress has been achieved doubtless, but let us remember that the merit of a system consists in its irresistible tendency to develop beyond itself and it is therefore no use going about like so many Leibnitzes, declaring that, educationally speaking, Madras is the best of all possible worlds and that there is no room for further improvement. According to these inveterate apologists of the order of things as it is here, Dr. Sadler's Commission Report must be treated as a huge piece of irrelevancy so far as Madras is concerned. Let me examine this position and by a few quotations see how far it can be sustained.

MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION.

On the question of the medium of instruction up to the intermediate grade, the Commission has made the following pronouncement:—

“ Unlike some of our correspondents we regard a severe training in the use of the mother tongue, not as a dangerous rival to training in English, but as the necessary preliminary to such training. It may be that by postponing the use of the English medium, the supply of ready-made English phrases will come a little later; but when it comes, it will

come to boys better able to understand and use them ”

“ It is clear that we must begin with the mother tongue as the medium in all, or nearly all, subjects; and we think that English should be used as the medium in the University for all subjects except such languages as Sanskrit, Pali and the Vernacular itself.”

“ We are convinced that the use of the English medium is at present excessive in the Secondary Schools, to the detriment both of the pupils’ education and of the rational use of both media and that a substantial change should be made; and we think it would probably be desirable as a rule to use the Vernacular as the medium throughout the Secondary Schools for all subjects other than English and Mathematics.”

Well, if the use of the English medium is at present excessive in the Secondary Schools, is this so only in Bengal? Does not the remark apply with greater force to South India?

FALLACY OF PARALLEL EDUCATION.

One of your own resolutions, to which I shall refer later, passed last year seems to advocate, though I am not quite certain about it, what may be called parallel education—one set of Secondary Schools with Vernacular as the medium and another set with English. In a report which I submitted to the Government of Mysore I have said that the idea of parallel education under conditions in which both the lines cannot be of equal length or value must be pronounced to be a mixture of cloud and moonshine. The Commission have dealt with this fallacy of parallel education in the following passage:—

"A number of witnesses, Hindu, Muslim and European, have urged the establishment of parallel institutions, or of parallel classes in the same institution, the one set using English, the other the Vernacular as the principal medium. But we do not think a case for such an organization has been made out. If as public opinion demands, English is to be a compulsory second language throughout higher secondary education about the level of the middle school, there would be little room for the new set of institutions side by side with the ordinary high schools in our scheme." Once you produce unification on a bilingual basis, there would be no need for parallel education at all, "since the only difference between the two would consist in the employment of English for teaching Mathematics in the one set, and of the Vernacular for teaching mathematics in the other. Mr. Pramathanath Chatterjee, of whose elaborate plan of parallel institutions we have quoted details in Chapter XVIII, belongs to the small minority who would have English, not as a compulsory, but an optional second language, but he tells us, at the same time, that there is a growing demand for English and that even if it is optional, a large majority of pupils, if not all, will learn English as a second language, and will be able to employ it for all ordinary purposes."

UNIFICATION ON A BILINGUAL BASIS.

What is it they propose? They propose a re-constitution on a bilingual basis which is one of the first reforms that will have to be attempted. I shall deal with this later when I come to the constructive programme of reforms, but meanwhile let us note that the

kind of integration which would be brought about in our educational system by adopting the bilingual principle does not exist at present, and that the vast majority of our schools are schools which do not open up the prospect of continuous progress in education to the pupils. The vast majority of our schools are alleys, short and blind, and they cannot be regarded as being parts of a system, since they have hardly any organic relationship to the higher courses of education and do not form an introduction to them and do not prepare the children for the higher things that count.

TECHNOLOGY IN SECONDARY EDUCATION.

Dr. Sadler's Commission's Report is not particularly strong, as I shall submit later, on the subject of technical and vocational instruction or rather their correlation to general education. However, here is what they say on this subject too:—

“A better secondary education would give to the workshops and factories of the future, the responsible leaders which they will require. An experienced Indian witness tells us that one of the things, which would relieve the situation is a breakdown of the prejudice against working with the hands. Such a change would be promoted by a good modern course of secondary education in which the training of the hand, and the study of Science have an important place without detriment to the training given through language, literature and history.”

I leave it to you to consider whether our secondary education is of this type and if not whether in case we accept the recommendation it would not result in important modifications.

REMODELLING OF WOMEN'S EDUCATION.

In respect of women's education also they have laid down far-reaching principles of reconstruction :—

"In the same way, so long as the standards of attainment are maintained at an equal level with those exacted from men, we can see no reason against, and every reason in favour of, an adaptation of the degree course in Arts and Science which would include some subjects of special value for women, and perhaps omit others of which they do not stand so much in need. Many of our correspondents urge the desirability of a specially designed curriculum for women students, or at least of the inclusion of alternative subjects adapted to the needs of women".

"But when they go on to assert that in regard to professions equally open to men and women..... the standard of work and the curriculum should be the same" while we agree in regard to the standard of work we cannot but feel that it might well be advisable that the woman teacher, and even the woman doctor, while following the main lines of the necessary curriculum, should be encouraged to give special emphasis to particular branches of their subjects which need not be so important for men"

"On the face of it, it would appear that a problem so difficult as that of the higher education of women cannot be solved merely by applying to them a system designed for men and far from satisfactory even for them."

And yet have we attempted any other solution ?

REFORM OF THE CONTENT OF EDUCATION.

Even a cursory glance at the official summary of conclusions will show how dissatisfied the Commission are with the existing arrangements whether in regard to the content of education or the administrative organization. Taking the content first, the following quotations are likely to be of interest:—

The Matriculation Examination "gives no encouragement to many lines of study necessary for the welfare of the pupils and for the prosperity of the country"

Secondary Education largely fails of its purpose because "many subjects and lines of study, especially those which have a Vocational bearing are almost wholly disregarded"

"Courses of the Intermediate College should afford preparation for the Medical, Engineering and Teaching professions and for careers in Agriculture, Commerce and Industry"

With reference to University Education they say:—

"The courses of instruction are too predominantly literary in character and too little varied to suit various needs; nor is there adequate provision for training in technical subjects."

"The University should be prepared to provide courses of instruction in Banking, Accountancy, Insurance, Actuarial Science, Industrial History, etc., designed especially for students who are already engaged in business and at hours convenient for their attendance. Admission to these courses should not be limited to persons who have passed the Entrance examination of the University"

“Education should be included as a subject (a) in one of the courses of study in Intermediate Colleges and (b) in some of the groups approved for the pass B.A., Degree”

REFORM IN EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION.

And in regard to administration, the following points may be noted:—

“Owing to the existing division of authority between the University and the Department, no coherent system of Secondary Education yet exists”

They advocate a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education composed of a majority of non-official members and require that there should be a Minister of Education with the Director as Secretary to Government.

They advocate a Senate of a new type and the entrusting of the educational functions of a University to bodies composed chiefly of educationists, like those which have been instituted in almost all the modern Universities of England and the West.

In regard to the University of Dacca, they say that it should be established as a Unitary Teaching University, no collegiate organization being interposed between the University authorities and the students. A feature of its organization should be an academic Council including the principal teachers of the University and having large independent powers in all purely academic questions affecting courses of study, examination and degrees.

“The University should be a residential University, not in the sense that all students should be required to live in halls or hostels which are under

University control, but in the sense that the majority of the students will need to have such residence provided for them, that the provision and conduct of these residences will be systematically organized under the direction of the University, and that the residential units will be utilised for the development of social life ”

FINANCIAL CONSEQUENCES.

Speaking as one who is not an optimist by design, would say that the Report is the most convincing condemnation of the present system both in its educational and administrative aspects and the most powerful plea for reform on lines well tested and found to be sound in all progressive countries. The Madras and Bengal systems are the children of the selfsame parentage. They grew up in similar circumstances and I for one fail to perceive any such generic distinction as the defenders of the *status quo* in Madras have discovered or invented. The financial consequences of the reforms recommended by the Commission are of a formidable character, but good education cannot be had for nothing. It will have to be paid for and paid for handsomely. But as one who has had many opportunities of moving with the people and especially the rural classes, I may say that I am confident that there will be no want of response and that when a popular, democratic educational policy is formulated the moneys required will be forthcoming.

RADICAL DEFECTS OF OUR PRIMARY EDUCATION AND HOW THEY AFFECT THE INTERESTS OF THE MASSES AND RURAL CLASSES.

It is not my intention to deal with all the problems that are likely to rise in the entire course of our

educational evolution even were I able to foresee them I do not believe in encyclopædic surveys but would like to restrict myself to a few matters which either demand immediate attention or are more or less ripe for solution. First and foremost are the principles of expansion and integration of education. The problem of expansion needs no advocacy in these democratic days, but expansion without proper coordination and integration will only result in even graver confusion than what unfortunately holds at present. It is not enough if more schools are opened, but all schools should be of a type that would lead to the middle and the higher grades. In a recent speech Mr. J. N. Roy lamented that so far Indian politicians had not looked at questions from the point of view of the rural classes and that rural interests had been sadly ignored. I know not what substance there may be in this charge, but undoubtedly very little thought and effort have been devoted to the provision either of adequate or of the proper type of educational facilities in the country side. The so-called primary education given in the villages is given entirely in the Vernacular while the higher courses are not merely bilingual but employ English as the medium of instruction. The village boy then has very little chance of going up to the higher grades and primary education becomes almost meaningless since it has hardly any relationship to the Secondary. It is perhaps this that has been noticed in the following passage of the Report on Indian Constitutional Reforms by Lord Chelmsford and Mr. Montagu :—

“The main defect of the system is probably the want of co-ordination between primary and higher education.....”

But the most telling criticism is that penned by Sir Sankaran Nair in one of his famous Minutes of Dissent.

As this is the first reform on which in my judgment the forces of educational liberalism should be concentrated, I offer no apology for dealing with it at some length. The Educational Commissioner thus describes the dualism of Middle Education that now exists:—

“Middle Education is of two kinds—Middle Vernacular which is often classed as primary and Middle English or Anglo-Vernacular which properly forms a section of Secondary Education”

If this is so, of what does Middle Vernacular Education form a section? And if it forms a section of nothing and leads up to nothing, why on earth call it middle? It ought more properly to be called muddle. The Government of India give the following description:—

“Middle education is really two-fold and comprises both middle vernacular and anglo-vernacular. The first is associated with primary mainly by the fact that it also is conducted in the vernacular and managed by local bodies. It is far more highly organized, is mostly concentrated in towns or villages of some size, and is in the hands of better trained teachers: it attracts more promising boys and it does train their intelligence and give them a fair equipment of knowledge for the careers before them (teaching, vernacular clerkships, posts as karindas and the like). The best boys go to English Schools”

The language of this passage is mystic to a degree. I do not understand what is meant by saying that Vernacular Education is “more highly organised” and that it attracts “more promising boys,” while English

schools attract the "best boys." The economic value of that education such as Vernacular Clerkships, posts as Karindas and the like is more likely to bring tears to your eyes than water to your mouths. I quote again from the Government of India:—

"Middle Vernacular Education marks the final stage of instruction for certain classes of the people while the Anglo-Vernacular School is merely the first stage of higher or English Education"

If middle Vernacular Education has such deadly finality about it, why, again I ask, is it called middle? It ought to be called muddle. And again, who are the classes of people, I pray, for whom it marks the finishing or rather finishing off touch of culture. Obviously, the masses and the rural classes. They who pay most to the State get the least from it. The curse of this dualism in our education should go and should go without further delay.

Sir Sankaran Nair had an easy case and he expounded it in the following passages:—

"Efforts were then made by the Government to confine higher education, and secondary education leading to higher education to boys in affluent circumstances. This again was done not in the interests of sound education but for political reasons".....
 "This is the real explanation of the very unsatisfactory character of the nature and progress of secondary education"..... "English Education, according to this policy is to be confined to the well-to-do classes"..... "For this purpose the old system of education under which a pupil could prosecute his studies from the lowest to the highest class was altered".....

“For the masses, a new course of elementary or primary education solely in the vernaculars extending to about 7 years was devised. It was hoped that this, would keep them in their present condition confined to their lowly ancestral pursuits. Schools confined to vernaculars were opened and encouraged to draw away boys from English studies. It was intended, and rules were framed to carry out that intention that if possible those who commenced their education in these schools were not to be encouraged to proceed to what are called the secondary schools instituted for English education. The masses, the poorer classes of people, were thus deliberately denied all access to any real or English education. The result is that on account of their being prevented from following their English studies, they do not care to continue their studies in the vernacular schools and they cast off the little smattering of knowledge they acquire and lapse into illiteracy again. They are thus denied all means of material improvement, self-development and culture.”

INTEGRATION THE MOST ESSENTIAL REFORM.

We should not confuse the problem of the medium of instruction with that of integration. It does not matter what medium we adopt; but the lower grades should be so organized as to give every one a chance of going up to the higher. There should be no break. Otherwise the village lad is put at a disadvantage as compared to his brother in the city; and as between rural and urban areas, between classes and masses, there can be no equality of opportunity though it is the rural parts that contribute most to the revenues of the State.

THE METHOD OF INTEGRATION PROPOSED:

The best solution, taking the two problems together, *i.e.*, the medium and integration, is that suggested by Dr. Sadler's Commission, *viz.*, a bilingual education in all schools after a certain stage is reached or from about the middle grade, with the vernacular as the medium of instruction and English as a compulsory Second language; and the opening of a large number of such schools throughout the country, so that chances of going up to High Schools might be within easy reach of all children, rural and urban, alike. There can be no denying the fact that a new and insistent demand for English education, which is at present the variety that leads to the higher chances of life, has sprung up in the rural parts. This inexorable sociological factor has been thus noticed by Dr. Sadler's Commission:—

“The most striking feature of the situation is the eager demand for Secondary and College Education in which English is the medium of instruction. Bengal has always shown a strong predisposition towards Western learning. The volume and intensity of the present demand are however beyond precedent”

I am sure Madras is not behind hand of Bengal.

“It is clear that a powerful movement finds expression in this demand for Secondary and College education. Four causes have produced it. The first is the economic pressure which is straitening, in some cases to the point of penury, the already narrow means of many families belonging to the respectable classes in Bengal.

“To the members of the respectable classes, English High Schools are a social necessity ”

“The second cause which has led to the increased demand for Secondary and higher education is the awakening of new ambitions in ranks of society which formerly lay outside its range. The social recognition to which a graduate is entitled is naturally prized by many whose rising prosperity enables them to look higher than their earlier circumstances allowed. Agriculturists, in thinking of their sons' future, look beyond the horizon of village life. The difficulty of finding remunerative employment on the land for all the young men of a large family makes their fathers wish to put them into other callings, access to which is through the English Secondary Schools ”

“The third cause which has stimulated the desire for Secondary education in Bengal is hardly less powerful. It is the feeling, however inarticulate and undefined, that economic and social changes are near at hand ”

“A fourth cause has furthered the growth of secondary and college education during recent years. Thoughtful Indian opinion frets under the stigma of illiteracy which, in spite of the high attainments of a relatively small minority, the country has still to bear. Every advance which India makes towards a place of direct influence in the affairs of the Empire throws into sharper relief the ignorance under which the masses of her people labour. The educated classes are sensitive to this blot upon the good name of their country and feel that it lowers the prestige of India in the eyes of the world ”

I have only one remark to make on this account of the new social and economic forces which are bound to reshape our educational organization on the lines here suggested and that is, it is guilty of a serious sin of omission. It does not mention the new political awakening of the lower classes and their desire that the distribution of political power and influence in this country shall be such as to ensure fairness to all interests concerned. I think the proper distribution of political power and influence, without which no democratic experiment can succeed, necessitates even more than the other factors a new advance in education on broader and more popular lines such as are here sketched.

The demand for a better correlation between Primary and Secondary education by which the transition from the former to the latter could be made more easy and natural is one which cannot be ignored and which should not be ignored in the interest of a real, sane and conservative democracy. When they realize their political responsibility, the rural parts will act as a moderating and steadying influence; they will provide the counter-weight by which the extremism which is sometimes seen in the cities could be brought to a proper balance. I leave it to you to consider whether it is not desirable to tap this vast reserve of conservatism in the interests of the all-round and orderly progress of the country and whether in point of fact our statesmanship has had sympathetic imagination enough to rouse these forces into self-consciousness and self-expression.

BENGAL AND UNIFICATION OF MIDDLE SCHOOLS.

The Government of Bengal in a recent circular have tried to bring about this correlation with what thoroughness or success I cannot tell. Let me quote :

"The question of the simplification and unification of the different curricula for primary schools which are now in force in west and in east Bengal, has for some time past been under the consideration of the Director of Public Instruction. The matter was considered by a Conference of Educational Officers, and by a subsequent Conference of Inspectors of Schools, after which detailed syllabuses of study, covering the whole of the Primary School course, were drawn up. The Director of Public Instruction has now submitted these syllabuses to Government, with a recommendation for the adoption of a simple and uniform curriculum for the whole Presidency. The whole course, which extends over 5 years, has been so arranged that pupils who desire to proceed to Middle and High Schools can do so without inconvenience at the close of class IV. The work of Class V will be of a Vocational nature, and is intended to suit the requirements of those boys whose studies would ordinarily not extend beyond the Primary stage."

MYSORE AND UNIFICATION OF MIDDLE SCHOOL TYPES.

But the most thoroughgoing attempt is that which (pardon me for mentioning) the Government of Mysore has announced in its Memorandum on Educational policy. According to this there will be a primary grade in which all education will be in the Vernacular and then a middle grade of 5 years in which the education will be bilingual with Vernacular as the medium of instruction and English as a compulsory second language, and enough middle schools of this type will be started so as to satisfy the demands of the rural as well as the

urban parts. No one, whether in city or village, could enter on the middle grade without passing through the Vernacular Primary grade, and no one who enters on the middle grade will have anything except a bilingual education with vocational courses as electives in the higher middle grade classes, which will form a real introduction to the High Schools. The dualism between the Vernacular and the Anglo-Vernacular Middle Schools will be abolished and all middle grade education will be steps in the ladder leading up to the University.

THE VERNACULAR MEDIUM AND ITS OPPONENTS.

It is because the advocates of the Vernacular medium sometimes fail to emphasise that English also should be included as a compulsory subject, and do not make it clear that what they are thinking of is bilingualism and not merely the Vernacular, that opposition is sometimes roused. One of your old resolutions runs thus :—

“ That the Vernaculars should be the media of instruction in all non-language subjects in the High School classes ”.

an unexceptionable recommendation which would not meet with much criticism if there is a proper insistence on English also. Further it is because bilingual education is the true solution that your recommendation for the establishment of Vernacular Secondary schools in rural parts, passed last year, is not likely to meet with ready acceptance. I know that this experiment of parallel education has been tried in some places and found to be thoroughly wanting.

I have always been an advocate of bilingual education with Vernacular as the medium up to the Collège

grades, and the grounds, general and educational, on which I base this reform have been explained by me at considerable length in a speech which I delivered at Madras under the Chairmanship of Mr. Justice Seshagiri Aiyer. I believe that this reform will give a better chance for the people at large than the employment of a foreign tongue and will sooner result in an awakening of the masses; that it will help social reform and reconstruction as is evidenced by the progress of provinces like Bengal and the Andhra Desa in which Vernacular Literature of modern type has become a living and growing influence. But I am afraid that this question, which goes to the root of educational reconstruction and expansion, is in danger of being submerged, though not for long as I hope and trust, under a deluge of socio-political prejudices.

The advocacy of this reform by those who are known for their conservative and reactionary views on social reform has not helped its popularity with the general public. We must not shut our eyes to the strong currents and cross currents that are now agitating our society. So far as I can judge, revivalistic Hinduism, by which I mean attempts at reviving in the name of our religion and strengthening the hierarchical organization of our society, has lost all charm in the eyes of the masses no less than the reformers. It is dreaded as a snare by the vast majority of our people. In a recent issue "The Indian Social Reformer" stigmatizes the adoption of this policy by Mr. Tilak as a sinister endeavour at what it calls 'undermining English Education' and the liberalism it has propagated in the country, and declares that there can be no return to the Peshwas, a sentiment which the country as a whole will certainly endorse. But I do not believe that English and liberalism

are causally related to each other; that where there is English there is liberalism, which you know is not true; and that wherever there is liberalism there is always English, which too is not a universal fact. But however there it is, this faith in English as the principle of liberty and social emancipation, and prejudice against the Vernacular as an agent of orthodoxy and all that it implies. The views of the school of thought represented by the "Indian Social Reformer" are full of fallacies, but there is no denying that a large number of people look upon this reform with a certain amount of suspicion as a card up the sleeve of social reactionaries. It is up to us to prove that we have no revivalistic *arriere pensee* in advocating either the Vernacular medium or religious education and that we are honestly bent on making education a preparation for, what I may call, futurist nationalism.

TOP-HEAVY NATURE OF THE EXISTING SYSTEM.

One of the most serious charges against the present system of Education is that it does neither social nor regional justice; that it favours the urban population at the expense of the rural; that primary education is not looked after so well as the higher. This is borne out by Mr. Sharp's Quinquennial Review in which he proves by much statistics that Education in India is top heavy and that mass education is, relatively speaking, far less developed than the higher. If there had been proper integration, the development of one part of education disproportionately to another would have been automatically checked. If all the primary schools were real introductions to the secondary, then both secondary and primary education would have expanded at a less disproportionate rate. The rural population would have

had more representatives in the public life of the country and they would have demanded and obtained more educational facilities for their children. Relatively speaking, the State spends far more on higher than on lower education and this is inevitable, for the literate people are able to exercise influence to a degree that the others cannot and they obtain what they ask for more easily. The clamour for Secondary schools, High schools and Universities is insistent, vociferous and organised and one such institution consumes the finance which would have gone to the opening of dozens of primary schools. The solution of this does not consist either in lopping off the top, which is a remedy worse than the disease, or in opening more primary schools of the present type, but in producing a better intergration between the primary and the secondary grades so that in course of time a better diffusion of higher education and public influence might be secured.

CORRELATION OF VOCATIONAL WITH GENERAL EDUCATION.

To this it is sometimes objected that if we make it possible for all lads to go up to secondary and higher education we shall be producing a large intellectual proletariat, unfit for honest livelihood, helplessly dependent on Government for jobs, and becoming, if they cannot be provided with jobs, inflammable material which would jeopardise the prospects of the orderly and assured progress of the country. It seems to me that this objection is based on the view that no other reform besides integration and expansion is proposed, which is notoriously not the case. Indian opinion has always insisted on a proper infusion of vocational and technical elements into our education and expert opinion too has confirmed the demands of the Indian public in this

respect. Mr. Sharp's Quinquennial Review concedes that the present education is nominal, not realistic. Lord Chelmsford and Mr. Montagu say that "From the economic point of view India has been handicapped by want of professional and technical instruction" and admit "that the charge that Government has produced a large intelligencia which cannot find employment has much substance in it". There is such a thing as education through hand and eye and the best way of combining the principle of integration with that of social efficiency, as opposed to clerical, is by providing along with a minimum of general education which ought to be made compulsory, optional courses, both general and technical, so that pupils who have an aptitude for manual occupations will have an opportunity of taking up subjects congenial to their inclination. If higher courses of a similar nature are provided in the higher grades, then it would be possible for young men with pronounced manual talent to go up from grade to grade taking, as optionals, courses which will enable them in case they discontinue, to earn a decent livelihood without having recourse to Government service, and Government service too will be all the better for having men trained in manual occupations. The Bombay Government has done wisely in appointing agricultural graduates to the Provincial Civil Service.

Let the compulsory subjects remain as they are, but find a place amongst the optionals for vocational and technical subjects, and you will have remedied the defects of too literary an education without depriving the boys going in for vocational education either of general culture or of the chances of progress to higher grades including the University. This is the solution that we in Mysore favour and it is with respect to this

part of the educational problem that many have criticised Dr. Sadler's Commission Report as wanting in clear and firm direction.

I notice that in some quarters there is a tendency to advocate a restriction of general or literary education and an increased provision for technical. This school of thought proceeds on the hypothesis that there is an essential antagonism between literary and practical education, that literary education should be confined to the few, and that practical education should be the chief type of education open to the vast majority of the people. They forget that no such antagonism is recognised in progressive industrial democracies like the United States and Canada and that restriction of opportunities for general education is likely to result in the domination of the country by an Oligarchy; and that the best method of overcoming the difficulty is by adding technical and vocational instruction to the optionals that may be selected at the different grades. This synthesis enables all students to have a certain minimum equipment of general culture and has the added advantage of correcting the defects of either education by means of a common institution and a common neighbourhood. The extraordinary degree to which practical work is correlated with theoretical studies in western countries does not seem to be fully realised here, and in any case I am certain that the policy of a restricted general education, which would further increase the gap that now exists between the literate and the illiterate, will not be approved by the progressive elements in the country.

HOSTELS AND THE ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION.

I now come to the fourth principle of reconstruction. It is not possible to provide Secondary schools except

in a few chosen centres. But to prevent the rural population from stagnating we ought to make it easy for their children to come up to these schools, which doubtless will be situated in urban areas. Those of us who are acquainted with the conditions in our rural parts know how difficult it is for the children, say of agriculturists, to migrate to the cities for their education. Good hotels are lacking and it is not always possible to billet oneself on friends and relations. I know of many families in the Telugu Districts which are maintaining small establishments for the benefit of their children at High School centres. But such establishments can never be either economical or satisfactory. The proper provision of hostels at all centres of Secondary Education is very necessary if the rural children are to benefit by them. How exactly these hostels should be provided—whether as institutions managed by Government, or by Municipalities and other local bodies, or by private agencies receiving grants from Government—are matters which it is premature to discuss at this stage. I might in passing observe that I am personally convinced that if a grant-in-aid system like what obtains at present in Mysore is adopted, it will act as a tremendous impetus to the hostel movement. Hostels must be regarded as an integral part of the educational organisation and if there are a good number of them, they will add to the efficiency of the existing schools, and render the opening of small, inefficient schools in different places less necessary to a certain extent.

These then are the few principles which ought to be kept in view in the further development of educational policy in the country, *viz.*, integration, expansion, provision of technical instruction as optionals in the different grades, and of hostels at Secondary school

centres. If they can be applied with thoroughness and consistency, they will result in a popular, democratic system of education which will at the same time promote industrial and economic efficiency: Educational Liberalism will have been realised.

MORE UNIVERSITIES.

While I thus insist on the supreme importance of a thorough-going reconstruction on these lines, I am not blind to the urgent necessity there is for establishing more Universities in the Madras Presidency. Even should Travancore hive off, there will still be room for at least two more Universities in the immediate present. An Andhra University has long been overdue and a University for the Southern Tamil districts is no less necessary. These new Universities should be organised on very different lines from the Madras University; and the Madras University itself should take advantage of the relief thus afforded to cast off some of its obsolete features and remodel itself on the principles recommended by Dr. Sadler's Commission. You have been asking for a certain amount of decentralisation in the S.S.L.C. administration and if these new Universities are established—and I trust every effort will be made to bring them into speedy existence—the decentralization that you have been asking for will be automatically secured.

DEPRESSED CLASSES AND THEIR CLAIMS FOR EQUALITY OF SECULAR RIGHTS AND SPECIAL TREATMENT.

That was a noble resolution of yours that you passed last year urging that all educational institutions be laid under an obligation to throw open their doors to boys of all classes and indeed I do not see how unless

we adopt measures of this kind we could be said to be true to our nationalism. Plain men cannot easily reconcile nationalism with class or caste exclusiveness in regard to secular rights and the privileges created or aided by the State. I am in emphatic agreement with Sir Narayan Chandavarkar in his condemnation of the policy of separate schools for the Panchamas and other Depressed Classes. The Memorandum submitted on this subject by the Servants of India Society which, not perhaps altogether by chance, follows very closely the lines of developments inaugurated in Mysore, has my entire approval. While upholding the right of these unfortunate people to enter public and aided schools, we should at the same time, in view of the special disabilities under which they suffer and the need for special care and protection, organise on a scale commensurate with the importance of the problem, special facilities like Boarding institutions and a generous system of stipends. The Central Panchama Institute at Mysore, as has been pointed out by observers like Sir Narayan Chandavarkar, is about the most successful measure yet adopted on their behalf. The eagerness of these classes for education has been proved to be genuine and widespread and in fact we were obliged to turn away more than a hundred applicants last year for want of accommodation from the Boarding Institutes of which there are already three in the State. It is very gratifying to note that all over the country attempts are being made by liberals of all sections and communities to wipe out this disgrace of ages and I have complete confidence that Indian nationality will not falter or fail in its handling of the problems of internal reconstruction. Some people have objected to their admission into general schools on the ground that they tend

to lower their tone. But surely you cannot degrade a fifth of your own people to such lamentable depths without having to atone for it in some way and at some time or another. A wave of social liberalism, offspring of the new spirit in India, is sweeping everything before it. Just the other day the Zamorin College has been thrown open to Thiyyas. In this connection, one cannot but admire the sympathy and sagacity displayed by the Government of Lord Willingdon in providing a special grant of 5 lakhs of rupees for the advancement of the Depressed Classes and bringing about the nucleus of a special organisation to look to their interests. He has just commenced the liquidation of an ancient debt.

LORD WILLINGDON'S FORWARD POLICY.

The broad imaginative sympathy, and deep insight into realities, and lofty idealism for which Lord Willingdon is famous have already found apt illustration in several educational measures and I trust that these are only an earnest of greater things to follow. Quite recently, he has given a lakh of rupees for being expended in aid of increased salaries to teachers in aided schools. I have already referred to the five lakhs budgetted for the advancement of the Depressed classes. The recent order on Medical Inspection of schools marks a good beginning in a difficult field and the new Elementary Education Bill is a notable instrument of Educational progress. I am in general agreement with most of the provisions, though doubtless minor amendments will be necessary. I approve with special emphasis the proposal to entrust Educational administration in the districts to *Ad hoc* councils. For some years past I have been advocating such *ad-hoc* councils, having become acquainted with the excellent work they

have been doing during my travels in Canada and other countries. This is what I said on this subject at the Birthday Session of the Mysore Economic Conference in 1917.

AD HOC DISTRICT COUNCILS.

"The scheme of the Committee contemplates that all elementary education in the District and Taluk should be under the charge of District Boards. I find that in some foreign countries and in practically all parts of America a special Local Board is generally instituted to look after education and that education is never left to the charge of a general administrative board which has to look after a large number of concerns like roads, bridges and sanitation and which cannot therefore be expected to concentrate its attention on education. In this one point the scheme is not satisfactory, but I have no doubt that before final orders are passed this defect will be remedied. Education is too important a subject to be mixed up with a large number of other concerns and educational officers should be as far as possible independent of the general administrative officers of the District. The system of *Ad hoc* Councils prevails practically throughout Canada and the United States and we cannot do better than follow the precedent of two such countries as Canada and the United States which have always treated education as the first and foremost concern of Government. If you have *ad hoc* committees it will be possible to secure the services of men who could not find a place on district boards, elections to which are influenced by a variety of interests amongst which education may not find a determining place, men of special competence who would further devote their entire attention to this one matter."

University is that teaching and examination are not so wide apart and divorced as in the case of an examining affiliative University. In most modern Universities the professors and the teachers in charge constitute the majority of the Examining Board, and they try to test the knowledge of the candidates taking into consideration the actual conditions under which the teaching work is carried on. Such examiners would not make it their chief business to test the ignorance of the candidates; they are there to test their knowledge taking into account the extent and the manner in which it is imparted. In some of your resolutions you have been claiming that the benefit of teacher-examiners should be extended to the candidates appearing for the S.S.L.C. Examination and I do not see how the soundness of your contention can be disputed. If University students are to be shown such a consideration, it stands to reason that High School students have a right for it to a much greater degree. This leads me to the question of the appalling educational wastage involved in the present organisation. There is the fallacy of the non-teacher-Examiner on which I have already commented. In every country passing is the rule and failing the exception. In India it is the other way about and the efficiency of the educational organisation is measured not by the number of pupils passed but by the number slaughtered. Our examinations require overhauling. Then there is the wastage involved in the dualism of Vernacular and Anglo Vernacular middle schools and the boy who passes the Vernacular grade has to recommence in English at a later stage the subjects already done in the mother tongue; this linguistic marking of time is a drain on the years and intellectual freshness of our children.

Then there is the wastage involved in the defective correlation of our educational system to the needs and requirements of our life. It is not necessary to dwell at greater length on this subject since it has received adequate consideration at previous conferences. No modern democracy has found it possible to desist organising on a large scale an extension system of popular education. This is required for two purposes—to improve those who have already had some education and to give some education through the ear to those who have not had any. By this the village teachers could be kept up to the scratch and the rustic population initiated into the mysteries of modern knowledge and civilization. When you remember how our people have a trained and hereditary capacity for learning through hearing you will agree with me in thinking that a great mistake has been made in not employing a means of education so well suited to our needs and aptitudes as the extension system.

FINANCIAL RESPONSIBILITY AND THE NEED FOR CAUTION AND PRUDENCE.

Each one of the projects discussed here will cost a great deal, and collectively they will put our financial resources to a strain which we will not be able to bear unless we make a grand and united effort. It is very likely that in our new enthusiasm at the chance we have got of administering education we may rush into schemes rather too wildly. I hope we shall act with a sufficient sense of responsibility especially in finance. There are a number of evils which have to be remedied. Our teachers, as already mentioned, are too poorly paid; relatively to their qualifications they are paid worse than men of similar merit in other Departments and as such their bread is not only scanty but soured

by a feeling of injustice. And then there is the cry for free education, for compulsory education, for kindergartens, adult schools and a large number of other developments which I would gladly have if they did not cost so much. We should cut the coat according to the cloth. If you sacrifice revenue, as by means of free education, and increase expenditure, will you be able to open more schools and provide the large number of localities which have no schools at all with the schools they have been wanting all these years? Nobody would oppose these things in the abstract and if money could be found let us by all means abolish fees, make education compulsory and improve the salaries and prospects of the teaching profession. But if in the actual circumstances you abolish fees, introduce compulsion in this area or that, and spend a few lakhs more on salaries, what would be the effect on expansion of Educational facilities? We cannot go on with revenues on the Indian scale and expenditure on the European. Believe me it is not a question of sympathy or of sentiment, but Business, Business viewed from the standpoint of the country. Exhaust your finances and you will soon reach a condition in which you cannot do anything more effective than keep firing blank cartridges, announce policies for which you are not able to find the money, and introduce schemes which have little chance of being executed. By this I do not mean to say that we should sit still and do nothing. What I mean is that we should make a careful, complete survey of our needs and finances and make the best possible adjustments. Let us prepare a comprehensive programme of the different items to be taken up in the order of importance, calculate the cost, and see how it is possible to raise the necessary revenues. Do not let us spend

all on a few hasty measures of cheap or immediate popularity to the detriment of larger and more permanent interests. But let me not be misunderstood as taking a gloomy or despondent view. I speak from experience when I say that I am certain that if properly approached and awakened the country will give generously for education; and that it will never allow education to suffer for want of funds. Perhaps you will be surprised to know that private donations in aid of education have amounted to more than a lakh and a half rupees during the past year in Mysore and if we can raise a lakh and a half rupees in Mysore, it would not be too much to expect from the Madras Presidency 20 or 30 times the amount. All that I am desirous of impressing upon you is that we should make a careful survey, prepare our programme of development, and see how the necessary appropriations could be secured. Let free education and compulsory education, if need be, follow the universal provision of facilities of the type sketched above. Or, if you have the money, by all means introduce them right from the very commencement, but not so as to interfere with integration and expansion. Thoughtless enthusiasm may easily lead the charriot into a mire from which we may not be able to extricate it, and a little caution will not be out of place especially when we, the minors, have just succeeded to the managements of the Estate. Perhaps with the reputation I enjoy in some quarters for radical revolutionary enthusiasm, this plea for caution may come upon you as an unwelcome surprise. I am for cautious progress; and in the condition in which things are under the new Act, it is as necessary to emphasise caution as progress. But if caution is to be used as an excuse for preventing all progress I would fling it to the four winds

without thought or compunction. Mysore spends relatively to her resources far more on Education than Madras; the standard of your Educational expenditure should be considerably raised.

A HOPEFUL OUT-LOOK.

As one who had special opportunities of judging the spirit of the younger generation in the Madras Presidency I am happy to be able to state that there is a real enthusiasm for educational work and that a great many of our finest youths are prepared to sacrifice their life's prospects in the cause of education. Many of them are entering the teaching profession in the spirit of missionaries. The cross of life lies heavily on your shoulders but nobody could have been present here without realising with what fortitude and cheerfulness it is borne. I doubt if the material support to which you are entitled in equity has been forthcoming either from Government or the people. I sometimes feel that even the moral support which your good work and self-sacrificing labours ought to elicit is not forthcoming in sufficient measures. I sometimes feel dismayed at the manner in which elections even in the field of education go and how little support is given to educationists even when they have a clear title deed for such support. This is not so in America nor even in Germany. The regard in which the teaching profession is held in America must be seen before the full extent of it is understood by our people whose eyes are still too easily dazzled by worldly glamour. Some of the best Statesmen and administrators on the American Continent have been drawn from the teaching profession and many illustrious people after the lapse of their public career are only too happy and proud to join the teaching

profession. I do not mention this in a spirit of querulous complaint but just to draw the attention of the country to a glaring defect of our psychology. I do not think that the vast majority of us care either for reward or recognition but it is to the good of the country that it should revise its catalogue of moral values. I cannot but express on this occasion my very deep and abiding admiration for the splendid work which you have been doing, for the justification of the spirituality of our civilization which you are providing every hour of your life, and wish you and the deliberations that are to follow every success.

Education is confronted with a heavy task in our country and if we take into account the races, creeds and all manner of social cleavages that have in some measure cut up our unity into fragments, we shall realise the full scope and difficulty of the synthetic purpose that we have to serve; and I have not the slightest doubt that amongst the unifying influences that are now operating with such striking success, this noble instrument, this brotherhood of educationists, occupies and will continue to occupy the foremost position.