

EDUCATION COMMISSION.

REPORT

BY

THE BENGAL PROVINCIAL COMMITTEE;

WITH

EVIDENCE TAKEN BEFORE THE COMMITTEE,

AND

MEMORIALS ADDRESSED TO THE EDUCATION COMMISSION.



CALCUTTA :

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REPORT OF THE BENGAL PROVINCIAL COMMITTEE.

PART I.

THE PROGRESS OF EDUCATION IN BENGAL UP TO THE DATE OF THE EDUCATION DESPATCH OF 1854.

1. Public instruction was known in India from very early times. The authors of the Vedic Hymns are described as surrounded by large bodies of disciples. The Code of Manu laid down that the youth of the twice-born classes should reside for years with their preceptors before assuming the householder's duties. Learning was in fact a quasi-religious obligation upon the higher classes of Hindus, and it was imparted, at first by Brahmins as family priests, and then by the more learned among them as public teachers. Such was the origin of the seats of Sanskrit learning, or *tols*, which are still very numerous in the country. Their professors and pupils subsisted on grants of land made by the sovereign.

2. Another class of educational institutions owed its origin to a different branch of the priesthood. Each village community of the Hindus had its tutelary idol, with a Brahmin specially attached to its worship. Offering worship to the idol on behalf of all the different castes of the village people, this Brahmin naturally took under him in his tutorial capacity the children of all those who, as either belonging to or connected with the twice-born, felt themselves under the obligation to acquire letters. Thus originated the village *pathsalas*, which are still so much cherished by the people. The pathsala teacher subsisted on the *deottar* land of the idol, and received from his pupils free-will offerings and occasionally fees.

3. As regards the instruction imparted in these two classes of public schools, the *tols* and the *pathsalas*, it is to be remarked that the former, as appropriated exclusively to the twice-born classes, taught the *dharma shastras* and high Sanskrit learning, while the latter, being open to all classes, including those that were prohibited from studying the *shastras*, refrained from direct religious instruction. In their palmyest days, therefore, the *pathsalas* never taught much beyond the simple elements. They taught reading, writing, and arithmetic in the vernacular, together with precepts of morality, as embodied in compilations and enforced by Puranic legends. Grammar, *Abhidhan*, and *Kavya*, in Sanskrit, were also taught to the most advanced students of the superior castes. The *pathsalas* were the secular elementary schools of the country.

4. Only a very rough and general idea can be formed of the extent to which education was carried on among the people by means of these two classes of indigenous public schools. That every male of the twice-born classes was not learned in Sanskrit and the *shastras*, nor every male of the mixed and Sudra castes possessed of a knowledge of letters, may be gathered from the Sanskrit dramas extant. And yet, when every family of the twice-born castes, and every guild of the mixed castes, and every village of any importance, had its own priest, and when it was enjoined upon the priests to teach as well as to minister to religion, it may be inferred, on strong *primá*

facie grounds, that education was very widely diffused among this "literature-loving" people. It may likewise be gathered from tradition, and inferred from the ordinances of the shastras (the embodiments of customary law), that the education of Hindu women of the higher classes was not altogether neglected.

5. Such are, in brief, the very general conclusions arrived at with regard to the state of public and private education, as developed under the Hindu polity when it existed in full force. These conclusions are pointed to by the rulings of the Sanhitas, by the traditions embodied in the Puranic legends, and by consideration of a state of things not yet quite passed away.

6. The case was not, in the main, different in the Lower Provinces, where the Brahminical hierarchy was as supreme and as completely organised as in the *madhya desh* (middle-land), in which the Hindu system attained maturity before extending to this part of the country. In this part, the non-Aryan element was large; but tols and pathsalas existed in much the same form among the village communities. The means of private and public instruction were there, although less use was made of them by the non-Aryan population before they were moulded and assimilated into Hinduism. The question, whether Hindus of the higher class are opposed to the instruction of the lower classes, would have appeared a strange one to the early Hindu settlers of Bengal, when they were absorbing the non-Aryans by providing for them places within the pale of caste, and by enlarging their own pantheon by the adoption of non-Aryan deities. This process of absorption at length brought about a revolution in society, under which the caste system lost for a time much of its strength. Buddhism spread over the whole country from its original seat of power in Behar. It attacked the Brahmin professors through its own men of learning. It set up its *viharas* as rivals of the tols. By its disintegrating action on the Brahmin, it altered to some extent the *personnel* of the pathsala teachers. It is to the Buddhistic time, in all probability, that we must trace the beginnings of that change under which the village schoolmaster is not found to be invariably the village priest and Brahmin, as he certainly was in early Hindu times. Thus was taken the second step in secularising the elementary schools of the country—a step which was not retraced (as such steps never are retraced) when Buddhism, after living side by side with Hinduism for some centuries, finally gave place to its rival.

7. The action of Buddhism on the pathsalas and its reaction on the tols were, on the whole, beneficial. Not so, however, the effects of the conquest of the country by a foreign people, which followed. The Mahomedan conquest proved disastrous to all indigenous educational institutions. The proprietary rights in land changed hands; in many cases the village communities had to meet the requisitions of landlords who were heedless or ignorant of their customs, and a foreign law became the law of the land. The language of the Courts was changed. Indigenous learning lost most of its supports; and after the country had settled down, the well-to-do classes of Hindus took gradually to the cultivation of a foreign language, literature, and manners. The tols were more and more deserted, and left to those only who wanted to learn the Hindu ritual. The pathsalas also fell more and more exclusively to those classes who are content with the bare elements of letters. In course of time the Musulman teachers and Musulman schools drew off the largest portion of the upper and middle classes of the community, and the tols and pathsalas either died off or barely managed to survive.

8. The history of Muhammadan domination in this country is a history of continued petty struggles, interrupted occasionally by great and serious outbreaks. Every part of the country was a battle-field at one time or another.

In the latter days central authority was gone and anarchy was supreme. Neither Hindu nor Muhammadan learning had any chance of revival, except in a complete political regeneration of the country. Equally balanced in strength as the two contending peoples were, there was little hope that either would achieve that regeneration. A third power, and one which, far from carrying within itself the seeds of early decay, had on the contrary the means of perpetual renovation, presented itself in this country with the advent of the British.

9. The British advanced in their influence and dominion step by step. In those days the modern view of the duty of Government, as regards the education of the people, had not commended itself to the national mind of Englishmen; and accordingly the body of English merchants, trading to this country and acquiring rights over its revenue, did not interest themselves in the education of a foreign people coming under their supremacy. That supremacy was in the beginning not felt to be empire. It is not at all surprising therefore, nor ought it to be reckoned against the Court of Directors, that they took no steps in the beginning of their rule towards the education of the Indian people, nor that, in the steps which they subsequently took with that object, they only followed, however distantly, in the wake of the ruling country.

10. The first Governor General under the East India Company established the Calcutta Madrassa in 1781, and the Company's Resident at Benares established the Benares Sanskrit College in 1791. These institutions were founded for the cultivation of the classical learning of Muhammadans and Hindus,—an object of at least as much direct usefulness in the administration of the Muhammadan and Hindu laws in force in this country as any attained in England by the schools and colleges, supported by old endowments, for the cultivation of Western classical learning. The establishment of the oriental colleges proceeded as much from a consideration of their direct utility, as from a wish to conciliate the most influential classes of the native community. They were also the effect of an unconscious imitation of what existed in the ruling country.

11. There was a more conscious and express imitation of the English polity, so far as was possible under the circumstances, in the permanent settlement of the land revenue of Bengal made by Lord Cornwallis in 1793. By giving stability to an influential body of native land-owners, this great settlement indirectly stimulated one of the two classes of indigenous educational institutions which have existed from immemorial times. The tols of Sanskrit learning had, from a distant period, enjoyed grants of land on which their professors and pupils subsisted. These rent-free tenures were augmented in value, and new ones were created, by the zemindars, who felt themselves secured in their position by the settlement. The effect of the new endowments was what might have been anticipated; there was a revival of Sanskrit learning in Bengal. It was felt in the production of Sanskrit treatises, and the establishment of different schools of law, philosophy, and *belles lettres* in different parts of the Province. But the revival was not strong, since the later provision that the purchaser of an estate was entitled to resume rent-free tenures created by the former proprietor, put an effectual stop to the further creation of such tenures by zemindars, and probably destroyed some that were already in existence.

12. It is not easy to conjecture how far the settlement of Lord Cornwallis affected the village pathsalas. The village communities in which they subsisted had lost many of their rights during the Muhammadan domination. But it is not beyond probability that custom had, in early times, made provision for the support of the pathsalas, as it had done for the support of the village police; that, at least in many villages, the customary rights were in force when the per-

manent settlement with the zemindars was made, and that, as no nice investigations were made nor rights recorded, these living rights were buried with dead ones in that great "leap in the dark." It must also be remembered that as the pathsalas had in many cases fallen into secular hands, and were but occasionally, and for short periods of time, resorted to by the children of the upper classes, it was no great merit to make endowments of land to them as it was to the tols of the learned Brahmins. The resumption measures did not touch them as perhaps they had touched the tols, and both lived on in a state of quiet depression, while Persian, which continued to be the language of the Courts, was cultivated as it had been under Muhammadan rule.

13. Educational activity was, however, changing direction under the altered circumstances of the country. In Calcutta and elsewhere teachers of Eurasian birth, and natives who had picked up a little English, were setting up schools or being entertained in families to teach English. The names of many of these pioneers of English education in Bengal were in the mouths of the last generation of natives. The missionaries also had come into the field; and the zeal, perseverance, and devotion displayed by these bodies, of every denomination, in educational work have been gratefully acknowledged by the people of the country from those early times to the present day. It may also be remarked, once for all, that the attitude of the East India Company towards Christian missionaries and missions in this country has not always been correctly understood. The Company have been charged with indifference and even with active hostility to all missionaries and missions alike. An examination of the history of Christian missions to India from their early commencement points, however, to a clear and significant distinction. It will be found that Christian missions conducted by foreigners, such as the Danes, the Dutch, and the Germans, who were first in the field, and who held it up to the time of the Company's assumption of the functions of Government, were not merely tolerated, but actively befriended by the servants of the Company. It was after their assumption of the duties and responsibilities of Government that the Company endeavoured, sometimes by the adoption of harsh measures, to check the influx and restrain the enthusiasm of missionaries, who now began to come in greater numbers from England. It seems to have been felt that to give active support or even countenance to a movement directed against the religious faith of the people who had come under their sway would be to take undue advantage of their position as rulers of the country.

14. English was now being sought after by the natives of Bengal, for the purposes of earning a livelihood, and of intercourse with Englishmen in office or engaged in trade. The Court of Directors, however, made no move whatever in favour of English education. They entertained proposals in 1811 for founding two Sanskrit colleges, one in Nuddea and the other in Tirhoot. The great public schools of England were schools of classical culture—"a culture which had built up for three centuries the worth and strength of the English upper and middle classes." The Court of Directors, it would seem, were for giving to their subject people what were deemed to be analogous gifts.

15. A strong movement had, however, commenced in England in favour of a system of education more directly useful and more closely bearing upon the lower classes of the community. A large number of what were called non-classical schools had been established on private endowments. The Madras system, otherwise called the Bell and Lancaster system, had come into vogue, inspiring benevolent and philanthropic associations with the hope of establishing a comprehensive system of national education. A general sentiment in favour of popular education was fast growing up, and it manifested itself in the discus-

sions which preceded the grant of the Company's charter in 1813. A clause of the charter provided that "a sum of one lakh of rupees was to be set apart from the surplus revenues, and applied to the revival and improvement of literature and the encouragement of the learned natives of India, and for the introduction and promotion of a knowledge of the sciences among the inhabitants of British India." A single lakh of rupees granted for such large and varied purposes was certainly very inadequate. But the insufficiency of the grant was probably a smaller difficulty than the absence of all necessary means for its right application. In England, the work of popular education was being taken up by old or new associations, more or less closely connected with religious bodies; there was no idea of any but denominational schools. Those lines could not be taken up in this country. The pledge of religious neutrality prevented aid being given by Government to the Christian missionaries, who had come over with proselytising objects. Thus matters were at a stand-still. Efforts, however, of a character similar to those in England, although necessarily on a very much smaller scale, were not altogether wanting here. Charitable individuals and associations interested themselves in popular education, and established schools here and there on the Bell and Lancaster system, the system which was being made much of at that time in England. Such were Mr. Ellerton's, Captain Stewart's, and Mr. May's schools in the districts.

16. The establishment in 1816 of the Hindu College of Calcutta by the voluntary contributions of wealthy Hindus, for the education in English of the children of superior castes, marks out definitely the expression of a felt want of the people. From that time educational efforts, whether made by private individuals, or by charitable associations, or by missionary bodies, were not confined, as they had mainly been heretofore, to the establishment and improvement of vernacular schools. The School Book Society, established in 1817, undertook to prepare books fit for school use, both in English and in the vernacular. In 1819, the School Society set on foot the project of establishing schools, both English and vernacular, all over the country, commencing from Calcutta as the centre. It is hardly necessary to add that all such societies and projects had their prototypes in England, while of Government action in the ruling country in the matter of public instruction there was in those days an entire absence. Parliamentary Committees had, however, sat for inquiry, and pressure from outside had tended to multiply such Committees between 1816 and 1820. The Government of India appointed in 1823 an honorary board, consisting of some of its distinguished officers, for the control and supervision of education in these provinces. This was the Committee of Public Instruction.

17. The Committee, as might have been expected, continued to work on the old lines, devoting their energies to the promotion of Oriental learning among the literary classes of Muhammadans and Hindus. A large number of Sanskrit works which had gone out of use in the toils of Bengal, and many Arabic and Persian works which had perhaps never been much known among the Muslims of these parts, were edited and printed under the supervision of the Committee. The Committee established in 1824 the Calcutta Sanskrit College against the expressed wishes of a body of native memorialists, with Raja Ram Mohun Roy at their head, who prayed that the college might be for English, and not Sanskrit teaching. From this time began that controversy between the partisans of English and of Oriental education, which, in this part of the country at least, has long been finally settled. No settlement, however, could be thought of when the controversy was at its height in 1832. Macaulay, who had not spoken with much reverence of the "long words and long

beards" of his own classical Greece and Rome, had no tolerance for the "seas of curd, milk, and honey" of the Puranic Hindus. His burning contempt of Oriental learning determined the Government Resolution of March 1835, which decided in favour of English education, to the entire neglect alike of Oriental and of vernacular instruction. The change, although it may be thought to have gone too far, was decidedly in the direction which the natives themselves most wished it to take. All schools, whether started by missionaries or by others, in which English was not taught, had heretofore failed because the people did not want them. The line of educational policy to be followed was at last clear and open, being as much in accordance with the popular wish as it was conducive to administrative efficiency. Impressed with the views of Lord William Bentinck, who passed the Resolution of March 1835, successive Governors increased the number of English schools and colleges, and encouraged their students by the foundation of scholarships, and by the preference accorded to them in the selection for honourable appointments in the public service. It was judged rightly that the knowledge imbibed with, and the intelligence evoked by, English education, however incompatible they might be with a blind belief in false theories of science and history, could not sap the foundations of a morality which was, in essentials, common to both pupil and teacher; and that the ties which bound fast the ruled to the ruler would, under the system of education introduced, become identified with those which bound the disciple to the master. Schools of Latin constituted one of the strongest bonds which held fast her provinces to Imperial Rome.

18. It was also rightly judged by those who fostered and extended English education in Bengal that this education would prove most effective in improving and enriching the vernaculars, for it was seen distinctly that English education not only supplied a body of competent and trustworthy men for the public service, but that, where it was received in any large measure, it did for the natives much what the study of Latin and Greek had done in Europe at the Renaissance. It enlarged their minds, corrected their taste, elevated their feelings, and brought within their field of vision the whole world of modern living thought. Under such circumstances, authorship must necessarily follow; and it followed so quickly and so well that Government has had to do little or nothing directly for the production of Bengali books suitable either for school use or for general reading. Education in English was therefore expected to perform a threefold function—to prepare a body of competent public servants, to diffuse European knowledge, and to elevate the moral and intellectual tone of the people. No one can seriously question that in Bengal English education has served all these useful purposes. The celebrated Dr. Duff, of the Church of Scotland, had come to the deliberate conclusion that the employment of English as the medium of instruction would most effectively promote the general spread of liberal education, and thereby bring about the intellectual, moral, and religious elevation of the people of India; and although he had some vernacular schools under him, he laid most stress on the work of the English school which he opened in Calcutta in 1830, and which proved at one time to be no unworthy rival of the Hindu College.

19. But movements for the extension of education to the masses of the people were fast progressing in England, and Parliamentary grants for such purposes had begun to be made from 1833. The subject, therefore, could not be altogether overlooked here. Lord William Bentinck, a consistent supporter of the principle of English education, caused inquiries to be made with regard to the village pathshalas, which were estimated by Mr. Adam at about one hundred

thousand. A great impulse was given to vernacular education by the freedom conferred on the Press by Act XI of 1835, and a still greater impulse by the abolition of Persian from the Courts, which was effected under the provisions of Act XXIX of 1837. But in those days the direct education of the masses of the people in their own vernacular was not even thought of by Government. It was believed that education imparted to the upper classes must in time descend to the lower. This is the 'filtration' theory of education; and it was accepted here just as it had been accepted in England in the sixteenth century, when it was declared that "if the nobility be well trained in learning, the people would follow the same train." The determination of the schoolmaster's sphere, implied in the filtration theory, is the natural outcome of the circumstances under which public instruction commences in all countries. Not only is the field extensive and the means to work it small, but there is an instinctive perception that the progress of a people requires a body constituted out of itself to proceed in advance. But apart from this law of progress, which is borne out by all human history, ordinary practical considerations necessitate the limitations imposed by the filtration theory. If with sums, for instance, which were at the disposal of the Committee of Public Instruction, and which barely amounted to one lakh of rupees in 1823, and to $4\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs in 1835, the Committee had undertaken to establish vernacular schools of their own, or to improve the hundred thousand pathshalas which Bengal had been estimated to contain, or to establish small vernacular scholarships instead of substantial English scholarships as they did in 1839, they could not have achieved any tangible results. They could not have found a competent inspecting staff, nor a body of efficient teachers, nor any school books more suitable than the missionary publications of early times, which had never been able to make their way into indigenous schools. By limiting their efforts as they did, they prepared a body of useful and trustworthy public servants, stimulated the intelligence of a growing middle class, and brought vernacular authorship into existence.

20. The lines of action laid down in those days seem to have correctly anticipated the popular want; and subsequent advances, although made under other influences, have followed very closely on the same lines. The country was divided into nine educational circles, each of which was to be provided with a central college, and with as many zillah schools as there were districts in the circle. The circles were those of (1) Calcutta, (2) Hooghly, (3) Kishnaghur, (4) Moorshedabad, (5) Dacca, (6) Chittagong, (7) Cuttack, (8) Bhagulpore, (9) Behar.

21. The zillah schools were to be connected with the colleges by a system of scholarships, which would give "to the ablest students of zillah schools a stimulus that will carry them beyond the ordinary range of instruction, which is imparted by the mass of zillah schools." The object was "to communicate through the means of the English language a superior education in European literature, philosophy, and science to the greatest number of students who may be found ready to accept it." Other scholarships of higher value were founded for the ablest of the college students, under the conviction that these would prove effectual, as they had done in European countries, in stimulating literary culture of a higher order among the natives. A Government Resolution, dated 20th October 1844, directed the Council of Education to examine candidates for employment in the public service, and to publish their names in order of merit. This examination was conducted along with the examination for senior scholarships. In this way, higher education in Bengal was being

carried out on clear and definite lines, and encouraged with true earnestness and foresight.

22. But the requirements of the diffusion of useful knowledge among the masses had begun to grow more and more urgent in England; and "the necessity for teaching our masters" having been felt from the extension of the franchise in 1832, a Committee of the Privy Council had been instituted in 1839 for the administration of popular education. In this country three years later, when a separate Governor was appointed for the North-Western Provinces, occasion was taken to establish a Council of Education for the control of education in Bengal. This Council too had a paid Secretary, and for some time a paid professional Inspector; and the local boards created in 1835 were also appointed to work under it. The statistics of education in Bengal for the year 1842-43, the first year of the Council, are given in a tabulated form:—

Schools, pupils, scholarships, and expenditure in the year 1842-43.

CLASS OF INSTITUTIONS.	Number of Institutions.	Number of Pupils.	NUMBER OF STIPENDS OR SCHOLARSHIPS OFFERED.				Value of the Scholarships.	Government grant for the year.
			English.		Oriental.			
			Senior.	Junior.	Senior.	Junior.		
Colleges, English, with collegiate schools and the Calcutta pathsala	7	1,826	} 33	} 32	} 94	} 65	Rs. 19,165	Rs. 4,12,284
Colleges, professional	1	87						
Colleges, Oriental	2	371						
English schools	16	2,190						
Ditto infant schools	1	54						
Bhaugulpore hill school	1	104						
TOTAL	23	4,632						

Number of masters, 58; number of assistant masters, 133.

23. The statement here given of the educational institutions of the Lower Provinces in 1842-43, and of the expenditure on them, is defective in many respects. It does not include the schools and colleges unconnected with Government, and it altogether omits the vast number of tols, madrassas, pathsalas, and mukhtabs, which lay scattered over the country.

24. The private seminaries for superior education, which existed in and about Calcutta, were, however, invited by the Council of Education to send their pupils, along with the students of Government colleges, for examination, and for enrolment as candidates for the public service under the Resolution of October 1844. The same Resolution had likewise ruled that "in selecting for employment in the lowest offices, preference should be given to a man who can read and write to one who cannot." This involved some recognition of indigenous schools. A more direct step in favour of vernacular education had been taken by ruling that vernacular classes should be opened in the zillah schools, and subsequently by ordering the establishment of 101 vernacular schools in different districts throughout the provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa. The history of these 101 vernacular schools, or Hardinge schools as they were called, has some interest. Reports of them, in greater or less detail, were submitted annually by the Board of Revenue, under whom they had been placed. The reports prove that the sites for the schools had been selected with judgment; that the district officers mostly took interest in their progress; that they were, as a rule, visited during their cold-weather tours. Yet the schools declined. The Board of Revenue declared their unwillingness to give up the schools as long as they had "the least vitality." The cause of the decline of the schools, as

stated in the reports of district officers, may be summed up in the following words of one of the Commissioners: "There is not a village in Bengal in which the people cannot get their children taught Bengali and arithmetic. They do not like to send their children to distances from home, or to pay higher fees for what they can get at their doors. English they value. They ask for it, and will pay for it." It is thus seen that the few vernacular schools started by Government found their places already occupied. If strenuous efforts had been made at the time to root out the village pathsalas and to plant Government schools in their stead, it would not have been impossible to create so-called voluntary cesses, on which to support the schools, and subsequently to increase their number. It was a critical time in the history of public instruction in Bengal. It was a time when the existence of the indigenous schools was felt too clearly as a fact to allow any subsequent schemes of popular education to be framed quite irrespective of them. When Lord Dalhousie called upon the Council of Education to propose some plan of vernacular education like that which was then being carried out in the North-Western Provinces, the Council was unable to take the simple course of ignoring the indigenous schools and setting up a system of schools of their own. On the contrary, they invited expressions of opinion on the subject of the village schools that existed, and suggestions for their improvement.

25. It is not quite accurate, therefore, to say that the Local Government and the Council of Education neglected vernacular education in Bengal. What they really did was this. They did not destroy the means of popular education which existed in the country, and the way to improve which by direct interference they were unable to see. They confined themselves to making indirect efforts. They encouraged the preparation of good books in the vernacular. They carried out reformations in the two Oriental colleges, and those effected in the Sanskrit College were calculated to produce a healthy influence on Bengali literature. The Council of Education made vernacular scholarship tell in their junior and senior scholarship examinations.

26. These examinations the Council were using as their great lever for elevating the standard of education in all directions. Their application of these high tests for the selection of candidates for public employment was misapprehended by the managers of missionary colleges in Calcutta, who contended that their pupils, being under the necessity of learning other things than those in which the examinations were held, were placed under great disadvantages in the competition. This controversy is remarkable as being that in which the idea was for the first time put forth that the Government should give up its colleges. It was communicated in a letter, addressed to the Council of Education by the Chairman of the Missionary Conference. That letter, however, it must be added, was declared in a Resolution of the Conference to embody the personal opinion of the Chairman, and not that of the missionaries as a body.

27. The Council of Education, who were framing a scheme for a University in Calcutta, felt that all controversies of this kind would be put a stop to on their proposals being accepted. It was a time when new colleges and a new University had been established in Ireland on large Parliamentary grants. The Council of Education had found that "their senior scholarship examinations were fully equal in extent to the Bachelor examinations of Cambridge, Oxford, and Dublin, and much more so than that of the *Bacheliers des Arts* of the Sorbonne of Paris." They proposed to add Chairs in Law, Civil Engineering, and Natural Philosophy to their Metropolitan College, while the Medical College would supply

candidates for degrees in medicine and surgery. They were confident that "natives professionally educated and socially elevated (as they would be by taking University degrees) would afford healthy competition to professional Europeans."

28. The Council prepared a scheme, based chiefly on M. Victor Cousin's report on the schools of Holland and Belgium, for the examination of candidates for employment and promotion in the Education Department. And with the same object in view, for the improvement of schoolmasters, the Council established a Normal School in Calcutta. This school, however, had to be shortly given up, partly for want of immediate success, and partly for want of funds.

29. Ordered by the Governor General to take under their charge the work of female education, the Council invited the suggestions and co-operation of influential members of the native community, and female schools began to start up here and there. The vernacular schools in the interior were, at the same time, transferred from the charge of the Revenue Board to that of the Council of Education.

30. It is thus seen that the different lines on which educational operations have proceeded up to the present day had all been laid down at less or greater length before the issue of the Education Despatch of 19th July 1854, which followed the renewal of the Company's Charter, and which, in the words of Lord Dalhousie, "carried the scheme of national education beyond the limits which any Governor General could have gone to."

PART II.

FROM 1854 TO 1881.

31. From the rapid survey which has been taken of the educational history of Bengal down to the time of the Despatch of 1854, it has been seen that the country possessed from very early times systems of schools both for higher and for elementary instruction; that these systems, although much disorganised and weakened by the foreign conquest of the country, were never entirely destroyed; and that, as the British rule became consolidated, it began to bring the country under a new set of influences, which were being developed by a progressive race for the organisation of its own national education. The educational movements in the ruling country, which have been occasionally referred to in the course of the preceding narrative, have accounted in some measure for all the educational operations carried on in the dependency, as they proceeded slowly or quickly at different times in one direction or another. The famous places of classical education in England were represented, however imperfectly, by the Oriental colleges established in this country; the great organised societies in England for the diffusion of useful knowledge and instruction had their miniature counterpart in the charitable individuals and associations by whose agency English and vernacular schools were opened; and the period of "modern," as distinguished from classical education in England, had its representative in Bengal in the years in which English schools and colleges were established and encouraged. The differences of scale in the analogous movements are not greater than may be accounted for by the differences subsisting between the two countries in national wealth, in the spirit of self-help, and in the powers of internal organisation.

32. In the narrative now to be entered upon it will be seen how, with the

increased facilities of communication and intercourse, and the closer relations in matters of Government, between the two countries, the educational administration of the dependency has endeavoured to follow in the wake of the ruling country, and with what results.

33. That popular education is one of the duties of Government is a doctrine which was not accepted by the English till about fifty years ago. The traditional English maxim as to the functions of Government strictly limits those functions to the preservation of peace and security. This was the natural outcome of the history of a race that had learnt to be jealous of centralised authority in its struggles for freedom. It was for this reason that, while all other European States were making rapid advances in popular education, the British Parliament made no grant for education till 1832, nor was there anything like the beginning of a Department of Public Instruction till 1839.

34. But the extension of the elective franchise in 1832, and the growing competition of Continental manufactures, made the nation feel the necessity of educating its labouring and artisan classes. If England was to hold her place in the commercial and industrial markets of the world, popular education must become a Government concern. The idea began to develop. From the maxim which limited the functions of Government to the preservation of security a corollary was deduced. It was argued that because crime diminished with education, and because it was better to prevent crime than to punish it, therefore to educate the poorer classes came within the legitimate functions of Government. In England, where the upper and middle classes had ample means provided for their education by old endowments, the nation's laid-up capital, the question of course did not occur how far it was the business of Government to see that the upper and middle classes had the means of education. But, in those parts of the British Empire where higher and lower education were alike backward, both received the attention of Government, because it was seen that, not only for national progress, but for internal security also, it was necessary that the higher classes should be more fully educated than the lower.

35. Proceeding on these corollaries, drawn from the fundamental maxim which defined the functions of Government, grants-in-aid began to be made in England, at first for school buildings, teachers' houses, and training colleges, and afterwards for the maintenance also of schools; and about the same time (1845—53) the Queen's Colleges, with the Queen's University at their head, were established for "imparting and extending the opportunities for academical education in Ireland."

The principle of secular education had also found in England a very distinct utterance at the Manchester Conference (1851), attended by Mr. Cobden and by delegates from different parts of the kingdom. It was declared at that Conference "that any system of public schools to be generally acceptable to the people of this country must be confined to secular instruction."

36. It was after these great educational measures and movements had been set on foot in the United Kingdom, and after the renewal of the East India Company's Charter in 1853, that the Educational Despatch of the Directors, dated 19th July 1854, came out to India.

37. This great State paper, justly called the Educational Charter of India, would hardly deserve the name if its object were not large and national. Even a hasty glance over the 100 paragraphs of which it consists will show how clearly it marked out the spheres of usefulness of all classes of institutions, Oriental, English, and vernacular, then working in the country; how it

widened and enlarged in all directions the field of public instruction; and how it cared, in due measure, for the educational interests of the entire community. The Despatch will be quoted largely in the course of this narrative, but its scope and character will be fully seen in the first few paragraphs. It sets out with a declaration that the education of the Indian people is to be undertaken by Government as "a sacred duty," (1) because education is auxiliary to those efforts which Government have made and are making for the prevention and repression of crime; (2) because it is necessary to create a body of public servants capable of, and trustworthy in, the discharge of public duties; and (3) because education will conduce to that material prosperity and well-being of the Indian people, which will prove beneficial to both England and India.

38. There is some danger of mistaking the object and character of a State paper which first introduced the grant-in-aid system to this country,—a system under which elementary instruction only was being carried out in England. But the really comprehensive character of the first Code (the Despatch of 1854) is best seen in the summary afterwards given of it in the revised Code (the Despatch of 1859). The 3rd paragraph of that Despatch runs as follows:—

The improvement and far wider extension of education, both English and vernacular, having been the general objects of the Despatch of 1854, the means prescribed for the accomplishment of those objects were—(1) the constitution of a separate department of the administration for the work of education; (2) the institution of Universities at the several Presidency towns; (3) the establishment of training institutions for raising up teachers for the various classes of schools; (4) the maintenance of the existing Government colleges and schools of a high order, and the increase of their number when necessary; (5) the establishment of additional zillah or middle schools; (6) increased attention to Vernacular schools for elementary education, including the indigenous schools already existing throughout the country; and, finally (7) the introduction of a system of grants-in-aid, under which the efforts of private individuals and of local communities would be stimulated and encouraged by pecuniary grants from Government, in consideration of a good secular education being afforded in the aided schools.

39. The objects of the Despatch being thus not one but many, not the limitation of State expenditure and efforts to elementary instruction, but the extension and improvement of education of every class, a review of the historical progress of operations under the Despatch must necessarily fall under many different heads. These heads, as they concern the Lower Provinces, may conveniently be arranged nearly after the order laid down in paragraph 3, above quoted, of the Despatch of 1859. They will be—

- (1) The Department of Public Instruction.
- (2) The Calcutta University, and the Colleges (general, professional, and Oriental).
- (3) The zillah schools.
- (4) Middle schools.
- (5) Elementary Vernacular schools, including Indigenous schools.
- (6) Training schools.
- (7) Technical schools.
- (8) Girls' schools.
- (9) The grant-in-aid system.

40. As the narrative proceeds under these several heads, it will mark off definite stages in the progress of education—stages which will be seen to have some correspondence with those that have constituted distinct educational epochs in England.

- (A) The first period will be from 1854 to 1862-63.
- (B) The second period from 1862-63 to 1870-71.
- (C) The third period from 1870-71 to 1880-81.

A—1854 to 1862-63.

(1) *The Bengal Education Department.*

41. It had been laid down in the Despatch of 1854 (paragraphs 17 to 21) that a separate and distinct department of the public service should be framed for the control and administration of education, that the head of the department should be assisted by a body of Inspectors, and that, in the beginning, it would be advisable to select gentlemen of the Covenanted Civil Service to take up these duties. Under these provisions, there were appointed in 1855 a Director of Public Instruction, with four Inspectors of Schools and one Assistant or Special Inspector. The Director and two of the Inspectors belonged to the Covenanted Civil Service, the other two Inspectors were Europeans, and the Assistant Inspector was a Native gentleman of much repute and learning, who was also the Principal of the Calcutta Sanskrit College. These officers were assisted by 40 Sub (afterwards Deputy) Inspectors, all natives. The constitution of the Department will be seen at a glance from the subjoined table—

	Rs.
1 Director	2,500
4 Inspectors	4,250
1 Assistant (Special) Inspector	200
40 Sub (or Deputy) Inspectors	100 to 150

42. This constitution remained nearly unchanged up to about the close of the first period. The only change of importance that occurred in the meanwhile was the appointment of another European Inspector on Rs. 550 per month, and the abolition of the post of Assistant or Special Inspector, on the resignation of the gentleman who held it.

43. The Department, at its first constitution on the 27th January 1855, received charge from the Council of Education of the institutions shown in the following statement:—

CLASS OF INSTITUTIONS.	Number of Institutions.	Number of Pupils.	Number of Teachers.	Government Expenditure.	Total Expenditure.
				Rs.	Rs.
Colleges general	5	192	15	} 5,94,428	7,43,437
Colleges, professional	1	110	14		
Colleges, Oriental	3	729	39		
Anglo-Vernacular schools, including Collegiate schools	47	7,412	291		
Government Middle Vernacular schools	26	1,441	27		
Elementary Vernacular schools in Assam	69	3,279	69		
TOTAL	151	13,163	455

(2) *The Calcutta University.*

44. Immediately on the appointment of the Director of Public Instruction he was invited to associate himself with a body of gentlemen of learning and position, who had been asked to frame a scheme for the constitution of the Calcutta University. The Despatch of 1854 had laid down (paragraphs 24 to 35) a general plan for the Universities: and a University for Calcutta, framed on that plan, was incorporated by Act II of 1857, and held its first examination in the month of March of that year. Eight Government colleges (five general and three professional) and six non-Government colleges (all general) were affiliated to the University from the commencement. The Government colleges were those of the Presidency, Hooghly, Dacca, Kishnaghur, and Berhampore, together with the Medical College, the Engineering College, and the Law Department of the Presidency College. The private colleges

were the Doveton, the Free Church Institution, LaMartinière, the London Mission College, and St. Paul's School, all in Calcutta, and the Baptist Mission College at Serampore. The Court of Directors had said that "the detailed regulations for the examination for degrees should be framed with a due regard for all classes of affiliated institutions; that there are many persons who well deserve the distinction of an academical degree, as the recognition of a liberal education, who could not hope to obtain it if the examination was as difficult as that for the Government senior scholarships" (paragraph 29).

45. The necessity for reducing the standard, as the Court of Directors had advised, was at once seen from the poor results of the first examination, in which only two students from the Presidency College obtained degrees, and these were conferred by favour. From the following year the standard was lowered. The Presidency College brought up the great majority of the candidates who obtained degrees. "Of the private institutions at the Presidency, all were, what indeed they professed to be, good schools. Of the Government colleges in the interior, excluding the Hooghly College, none had any staff of professors." With such colleges for its component parts, the Calcutta University could take no high place. Its Entrance Examination was low as compared with similar examinations, where they are held, of European universities (see Appendix A). The standard of that examination was still further lowered by throwing out of it, within the first two years, such subjects as Elementary Zoology, Vegetable and Animal Physiology, and Mechanics,—subjects the study of which would have applied, as the Council of Education believed, a direct corrective to the speculative bias of the Indian mind.

46. If educational institutions in this country are classified in accordance with systems which obtain in Europe, those only will be called colleges which teach for recognised degrees, those High schools which teach up to the First Arts, and those Middle schools which teach up to the present Entrance standard. Under such a classification the Zillah schools should be placed in the same category with Middle or Intermediate schools, as they were by the Court of Directors. The 43rd paragraph of their Despatch runs as follows:—

We include in this class of institutions those which, like the Zillah schools of Bengal, the District Government Anglo-Vernacular schools of Bombay, use the English language as the chief medium of instruction; as well as others of an inferior order, such as the Tahsili schools in the North-Western Provinces, and the Government Vernacular schools in the Bombay Presidency.

47. There is therefore reason for believing that in the classification now made, under which institutions teaching up to the First Arts standard are called colleges, and those teaching up to the Entrance High schools, there has been a departure from the instructions of the Court of Directors,—a departure which has helped to cause misunderstanding with regard to the extent to which high education has been actually carried.

48. The results of the University examinations from 1857 to 1881 will be found tabulated in Appendix B.

49. The number of colleges was increased in 1862-63 by the establishment of one college (general) at Patna. The Sanskrit College of Calcutta was affiliated in 1860. Two non-Government colleges (Bishop's and St. Xavier's) were affiliated respectively in 1860 and 1862.

50. The statistics of the colleges affiliated to the University are here given for the first and last years of the educational period which forms the subject of this portion of the narrative.

	Institutions.	Pupils.
1854-55.		
Government colleges (general)	5	192
Ditto (professional)	3	...
Non-Government colleges (general)	6	...
1862-63.		
Government colleges (general)	7	579
Ditto (professional)	3	456
Non-Government colleges (general)	8	...

51. Provision for scholarships in Zillah schools and collegiate institutions had been to some extent made during the time of the Council of Education. That body eagerly availed itself of every opportunity for the creation of scholarships out of donations suitable for the purpose. When the Council made over charge of its office to the Director of Public Instruction there were—

24 Government and 11 endowed senior scholarships	
from	Rs. 12 to 40 a month.
178 junior scholarships at	„ 8 a month.
2 endowed scholarships at	„ 8 a month.
1 medal	„ 12.

Ten of the endowed senior scholarships were converted into seven graduate scholarships, two at Rs. 50, two at Rs. 40, and three at Rs. 30, open to those only who had graduated from the Presidency College and wished to read for honours. These scholarships were called for the most part after the names of the principal donors to the old Hindu College, and in consideration of their origin were, under the orders of Government in 1863, confined to Hindu students. The value of the scholarships was as follows:—

	Rs.
Burdwan scholarship	50
Dwarkanath Tagore scholarship	50
Bird scholarship	40
Ryan scholarship	40
Gopi Mohan Tagore scholarship	30
Two foundation scholarships, each	30

52. By the rules of 1861-62, senior scholarships were thrown open to all institutions, Government and private.

(3) Zillah Schools.

53. The Zillah schools which, on the first institution of the University, sent up candidates to the Entrance Examination of 1857 had before that time been preparing students to compete for the Government junior scholarships. Their standard was higher than that of the University. But the necessity of bringing down the standard, to suit the capacities of candidates from other than Government institutions, not only lowered the general status of education, but also diverted it from the useful direction it was taking. The Government Zillah schools, and the Aided schools which had made them their models, would long since have made definite progress in the direction of what were called “real schools” in Germany, if they had not been prematurely brought down to a lower level. Thus, instead of that education “useful in every sphere of life,” which the Court of Directors desired that this class of schools should impart, they did no better than teach a little English, a little mathematics, and a very little history and geography. That these schools should direct their course by the examinations of the University was natural. All schools ultimately guide themselves by the standard prescribed for their class. On the other hand, the depression of the standard was practically inevitable.

It is a truism that examination standards frame themselves ultimately on the capacities of the examinees. They cannot be kept up even by an independent body like an examining University.

54. The junior scholarships, 178 in number, and of the monthly value of Rs. 8 each, had formerly been competed for by Zillah and Collegiate schools. They were thrown open in 1861-62 to competition by all schools, Government, aided, and unaided. They were at the same time raised in value, and divided into three classes, of Rs. 18, 14, and 10; the privilege of free tuition being at the same time taken away, and the scholarships reduced from 178 to 160 in number. The number of Zillah schools at the close of this period was 46.

(4) *Middle Schools.*

55. The instructions of the Court of Directors with regard to the development of Vernacular schools are stated in paragraph 44 of the Despatch. "We include," says the Court, "these Anglo-Vernacular [Zillah] and Vernacular schools in the same class, because we are unwilling to maintain the broad line of separation which at present exists between schools in which the *media* for imparting instruction differ." The object the Court had in view was, as they had said, to impart European knowledge to the people of India, and not to teach them the English language only. The University of Calcutta also had provided, in Rule 7 of its first regulations for the Entrance Examination, that in geography, history, and mathematics, the answers might be given in any living language. It was expected that, under the shadow of this regulation, a class of schools in which English would be taught as a language only, and all other subjects through the Vernacular, would spring up; and thus create such necessities for the preparation of school and other books as would lead to a wider diffusion of European knowledge among the people. Possibly, such expectations would have been fulfilled to a much greater extent than they have yet been, if the rule of the University permitting answers to be given in certain papers in the Vernacular had been allowed to stand to this day. The rule might have brought about the preparation of Vernacular school-books in elementary science; and, from their greater ease in this form to beginners, might have led to the re-introduction into the Entrance Course of those subjects which had been removed from it, and have thus brought it nearer to corresponding standards in Europe. No such healthy reaction of the improvement of Vernacular education on English schools took place. The schools in which English was taught as a language only, and all other subjects in the Vernacular, never rose to the status which the Court of Directors seem evidently to have desired. The Calcutta University withdrew the permissive rule it had framed, and in 1861-62 ruled that "all answers in each branch shall be given in English, except when otherwise specified."

56. Thus Vernacular schools, even though they teach English in some measure, do not come up, as at one time it was expected they would, to the status of Zillah schools preparing candidates for the Entrance Examination. Vernacular schools are therefore either Middle or Elementary under the classification in vogue.

Middle Vernacular Schools.

57. The number of these schools under the grant-in-aid system was 111 in 1857-58, and in 1862-63 it was 251; 320 Middle Vernacular scholarships of the value of Rs. 4 per month, half of them tenable for four years and half for

one year, were created for them in 1855—57. The Government Vernacular schools, which were 26 (Hardinge schools) in 1854-55, rose in 1862-63 to 175, with 11,010 pupils. Of these, 23 schools under the Assistant Inspector were not allowed, so long as they remained under that officer, to compete for scholarships.

(5) *Elementary Vernacular Schools.*

58. The only Elementary Vernacular schools under the Department in 1854-55 were 69 in Assam with 3,279 pupils. In 1862-63 the number rose to 530 with 22,625 pupils. It should be noted that these Elementary schools were only a small and insignificant portion of the vast body of village pathsalas in the country, out of which they had been taken by the departmental officers, and brought under different processes of improvement, some of which had been recommended for imitation in the Despatch of 1859. These schools had as yet no scholarships created for them.

(6) *Training Schools.*

59. Such improvement of Vernacular schools as the Department of Public Instruction wished to effect could not be brought about without training up a body of capable teachers for these schools. The desire expressed by the Directors (paragraph 67) "for the establishment with as little delay as possible of training schools and classes for masters" was accordingly carried into effect. In 1856-57 there were established four Normal schools, which together trained 352 pupils for teacherships in Government and Aided Middle Vernacular schools.

60. For teachers in English schools the Department had to depend upon the ordinary English colleges and schools, which supplied candidates for the teachership examinations instituted by the Council of Education. These examinations were discontinued after 1860. From that time graduates and under-graduates of the University, as well as others who have appeared at any of the examinations or read any of the courses prescribed by the University, have been employed as teachers in English schools, Government and Aided, without any special examination or subsequent training.

61. The training of teachers for Elementary Vernacular schools was not undertaken at the outset. The advice given by the Court of Directors, that "the teachers of Indigenous schools should be dealt with carefully and not provoked to hostility," was kept steadily in view by the Department. In 1862-63, however, three schools for the training of teachers of Indigenous schools were started. These had 225 pupil teachers on their rolls. They belong to the second period of this chapter.

(7) *Technical Schools.*

62. After having declared (paragraph 78) that the views of the natives of India should be directed to pursuits of independent usefulness, and to the acquisition of professional skill and knowledge (paragraphs 79-80), the Directors stated (paragraph 81) that they would sanction grants-in-aid to such schools for the supply of models and other assistance. No action was taken on this part of the Despatch. It should be noticed, however, that a school of Arts and Design had been set up in Calcutta in those earlier days when benevolent gentlemen and societies were actively imitating the educational operations of similar bodies in England; that members of the Council of Education had encouraged it by giving occasional prizes to its students; and that this school was very early taken under the system of grants-in-aid.

(8) Girls' Schools.

63. The Directors (paragraph 88) strongly approved the order which the Governor General had issued in 1848-49, to the effect that "female education should receive the cordial and frank support of Government." There were, at the time of that order, the Bethune Girls' School in Calcutta and another girls' school at Baraset, besides some girls' schools under missionary societies and private management. The name of Mrs. Wilson may here be mentioned as that of the pioneer of female education in public schools in Bengal.

64. The Despatch of 1854 had some immediate effect in stimulating the progress of this class of schools. A sum of Rs. 1,000 a month was assigned for the establishment of Government schools for girls, and for the support of Aided schools, in the metropolitan districts under the supervision of the special Inspector. About 40 schools were started by that officer in Burdwan, Hooghly, and the 24-Pergunnahs. But the Mutiny intervened, the education of girls in the public schools of the country was strongly criticised, and the financial pressure which followed caused the assignment to be discontinued. Under the operations of the grant-in-aid system the number slowly increased from year to year, until in 1862-63 there were 35 girls' schools with 1,183 pupils on the rolls.

(9) Grants-in-aid.

65. The Court of Directors had, in several places in the Despatch, expressed their desire that the further development of education in India should be promoted by means of the grant-in-aid system. The introduction of this system was necessitated by "the impossibility of Government alone doing all that must be done in order to provide adequate means for the education of the natives of India." They went on to explain their objects and measures:—

- (1) "The most effectual method of providing for the wants of India in this respect will be to combine with the agency of the Government the aid which may be derived from the exertions and liberality of the educated and wealthy natives of India and of other benevolent persons." (Para. 51.)
- (2) "We have, therefore, resolved to adopt in India the system of grants-in-aid, which has been carried out in this country with very great success; and we confidently anticipate, by thus drawing support from local resources, in addition to contributions from the State, a far more rapid progress of education than would follow a mere increase of expenditure by the Government; while it possesses the additional advantage of fostering a spirit of reliance upon local exertions and of combination for local purposes, which is of itself of no mean importance to the well-being of a nation." (Para. 52.)
- (3) "The system of grants-in-aid, which we propose to establish in India, will be based on an entire abstinence from interference with the religious instruction conveyed in the school assisted." (Para. 53.)
- (4) "Aid will be given (so far as the requirements of each particular district, as compared with others, and the funds at the disposal of Government may render it possible) to all schools which impart a good secular education," provided (1) that they are under adequate local management; (2) that as a general rule the schools require some fee, however small, from their scholars;

(3) that the schools and their records are open to the inspection of Government officers; and (4) that the reports of the Inspectors appointed by Government be favourable. (Paras. 53-56.)

(5) "No Government colleges or schools shall be founded for the future in any district where a sufficient number of schools exist capable, with assistance from the State, of supplying the local demand for education." (Para. 61.)

(6) "We look forward to the time when any general system of education entirely provided by Government may be discontinued, with the gradual advance of the system of grants-in-aid." (Para. 62.)

66. In subsequent letters of the Court of Directors various points connected with the grant-in-aid system are explained, thus—

(1) "We should lament the failure of the attempt to bring into extended operation the system of grants-in-aid, to which we attach the greatest importance as an auxiliary to the direct measures of our Government for the extension and improvement of general education." (31st January 1856.)

(2) "As the people . . . are not willing to accept English education except at a Government institution, . . . we desire that the subject be re-considered, with the view of constituting the school [to which aid had been given] . . . a Government school." (24th June 1856.)

(3) "We are not altogether satisfied with the manner in which the system of grants-in-aid has been administered in Bengal, and we entertain serious doubts whether it will be practicable to base on that system, as carried out under the provisional rules adopted with your sanction, a general plan of popular education. This, indeed, was not our purpose in originally sanctioning the principle of grants-in-aid. The institutions, which we had especially in view as coming within the scope of the system, were those for promoting education of a higher order." (May 1858.)

67. From these extracts it will be seen that, although the Court of Directors laid great weight on the grant-in-aid system as a means for the extension and improvement of education, and even looked forward to a time "when many of the existing institutions, especially those of the higher order," might be safely "transferred to the management of local bodies under the control of, and aided by, the State" (para. 62), yet it was not their purpose that the direct agency of Government should either (1) be prematurely withdrawn from superior educational institutions, or (2) that other agencies, of a kind disagreeable to popular feeling, should be substituted, or (3) that schools of every class should be taken under the grant-in-aid system. Two more extracts bearing on these points are given, to corroborate still further these conclusions:—

(1) "It is far from our wish to check the spread of education in the slightest degree by the abandonment of a single school to probable decay."

(2) "We had in issuing these orders [of not establishing Government schools where others existed] the double object in view of avoiding the appearance of rivalry . . . and of saving the expense of a Government institution, in cases where the object

in view could be accomplished by a moderate contribution to an existing school." (June 1856.)

68. The grant-in-aid system was thus meant to be only an auxiliary and not the exclusive means for the promotion of education in this country, just as it has been only an auxiliary and not the exclusive means of education in every other country of the world. The colleges as well as the model (County) schools of Ireland, the Lycées of France, the Gymnasias of Germany, are all Government institutions, proving by the very fact of their existence as such that the grant-in-aid system has its limitations. The Middle or Intermediate schools only, inclusive of the inferior endowed schools and the superior Elementary schools of England, are supported on the aid system, while Primary schools everywhere are maintained from various sources, but chiefly from local rates. The grant-in-aid system alone cannot do duty for all. But the first application, or attempts at application, of this system to Bengal did not accurately measure its necessary limitations.

69. The Court of Directors had declared that—

Aid will be given (so far as the requirements of each particular district as compared with others, and the funds at the disposal of Government, may render it possible) to all schools which impart a good secular education, provided that they are under adequate local management (by the term "local management" we understand one or more persons, such as private patrons, voluntary subscribers, or the trustees of endowments, who will undertake the general superintendence of the school, and be answerable for its permanence for some given time); and provided also that their managers consent that the schools shall be subject to Government inspection, and agree to any conditions which may be laid down for the regulation of each grant.

70. Under these general directions the Government of India authorised the Government of Bengal to grant aid in money, in books, or otherwise, to any school in which a good secular education might be given, through the medium of either English or the Vernacular, to males or females, or both, and which was under adequate local management, on condition of its supplying information regarding its pecuniary resources, permanent and temporary; the average annual expenditure of the school; the average number of pupils instructed; the age of the pupils, and the average duration of their attendance at school; the persons responsible for the management; the nature and course of instruction imparted; the number, names, and salaries of the masters and mistresses; and the nature and amount of aid granted and the purpose to which it was applied. It was also ruled that schools receiving aid should be open to inspection, that some fee should be charged to the pupils (Normal schools excepted), and that the Government grant should in no case exceed in amount the sum expended from private sources. The grants were to be given on the principle of strict neutrality, no school being preferred on the ground of its teaching or not teaching any particular religious doctrine.

71. The Government of Bengal was permitted to lay out in grants-in-aid five per cent. of their total expenditure on Government schools. Within sixteen months of the commencement of operations under the rules laid down, there were 79 Anglo-Vernacular and 140 Vernacular schools, chiefly in the metropolitan districts. The entire allowance for grants-in-aid was taken up; and the Government of Bengal applied to have it increased to 10 per cent. of the outlay on Government schools. At the close of this first period in 1863, the expenditure by Government on Aided schools amounted to 33 per cent. of its outlay on Government institutions of all classes.

72. But this ready acceptance of the system by the people of Bengal, and its success among them, seem to have inspired the departmental officers with the idea of carrying the grant-in-aid system down to a lower stratum than it was fitted for. The strength of the voluntary principle began to be largely drawn upon, and strenuous efforts were made to bring small Elementary schools under the grant-in-aid system. The Court of Directors had said (paragraph 58) that there would be little difficulty in applying that system to places where English education was much sought after. They had wished (paragraph 59) that the system might be made effective on all Anglo-Vernacular and Vernacular schools which imparted a good elementary education; and they had distinguished between these and the Indigenous schools (paragraph 60), which were "to be improved with much care and patience." But these distinctions seem to have been lost sight of by the Department in Bengal, where the Local Government rightly contended for the concession that fees realised from school pupils should be reckoned as local contributions, in proportion to which the Government aid was to be given. The fact is that in Bengal fee payments were large and were steadily increasing; and it was deemed essential, with a view to bringing all classes of schools under the aid system, which was the result desired, that these payments should count as local contributions. The point was yielded in 1863. It will be seen in the narrative of the second period what use was made of this concession.

73. The following statements furnish the statistics of Government and Aided schools in 1862-63. It will be noticed that no private colleges as yet received grants-in-aid.

Statement of Schools and Pupils in 1862-63.

	1862-63.	
	Schools.	Pupils.
Government colleges, general	7	579
" " special	3	456
" Zillah schools	46	8,271
" Middle Vernacular schools	175	11,010
" Special schools	7	591
" madrassas	2	141
Aided High English schools	172	13,403
" Middle Vernacular schools	251	11,298
" Lower " "	530	22,625
" Girls' schools	35	1,183
" Special " "	1	31
Unaided colleges	4	...
TOTAL	1,233	69,588

Statement of Expenditure in 1862-63.

Direction	Government Expenditure.	Expenditure from other sources.	TOTAL.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Direction	41,518	12	41,530
Inspection	1,42,840	49	1,42,889
Government colleges	1,60,883	1,07,071	2,67,954
Professional "	1,23,752	8,026	1,31,778
Oriental "	26,039	4,267	30,306
Normal schools	20,045	3,416	23,461
Government schools	1,53,489	1,15,145	2,68,634
Aided schools	1,59,688	2,42,618	4,02,306
Scholarships	84,986	1,567	86,553
Miscellaneous	79,817	...	79,817
TOTAL	9,93,057	4,82,171	14,75,228

B.—1862-63 to 1870-71.

74. The second period in the history of public instruction has been taken to commence from the year 1862-63, and to extend to 1870-71. The fresh motive forces which distinguished this period from the preceding were—(1) a further development of national education in England, and (2) the administrative changes which followed the sepoy mutiny, and bound the dependency by still closer ties to the ruling country. Both these forces are found at work in the Despatch of the Secretary of State, dated 7th April 1859. The idea that the voluntary principle, on which elementary public instruction had been hitherto conducted, had its limitations, and was not of itself sufficient to carry it far down to the lower strata of society, had grown to such strength in England, that a Royal Commission had been established (1858) for the purpose of making minute and extensive inquiries on the subject of public instruction within England and out of it. The inquiries, as they proceeded, lent additional strength to the growing idea, "that means should be taken for reaching more rapidly the places and classes not previously aided with the grants of public money." This idea found very distinct expression for this country in the Despatch of 1859, which laid down that the task of providing the means of elementary Vernacular education, for those who were unable to procure it for themselves, was to be undertaken by the State. The Despatch also reviewed, one by one, the principal educational measures which had been adopted since 1854 for the spread of education, in view of the criticisms to which those measures had been subjected as having, to some extent, caused the late military disturbances.

75. The Despatch declared—

- (1) that the establishment of Universities could not *per se* excite any apprehensions in the native mind (paragraph 42);
- (2) that the colleges and superior schools working directly under Government, or under the grant-in-aid system, were in a satisfactory state (paragraphs 45 and 46);
- (3) that the grant-in-aid system was well adapted to English and Anglo-Vernacular schools (paragraph 54).

76. The Despatch required the Government of India—

- (1) to propose definite plans for the training of teachers for all classes of schools (paragraph 44);
- (2) to define the extent to which officers of the Education Department could safely and properly exert their influence to promote female education (paragraph 47);
- (3) to explain, in reference to the jealousy alleged to have been excited by grants made to missionary schools, how on the whole the grant-in-aid system was working, and the necessity of making any or what alterations in the existing rules (paragraph 57).

77. The Despatch pronounced emphatically—

- (1) that the grant-in-aid system, as hitherto in force, was unsuited to the supply of Vernacular education to the masses of the people (paragraph 50);
- (2) that the means of elementary instruction should be provided by the direct instrumentality of Government officers (paragraph 50);

- (3) that the means for the diffusion of such education should be found by the levy of educational rates, if expedient (paragraphs 51 and 52);
- (4) that it was most important to make the greatest possible use of existing Indigenous schools, and of the masters to whom, however inefficient as teachers, the people had been accustomed to look up with respect (paragraph 48).

78. From the above brief analysis, it is seen that the Despatch of 1859 confirmed, on the part of Her Majesty's Government, all the main provisions of the Court of Directors' Despatch of 1854, corrected certain misapprehensions as to the application of the grant-in-aid system, and added the most pregnant clause of all,—that of engaging to help those who were unable to help themselves in providing for their own elementary instruction. This was the step which, as already stated, was being taken in England, where the voluntary principle had been considered insufficient, and where new measures for further advance were being contemplated and discussed.

79. There is nothing in the Despatch itself, and nothing in the correspondence which has been found to subsist between educational movements in England and those of India, to support the view that the Despatch of 1859 contemplated any diversion of the State funds in this country from higher to elementary instruction, for which provision was directed to be made from local cesses. Such an interpretation of the Despatch would also run counter to the attitude of a Government which, even in the darkest days of the mutiny, had not receded a single step from the "sacred duty" it had undertaken "of conferring upon the natives of India those vast moral and material blessings which flow from the general diffusion of useful knowledge," but had calmly carried out the establishment of universities, colleges, and schools; and which, under the severest financial pressure, had not ordered the abolition of a single educational institution, but merely the discontinuance, for a time, of increased expenditure on the extension of educational operations. (No. 86, dated June 1858.)

80. In fact, the Despatch of 1859 only ordered an extension of operations in a certain specific direction, in which previous measures had not acted with sufficient force. It did not mean to abandon old fields for new, but to add new fields to those which had been already occupied. In recapitulating the objects of the Despatch of 1854, it made no further reference to the withdrawal of Government from any of its own institutions, or to their transfer to the management of local bodies; on the contrary, it stated, what had not before been stated so explicitly, that one of the objects of that Despatch was the increase, where necessary, of the number of Government colleges and schools.

81. That such is the correct reading of the intentions of the Despatch may be inferred from what has been said. The following extracts from subsequent Despatches, and from letters of successive Secretaries of State, will serve to confirm this interpretation :—

(1) In a letter, dated March 1862, the Secretary of State wrote :—

"I agree with Mr. Reid that important political results might be expected from the study of English and an increased acquaintance with English literature."

(2) In another letter, dated May 1862, occurs the following passage :—

"Her Majesty's Government are unwilling that a Government school should be given up in any place where the inhabitants show a marked desire that it should be maintained, or

where there is a manifest disinclination on the part of the people to send their children to the private schools of the neighbourhood."

(3) In a letter, dated December 1863, may be read :—

"While Her Majesty's Government desire that the means of obtaining an education calculated to fit them for their higher position and responsibilities should be afforded to the higher classes of society in India, they deem it equally incumbent on the Government to take at the same time all suitable measures for the extension of education to those classes of the community who, as observed in the Despatch of 19th July 1854, are utterly incapable of obtaining any education worthy of the name by their own unaided efforts."

(4) In a letter, dated 23rd January 1864, the Duke of Argyll wrote :—

"In the 46th paragraph confirmation was given to the orders of July 1854, under which an extended system of English schools was to be established, either at the sole cost of Government, or "preferentially" by means of grant-in-aid; and in paragraphs 54 and 55 it was intimated that, "as a general rule," such schools should be left to be established by private means, with or without the aid of Government. It was clearly, therefore, the intention to leave to the several Governments in India the liberty to establish, exceptionally, English schools at the expense of Government; and though I fully concur in the views on this point expressed in Lord Stanley's Despatch, and see no reason to doubt the probability that in most parts of the Lower Provinces the provision of English education may safely be left to the operation of the grant-in-aid rules, I think it probable that in districts remote from the great centre of civilisation and activity at the Presidency the direct action of Government may be necessary. I should not, therefore, consider it excessive if you saw fit to sanction the establishment, as a model institution, of one Government English school at the head-quarters of such districts, or indeed at those of all the few remaining districts not already supplied with such a school."

82. The above extracts from letters which were issued subsequently to the Despatch of 1859, and are explanatory of it, leave no doubt that it was intended to confirm the orders of 1854, and while designed to give an additional impetus to elementary instruction, that it was not intended to divert the State funds from higher education. Accordingly there was no feeling in Bengal, when Lord Stanley's Despatch was made known, that any departure was intended from the course laid down in the Despatch of 1854. The work of elementary instruction was only more earnestly taken up, and means were sought for, outside the grant-in-aid rules, to proceed in it with greater vigour; everything else, as will presently be seen, remained unchanged in principle.

(1) *The Education Department.*

83. The constitution of the Department remained unchanged. But additions were made to the controlling and inspecting agencies, in order to give effect to the measures set on foot for the improvement of elementary instruction, and for the supervision of schools which were multiplying at a rapid rate. At the close of this period, the controlling branch of the Department was constituted as follows. The figures for 1862-63 are given in juxtaposition for comparison :—

	1862-63.		1870-71.	
	No. of officers.	Pay.	No. of officers.	Pay.
Director	1	2,000	1	2,500
Inspectors	5	4,200	6	6,500
Joint Inspector	1	300
Deputy Inspectors	40	6,000	84	8,600

84. A scheme for the grading of the upper branch of the Educational service was brought into operation from the 1st of July 1863, on its sanction by the Secretary of State in a Despatch dated 9th December 1864. Under this scheme the Director's salary was to rise, by increments of Rs. 50 per month, from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 2,500. In the first class, the salaries of two officers were to rise from Rs. 1,250 to Rs. 1,500. In the second class, the salaries of six officers were to rise from Rs. 1,000 to Rs. 1,250. In the third class, the salaries of ten officers were to rise from Rs. 750 to Rs. 1,000. In the fourth class, the salaries of thirteen officers were to rise from Rs. 500 to Rs. 750. The number of officers in this class received some subsequent additions.

85. It was hoped at the time that a somewhat similar classification might be sanctioned for the lower branch of the service, but that was not effected until 1878-79.

(2) *The Calcutta University.*

86. The Calcutta University, which had been empowered, by Act XLVII of 1860, to confer "other" degrees in Arts, Medicine, Engineering and Law, made the following changes in 1864 in its standards of examination. In the First Examination in Arts and the B.A. Examination the Vernaculars were abolished, and one of the classical languages of the East or West was made compulsory. This led to the appointment of Sanskrit and Arabic professors in the colleges. The University added Logic to the course in Mental Philosophy; and an extended course in Mathematics was made alternative with certain branches of Physical Science.

The first examinations for the degrees of M.D., B.C.E., and M.B., were held in 1862, 1864, and 1866, respectively.

Colleges affiliated to the University.

87. The number of Government colleges increased within the period under review from seven to eleven, by the addition of college classes, teaching to the First Arts standard, to three Zillah schools in outlying districts (Cuttack, Gowhatty, and Chittagong), and by the affiliation to the University, up to the same standard, of the Anglo-Persian Department of the Calcutta Madrassa.

Five private colleges in Calcutta and its suburbs also received Government aid during this period. There were also three unaided colleges.

88. The number of professional colleges increased from three to eleven, by the addition of Law departments to eight English colleges for general education. The Tagore Law Professorship was established on a munificent bequest left to the University by the Honourable Prasanna Kumar Tagore, C.S.I.

89. The number of graduate, senior, and junior scholarships annually available during this period is shown below :—

	Number of Scholarships.	Annual Value.
I. Graduate scholarships (Endowed)—		
Premchand Roychand studentships	5	10,000
Eshan scholarship	1	600
Hindu College Foundation scholarships	7	4,068
Durga Charan Laha's scholarships	3	1,080
II. Senior scholarships (Government)	40	23,520
III. Senior scholarships (Endowed)—		
Duff scholarships	4	720
Durga Charan Laha's scholarship	1	210

	Number of Scholarships,	Annual Value.
IV. Junior scholarships (Government)	160	45,120
V. Junior scholarships (Endowed)—		
Zemindari scholarships	2	384
Durga Charan Laha's scholarship	1	240
Katiyani scholarship	1	384
Harballabnarain scholarship	1	240
VI. Special scholarships (Government)—		
Engineering College scholarships	5	6,000
Medical scholarships	43	4,800
Sanskrit College scholarships	25	6,000
Calcutta Madrassa scholarships	41	3,528
Hooghly Madrassa scholarships	57	3,936
VII. Special scholarships (Endowed)—		
Forbes' Engineering scholarships	2	240
Goodeve Medical scholarship	1	144
Durga Charan Laha's Medical scholarship	1	360

90. The year 1866-67 is marked by the foundation of the Gilchrist and Premchand Roychand studentships, the former of which has stimulated bright students of the colleges to seek for advanced education in Europe, and the latter has to some extent encouraged mature scholarship, although it has not yet been made to subserve "some one large object," as intended by the founder.

(5) *Zillah Schools.*

91. The Zillah schools of Government had increased from 46 to 53 by the addition of seven schools, of which three were established in 1864 and four others in 1865. These were in the outlying districts of Deoghur, Debrooghur, Motihari, Tezpore, Nowgong, Hazaribagh, and Chaibasa. Aided schools of this class numbered 80.

(4) *Middle Schools.*

92. Anglo-Vernacular (now Middle English) schools were definitely separated from Zillah schools, on the creation of 'Minor' or Middle English scholarships in 1864. In fact, as elsewhere stated, the schools which had taken to teaching English as a language only could not rise to an equal footing with those which brought candidates to the Entrance Examination of the University. They had come to form a separate class, and were 559 in number in 1870-71. Eight of these were wholly supported by Government; the rest were aided.

93. Two hundred scholarships of Rs. 5 a month each, tenable in Zillah schools for two years, were created for these schools, 100 being awarded annually.

Middle Vernacular Schools.

94. The Government Middle Vernacular schools increased from 175 in 1862-63 to 209 in 1870-71, new schools of this class having been established in Behar and Eastern Bengal. Aided schools increased from 251 to 769.

95. Both classes of schools competed on equal terms for scholarships, 320 in number, of the value of Rs. 4 a month each, half being tenable in Normal schools for one year, and the other half in Zillah or similar schools for four years.

(5) *Elementary Vernacular Schools.*

96. The progress of elementary instruction through Government agency in Bengal had been hitherto impeded chiefly by two obstacles—

First, there was an idea prevalent in the Department that elementary instruction was to be built up mainly on the grant-in-aid system.

Secondly, there was at the same time a conviction, on the part both of the Supreme and of the Local Government, that an education cess on land was not feasible in Bengal.

Of these impediments, the first was removed by the Despatch of 1859, which pronounced the grant-in-aid system, as heretofore in force, unsuited to the education of the masses of the people. The second, though it continued in full force, did not rise to importance in the early and experimental stages of primary education, so long as the separate grants made by Government sufficed for the measures then taken in hand.

97. But before proceeding to describe the use which was made of the first grant sanctioned by Government for giving effect to the directions of the Despatch of 1859, it will have to be seen what arrangements for elementary education under the Department already existed in different parts of this province. They all rested on the Indigenous Village schools as their basis, and were determined by the belief that the village teachers were not, as a class, unimprovable, and that the people would readily co-operate in an endeavour to give them "a simple and practical education commensurate with their wants."

98. The plan suggested by Mr. Adam in 1835 was that of offering small rewards to teachers of Indigenous schools, the number of which was estimated at about 100,000. In September 1836, Mr. Macaulay, as President of the Committee of Public Instruction in Bengal, wrote as follows: "It has occurred to me that, if we had the means of offering so small an addition as two rupees a month to the present emoluments of a village schoolmaster, in every case in which such a schoolmaster should satisfy an examiner appointed by us of his fitness to teach elementary knowledge well and completely as far as it went, we might induce three or four thousand village schoolmasters to take some pains to qualify themselves for their situations." This plan had been set on foot by the first Inspector of Schools in Behar. Under it, improved school-books were distributed among village gurus, to whom prizes in money were also given from time to time, on their appearing at central examinations.

99. Another plan was being tried in Assam,—that of subsidising village teachers, according to the number of boys whom they had under them.

100. There was a third plan in force in some of the Bengal districts, of giving rewards to those village teachers who introduced improved systems of instruction in their schools.

101. None of these several systems, however, had attained as much success and celebrity as the circle system, first tried in the Eastern districts of Bengal. This system had been introduced as early as 1856. It consisted in the appointment by Government of a competent pundit, or Vernacular teacher, over three or four or five pathsalas (or Indigenous Elementary schools) conveniently situated, which he was to teach in their highest classes. The consent of the gurus, or village teachers, was secured by the promise of rewards equal to the amount gained by their pupils on the attainment of certain standards. This system had been noticed with special favour in the Despatch of 1859.

102. But the immediate result, in Bengal, of the promulgation of that Despatch was a new scheme, which was called the Normal school system, and was described as follows: "The villages where pathsalas are already in existence, or where it may be desired to set up pathsalas, are invited to send for a year's training in a Normal school either their present guru, or some other person (who will be ordinarily the guru's relative) whom they will undertake to receive as their future schoolmaster. Their nominee, if accepted by the Inspector, is sent

to a Normal school with a stipend of Rs. 5 per mensem, and a written agreement is entered into, on the one hand, with the heads of the village, that they will receive him back as their guru when he has completed his one year's training and received a certificate of qualification; and on the other hand, with the nominee himself, to the effect that he will return to the village which selected him, and there enter upon and discharge the duty of village schoolmaster to the best of his ability, on condition of being secured a monthly income of not less than Rs. 5, in the shape of stipend or reward, so long as he continues to deserve it." This scheme, it will be seen, was not yet one of payment in proportion to results, but one of fixed stipends; it aimed at directly interesting the village people in the establishment and improvement of their Elementary schools; and it also provided in a measure for the support of pupil teachers and the augmentation of certificated teachers' salaries, the two main lines on which elementary education had progressed in England. This system, inaugurated in 1862-63, made rapid advances in Bengal. It was accepted in a letter (July 1864) by the Secretary of State, who desired the Government of India "to accord their sanction to such further extension of the pathsala scheme into additional districts as the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal may see reason to propose."

103. The course of studies prescribed for the training schools was arranged to meet the requirements of Elementary Village schools. The course was as follows:—

- 1.—Reading from print and manuscript.
- 2.—Writing from dictation letters, petitions, leases, agreements, &c.
- 3.—Arithmetic; the tables, the four simple rules, practice on the native system, rule of three, proportion, &c.
- 4.—Keeping of books and accounts.
- 5.—Practical surveying and mensuration.
- 6.—Geography; the District, Bengal, India, and outline of the World.
- 7.—History of Bengal.
- 8.—Object lessons, and art of teaching.

104. Under the different systems above described, there were in 1863-64 (1) under the Behar and Assam systems 328 pathsalas, including Government and grant-in-aid schools, (2) under the circle system 205 pathsalas, and (3) under the new Normal school system 183 pathsalas. The total number was 716.

105. The increase of Elementary schools under these different systems, but more particularly under the last two, is found from the departmental reports to have been as shown below:—

	Circle system.	Normal system.	Other systems.
1864-65	302	350	413
1865-66	307	539	440
1866-67	398	883	800
1867-68	336	1,213	254
1868-69	298	1,520	323
1869-70		2,135	
1870-71		2,198	

106. With the progress of Elementary schools, the expenditure on them went on increasing year after year until 1867, when Government declined to sanction

further grants for the extension of the pathsala scheme, owing partly to financial difficulties after the Orissa famine, and partly to the necessity that was consequently felt for the imposition of a cess on land in Bengal, in order to meet the growing expenditure on elementary education.

107. Now commenced what may be called the cess controversy between the Supreme and Provincial Governments. At first the controversy was of a simple character. The Government of India was led to suppose that the "Normal school system" of elementary education had been very expensively modified by the Education Department of Bengal. It was proved to the satisfaction of the Supreme Government that such was not the case, and that the systems in force in other provinces were more expensive than the Bengal system, which had been cramped and stinted for want of funds. The controversy then assumed a more complicated form. It was urged that, in all other parts of India, cesses had been imposed on land in order to provide for the elementary education of the agricultural classes, and that such a cess was wanted in Bengal. The Bengal Government contended that, as the land revenue had been settled in permanence in these provinces, and as the land had changed hands many times since the first settlement, there were great difficulties in the way of such fresh impositions on land as were made in other parts of India. Besides, it was known to the Bengal Government that, owing to the very large number of Indigenous schools existing in Bengal, primary instruction for all classes was already an existing fact. The taxation of land alone for the support of pathsalas was therefore neither fair nor expedient. The Bengal Government would rather have a general tax for education than a tax upon land only. They referred to the high rate of the salt duty levied in Bengal, as compared with other parts of India, and thought that a share might be given from that tax for the improvement of the Bengal pathsalas.

108. The Bengal Government was in fact persuaded that the voluntary principle had not exhausted its strength in this province. They saw that the people were eagerly availing themselves of grants-in-aid for schools, that they were paying as large school fees, considering the different value of money in the two parts of the globe, as in European countries, and that the fee contributions in Bengal exceeded the entire local payments in some of the other provinces, cesses included. Thus the Bengal Government was unwilling to abandon the voluntary principle, and refused acceptance of a draft Bill which the officers of the Department had got up in imitation of the Madras Education Act VI of 1863.

109. The controversy ended in the receipt of the Duke of Argyll's Despatch dated 12th May 1870, which was carried in the Council of India by a majority of one, and in the face of strongly worded protests from the minority. In this Despatch it was ruled "that rating for local expenditure is to be regarded, as it has hitherto been regarded, in all the provinces of the empire as taxation separate and distinct from the ordinary land revenue; that the levying of such rates upon the holders of land, irrespective of the land assessment, involves no breach of faith on the part of Government, whether as regards holders of permanent or temporary tenures Her Majesty's Government can have no doubt that, as elsewhere so in Bengal, the expenditure required for the education of the people ought to be mainly defrayed out of local resources. This, however, is precisely the application of rates which the

present condition of the people may render them least able to appreciate. I approve therefore of Your Excellency proceeding with great caution."

110. No cess for the maintenance of elementary schools has been imposed on land in Bengal. The decentralisation of the finances which was carried out shortly after the receipt of the Duke of Argyll's Despatch at once improved the financial position of the local Government; and perhaps the justice and expediency of making the non-agricultural classes of the community contribute their share to educational and other expenditure became more manifest than before. On consideration of the economic condition of the country, as disclosed by the Famine Commission, it was declared (1875) that "it is desirable that the cultivator should pay a smaller proportion of the national charges."

111. Distantly connected with this question of an education cess on land a controversy was going on (1866—69) with regard to the social position of the pupils that resorted to the pathsalas. In England there are classes that consider it derogatory to their position to send their children to the ordinary Elementary schools. In Bengal, all classes of the community, high and low, send their children to the pathsalas. The mistake under such circumstances from the Englishman's point of view was natural; the pathsalas, attended as they were to some extent, probably to one-third of their number, by children of the middle and upper classes, could not be elementary schools in his sense of the word.

Two facts were here overlooked. It was not seen (1) that, with the rules of caste rigidly marking social distinctions, minor safeguards of them must be less required and less regarded in this country; and (2) that in other countries, as well as in Bengal, children of the upper and middle classes attended the ordinary Elementary schools, which were resorted to by the rich and poor alike. The history of the endowed schools of England itself proves that those schools, although mainly intended for the poor, were attended principally by boys of a higher grade.

112. This controversy about the social position of pathsala children would really be of little significance in a question of national education, but for its distant bearing on the important subject of educational taxation. If all classes of the community directly benefited by the Elementary schools, why should the agriculturists only pay for them? If taxation was to be resorted to, it should be under such a system of local rating as would fall on agriculturists and non-agriculturists alike.

(6) *Training Schools.*

113. Normal schools for the training of teachers had increased from 7 in 1862-63 to 29 in 1870-71, two of them (Calcutta and Dacca) being for mistresses. There were also 4 Aided Normal schools for masters and 3 for mistresses.

114. It is to be explained that of 7 Normal schools existing in 1862-63, 3 were established under the "Normal school" system of elementary education. The number of these schools increased by 5 in 1865-66, on the extension of the system to eight additional districts.

Of the remaining 19 Normal schools for men, 3 were for training English masters (Patna, Cherrapoonjee in the Khasi Hills, and Rangamatia in the Chittagong Hill Tracts), 8 for training superior Vernacular teachers, and 8 for training teachers for Lower Vernacular schools.

115. English classes had been attached to the higher grade Normal schools, in accordance with the instructions contained in the Despatch of 1859, which required all classes of teachers to be trained. But these classes were soon closed.

(7) *Technical Schools.*

116. There was no increase under this head. The School of Art had become a Government institution in 1864.

117. It may, however, be noticed under this head that a large number of evening or night schools, as they were called, having sprung up in connection with the improved pathshalas, proposals were made for establishing central Industrial schools in connection with the district Normal schools. But financial and other practical difficulties were in the way, and no action was taken.

The night schools were 269 in number, attended by 6,129 actual day-labourers.

(8) *Girls' Schools.*

118. The only Government girls' school was the Bethune School in Calcutta. Aided girls' schools had increased from 35 in 1862-63 to 274 in 1870-71.

119. Female education had also received other impulses :—

- (1) Miss Carpenter had come to the country, and had given such an impulse to female education as it had never received before.
- (2) A female normal school had been set to work at Rampore Baulia under the grant-in-aid system.
- (3) There were seven zenana agencies at work under missionary bodies.
- (4) Girls' classes had been started in the improved pathshalas, which had brought under instruction 2,351 girls in 1869, rewards being offered to the gurus at the rate of one rupee for every four girls under instruction.

To this last arrangement there was no opposition from any quarter. If brothers and sisters could play together, why should they not come to read together? These mixed schools were a success as long as they were kept up.

(9) *The Grant-in-aid system.*

120. The Government of India conceded in January 1863 the point for which the Bengal Government had contended (*see* above, para. 72) that the schooling fees at Aided schools should be reckoned as local contributions.

The Education Department did not, however, make such generous use of this concession as to increase the resources of the larger Aided schools in such a manner as to ensure their permanence and stability. It introduced rules limiting the aid of Government in definite proportion to the local income guaranteed, upon the following principles :—

- (1) The maximum grant to a school teaching up to the Entrance standard was to be half of the income from local sources.
- (2) The maximum grant to a Middle school, in which the expenditure was more than Rs. 30 a month, was to be two-thirds of the local income.

It also introduced, though it could never fully carry out, a rule that no school under the grant-in-aid system should have any surplus funds at its credit.

121. But, notwithstanding the pressure which the Bengal Education Department had applied to the grant-in-aid schools, they were still charged with extravagance and lavish expenditure, and with the concealment of fraud and mismanagement. These charges, it must be said, the Department had in some measure brought upon itself, (1) by taking under the grant-in-aid system schools of primary instruction which required aid under far simpler rules, (2) by the indiscriminate manner in which educational officers had spoken of Aided schools generally, and (3) by the exclusive stress which, in their public expressions of opinion, they had laid on the shortcomings of the system. The fact is, the system of payment for results, based as it was on the broad principle of commercial equity, was in full force in England; and there was a natural wish on the part of English officers to adopt that system in this country likewise. But there were several difficulties in the way. In the first place, grants-in-aid were not confined, as in England, to primary instruction for the masses, but covered a far wider educational field; and hence the method of payment for results demanded, for the various standards and sub-divisions of primary, secondary, and collegiate instruction, a system of grants of excessive complexity. In the next place, while in England there were no very great differences, between one educational district and another, in the standard of enlightenment and the desire for elementary instruction, the field of education in Bengal was occupied by people in widely varying stages of advancement, and with very different powers of appreciating the benefits of education, and of making sacrifices for it. Hence, from the point of view of benevolence rather than of commercial equity, the method of payment for results was open to the grave charge of giving little where much was required, and much where little was required. In the last place, owing to the large number of grant-in-aid schools in Bengal compared with the number of superior inspecting officers, the system, if adopted, could not be carried out without entrusting subordinate officers with the new and delicate task of allotting grants to schools. It was apprehended that they might prove unequal to the work if entrusted with it; and it was felt to be certain that complaints, right or wrong, would come in from the school managers against any allotments the subordinate officers might make. With regard to the system that existed, it was known and admitted that irregularities had been found in the school accounts, such as to demand vigilance on the part of inspecting officers. But it was maintained that there was no such demoralisation among the managers of Aided schools in Bengal as in any way to call for a withdrawal of the trust reposed in them. If Bengal was to receive the schools it required, the co-operation of the people was essential; but co-operation involved responsibility, and responsibility power, and power was liable to abuse. The grant-in-aid rules, it was contended, were fully sufficient, if duly enforced, to check the evils complained of, while at the same time the lessons that were given in self-help and self-government, by means of the system of school control established in Bengal, was a valuable contribution to the political education of the country. It was also maintained that the Bengal system of regulating Government grants by local expenditure, modified as it was by reference to the class of the school, the advancement

and wealth of the locality, and the cost per head, possessed in an eminent degree the qualities of elasticity and economy. Such were the views impressed by Sir William Grey upon the Government of India in 1870. Similar opinions were expressed about these schools by Sir George Campbell in 1872, after a full consideration of the question to which he had been invited by the Government of India. "I think," he wrote, "that the Bengal system cannot fairly be compared with that of other administrations, . . . and I have no hesitation in saying that with all its drawbacks the system prevailing here has really produced very great results; that the money has led to the turning out of such a number of educated young men as could not have been obtained by its direct expenditure on Government schools. So far I should say that, looking at the thing broadly, the money has been on the whole well spent. . . . We cannot establish rules for giving fixed aids with reference to results. We must distribute the money we have to the schools which seem on the whole likely to make the best use of it. And in doing so we must have regard, not only to the efforts and contributions of the people themselves, and to the results of those efforts, but also to the circumstances of different districts and places. These now vary immensely."

122. Another controversy, at least equally warm, was carried on at this time with respect to the true character of the educational system which Government had provided for the people. While some designated it as "eleemosynary," others contended that, supported as the schools and colleges were by the public funds of India, which are contributed by its people, it was anything but right to call the colleges "State charities." It was shown that civilised States in every part of the world maintained institutions for superior instruction in the most liberal spirit; and that the Government colleges and schools in Bengal were of immense value, as supplying "the substantial frame-work on which the whole edifice of instruction in this country depends."

123. These controversies had been preceded in 1864 by another, provoked by an attack made by one of the missionary bodies on the administration of the grant-in-aid system; but neither the "withdrawal theory," first broached by the Chairman of the Missionary Conference, nor the "diversion theory" which has come to the front in later times, was put forward very prominently on this occasion. The chief complaint was that the grant-in-aid system, as administered in Bengal, was not sufficiently favourable to the missionary managers, who complained of the proceedings of the Department as inquisitorial. Two propositions were placed before the Government of India, in connection with the discussions which ensued. They were—

Whether the education of the people at large was to be accomplished—

- (1) by the direct agency of Government, or of missionary bodies occupying, relatively to the natives in respect to education, the position of Government; or
- (2) by the agency of the people themselves, supplemented by such assistance as the resources of the State or the funds of missionary bodies could afford.

124. The Government of Bengal seems to have been persuaded that one of the main objects of the grant-in-aid system was to train the people of this country to habits of self-help and self-government; and that these lessons would be lost if education fell, in any large way, into the hands of missionary bodies, which not only supplied the bulk of the necessary funds, but also undertook the entire business of control and management.

125. The following tables show the number, attendance, and expenditure of Government and Aided schools at the close of this period. Unaided schools did not yet furnish returns to the Department in a systematic form.

Statement of Schools and Pupils in 1870-71.

	1870-71.	
	Schools.	Pupils.
Government colleges, general	11	980
" " special	11	965
" High English schools	53	10,091
" Middle " "	8	746
" " Vernacular "	209	11,715
" Lower Vernacular (primary) schools	46	1,557
" Girls' schools	1	70
" Special "	32	1,756
" Madrassas	2	173
Aided colleges	5	394
" High English schools	80	8,691
" Middle " "	551	25,534
" " Vernacular "	769	34,365
" Lower Vernacular (primary) schools	2,152	59,615
" Girls' schools (Native)	274	5,910
" " " (Eurasian)	13	889
" Special "	12	397
Unaided colleges	2	24
TOTAL	4,231	163,578

Statement of Expenditure in 1870-71.

	Government Expenditure.	Expenditure from other sources.	TOTAL.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Direction	49,337	...	49,337
Inspection	2,63,981	...	2,63,981
Government colleges	1,92,152	1,14,078	3,06,230
Government schools	2,93,965	2,67,583	5,61,548
Special colleges	1,46,177	62,404	2,08,581
Special schools	1,98,742	11,925	2,10,667
Aided colleges	24,900	82,558	1,07,458
Aided schools for boys	4,50,589	6,57,723	11,08,312
Aided schools for girls (Native)	41,357	69,353	1,10,710
Aided schools for girls (European and Eurasian)	15,461	28,688	44,149
Normal schools (Aided)	12,132	22,731	34,863
Scholarships	1,12,355	6,854	1,19,212
Miscellaneous	31,804	8,879	40,683
TOTAL	18,65,985	13,32,836	31,98,821

C.—1870-71 to 1880-81.

126. The year 1870 marks an epoch in the history of elementary instruction in England. Voluntary effort, although in a constantly diminishing degree at every successive stage of the development of national education, had been hitherto relied upon for the extension of Elementary schools; but in the Elementary Education Act passed by Parliament in 1870, the principle of compulsion was for the first time recognised. Power was given under the Act to the Education Department to get School Boards constituted, which Boards could levy rates, and could also propose for sanction bye-laws to enforce the

attendance of children at school. Thus compulsion came in through the interposition of Local Boards. The Boards had the power given to them of exempting children of poor parents from the payment of school pence. Other Acts, notably those of 1873, of 1876, and of 1878, have followed; but none of them have introduced any new principle. Boards are multiplying all over the country, and the principle of compulsion being in the background, the occasions for its application have been comparatively rare. But compulsion, although thus tempered by the interposition of Local Boards, and not actually resorted to in many cases, could not be thought of for such a dependency as India; as indeed it was not thought of for Ireland, to which country the Act of 1870 was not made applicable. Some distant advance, however, towards that principle may be traced in Bengal in the way in which the Department of Public Instruction was remodelled in 1872-73. The control and administration of Elementary schools were taken from the Education Department and vested in the district magistrates, because the scheme of primary instruction "can only be carried out by the influence and aid of the district authorities." The influence of district authorities has been described as "gentle compulsion."

The introduction of this new principle necessarily produced changes which were felt more or less in all classes of schools, and will be noticed under the usual heads.

(1) *The Education Department.*

127. In the Despatch of 1854 it was laid down that "the principal officers of every district in India should consider it to be an important part of their duty . . . to aid in the extension of education and to support the Inspectors of schools by every means in their power." The relative positions of the district and educational officers were in a manner inverted, when the district officers became vested with powers of direct educational administration.

(1) The Director was released from "control over local operations, that having been transferred to the civil officers." He became "the medium of communication between the local and inspecting authorities on the one hand, and the Government on the other." He was also "the organ of the views of Government, and its adviser in educational matters."

(2) The Inspectors of schools, who were heretofore "deputy directors" in their respective circles, now occupied "much the same position towards the local authorities that Inspectors of education occupied in England." Administrative functions were generally transferred from the hands of the Inspector to those of Magistrates and District Committees, while he was declared to be the adviser of the Commissioner, of the District Committee, and (if required) of the Magistrate.

(3) The Deputy and Sub-Inspectors were placed directly under the District Magistrates.

(4) The Inspectors' circles were made conterminous with one or more Revenue Commissioners' divisions.

(5) For localising educational control, District Committees were appointed, under the Magistrate-collector as Vice-President, with power to supervise and appoint masters in all Government schools, to recommend the sanction of grants to other schools, and to advise the Magistrate in matters connected with primary education.

128. The supervising branch of the Department now consisted of—

	IN					
	1871-72.	1872-73.	1873-74.	1874-75.	1878-79.	1879-80.
Director	1	1	1	1	1	1
Inspectors	6	6	5	5	5	5
Joint and Assistant Inspectors	1	1	1	5	5
Deputy and Sub-Inspectors	84	101	171	200	216	220

129. Additions had been made to the superior graded service at various times since its first constitution, and at the close of the present period its strength was as follows: 2 officers in the first class, 6 in the second, 12 in the third (including one transferred to Assam), and 20 in the fourth.

The subordinate officers of the Department were also graded in 1873-79. Out of 606 officers drawing Rs. 30 a month and upwards, 316 were ranged in seven different classes in the following order:—

6	from Rs. 400	to Rs. 500.
10	„ „ 300	„ „ 400.
25	„ „ 200	„ „ 300.
40	„ „ 150	„ „ 200.
60	„ „ 100	„ „ 150.
75	„ „ 75	„ „ 100.
100	„ „ 50	„ „ 75.

130. Within this period, a limited system of control, subsidiary to that exercised by the Department, began to grow up under the following circumstances. The Government of India had from time to time caused general reviews to be made in the Home Department of the progress of education in the several Provinces. Such reviews had been drawn up in 1865-66, in 1867-68, and in 1869-70. On the decentralisation of the finances which took place in 1870-71, and the consequently increased localisation of educational administration, the Supreme Government passed a Resolution in March 1873, requesting all Local Governments and Administrations

“to appoint committees to examine and report upon the class-books that are now prescribed in all those schools which receive any formal support from the State, in order to discover defects either in form or substance, and adapt more carefully the course of authorised reading to the general educational policy.”

A committee for the revision of text-books was accordingly appointed in Bengal, and they prepared catalogues of books then extant in this Province. The lists showed that there were in Bengali—

564 Readers.	62 Works on physics.
94 Dictionaries.	89 Medical books.
91 Grammars, &c.	91 Law books.
66 Geographies.	18 Works on social science.
122 Histories.	28 Works on art.
42 Philosophical treatises.	11 Works on education.
136 Mathematical works.	76 Miscellaneous works.
	<u>1,490</u>

There were also 35 magazines and periodicals and 54 newspapers.

131. It should be noted that most of these books were original compositions or adaptations, and only a very few of them translations. The magazines occasionally contained original articles showing research and learning, and were ordinarily written with much force on social and political subjects. The fact is, Vernacular authorship was always much honoured in Bengal. It was at first taken up by such leaders of society as Raja Ram Mohun Roy, Sir Radha Kant Deb, and the Honourable Prasanna Kumar Tagore; and then in the next generation by such ripe scholars as Dr. K. M. Banerjea, Dr. Rajendra Lal Mitra, and Pandit Iswar Chunder Bidyasagar. Bengali authorship was mainly in the hands of those who felt the impulse to write, without any other stimulus being supplied by Government than the English education received at its hands, and the influx of new ideas that followed upon such education. The Bengali language had already produced some works of original merit; and there were signs that professional writers who meant to live by their writings were coming into existence together with their usual accompaniment of publishing firms. The literary activity awakened was such that, as the Director said in reference to the preparation of school-books in Bengal,—“It is not necessary that any money payments should be offered to secure the improved books required. A good school-book is a valuable property, which brings considerable remuneration to the author, and therefore requires no aid on the part of Government.” Private book-sellers had also greatly lessened the importance of the School Book Society of Calcutta. The time was therefore come when it was felt necessary to exercise such supervision as was required to keep the growth of Vernacular literature in a healthy state in those parts of the empire where it was growing up spontaneously, and to take measures for stimulating its growth where as yet it had not sprung up with sufficient vigour. It was time also to see that public instruction took cognisance of that part of its work which consists in teaching the people not only their rights as citizens but their duties to the State.

132. The conference on text-books, which was held at Simla under the Government Resolution of April 1877, led to the constitution of standing text-book committees for the examination of school-books in the different Provinces. Following on the appointment of the committee, an attempt was made in Bengal to bring out a new and uniform series of text-books, for use in Vernacular schools. The attempt failed, because in most cases the books were close translations of English originals. The age of translations had in fact long gone by in Bengal. Not only the missionaries, but the early Native writers themselves, had made translations of English books of history, travel, geography, and elementary physics; but they had all perished, and original compositions were flourishing on the soil which they had enriched. The growth of Bengali told at once on the school literature of the neighbouring Province of Orissa. The languages of the two Provinces are cognate; and the two peoples have less dislike for each other than is ordinarily the case among neighbouring populations in India. The Bengali *Chaitanya Charitamrita* is in a way the sacred book of both Bengali and Uriya Vaishnavas. Under such circumstances, Bengali school-books were readily adopted for translation into Uriya.

133. The case was different in the Hindi-speaking Province of Behar. Although Hindi and Bengali are cognate languages, and translations from Bengali into Hindi are almost as easy as into Uriya, yet the Hindi-speaking people despise the less physically robust Bengali: and there is some reluctance on the part of the Behari to follow in the footsteps of his Bengali neighbour. The

Behari preferred to borrow from his brother of the North-West, whom he was disposed to look up to and respect. There was thus less literary activity in Behar than even in Orissa. Latterly, however, the Behari writer has shown himself less unwilling to take advantage of the permission granted by some of the Bengali authors to translate their works into Hindi, and thus to acknowledge the superiority of the Bengali school-books to those brought out elsewhere. There is some likelihood that the Province of Behar may witness in a measure the revival of that literary activity which, to judge from an original biographical work now in the press, it manifested only half a century ago. The Behar Text-Book Committee have declared that the Hindi translations of Bengali school-books now used in Behar "cannot be advantageously replaced by other books extant in Hindi."

134. The different text-book committees in Bengal, Behar, and Orissa constitute outside the Department an important controlling agency, consisting of departmental officers and independent members, both Hindu and Musulman.

(2) *The Calcutta University.*

135. The Calcutta University made some alterations in its standards of examination. The changes made were in the direction of scientific and practical knowledge, the B.A. examination being divided into two separate courses, predominance being given to literary subjects in one, and to physical science in the other. A change in the same direction, but within a much smaller range, was made in the F.A. examination. In the Entrance Course, a translation paper from English into the Vernacular was substituted for the second paper in the second language. Physical geography and theoretical surveying and mensuration were also added to this examination. There was thus a recognition on the part of the University of the importance of the Vernacular, and to that extent a return to the direction which, as already noticed, the University had abandoned within two years of its first constitution.

136. In 1879, regulations for the examination of female candidates were framed. They substituted, in the F.A. examination, French, German, Italian, or any one of the Indian Vernaculars for a classical language, and botany for the second paper in mathematics. In the B.A., examination it was ruled that female candidates might substitute political economy for any mathematical subject.

Colleges affiliated to the University.

137. The Sanskrit, Kishnaghur, and Berhampore Colleges were reduced to the second grade in 1872. The Kishnaghur College was restored to the first grade in 1875, the people having raised and invested a sum of Rs. 40,000 with that object.

The Midnapore second grade college was established in 1873 on a local endowment of Rs. 42,500, bearing interest at 6 per cent.

The Gowhatty second grade college was separated from Bengal in 1873, when Assam was placed under a Chief Commissioner.

The Rajshahye College was opened as a second grade college in 1874, on an endowment of landed property made by a local Raja, and yielding an annual income of Rs. 5,000. It was raised to the status of a first grade college in 1877, when the Rajshahye Association made with that object a further endowment of Rs. 1,50,000, yielding Rs. 6,000 a year.

On its re-organisation in 1871, the Anglo-Persian Department of the Calcutta Madrassa ceased to teach beyond the Entrance standard.

In 1876 the Cuttack College was raised to the first grade as an experimental measure for five years. During this period a sum of Rs. 25,000 was subscribed locally towards the maintenance of the college, and a further sum of Rs. 20,000 invested for its endowment. Its permanent establishment as a first grade college for Orissa was finally sanctioned in 1880.

In the same year, the Chittagong second grade college, which had been reduced some years before to the status of a Zillah school, was again established on its former footing; and the Rungpore Zillah School was raised as an experimental measure to the rank of a second grade college, the condition of adequate local contributions being required in each case. In the latter, the experiment was declared in 1879 to have been unsuccessful, and the college classes were closed.

A college department for the education of girls to the First Arts standard was added to the Bethune School in 1879. A young lady having passed that examination from this school in 1880, a class was formed to read for the B.A. degree.

138. Thus there were altogether 12 Government colleges in Bengal, against 11 of the preceding period (1870-71). Two colleges had been raised to the first grade; two reduced to the second grade; one second grade college had been closed; three new ones (including the college department of the Bethune Female School) had been opened; and one transferred to Assam. Of the 12 colleges established at the close of this period, 7 were of the first grade, namely, the Presidency, Hooghly, Kishnaghur, Dacca, Patna, Rajshahye, and Cuttack Colleges; and 5 were of the second grade, namely, the Sanskrit, Berhampore, Midnapore, and Chittagong Colleges, and the Bethune School.

139. During this period the number of aided colleges increased from five to six, by the addition of the Doveton College, with a grant of Rs. 250 a month. At the end, however, the number fell again to five, the Cathedral Mission College, which had enjoyed a Government grant of Rs. 460 a month, having been closed by its managers in 1880-81. The grant to the General Assembly's Institution was raised from Rs. 350 to Rs. 600 a month, and that of St. Xavier's College from Rs. 300 to Rs. 350.

In 1880-81 there were four unaided colleges furnishing returns to the department, the City College, under native management, having been opened in that year.

140. The graduate scholarships had been increased by the addition of an endowed scholarship tenable in the Presidency College. The senior scholarships had been increased from 40 to 50 in 1872, and were of two grades, of Rs. 20 and Rs. 25 a month respectively. Endowed scholarships had increased by three, two for proficiency in Sanskrit and one for proficiency in law. There were also 15 endowed scholarships tenable in particular colleges, general and special.

141. It was provided in 1872-73 that High schools, or second grade colleges as they were thenceforth called, should have an establishment not exceeding Rs. 18,600 per annum, exclusive of charges for science classes and contingencies. It is, however, to be remarked that the second grade colleges founded within this period were established on a much lower scale of expenditure. In 1880-81 the cost to Government of the Midnapore College was Rs. 2,077, and of the Chittagong College Rs. 4,626. The cost of the college classes of the Bethune School was in the same year Rs. 1,475.

At a later date, the salaries of Law Professors in the Mofussil colleges were limited to the amount of the fee-receipts.

142. In 1879 a system of examinations for the award of Sanskrit titles was established, to the manifest advantage of a large class of superior Indigenous institutions, the *Tols*. A number of prizes were at the same time instituted by Government for the encouragement of successful pupils and their teachers; and private liberality added many more.

(3) *Zillah and Collegiate Schools.*

143. The Zillah and Collegiate schools, which were 53 in 1870-71, had been reduced to 48 in 1880-81. The decrease was chiefly due to schools having gone away with Assam, although one school was added in 1877. Aided High schools had increased from 80 to 91. Unaided schools of this class furnishing returns were now 66.

144. The junior scholarships for which the above schools competed were, in 1870-71, 160. The full number was not awarded every year. Some scholarships had been transferred with Assam. In Bengal there remained 150, increased in 1879 to 152, by the creation of two scholarships specially assigned to the Rungpore Zillah school, as a compensation for the loss of the college. These scholarships were now of three grades, of the value of Rs. 10, Rs. 15, and Rs. 20 respectively.

145. The Zillah and Collegiate schools were brought in 1872-73 under a system of net grants, according to which they were divided into six classes, with varying Government grants added to the local income. The total amount of the grants to Zillah schools was Rs. 89,400.

146. The scheme was revised in 1877-78, the number of pupils which each contained being made the basis of classification. The total net grant to Zillah schools, which was Rs. 74,400 in 1875-76, was reduced to Rs. 66,300 in 1877-78, the local income being taken at Rs. 1,25,000. The "standard establishment" for each class of schools was determined in general accordance with the following scales of income:—

7 schools of the first class, with 300 pupils and upwards—

	Rs.	Rs.
Government grant	2,100	
Local income	6,360	
	—————	8,460

15 schools of the second class, with 175 pupils and upwards—

Government grant	2,100	
Local income	3,900	
	—————	6,000

12 schools of the third class, with less than 175 pupils—

Government grant	2,400	
Local income	1,800	
	—————	4,200

In 1880-81, Zillah schools of the first class had increased to 14, those of the second class were 10, and those of the third class 12. These numbers are exclusive of the Collegiate schools, and of the Hindu and Hare Schools in Calcutta.

(4) *Middle Schools.*

147. Government Middle English schools increased from eight to nine. Aided Middle English schools decreased from 551 to 441, owing (1) to the reduction of the grant-in-aid allotment in 1876-77, necessitated by the financial pressure arising out of the famine in Behar, which led to a reduction of 1¼ lakhs in the educational assignments of the year; (2) to the measures taken

in the later years against inefficient schools, which resulted in the transfer of some to the Vernacular and of others to the Unaided class; (3) to the separation of Assam; and (4) to the return of Eurasian schools under a separate heading. Unaided schools of this class, which began to give in returns systematically from 1872-73, were returned as 122 in 1880-81.

148. Government Middle Vernacular Schools were 209 in 1870-71. They fell to 172, the difference being mainly owing to the separation of Assam. Aided Middle Vernacular schools, which were 769 in 1870-71, increased to 802 in 1876-77; and again came down to 769 in 1880-81. This decrease in the later years is traceable to the reduction of the grant-in-aid allotment made in 1876-77; and, in some cases in Northern Bengal, to the growing efficiency of Primary schools, upper and lower, which were found to satisfy the requirements of the people, and to lead to the closing of the Middle schools. Unaided Middle Vernacular schools of this class were 87 in 1880-81.

149. These two classes of schools, Middle English and Middle Vernacular, competed originally for two classes of scholarships, with separate allotments. The allotments were amalgamated in 1872-73, and the number of scholarships of each class was thenceforth determined by the district committees, in accordance with the number of English and of Vernacular schools in each district. The total annual allotment for both classes of scholarships was Rs. 53,000, from which an average of 330 scholarships was awarded yearly, in the general proportion of two Vernacular to one English. A Vernacular scholarship was of the value of Rs. 4 a month, tenable for four years in a High school; an English scholarship was of the value of Rs. 5 a month, and was tenable for two years.

150. But though the allotments were amalgamated, the scholarship standards and the school courses which they governed remained all along different. Middle English schools had their own text-books, English was the sole medium of instruction, and, except in the lowest classes, the Vernacular was practically ignored. In 1877, an important change was effected. Middle schools were placed on a Vernacular basis; all substantive instruction was thenceforward to be imparted in the Vernacular, by means of Vernacular text-books; and English was to be learnt as a language merely. From this time, therefore, the scholarship courses were amalgamated. Candidates for both classes of scholarships were examined by the same papers; and every candidate for a Middle English scholarship was required to pass by the full Vernacular standard, in addition to the standard in English. The effect of this change has been to make it an easy matter for a Middle school to pass from one class to another. If it finds it is not strong enough to teach English, it ceases to teach it until more prosperous times come, or a more effective demand arises. If a Vernacular school desires to add an English class, it can do so without any dislocation of its existing establishment, and in a few years it may hope to compete with success at the examination. Every Middle school is allowed to send candidates, without any restriction whatever, to either or both examinations.

As it was supposed that Middle English scholars would, under these orders, take a year longer to read for the Entrance examination, the tenure of their scholarships was increased, without reduction of stipend, from two to three years.

(5) *Elementary Vernacular Schools.*

151. It was expressly declared by Sir George Campbell about the commencement of the present period, that "the great object of the Government

now is to extend primary education among the masses of the people." Means for the purpose had become more accessible than before through the introduction, in 1871-72, of the scheme of financial decentralisation, which gave the Provincial Government control over certain items of revenue and expenditure, inclusive of "education." The discussions between the Supreme and the Provincial Governments about educational grants, which had been carried on with some warmth towards the close of the preceding period, were now at an end; and the Government of Bengal was able to make assignments, amounting to Rs. 4,00,000 (increased to Rs. 5,00,000 in 1880-81) for the promotion of primary instruction. The Government of Sir George Campbell, in laying down a general scheme for the development of Primary schools in Bengal, adopted generally the latest or "Normal school" system of the Department. District training schools were opened, but their course of studies was shortened and lowered. Monthly stipends were provided, both at the training schools and at the pathshalas; but the sum of Rs. 5 per month, which was the ordinary and invariable rate under the Department, was now fixed as the maximum. The principle of the substitution of teachers was accepted, but not so invariably as under the departmental scheme. The course of instruction was retained, with the substitution of manuscript reading for geography and the history of Bengal.

152. But the greatest change made, and the most fruitful of subsequent changes, was the entire decentralisation of educational control, each district officer being directed to deal, as he thought best, with the primary assignment placed at his disposal.

153. Accordingly Mr. H. L. Harrison, the Magistrate of Midnapore, whose influence on primary education in Bengal is felt to this day, struck out a path for himself in the organisation of the village pathshalas of his district. He pointed out that there were already in existence a very large number of Indigenous schools, and that in proceeding to establish new pathshalas without bringing these first under control, "we should cause many of these Indigenous schools to close in the hope of re-opening as Government pathshalas." That such results would follow, if Government undertook to establish Primary schools of their own in the face of the existing Indigenous schools, had been brought to the notice of the Government of India by the Government of Bengal from the time of Sir Frederick Halliday. Mr. Harrison's reasonings were cogent, and their force was admitted. Mr. Harrison also brought to notice a new feature of Government interference with pathshalas which had not struck any one before him with equal force: "There is no doubt that the people contribute in a much more niggardly manner to *stipendiary* gurus than they do to those unpaid by Government." The truth of this observation has been more or less felt by every one concerned with primary education in Bengal, who has not proceeded on the principle of substituting trained for untrained gurus. Mr. Harrison likewise thought that "even the Indigenous schools now to be taken in hand will have to be lowered, not in the quality of education, but in the object aimed at by the students," because, as he supposed, most of the pupils even of Indigenous schools looked to becoming clerks or attorneys. On this point the Government of Bengal, which was "anxious not to tie district officers too tightly down to any particular plan," remarked, while sanctioning Mr. Harrison's scheme, "it is because education is so rare that all educated youths think they should rise above their proper level. If we succeed in making education more general, they will

find that they can no longer expect thus to rise. They will, it may be hoped, learn to value the benefits of primary education in their own sphere of life, and in many cases they may rise above it if they will work." It may be observed here in passing that, in the views expressed by Mr. Harrison and by the Bengal Government in those days, may be seen the two sides of that controversy which went on for some time in England as to the standard of instruction in Elementary schools. There too, while one body contended that "a pass in the third standard should exempt a child from school attendance," another wished to fix the qualification for exemption somewhat higher. There also, while one party wanted no standard higher than the sixth in Elementary schools, another wished to introduce a seventh standard. In England the controversy ended by a compromise, the "exemption" standard remaining the third, while the seventh was admitted as an extra or optional standard only. In Bengal there was, until lately, another sort of compromise, pathsalas teaching anything above the three R's being taken out of the class of Primary schools and called "Secondary."

154. Mr. Harrison, in his administration of the village pathsalas of the Midnapore district, adopted the first principle of the Revised Code of England, which is that "grants should be apportioned upon the examination of individual children," and thus inaugurated in Bengal the celebrated system of payment for results. This system, working as it does in Bengal on the pre-existing schools of the people, differs from the same system as it prevails in England and other European countries, inasmuch as it makes no provision for trained teachers. It recognises in fact only the lower stage of elementary instruction, up to about the 4th pass standard of the English Code; and thus its effect on the schools is to confine them generally to the lower primary stage, and at the same time to keep down expenditure in them.

155. Both these qualities, and more particularly the latter, recommended the system during the years of financial pressure which followed the Behar famine of 1873-74, and which brought about a reduction of a lakh of rupees in the primary grant. It was strongly recommended, year after year, to the attention of district magistrates, and was finally adopted, with slight modifications, in almost all the districts of Bengal. The latest adaptation of the system took place in 1876-77 in the districts of Behar, where, on account of the use made of a new machinery constituted out of the more efficient village gurus, it was called the "chief guru" system. This system supplies a close network of organisation, which has been found very effective in bringing to light in Behar the smallest schools of the people, hid in the remotest corners of districts. In Orissa, the results of an almost identical scheme have been the same. Introduced lately into some of the Bengal districts, it has been found to be far more effective of its object than any system heretofore tried. It appears to be the best calculated to preserve and bring under organisation whatever "Indigenous schools exist in the country, which are or can be utilised as a part of the educational system,"—an object which has been commended in the Government Resolution of the 3rd February 1882.

156. In this view a full extract is here made of the working rules of the chief guru system:—

"Returns should be invited from the Indigenous unaided pathsalas of each district, on the promise of a small gratuity not exceeding one rupee per return. The returns are to be given in to the guru of the nearest aided pathsala, whose duty it will be to receive and correct the returns, and submit them to the sub-inspector of schools.

“Registers of attendance, at a cost not exceeding two annas per copy, should be supplied to gurus of unaided pathshalas who have furnished returns.

“The deputy inspectors of schools should hold half-yearly examinations of pathshalas at central gatherings.

“Every district should be divided into small circles, consisting of a group of pathshalas, and the best of the stipendiary gurus in the circle is to be denominated chief guru, the circle itself being called after the name of the village in which the chief guru's pathsala is held.

“It will be the duty of the chief guru to communicate notices that may be sent to him about gatherings for examinations, about the preparation of statistical returns, &c.

“It will be his duty to make payments of stipends or rewards, as the case may be, to all the gurus in his circle.

“It will be his duty to visit occasionally the pathshalas in his circle, and to help their gurus to teach themselves and their more advanced pupils.”

157. Up to the year 1880-81 the system had been introduced into 16 districts, which together returned 21,993 aided lower primaries, with 263,811 pupils. The estimated Government expenditure on account of primary education in these districts was Rs. 1,32,784.

158. The limits of the indigenous system of public instruction may be most easily reached by means of the chief gurus, if the district authorities keep in view the one object with which the system was started. As yet those limits have not been reached; first, because the district magistrates are here and there turning away from its main object, which is to bring all Indigenous schools, without exception, under a system of supervision and control; and secondly, because more time is required for the purpose.

159. But, although the limits have not been actually attained anywhere, it has now become possible to find very approximately the extent of the “outer circle” of indigenous education, within which lies the “inner circle,” covered by the departmental system of primary instruction. Thus, in the districts where the system of payment for results in some form or other is at work, the number of pathshalas returned in 1880-81 was in round numbers 45,000, with 760,000 pupils. It may be conjectured with fair probability that there are about two-thirds that number of pathshalas, with about three-fifths that number of pupils, still to be discovered and brought on the departmental returns. The total number of pathshalas may therefore be estimated at about 75,000, and of their pupils about 1,200,000 in the Provinces of Bengal, Behar, and Orissa, which contain a population of 68,000,000 souls by the last census, exclusive of Feudatory States outside the cognisance of the Department.

160. Now, if the children of a school-going age be taken to be 15 per cent. of the entire population as in European countries, there are altogether 10,200,000 children of that age in Bengal, of whom about 1,200,000 (mostly boys) are at schools either returned or not returned by the Department. The remaining 9,000,000 are as yet beyond the reach of schools. The question of bringing these within the range of primary instruction has not yet been considered. But there are two further considerations which complicate the question. The first is, that the percentage of children of a school-going age is most probably much larger in this country than in Europe, since the average duration of life is shorter. From figures supplied by the Deputy Superintendent of Census Operations in Bengal, it appears that the number of male children between the ages of 6 and 12 is approximately $5\frac{1}{2}$ millions, or 16 per cent. of the total male population of 34 millions. According to the returns of the United Kingdom, the number of school children outside the ages of 6 and 12 is to the number within those ages nearly as 3 to 7. The same proportion may be taken as applying to children of a school-going age

who are not at school. Hence the number of boys between 6 and 12 being in Bengal 16 per cent. of the male population, the total number of boys of a school-going age would on this computation be about 23 per cent., or 7,800,000. And the number of children of both sexes of a school-going age would therefore be not less than 15 millions. Still, it is dangerous to apply English ratios to Bengal scholars, and attention had better be confined to the 5½ millions of boys between the ages of 6 and 12,—a section of the people which is practically identical with the pathsala-going boy-population.

161. But, in the second place, it is not to be expected that the whole number of children between 6 and 12 will at any given time be found at school, even in that ideally perfect state wherein every child receives elementary instruction. Those limits have been taken as fixing the school-going age, because, as a matter of fact, they are found to include practically all the children in pathsalas. But within those limits some children go to school earlier, and some later; and as the necessary course of elementary instruction in Bengal does not occupy more than four years at the outside, to take a liberal view, it follows that if two-thirds of the children coming within these ages are at any given time at school, the whole population is being educated. Consequently, the number of male children that, in the final state of perfection, ought to be found within our schools is about 3,700,000, or say 4,000,000. And the number of such children actually at school is about 1,000,000. As soon, therefore, as we have brought our present primary system under proper organisation and control, there will remain about 3,000,000 male children still to be educated, whenever it may appear desirable to attempt that task. And we shall also have the whole of the girl population practically still untouched.

162. The results of the existing system may be generally shown by the following figures: In 1872-73, the first year of the scheme, the number of village schools brought under aid was 8,250, with 206,000 pupils, and the Government expenditure was Rs. 1,80,000. In the four following years, 1873 to 1877, when the stipendiary system was generally in full operation, the number of schools varied from 12,000 to 14,000, the number of pupils from 303,000 to 360,000, and the Government expenditure from Rs. 3,86,000 to Rs. 4,42,000. But in the next four years, 1877 to 1881, when by the emphatic declarations of Government the attention of district officers had been forcibly attracted to the system of payment for results, the number of schools coming under some kind of aid, examination, and control, advanced with rapid but even progress from 17,000 to 37,000, and the number of pupils from 406,000 to 670,000, while the Government expenditure remained stationary at Rs. 4,00,000.

163. It has been noticed that some unwillingness has here and there been evinced to take any active steps with the object of bringing under organisation all the Indigenous schools of the districts. This unwillingness arises from the circumstance that no marked improvement in the quality of instruction is immediately perceived in those pathsalas which are left under their 'old teachers. Two facts are, however, noteworthy as proving that, although no violence is done to the Indigenous schools in changing the *personnel* of their teachers, a change in that respect takes place slowly and imperceptibly under the operation of time, and of the system of inspection and control which has been devised. The average age of the gurus of the Patna Division, for instance, which was over 45 years in 1876-77, was in 1878-79 found to be very near 40 years. A similar gradual lowering of the average age of the teachers has been reported from different parts of Bengal. It is thus

seen that younger men, most of whom have probably received some sort of training, take charge of the pathshalas after their connection with Government. The pathshalas, in fact, rise in the public interest by that connection; and the competition with each other, to which they are subjected by the system of central examinations, attracts the village people and makes them exercise some selection in their appointment of the gurus. This gentle process of substitution has of late been indirectly stimulated by the institution of a system of examination for village teachers, attendance at which is altogether optional. But the system has as yet been introduced only into a certain number of districts. Cautiously worked, these examinations are expected to quicken the substitution of trained for untrained teachers in the primary schools, without provoking the hostility of the villagers or of their gurus.

164. But another, and an equally significant, indication of the general progress of the pathshalas, is furnished by the results of the Primary scholarship examination. These scholarships, to the number of 420, reduced by the transfer of Assam to 396, were instituted by Sir George Campbell in 1873; and it was expressly provided, in order to keep down the standard of the pathshalas, that their course of instruction should be confined to reading and writing the Vernacular of the district; arithmetic, written and mental; and bazaar and zemindari accounts, and simple mensuration. Within these limits, a fairly rigorous standard has been enforced.* In 1876-77, the date of the first systematic examination, there were 11,462 candidates from 3,110 schools, and 5,246 passed the test. In 1880-81, after a lapse of four years, there were 26,293 candidates from 7,887 schools, and 13,951 passed. That is to say, more than half of the Indigenous schools which in 1876-77 had been brought under control, had in 1880-81 advanced to the full primary scholarship standard.

165. Meanwhile the pre-existing departmental pathshalas of 1863-64, and a fairly large number of Indigenous schools which could not be kept within the moderate limits assigned to their class, had their status officially recognised in 1875, when a new set of scholarships, with a new and definite standard of instruction, was created for their benefit. The new standard showed a considerable advance over the old in arithmetic and the Vernacular, and added to it a little history and geography, Euclid, and the rudiments of physical knowledge. These schools were at first called "Lower Vernacular," and classed in the secondary system. In 1881 they found their proper place, and became "Upper Primary" schools. The number returned for that year was 1,700, with 60,000 pupils. Of these, 1,130 sent 2,930 pupils to the Lower Vernacular scholarship examination, and 1,677 were successful. Each school cost Government an average of Rs. 52 a year.

It may be added that the same causes which brought about the recognition of the class of "Upper Primary" schools led in 1875 to an attempt to systematise as "Lower Anglo-Vernacular schools" such of the pathshalas as had taken up the teaching of elementary English in addition to their ordinary subjects. It was not very successful: and the attempt was abandoned a few years later, in correspondence with the new movement placing English instruction in Middle schools on a Vernacular basis.

166. The discovery of large numbers of village pathshalas in Behar gave prominence to one important fact. It was found that the character (Kaithi) which the Indigenous pathshalas taught their pupils to read and write, and which had not been recognised in the pathshalas previously brought under Gov-

* Specimens of the questions set in different districts will be found in Appendix F.

ernment supervision, was the only one which could be employed with any hope of success, if the system of instruction was to be kept on the really broad and popular basis on which it rested. The Persian character was much affected by the higher classes of Muhummadans and Kayasths; the Devanagri was that most used by Brahmins and learned Hindus; but the Kaithi character was known and used in every village in Behar by Hindus and Muhummadans alike.

167. It was known, of course, from the commencement of educational operations in Behar, that Kaithi was the popular character. But it was also known that Kaithi was the popular character not of Behar only, but likewise of Oudh and the North-Western Provinces. Now, in devising their system of popular Elementary schools, the authorities of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh had entirely discarded the Kaithi and adopted the Devanagri. It was therefore concluded that the same ought to be done in Behar. What was not generally known was this, that it was the complete expulsion of Kaithi from the village records (Patwari papers) of the North-Western Provinces that had led to the weakening of the Indigenous schools of those parts, and the easy substitution to some extent of the Hulkabundi schools in their place. In Behar, where the settlement of the land revenue was permanent, and the Government had no concern with the Patwari papers, no force like that which had acted in the North-Western Provinces was employed to thrust the popular character out of use. The Indigenous pathsalas of Behar had thus been able to hold their own. It was considered a great boon, therefore, when the Government of Bengal, after ruling in April 1880 that the character thenceforward to be used in the Courts should be Nagri or Kaithi and not Persian, sanctioned and carried out measures for casting a fount of Kaithi type. Thus has originated an impetus to Vernacular education in Behar, which may be expected to yield results little short of those which followed in Bengal on the abolition of Persian and the introduction of Bengali in 1839.

168. The effects of the change which has thus been made in the character are expected to make themselves felt, sooner or later, in the language, not only of the Courts, but of popular literature and of school-books, making it more simple and less artificial than it is. But time is an essential element in such changes.

169. It may not, perhaps, be out of place here to enter some remarks on the general question of language, as by its many diversities, dialectic and other, it affects the question of national education in this country. It may be observed generally, in the first place, that the diversity of language and of races is sufficiently large to answer effectively all those imperial purposes in the light of which educational questions in this country may be viewed. In the tract of country which is comprised in the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal, there are (1) the Bengali, (2) the Hindi, (3) the Uriya languages, all of which have written characters and fairly rich literatures of their own. There is no prospect of these ever again coalescing, so as to form a common language, after having once diverged from the original stock. But each of these has its dialectic varieties. The Bengali of Noakhali and Chittagong, the Bengali of North Dinajpore and Rungpore, and the Bengali of Bankoorah, Beerbhoom, and North Midnapore, are perceptibly different from each other. Similarly, the Hindi of Tirhoot, of Shahabad, and of Patna and Gya, are not one and the same. Similar differences are found in the Uriya spoken in the Gurjats, in the Mungulbandi, in North Balasore, and in South Pooree.

170. The question is, which of these differences should be kept up in the educational system, and which not recognised, or recognised only to bring about

their extinction. The common-sense answer to the question seems to be that those linguistic differences alone are to be recognised in educational systems, which will grow with the growth of education and the spread of literature. In this view of the matter, it would follow that those languages only are to be kept up which have written characters and which possess a literature. In full accordance with this principle, Government sanctioned a proposal that Sonthals should be taught either Hindi or Bengali, according as they came into closer contact with Hindi or with Bengali-speaking people.

171. The Court of Directors, who appear to have been fully alive to the requirements of imperial rule, wrote as follows in one of their letters to the Government of India: "With regard to the language to be employed in the proposed periodical and in the Government schools of the Punjab, it appears to us that Mr. Macleod's opinion, that there is no reason to perpetuate it [the Punjabi], or even check its decadence at the expense of the superior Hindustani, by means of our educational system, is well worthy of your attention, not only with reference to the Punjab, but also to other provinces of which the Vernacular language is rude, and is wholly or almost exclusively confined to colloquial use, as we find to be the case in Sindh and elsewhere. It would confer a great benefit upon the people of India generally, if gradually, and without any steps calculated to offend local feelings or prejudices, but solely through the medium of the measures now in operation or contemplated for the improvement of education, Urdu-Hindustani could be made familiar in the first instance to the educated classes, and through them, as would certainly follow, to the great body of the people, to the eventual supersession of inferior local dialects."

172. Under one strong central rule the tendency is to unification,—a tendency, however, which can only operate to a certain limited extent in this country, where the elements of division will always be strong, because constitutional. Efforts, therefore, towards keeping up divisions which are not necessary for imperial purposes must militate against the general tendencies of civilised rule and render educational measures abortive of their ends. The practical question therefore appears to be, what dialects have such inherent vitality as will enable them to resist supersession by the current literary language. According to a school whose views have lately come into prominence, the dialects of Behar and the adjoining districts of the North-Western Provinces are so far removed, in all grammatical characteristics, from that which is known to philologists as "high Hindi," that in introducing certain educational works in that language into the pathshalas, even under their old guru-mahashays, we are imposing on the children a foreign tongue before we give them any instruction in their own vernacular. It is maintained, by the evidence of grammatical forms, that while literary Hindi is closely allied to the Western group of the dialects of Northern India from Allahabad to Delhi, and may rightly serve as the standard literary language for all the members of that group, it is at the same time so widely removed from the Eastern group—that is, chiefly, the dialects of Behar—that Bengali might actually be adopted as the standard language for that group with less violence than is now suffered by the official adoption of literary Hindi as the standard. The subject has but recently attracted attention in any prominent degree, and the position has been attacked and defended with equal vigour; but the question is of importance as bearing on the problem of extending primary education.

(6) *Training Schools.*

173. The number of Normal schools, Government and Aided, whether for masters or for mistresses, decreased from 41 in 1870-71 to 21 in 1880-81. Of these, 15 were Government and 6 Aided, two of the latter being for mistresses. There was a large increase of these schools in 1873-74, Government Normal schools and classes having risen to 58, and Aided Normal schools to 11. That was the highest number they ever reached, and since then they have been decreasing. The Normal schools increased in number when Sir George Campbell introduced into Bengal his scheme of primary education, of which the training of teachers was an essential element; their number diminished, because the method of "payment for results" enlarged the field of operations at a rate far too rapid for any system of training teachers to keep pace with, however short the period of training might be. The money saved by the abolition of Normal schools was laid out in increasing the number of sub-inspectors.

(7) *Technical Schools.*

174. Besides the School of Art in Calcutta, there were, in 1876-77, two Government industrial schools at Dacca and Dehree, and an Aided school, with a grant of Rs. 100 a month, under the German Mission at Ranchi. Of these, the European Branch of the Dehree school was absorbed into the lower department of the Civil Engineering College opened at Seebpore in 1880, when the school at Dacca was also closed.

175. Among other schools for special instruction may be noticed the "Native Civil Service classes," set up in 1872-73 at the Hooghly, Dacca, and Patna Colleges, to teach, among other things, drawing, engineering, gymnastics, and riding. These classes were broken up in 1875, and the grants for them diverted to the establishment of four Vernacular Survey schools at Hooghly, Cuttack, Dacca, and Patna. Of these, the Hooghly school was closed in 1880 for want of students. Vernacular medical schools were established in 1874-75 at Dacca, Patna, and Cuttack. There is an Industrial school at Bankipore, for the establishment of which the zemindars of Behar subscribed more than a lakh of rupees. Up to the close of this period, it had not succeeded in gaining a stable position.

176. For the encouragement of agricultural education, the establishment of two scholarships of £200 a year each, to be awarded annually and tenable for 2½ years, was sanctioned in 1880 to enable natives of Bengal to undergo a full course of instruction at the Agricultural College, Cirencester.

(8) *Girls' Schools.*

177. In 1878 a second Government girls' school was opened at Dacca. Aided girls' schools increased from 274 in 1871 to 699 in 1881, in which latter year 104 Unaided girls' schools were also returned.

178. The Bethune Girls' School, to which a college department was added in 1879, passed a candidate at the First Arts Examination of 1880, as did also the Female Normal School of the Free Church. Two senior scholarships were created by Government in 1881 to enable these students to read for the B.A. degree.

(9) *The Grant-in-aid system.*

179. The grant-in-aid rules underwent no very important changes. But their administration was in 1872-73 placed in the hands of District Committees. Allotments of the grant-in-aid fund were made in proportion to the schools

actually existing in the different districts, and better terms were offered to those districts and races which were backward. The existing practice of the department was constituted into the rule that grants were to be generally reduced on revision, as schools approached the self-supporting stage. Schools situated in municipalities were separately treated, on the principle that assistance might fairly be expected from the municipality, and a smaller Government grant was therefore needed than in rural places. This provision was, however, disallowed by the orders of the Government of India, under which aid given by municipalities was to be treated, like subscriptions and fees, as local contributions to be reckoned towards a grant.

180. District committees came to lean more and more upon the Inspector in the distribution of grants, until at length their intervention was in general of a purely formal kind. This was recognised by the Government of Bengal in 1877, and in a Resolution issued in the following year, the distribution of grants-in-aid was definitely transferred to the Inspector, subject to the concurrence of the District Magistrate and to the final authority of the Director. At the same time the pressure upon the grant-in-aid allotment, which had received no increase, became so great that its more economical administration was urgently called for. Attention was prominently and repeatedly called to the "inefficient margin" of schools,—that is, those whose performances at the public examinations were not held to be adequate to the grants made to them. Every school thenceforward had to justify its existence and its grant; failing which, after every extenuating circumstance had been taken into account, and if there seemed no prospect that liberal treatment would restore the school to efficiency, its class or its grant was reduced or withdrawn. The result of the measures has been to strengthen the general body of schools, although they were attended with loss to the weaker members. The grant-in-aid system is now administered in the light of two principles—one that grants are liable to revision in accordance with the results achieved at the departmental and other examinations; and the other, that new schools are to be aided out of the savings effected by cutting down old grants.

181. The grant-in-aid assignment, which was rather imperfectly defined, was increased from Rs. 4,36,768 in 1871-72 to Rs. 5,18,300 in 1872-73 (Assam inclusive). In the next year Assam took away its allotment of Rs. 22,000, and the grant-in-aid assignment for Bengal, Behar, and Orissa was fixed at Rs. 4,96,300. In 1875-76 this allotment was reduced through financial pressure to Rs. 4,20,000, and again increased in 1876-77 to Rs. 4,61,000. The sanctioned estimate for grants-in-aid was Rs. 4,25,000 in 1880-81, and the actual expenditure Rs. 4,13,321.

(10) *Musulman education.*

182. It has not been deemed advisable to break the continuity of the narrative of educational progress in Bengal by reference to that of any one or more sections of the community. But the question of the education of Muhammadans, who as a rule held back for a long time from the system of public instruction inaugurated by Government, is one of great importance. It will now be reviewed by itself.

183. The Musulmans, like the Hindus, have a literature and a learned class of their own. The first Muhammadan conquerors of India were noted for their patronage of learning at home; and the great sovereigns of their race, while "they lavished honours on indigenous talent, spared neither pains nor expense to attract to their courts from other neighbouring countries men of high

literary attainments." The Muhammadans in their early days, moved by fanaticism as they were, destroyed much in India, but they built up not a little. They destroyed temples, but they built mosques. They took away the endowments which supported Hindu learning, but they made other endowments for the promotion of Muhammadan learning. There was not a mosque or *emambarah* in which professors of Arabic and Persian were not maintained. As the Hindus took to learning the language and laws of their rulers, they found opportunities for the acquisition of such knowledge, not only by entertaining private teachers (Akhanjis) in their families, but also by reading in the mosque schools. Muktabs again sprung up, in imitation of pathsalas, wherever Musulmans predominated in number. The two people began to mix; and Urdu, that offspring of many languages, was born. Only two generations ago there were, even in these Lower Provinces, more people who studied Persian and Urdu than there now are who know English. What Behar is at the present day, in respect of the cultivation of Persian, Bengal was fifty years ago.

184. Enjoying such predominance all over the country, and believing firmly in the superiority of their own literature to that of their conquerors, the Muhammadans felt no call to acquire English education. The peace and security offered to the land by British supremacy reconciled both the peoples to British rule; but the Muhammadans could not so easily forego those national aspirations which the existence of Muhammadan nationalities outside India necessarily kept up. The Hindu had long buried the last relics of such aspirations, and no events within or outside his country could revive them, even in imagination. This difference in the spirit of the two peoples—the genuine outcome of their diverse historical existence—is seen in the difference of the two watch-words which are even now employed by them to denote any change which they may at times contemplate in their social lives. With the Musulman it is *revival*; with the Hindu it is *reformation*. This offers the true explanation of the fact why the Musulman in India took less eagerly to English education than the Hindu. The Government educational measures have been very unjustly charged with an attempt "to bar knowledge to the Muhammadans except they gain it through English," as if Government had ever neglected to do anything which was calculated to conciliate the Muhammadans to their educational measures. The very opposite was the fact.

185. The first educational institution established by the the first Governor General of the East India Company was, as has been seen, the Calcutta Madrassa, founded in 1781, in which Muhammadan learning was supported, in accordance with the custom of the country, by stipends to pupils and salaries to professors. The Committee of Public Instruction edited and printed a considerable number of Arabic works which had gone out of use. They added to the Madrassa in 1829 an English Department, as they did to the Sanskrit College. They took under their supervision the Hooghly Madrassa, which had been founded on an endowment made by a Muhammadan gentleman. But, notwithstanding the early attention which the Muhammadan community had thus received, it did not come forward as readily as the Hindu to avail itself of the advantages of the education offered by Government. "The Muhammadans," as Mr. Cumin, reporting on their backwardness in educational matters, observed, "suffered from their bigoted trust in the superiority of their own creed and literature." There was another and a stronger cause—their natural sense of humiliation. The Council of Education in 1849 directed their earnest attention to the reformation of the Calcutta Madrassa, after they had tried without success

the important measure of appointing a European Principal at the head of the institution. A junior or Anglo-Persian Department was formed, and school fees began to be levied. Some bright Muhammadan youths, who had pursued their studies in English up to the senior scholarship standard in the Anglo-Persian (or junior) Department of the Madrassa, were appointed to deputy magistracies; and some effect, however slight, was thus produced upon the Muhammadan community of Calcutta. On a representation being made by them, the Anglo-Persian Department of the Calcutta Madrassa was raised to the status of a college.

186. But no more than six undergraduate students were found to join the new college (1867-68). Next year the number was only four (1868-69); the year after (1869-70) only three, all of whom left within the session. At the instance of the Muhammadan community, a Commission was immediately appointed; and on the report of the Commission in 1872-73, and in accordance with a Resolution upon it by the Government of India, the Bengal Government set free Rs. 55,000 from the Hooghly College Endowment, and established with this sum (originally intended as it was for Muhammadan education only) three new madrassas, with attached boarding-houses and low rates of fees, in those parts of Bengal which were most thickly peopled by Muhammadans. These, with the existing Madrassa at Hooghly, took up half the income of the endowment; the other half was devoted to the foundation of scholarships for Muhammadan boys, and to the payment of two-thirds of the fees of Muhammadan pupils reading in English schools and colleges. The endowment was therefore devoted in nearly equal proportions to the promotion of Oriental and of English education; and a similar division prevailed in the Calcutta Madrassa itself, in which half the pupils belonged to the Arabic and half to the Anglo-Persian Department. At the same time the Colinga Branch School of the Calcutta Madrassa was appropriated to the Muhammadans exclusively.

187. That Muhammadan education has received a strong impulse may be gathered from the fact that Muhammadan gentlemen have of late years proceeded to England to qualify themselves for the Bar. This is a circumstance connected with Musulman education which is not without significance. The advance of English education among Muhammadans is as yet very much less pronounced than among Hindus. And yet the number of Musulman gentlemen who have finished their education in England is proportionately large. This difference is not all owing, as may be supposed, to the prevalence of the caste system among Hindus. It is rather that the Musulman feels much more acutely than the Hindu the existence of social inequality, which he would do all in his power to remove. Equality among co-religionists is not only the Musulman's creed, but it has been his habitual practice for generation after generation.

188. The following table will show the number and relative proportion of Muhammadans receiving education of different grades in 1880-81:—

	Pupils.	Percentage.
University education in general and professional colleges	115	4.1
High schools	3,603	8.3
Middle schools	11,861	12.6
Primary schools	166,810	21.7
Madrassas	1,558	100.0
Other schools for special education	603	13.3
TOTAL	184,550	

The point to be noticed is the rapid rate at which the proportion of Muhammadan to other pupils decreases as the standard of instruction rises.

(11) *Education of non-Aryan races.*

189. Different non-Aryan races inhabit different tracts within the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal. The more important among them are —(1) the Sonthals, (2) the Kols, (3) the Paharias, and (4) the Khonds. The education of these tribes has hitherto been chiefly undertaken by missionary agency, with the assistance and encouragement of Government. Whenever they have been asked for, liberal grants-in-aid have been given for the support of educational work among those races; and in the case of the hill tribes found in the Sub-Himalayan tracts about Darjeeling, the main portion of the district grant for primary education has been for some years made over bodily to the local representative of the Scotch Mission for the support of his schools. The Church Mission Society received a year ago an increase in its annual grant from Rs. 5,000 to Rs. 6,000, for the promotion of Sonthal education. Indeed, there has never been any semblance of hostility or indifference on the part of the Department to the educational work of missionaries, especially among uncivilised races. The spirit by which the Department has been actuated in this respect may be gathered from the following extract from the report of the Inspector of the Behar Circle in 1876:—

“Of the whole number of Sonthals, 62 per cent., or 1,269, are in mission schools; in ordinary pathsalas the proportion of Sonthals is only 21 per cent. of the whole number of pupils. Consequently, if it be really intended to promote education among the Sonthals, and to wean them, so far as an elementary education can do so, from the vice of drunkenness, I know no better way of effecting that object than to largely augment the grants now made to the Church Missionary Society and the Indian Home Mission, to their boarding-schools especially. The object of these schools is to train up a number of young people, whether Christian converts or not, to act as pioneers of civilisation and order in their own villages; and their peculiar merit is that they train young women as well as young men; so that numbers of Sonthal children in the coming generation will be surrounded from their birth by humanising influences. These future mothers of families are cheaper and better instruments of civilisation than any schoolmasters that we can send abroad into the Sonthal villages.”

The Director remarked hereon;—

“I am quite at one with [the Inspector] in all this about the Sonthal Missions; and I note that the Inspector of Schools in Chota Nagpore has formed a very similar estimate of the work of the missionaries among the Kols and Sonthals of his division.”

190. *The Sonthals* inhabit chiefly the Manbhoom and partly the Hazaribagh districts of Chota Nagpore, the districts of Beerbhoom, Bankoorah, and Midnapore in Bengal proper; and the Sonthal Pergunnahs and adjoining districts of the Bhaugulpore division. They numbered, in 1881, 883,938 souls.

The education of the Sonthals has, until lately, been exclusively in the hands of the missionaries. The Church Mission and the Indian Home Mission have their stations in the Sonthal Pergunnahs and the adjoining district of Beerbhoom; and the Free Church Mission works in the districts of the Chota Nagpore division. The American Free Baptist Missionary Society, which began work first (1840) in Balasore, and thence extended its operations upwards through Jellasure, and lastly to Midnapore, has established training and village schools for Sonthals in the western tracts which border upon Manbhoom.

191. Since 1872-73, when allotments for primary education were made to the several districts and placed at the disposal of the local officers, Sonthal

children have been brought into the ordinary pathshalas. The following table exhibits the number attending different schools in 1880-81 :—

	Chota Nagpore Division.	Bhaugulpore Division.	Burdwan Division.	TOTAL.
	1880-81.	1880-81.	1880-81.	
Middle schools	1	103	...	104
Primary schools	133	2,067	2,032	2,232
TOTAL	134	2,170	2,032	2,336

Latterly a special scheme for extending Sonthal education has been sanctioned by Government. This scheme is based upon the progress already made chiefly through the efforts of the Missionary Societies; and it proposes to take up the education of the Sonthals on a system closely connected with their village organisation.

192. *The Kols*.—These people inhabit chiefly the district of Singbhoom, in Chota Nagpore. They belong, like the Sonthals, to the forest tribes (Kolarian) which are supposed to have entered India in the earliest times from the north-east. The German Mission, organised by Pastor Gossner on the principle that “all candidates for missionary work should be mechanics, and willing to earn their livelihood by manual labour,” began work at Ranchi among the Kols in 1845. In 1848 a station was opened at Lohardugga, in 1850 another at Gobindpore, and in 1853 a third at Hazaribagh. There was a schism in the mission in 1868, when some of the missionaries left the parent society and joined the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel. The success of this mission among the Kols of Chota Nagpore has been great, as regards both its evangelical and its educational work. The Normal and Theological school at Ranchi is a strong institution, supplied with the best and most promising pupils from the 80 village schools scattered over the district. The example of their pastors has not been lost upon the converted Kols. They are by all reports industrious in their habits, taking as readily to agricultural as to mechanical pursuits.

The number of children belonging to these people, attending the schools of different agencies in 1880-81, is shown in the table below:

	1880-81.		
	Christians.	Non-Christians.	TOTAL.
High and Middle schools, English and Vernacular	236	124	360
Upper Primary schools	70	211	281
Lower Primary schools	890	4,215	5,135
Normal schools	179	16	195
Industrial schools	26	...	26
TOTAL	1,401	4,596	5,997
Other aboriginal tribes	1,516

From the progress already made among the Kols, there is some likelihood that a scheme less expensive than that lately sanctioned for the Sonthals may be introduced among them in time.

193. *The Paharias*.—These inhabit the elevated parts of the Sonthal Pergunnahs. They are divided into two septs, the *Asal* Paharias and the *Mal* Paharias. Out of the former were formed the hill-rangers of Cleveland, whose children received education in the school set up for them close to Bhaugulpore.

Both tribes are restless in their habits, and their children come but occasionally to the pathsalas attended by the Sonthals. At the suggestion of Bishop Heber (1825), the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel tried to work among these people for about two years. Since then no measures for the special education of the Paharias have been framed either by missionary bodies or by the Government. One hundred and fifty-four Paharia children attended the Sonthal pathsalas in 1880-81.

194. *The Khonds*.—These interesting people belong to the Dravidian race, but are not very numerous. They inhabit the southern spurs of the Gurjat Mehals of Orissa. A body of Father Gossner's missionaries made an attempt in 1840 to settle in the Khondmals, but many of the missionaries died shortly after reaching their field of labour, and the survivors removed to Chota Nagpore. The progress of education in the Khondmals under Government agency is reported to be fairly satisfactory. The schools, 26 in number, are supported chiefly by a cess levied on the sale of liquor, which was imposed with that object at the request, it is said, of the people themselves. They contained 893 pupils in 1880-81.

195. The Government boarding-school at Darjeeling is attended by Lepchas from Sikkim, and by Bhootas from Sikkim, Bhootan, and Tibet. All the pupils learn English and Tibetan. Its purpose was to train up a body of explorers, surveyors, and interpreters; and it has been fairly successful in each capacity.

196. In 1841 a mission was established among the Lepchas of the Darjeeling hills, on the self-supporting plan of Father Gossner. The Church of Scotland has also some stations in these hills, and has established a certain number of Primary schools, chiefly for the children of Nepalese coolies working in the tea-gardens.

197. In 1840 the Welsh Methodist Mission established its first station at Cherrapunjee, and extended its operations in 1850 to Sylhet. From 1872 the mission has confined its labours to the Khasia and Jyntea hills. The mission has under it 78 day and night schools, attended by 1,843 pupils of both sexes. The Government grant is Rs. 5,000 per annum.

198. There is a boarding-school in the Hill Tracts of Chittagong for Mughs (or Hill Burmese) and Chukmas. Nineteen Kyoungs (or schools attached to Buddhist monasteries) with 339 pupils were returned for these tracts in 1881.

199. A question very prominently connected with the education of the aboriginal tribes has long attracted notice in these provinces. The introduction of the Roman character throughout the country, to take the place of the various characters in local use, has been advocated on general grounds by men like Trevelyan. Such advocacy, however, has had no practical effect on those races which have their own systems of letters. Among aboriginal races the case is different. The writing taught is in many cases the Roman, although not quite invariably. But the difficulty is that these tribes, as they advance in letters, come into contact with people with whom in business transactions their knowledge of the Roman character proves to be of little use. Their isolation is not removed by knowledge thus imparted. The tribes would apparently profit more if they learnt the language and letters of their nearest neighbours. A complete alphabet and a system of distinct writing are the common heritage of the great bulk of the Indian people; and unless there is any prospect of superseding these throughout the country by the general use of the Roman character, the advantage of teaching that character to isolated races appears questionable.

200. The following statements refer to the year 1880-81:—

Statement of Schools and Pupils in 1880-81.

	1880-81.	
	Schools.	Pupils.
Government colleges, general	12	1,260
" " professional	9	662
" High English schools	48	13,867
" Middle " "	9	1,214
" " Vernacular schools	172	9,615
" Upper Primary " "	9	293
" Lower " "	10	266
" Girls' schools	2	307
" Eurasian " "	1	33
" Special " "	25	1,222
" madrassas	6	1,006
Aided colleges (general)	5	808
" High English schools	91	11,183
" Middle " "	441	27,302
" " Vernacular " "	769	39,941
" Upper Primary " "	1,632	56,552
" Lower " "	35,992	618,062
" Girls' schools	699	13,623
" Eurasian " "	41	3,762
" Special " " (mostly Indigenous)	460	3,420
" madrassas and mukhtabs	360	2,480
Unaided colleges (general)	3	458
" High English schools	72	16,256
" Middle " "	123	6,179
" " Vernacular schools	87	4,622
" Upper Primary " "	61	2,443
" Lower " "	5,697	83,240
" Girls' schools	167	3,607
" Special (Indigenous)	473	3,839
" madrassas and mukhtabs	92	897
TOTAL	47,568	928,489

Statement of Expenditure in 1880-81.

	Government Expenditure.	Expenditure from other sources.	Total Expenditure.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Direction	66,612	...	66,612
Inspection	3,61,177	...	3,61,177
University	...	55,032	55,032
Government colleges, general	2,24,225	1,14,908	3,39,133
" " professional	2,06,050	40,974	2,47,024
" madrassas	35,784	2,941	38,725
" schools	2,02,575	3,50,836	5,53,411
" special schools	1,57,700	13,122	1,70,822
" girls' " "	13,421	3,815	17,236
Aided colleges	19,550	97,442	1,16,992
" madrassas	278	1,545	1,823
" schools	7,08,769	19,45,488	26,54,257
" special schools	9,585	18,246	27,831
" girls' schools (for Europeans and Natives)	76,160	1,55,617	2,61,777
Unaided schools	...	3,99,577	3,99,577
" madrassas	...	12,857	12,857
" special schools	...	32,018	32,018
" girls' " "	...	23,131	23,131
Scholarships	1,54,961	17,540	1,72,501
Buildings	2,18,289	29,215	2,47,504
Miscellaneous	22,124	8,749	30,873
TOTAL	24,77,260	33,53,053	58,30,313

PART III.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE STATE OF EDUCATION IN 1881-82.

201. The leading characteristics of the year 1881-82 appear, like those of its predecessors, to have been decided by impulses communicated from the ruling country. The several Christian Associations in England and Scotland which have missions and educational institutions in India, having united themselves into one body under the title of the "General Council on Education in India," proceeded, by the issue of pamphlets, the delivery of lectures and discourses, and the submission of memorials, and also by waiting in deputation upon the Secretary of State and the outgoing Governor General, to invite the attention of the authorities to a review of the educational administration of this country. These measures were set on foot in 1879, and they may have contributed in some measure to the appointment of a Commission in India, which, in the words of the Government Resolution, dated 3rd February 1882, constituting it, is "to enquire particularly into the manner in which effect has been given to the principles of the Despatch of 1854, and to suggest such measures as it may think desirable in order to the further carrying out of the policy therein laid down." These words are clear, and can bear but one interpretation. They show that no departure from the principles laid down in the Despatch of 1854 is intended. On the contrary, they invite suggestions for carrying out still further the principles and policy of that Despatch.

202. The Council on Education is largely composed of missionary members, who have naturally revived many of those controversies with which the bodies to which they belong were more or less connected in past times. But one new feature very distinctly marks the movement now set on foot. Along with the old proposals for the withdrawal of Government from the State colleges, and for more favourable terms of grant-in-aid, the Council have made comparisons, not as heretofore between one Indian Province and another, but between the educational administration of the dependency and that of the ruling country.

203. Thus they say—

- (1) "In this country [England] we devote almost one-twentieth part of the revenue to the education of the people, about 2s. 6d. a head of the population. In India it is only one-eightieth part, and less than 1d. a head."
- (2) "Taking all, it appears that there is on the average of all India only one institution for fourteen square miles, and nine pupils for each thousand of the population, not a tithe of what it ought to be. In our country [England] we expect one in six or seven to be at school, *i. e.*, about 160 in the thousand."
- (3) "It is found that this department [that for elementary instruction in India] has been carried on so feebly that it does not even keep pace with the natural increase of the population, so that there are now more millions of uneducated children than when the Code [Despatch of 1854] was first established."
- (4) "Notwithstanding what had been done during the last 27 years, we are farther from overtaking the education of the mass of the people than when we began; for while we did not add 50,000 a year to our schools, the birth-rate added nearly 200,000 children of school-age to the population of the country."

204. The mode of estimating educational progress adopted by the Council, as shown in the above extracts, is thoroughly European, and not at all Indian. The idea of directly educating *all* the children of the community was not entertained for India even so late as 1871, when the Duke of Argyll wrote as follows to the Viceroy: "If we can once instil into the real upper classes of India, that one of the main duties of society is to provide sound primary instruction for the humbler classes, we shall lay the real foundation for that general system of education which it is the desire of Your Excellency's Government to establish." Nor was the idea of educating all the children of the community entertained by the most sanguine educationists in India, who in view of such a question declared that "it was not to be dealt with by the present generation."

205. In fact, the measurement of Indian educational progress by a European standard is an entirely new element in the controversy; and, although it has been brought forward by the Council in reference to elementary instruction only, it cannot fail to bear more or less on every department of administration. The Council themselves have indicated such comparisons, though with the view of repudiating them in some cases.

206. Thus their Secretary writes—

- (1) "From the returns for 1877-78, we find that the ordinary expenditure was £51,430,673, and including that on Productive Public Works, in which class education might be more accurately put than many of the public works and working expenses of Railways and Canals, it was £58,178,563. Of this sum, £15,792,112 was spent on the Army; £2,158,032 on Police; £3,519,668 on Ordinary Public Works; £3,275,821 on Law and Justice; more than £7,000,000 on the collection of revenue; and only £730,013 on the entire education of about 200,000,000 of people."
- (2) "It may be said with apparent truth that 46 colleges, with a total of less than 5,000 pupils in all the colleges of India, what are these among so many millions? Compared with the colleges in European countries, it would be miserably inadequate."
- (3) "These numbers [that come up to the examinations of the Indian Universities] though large, are not, it may be said, great when compared with the population of India No comparison can be drawn from European habits, where the higher education is part of the equipment of the life of a gentleman, as well as a qualification for professional employment."

207. The above quotations have been made with the view of showing that the application of the European standard to any part of Indian administration cannot be strictly confined to that part only. The principle once admitted must necessarily extend in all directions, and help forward that general administrative progress the existence of which has made such comparison possible in any. The year 1881-82 will itself afford a remarkable instance of the close relations that exist between the progress of elementary instruction, of industrial improvement, and of internal self-government. The same Government which has appointed the Education Commission has also promulgated the order of the 19th November 1881, under which Indian manufactures are to be purchased in preference to European whenever they are not more costly, and has passed

Resolution after Resolution insisting on the introduction of local self-government throughout the country.

208. The prominent characteristics of the year under review and their possibly abiding effects having been generally indicated, it is now necessary to proceed to a description, on the lines laid down by the Commission (see Appendix C), of the actual state of education on 31st March 1882 in the Provinces of Lower Bengal.

Physical Aspects of the Country and Social Condition of the People.

209. Four Provinces, more or less distinctly marked from each other in different ways, constitute the administrative division of Lower Bengal. These Provinces are, (1) Bengal Proper, (2) Behar, (3) Orissa, and (4) Chota Nagpore. Until lately a fifth Province, Assam, was under the same administration. But Bengal after its separation from Assam still constitutes the largest administrative division of British India, its area being 187,222 square miles, and its population by the last census 69,536,861 souls. The figures are given in more detail in the table below from the two census returns for 1871 and 1881:—

No.	Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal.	Area in square miles.	Cultivated area in imperial acres.*	POPULATION.			TOTAL.
				Males.	Females.	Children.	
1	Bengal	(1871) 85,483 (1881) 75,823	25,621,482 ...	11,643,071 12,009,852	12,756,263 12,117,568	12,335,139 12,178,469	36,734,473 36,305,889
2	Behar	(1871) 42,417 (1881) 44,139	19,835,309 ...	6,102,788 7,342,528	6,718,639 7,766,315	6,914,674 8,018,261	19,736,101 23,127,104
3	Orissa	(1871) 23,901 (1881) 24,240	2,597,579 ...	1,326,295 1,653,333	1,460,859 1,715,345	1,530,845 1,831,199	4,317,999 5,199,877
4	Chota Nagpore .	(1871) 43,901 (1881) 43,020	6,591,098 ..	1,116,846 1,481,858	1,229,138 1,526,126	1,479,587 1,896,007	3,825,571 4,903,991
	Total of 1871 .	195,702	54,645,468	20,189,000	22,164,899	22,260,245	64,614,144
	Total of 1881 .	187,222†	22,487,571	23,125,354	23,923,936	69,536,861

* From the Report of the Famine Commission (1879).

† Excluding the area of the Sundarbans, estimated at 5,976 square miles, but including the Feudatory States, with an estimated area of 36,634 square miles and a population of 2,845,405.

210. If the area and population of the Lieutenant-Governorship of Bengal be taken at 100, the figures for the other great administrative divisions of British India will stand as follows:—

	Area.	Population.
(1) Of Madras	89	52
(2) Of Bombay and Sind	79	27
(3) Of the Punjab	67	29
(4) Of the North-Western Provinces and Oudh	68	69

The whole of the United Kingdom itself, if measured on this scale, will be represented in area by the figure 77, and in population by 51.

211. This vast extent of country, with its immense population, is very varied in aspect and character in its different parts. On the north it penetrates to some extent the Sub-Himalayan region, and stretches up the heights of that range to about 10,000 feet above the sea level; its central tract is constituted by the vast basins of the Ganges and Brahmaputra rivers, which are navigable by river steamers through their entire course of 900 and 460 miles respectively within the Province; its coast line, which measures roughly 700 miles round the head of the Bay of Bengal, is everywhere a sandy or muddy shore unfit for harbours, but cut through by broad rivers which have created fertile deltas and malarious swamps and jungles before they entered the sea; and its south-

western tract is high and hilly, and belongs geologically to the great plateau which constitutes the old table-land of peninsular India.

212. Tracts so varied in character necessarily vary in climate and meteorological conditions, in fertility and accessibility, and as a consequence in the past history and the present density and character of the population inhabiting them. The Himalayan and Sub-Himalayan tracts, which may be said to constitute three districts, measure 5,477 square miles, have a temperate climate in their more elevated parts, show a rainfall of more than 100 inches in the year, and are fertile with the exuberant fertility of the Terai; but their situation beyond the ordinary trade routes of the country has kept the population of 192 to a square mile comparatively stationary, and has to some extent isolated the non-Aryan tribes of the Tibeto-Burman type, which chiefly compose it, from the bulk of the Bengali population. The large river basins, including those of Orissa, which roughly speaking constitute 37 districts and cover an area of 112,743 square miles, are open to the sea-breeze, have a climate varying in humidity with the distance from the sea, and a rainfall of from 37 to 100 inches in the year. These vast alluvial plains are diversified in character by their varied cereal, fibrous, oilseed and dye plants, and are everywhere more or less open to trade; they bear on the average an incidence to the square mile of 501 inhabitants, who are of more or less pure Aryan descent. The languages spoken in these tracts are Hindi (by 35·6 per cent. of the total population), Bengali (by 52·6 per cent.), and Uriya (by 7·8 per cent.). These languages are cognate, and are closely connected with the Sanskrit. Certain Mongolian dialects, such as the Newari, Mechi, Koch, Garo, and Lepcha, are spoken by tribes in the eastern mountain ranges and in the Himalayan and Sub-Himalayan regions.

213. The Chota Nagpore plateau, with the Tributary Mehals of Orissa, may be taken to constitute six districts, measuring 60,085 square miles in all. These elevated tracts are out of the influence of the great river routes. The greater heat radiated from the drier soil, although parching to the fields, is not so relaxing to the muscles as the hot humid air of the plains. The rainfall varies from 45 to 50 inches in the year, and the population is sparse, being 85 to the square mile. It consists in a large measure of various Kolarian and Dravidian tribes, who have but partially accepted the civilisation of the Hindus, and some of whom seem to be just emerging from the stone age. The languages spoken in these parts are very various, and are classified into two groups—the Kolarian and the Dravidian. The latter are weak, and each dialect of the group is spoken by less than one hundred thousand people. Of the former the chief are the Sonthal (spoken by 1·6 per cent. of the total population of the Province), and the Kol (by 1·3 per cent.). Hindi is spreading in the north and west, Bengali in the east, and Uriya in the south.

214. The country under the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal is thus large in extent, and varied in its physical aspects and conditions, and also in the diverse ethnic elements of its numerous population. But by far the largest portion of the country consists, as has been seen, of extremely fertile river basins; and the great bulk of its people are of more or less mixed Aryan descent, industrious and intelligent, mild in disposition, and easy to govern.

215. The people live essentially on a vegetable diet, and 94 per cent. of them dwell in rural villages. The towns, inclusive of village unions, with more than 5,000 inhabitants each, are only 242 in number, and do not contain altogether more than 6 per cent. of the population. In England, as is

well known, the urban population is returned as 65 and the rural as only 35 per cent. The circumstances of England, however, are quite exceptional. No other country in the world imports so much food, and in none is living so dear, or the wages of every kind of labour so high. But even in France, which is eminently an agricultural country, and in which the proportion of rural to urban population is exactly the reverse of that of England, the percentage of agriculturists does not exceed 50 in all. This is the most important point in the social economy of Bengal, that its rural population is far in excess of the requirements of agriculture. The total agricultural population being $58\frac{1}{2}$ millions, and the total acreage under cultivation rather short of 55 millions, there falls on the average less than one acre to each person.

216. As shown in the table below, the excess of the agricultural class in Bengal is between 7 and 9 per cent., if estimated on the standard of France. This characteristic phenomenon will be seen still more conspicuously on a closer comparison of the Lower Provinces with the rest of the British Indian Empire.

217. The following tabulated statement will afford elements for such a comparison, and may prove of some practical use in elucidating the socio-economic condition of these parts:—

OCCUPATION OF ADULT MALES.	Percentage for British India, Lower Provinces excepted.	Percentage for the Lower Provinces inclusive of Assam.	Percentage for the Lower Provinces only.
1. Agriculturists	55·00	58·58	57·71
2. Labourers (chiefly agricultural) .	12·01	12·87	13·36
3. Commercial	4·88	5·89	6·00
4. Industrial	14·03	11·23	11·39
5. Service (public)	3·89	{ 1·12 }	{ 1·15 }
6. Professional		{ 1·90 }	
7. Service (domestic)	6·62	5·35	5·43
8. Non-productive and independent	3·57	3·06	3·03

It is seen at once that Bengal has "agriculturists" and "labourers" above the average, "industrial" classes below it, "commercial" classes above, and "non-productive" persons below. It will also be remarked that in "public service" and "professions," as well as in "domestic service," the percentages for Bengal are below the averages obtained for other parts of British India.

218. Proceeding now to remark on each of the above heads, it is observed in respect of (1) "agriculturists," that their redundancy in Bengal is greater by more than 2 per cent. than in the rest of British India; although, even in the other administrative divisions, the proportion is high if measured by the standard of European countries, where far less onerous conditions have necessitated the imposition of heavy poor-rates on the communities concerned. The mild communistic principles, however, which underlie the Hindu social organisation in its village system, its caste guilds, and its joint-family, have enabled the people to bear up against the pressure of over-population in years of average yield, although the effects are more and more felt in the low standard of living, in the exhaustive processes of agriculture, in the yearly increasing encroachments of "arable" upon "pasture," and the consequent deterioration of man, land, and cattle. It has been estimated that the average income per head of an agriculturist in Bengal, after deduction of the Government revenue and the zemindar's rent, is £1·42 per annum. Taking a peasant's family to consist of 5·14

persons, including himself, he has therefore a total yearly sum of £7·3, with which to provide food, house, clothing, feed of cattle, and incidental expenses. The largest number of persons in the country deriving yearly incomes from land of Rs. 200 (£20) and upwards was found not to exceed 100,715, zemindars included. It must, therefore, be considered a very important point in the social economy of the country that in such circumstances people do not go out of it. The small emigration beyond sea, which does take place, is not only temporary, but not at all from the parts of the country which are most thickly peopled. An attempt made so recently as 1873-74, to induce agriculturists from the most populated districts of Bengal to go and settle no further than British Burma, proved a failure. It was attributed to the caste prejudices of the people, which are supposed to prohibit all sea voyages. They seem, however, to be just as unwilling to migrate permanently within the country itself, as to go beyond sea. His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor of Bengal has had quite recently to notice how, under the most tempting conditions, men from the overcrowded Patna Division (553 to the square mile) did not move to the contiguous division of Bhagulpore, which had in parts not more than 229 people to the square mile.

219. There is no doubt, however, that up to some time after the establishment of British rule, there were large migratory movements from the overpopulated river-basins to the more outlying districts of the country. Almost every village of those districts has its tradition telling how and whence the people came, the names of those who led them being in most cases preserved in the names of the villages which they established. The *jungle-buri* tenures mentioned in the decennial settlement indicate the form of tenure for immigrant settlers known to the country from the remotest period. They prove the strength of the migratory movement in past times. Such movements, from whatever cause, have become weak in these latter days; and as the people have grown less accustomed than before to the guidance of men of their own community, there are few now whom they will follow with confidence to settle in distant parts, although a strong Government has given peace and security to the country everywhere, in the hilly tracts of the South-West, on the slopes of the Himalayan and Eastern ranges, and within the jungles of the Sundarbans.

220. Over-population, unrelieved by the exodus of the people, has had the effect of making the peasantry very mindful, within their means, of agricultural improvements. Witnesses of their work are not wanting, who declare that the Bengal agriculturist has little or nothing to learn from his brother of Europe; and that, although not so wedded to his old ways as to refuse to change where the advantages of change are certain, he cannot afford to make any doubtful experiments. The Bengal peasantry are sober, thrifty, and observant. They understand the advantages of irrigation, of manuring, and of the rotation of crops. But with their straitened means, they would rather not pay irrigation rates in years of copious rainfall, nor save for manure the refuse of their cattle and find fuel they know not where, nor vary their crops more than is permitted by the imperative necessities of food. Comprehensive measures of agricultural improvement require much larger resources of capital and science than a crowded peasantry, though invested with quasi-ownership, can possibly command.

221. Coming now to the next head of (2) "labourers (chiefly agricultural)," it is seen that the percentage is higher in Bengal than in the other Provinces. This class is, broadly speaking, landless at the outset. But under the system

of sub-letting in vogue, the more fortunate among them contrive gradually to obtain some connection with the land. Almost all the lower caste Hindus, or "semi-Hinduised aborigines," as they are called in the census report, who now own rights of some sort in the land, once began as landless labourers, as will be seen more clearly further on.

222. As regards the 3rd class, "commercial," and the 4th class, "industrial," it is seen that, while the former is larger, the latter is smaller in Bengal than in the rest of British India. These results are only such as might be expected in the circumstances. Bengal has been longer, and, owing to its splendid river-system, more largely open than any other part of the Empire to the import of European manufactures. The active and energetic traders of Bengal, who established themselves from very early times on its river-banks, found the means of profit in carrying to all parts of the country the imports from Europe, and in bringing down the raw produce of the interior to the metropolitan and other ports for export beyond sea. It is shown, in a statement not at all exhaustive, that the internal trade of Bengal in 1876-77 amounted in value to £49,931,400. The external trade, however, is not in the hands of this class. The small consignments to foreign ports made by natives are not in their own vessels, nor, as a rule, to any direct correspondents of their own. These shipments are of comparatively small value, and almost as often end in loss as in profit to the parties who make them. The trading classes of Bengal are honest, straightforward, and intelligent. They are not without capital, nor without enterprise. They want more knowledge and enlarged views to give to their country its true position in foreign commerce.

223. The same causes which have kept up the profits, activity, and strength of the trading community have operated to depress the industrial classes of Bengal. The people are not devoid of skill and ingenuity, and the country is possessed of endless resources in raw material of all kinds, mineral, vegetable, and animal. But the manufactures of the people are carried on essentially by manual labour, and that labour cannot, even under the most favourable circumstances, compete with machine-labour. European manufacturers have under-sold the Bengali artisan in his own country, and have largely taken away his occupation. He is fast coming to be an additional burden on the land. That such has been the fate of the industrial classes is owing partly to the weak organisation of those classes themselves. Living chiefly in rural villages or small townships, the artisans of Bengal never reached that stage at which the handicraftsman ceases to be his own master and becomes the servant of the capitalist. The schism between labour and capital, which is gradually widening in European countries, has had no existence in Bengal. The question is here in an earlier stage. The artisans have not yet been organised in the way in which a system of regular wages, as distinguished from occasional advances for work, would organise them. Lately, in Calcutta and elsewhere in the neighbourhood, small mills have been started, and the first commencement of a proper organisation of the working classes may perhaps now be looked for. But the mills are as yet few in number, and cover in their operations but a very insignificant field of industry. Unless they greatly increase both in number and in direction, little hope can be entertained of the improvement of artisan organisation, the preservation of skilled labour, and the diversion of the surplus agricultural population to industrial pursuits.

224. Passing to the next heads (5) "service (public)," (6) "service (domestic)," (7) "professional," and (8) "non-productive," it is to be explained

that service (public) includes all classes of Government and Municipal servants, the village police not excepted. The number in Bengal of both public and private servants is below the average of the rest of British India.

225. The Bengalis have been supposed to be a service-seeking people, and their weak physique, as compared with that of more robust Indian races, has favoured this supposition. But it is seen that, while men in the public service and independent professions in other parts of the Empire amount to 3·89 per cent., the Bengalis have 1·15 in the former and 1·93 in the latter, making a total of 3·08 per cent. In domestic service also the Bengali is found to be 5·43 per cent., while the percentage for other parts is higher, namely, 6·62. It must likewise be remembered that in Bengal the class of domestic servants, and also of public servants, more particularly in the police, is largely recruited from men not born in the Lower Provinces. The number of such men is 7 per cent. of the entire population; and the number of Beharis, Uriyas, and Chotanagpuris in Bengal Proper, a very large portion of whom are employed in service, is more than one per cent. of the genuine Bengali population.

226. It may also be pointed out as a fact, although not usually noticed, that the Bengali, as a rule, prefers a profession to a service. It is owing to this preference on his part that the Bengali has crowded into every path of professional life as soon as it has been opened—medicine, law, and civil engineering; and lately he has begun to learn mechanical engineering also, with encouraging prospects of success.

227. But even the most cursory view of the social condition of the people of Bengal, or indeed of any part of India, cannot be taken without noticing that most prominent feature of the social constitution of the people, the all-pervading caste system.

Direct and close comparisons between the percentages of "caste" and of "occupation" cannot be easily made, because the occupations are given quite independently of caste in the census returns. But the occupations, classified as they have been on the broad generalisations of Dr. Farr, are found, when carefully looked at, to have a general agreement with the more important caste distinctions, moulded as these have been on the hereditary occupations of the people of the country. A general and distant comparison therefore is not only not impossible, but quite feasible in the circumstances. A greater difficulty in the way of such comparisons is caused by the presence in the community of important sections that do not recognise caste. This difficulty has been met by classifying the non-caste people under different caste-heads in accordance with the occupations to which they severally belong.

228. With these explanations the percentages of "occupation" and "caste" of the adult male population of Bengal are set in juxtaposition in the table below:—

	Different Castes.	Percentages of adult Males.	Different Occupations.	Percentages of adult Males.
1	Superior and intermediate castes .	12·11	Public service and professional . . .	2·80
2	Trading castes	6·21	Commercial	5·11
3	Artisan castes	11·13	Industrial	11·86
4	Agricultural castes	40·92	Agricultural	59·89
5	Servant castes	4·60	Domestic service	4·25
6	Labouring castes	22·94	Labouring	11·62
7	Non-productive castes	2·09	Non-productive	4·47

229. It is clear that, while the general groundwork of the social fabric is caste, very important changes are going on in the superstructure. The "superior castes" and the "trading castes," who are altogether 18·52 per cent., have not all succeeded in finding accommodation in the "public service," "professions," and "commerce," which form less than 8 per cent. of the occupations, not to speak of other castes having found a place therein. More than 10 per cent. of these superior castes have taken up occupations which belonged to lower castes, and have thus pushed masses of people of those castes further downward. Hence the increase of ·73 per cent. in the number of artisans, and of 2·38 in the non-productive class. But the largest increase is in the class of agriculturists, being 18·97 per cent., to which the landless labouring class and the class of domestic servants have contributed 11·32 and ·35 respectively. It is thus seen that the entire social body is gravitating to one direction, the status of the agriculturist.

230. It will be useful to compare the census returns of 1871 with those of 1881 as they bear upon the occupations of the people of the Lower Provinces. The following statement will show what changes have occurred in the course of the last ten years:—

OCCUPATIONS OF ADULT MALES.	Percentages from the Census of 1871.	Percentages from the Census of 1881.	Increase + Decrease —.
Service (public)	1·15	{ 1·11 } 2·80	— ·28
Professional	1·93	{ 1·69 }	
Domestic	5·43	4·25	— 1·18
Agricultural	57·71	59·89	+ 2·18
Commercial	6·00	5·11	— ·89
Industrial	11·39	11·86	+ ·47
Labouring	13·36	11·62	— 1·74
Non-productive	3·03	4·47	+ 1·44

The changes indicated by the increase of 2·18 in the agricultural and the decrease of 1·74 in the labouring class seem to be the ordinary results of the sub-letting system, which enables the landless labourer to obtain some connection with the land, and somewhat to raise his status. The decrease in the professional, commercial, and domestic classes is balanced by an increase in the industrial, agricultural, and non-productive classes.

231. The ten years between the two censuses of the population have been, generally speaking, prosperous years. There was but a single visitation of scarcity, in 1873-74, and the country seems to have fairly recovered from the shock it received on that occasion. But the tendency of the social body may still be clearly perceived.

232. How far social changes are affecting the Lower Provinces in their entirety, has now been seen. In the next table will be shown in what different degrees they have been in operation in the four great divisions of which these Provinces consist:—

PROVINCE.	Public service.	Profession.	Domestic service.	Agriculture.	Commerce.	Industrial.	Non-productive.	Labourer.
Bengal	{ (1871). 1·18	2·37	5·50	57·49	7·50	12·39	3·29	10·28
	{ (1881). 1·21	1·92	3·61	63·01	5·95	12·51	4·63	7·17
Behar	{ (1871). ·90	1·0	5·65	58·76	4·15	9·66	2·80	17·08
	{ (1881). ·59	1·13	5·99	55·63	4·89	9·71	4·17	17·89
Orissa	{ (1871). 1·77	4·09	5·44	51·02	4·29	16·18	3·53	13·68
	{ (1881). 1·47	3·35	1·54	52·09	2·10	18·39	9·41	11·65
Chota Nagpore	{ (1871). ·77	·66	3·81	63·67	2·87	7·92	1·22	19·08
	{ (1881). ·75	·77	3·68	60·45	2·31	10·21	5·35	16·43

233. It is seen that of the four Provinces, Orissa has been least affected by the kind of change that is in operation. Its industrial class is strong, and its agriculturists not much in excess of the normal number. The landless labouring class has also grown smaller as in Bengal, but the commercial class has become weaker in both the divisions. Chota Nagpore is apparently the most backward of all the Provinces. But as its inhabitants consist for the most part of aboriginal tribes who are leaving off wild and nomadic habits, the large proportion of agriculturists in that division denotes a forward and not a backward social movement. The commercial and industrial classes of Chota Nagpore consist chiefly of Hindu settlers. A comparison between Bengal and Behar in 1872 shows greatly to the disadvantage of the latter Province. There were then in proportion to the population more agriculturists, more landless labourers, less commercial and less industrial people in Behar than in Bengal. The worst features of the social movement were most apparent in this Province, although during the last ten years Behar seems to have gained in some respects.

234. The strata of caste in native society and the contortions which those strata have undergone in the course of time, as discovered in the present occupations of the people, having been briefly sketched, it remains now to examine the social structure from a different point of view. This view will give the net result of all the conditions under which the people now live, and will afford an idea of the wealth and number of the most important classes of the community, and of their social status.

235. The permanent settlement of the land revenue in the Lower Provinces and the operations of the land laws have resulted in the course of years, although with much change of *personnel*, in the preservation of a body of landholders in the country possessed of some wealth and influence. Their gross receipts from land are calculated at above £13,000,000. This sum, however, is not held in a few hands. The system of sub-infeudation which began in the earlier days of the zemindari settlement, and which had to be sanctioned by law (Regulation VIII of 1819), has had the effect of sub-dividing and distributing this income among a very large body of proprietors.

236. The income-tax returns of the latest years show that the number of persons outside Calcutta, who have each an income from land of £500 and upwards, does not exceed two thousand.

237. These permanent incomes are sufficiently high for this country to give to their possessors an elevated social status. These 2,000 men in fact constitute the landed gentry of Bengal—its squirearchy and its nobility.

238. Incomes equally large or even larger from trade and other sources did not in former days give anything like an equal social status; but they seem to be rising into consideration of late.

239. Natives assessed to the license tax, with annual incomes of £500 and upwards, number 2,900, and these also may take rank with the higher classes of Bengal. The money-lending classes, it may be noticed, seem to be rather weak in these parts, there being only 453 persons of that class with annual incomes of £50 and upwards. Assesseees of the income or license tax with incomes of £20 to £50 per annum fall short of two lakhs, and those with incomes from £50 to £500 slightly exceed fifty thousand.

240. The social structure thus exposes to view a base of about 9½ millions of labouring and agricultural families whose incomes average £7·3 per annum; a tier above it of the lower-middle class, composed of about two lakhs with annual

incomes of from £20 to £50; a third tier, constituting the middle class of fifty thousand, with incomes between £50 and £500; and an uppermost tier consisting of five thousand, with incomes exceeding £500 in the year. But grotesquely weak as the upper portions are, the entire fabric is so hardly incrustated from top to bottom by caste, which cements together its various elements by the closest social bonds, that the structure is far more massive and strong than appears from the naked sectional view which has been taken. The uppermost ranks of native society do not consist of men of wealth only. In native society, caste as well as wealth gives social position; and as no man can rise above his caste, so no man can sink below it. Thus a very large portion of the Brahmins, Kayasths, and Baidyas of Bengal, of the Rajputs and Babhans of Behar, and of the Mahantis, Khandaits, and Karans in Orissa, and the Ghatwals and Tikayets in Chota Nagpore, even if not rich, take their place in the upper ranks; while men of wealth and position in the lower castes support the claims of high-caste men by the strenuous efforts they make to prove that the castes to which they severally belong are higher than the places accorded to them in public estimation. Such are now, just as they have been in past times also, the inner movements of native society—movements which are the effects of a *régime* which was based upon the ideas of social order and individual culture, rather than upon those of social progress and individual wealth. Caste in India was a growth and not an imposition. Its roots lie much deeper than those of the conventionalisms which have overgrown it. Nor does it at present provoke in the native community itself any feeling akin to that “philanthropic antipathy” with which Englishmen may be disposed to regard it, in ignorance of its elastic character.

The state of Education in 1881-82.

241. The social and economical condition of the people in the Lower Provinces having thus been briefly indicated, a description of the system of Public Instruction provided for these Provinces may now be undertaken. It will be convenient to begin with a general view of the statistics of education of every class on the 31st March 1882, compared with the 31st March 1871. The table shows that there has been in the last ten years an increase of 54,636 schools, and of 964,071 pupils. It also shows that there is one school to 3·2 square miles, and to 4·5 inhabited places; and one pupil at school to 63 of the population, or to 9·4 of school-going age, reckoned for convenience at 15 per cent. The schools of Bengal that have come under the supervision of the Department are therefore 17 times as many as they were in 1871, and are distributed among the inhabited places (which have also largely increased) 12 times as thickly. But the new schools are generally small, and the pupils have consequently increased only seven-fold. The total increase is distributed among 4 Colleges (2 unaided and 2 partly endowed), 196 High schools (7 Government, 27 aided, and 62 unaided), 336 Middle schools (14 Government, 108 aided, and 214 unaided), and 49,131 Primary schools. Among the colleges are included the College Department of the Bethune Female School. The increase which took place in the United Kingdom during nearly the same period included 1 University (Ireland), 19 colleges, and 7,957 elementary schools (between 1872 and 1880).

	DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS.															INDIGENOUS SCHOOLS.				GRAND TOTAL.															
	AREA AND POPULATION OF THE PROVINCE.					COLLEGES, GENERAL AND PROFESSIONAL.		HIGH SCHOOLS.	MIDDLE SCHOOLS.	UPPER PRIMARY.	LOWER PRIMARY.	NORMAL SCHOOLS.	MAD-HANNAS.	GIRLS' SCHOOLS.	TECHNICAL SCHOOLS.	TOTAL OF DEPARTMENTAL SCHOOLS.	PATHSHALAS.	TOLS.	MUKTABS.			TOTAL.													
	Number of districts.	Number of divisions.	Area in square miles.	Number of inhabited places.	Total population.	Colleges.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Schools.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.			Pathshalas.	Pupils.	Tols.	Pupils.	Muktabs.	Pupils.	Institutions.	Pupils.						
Benari, including Cabutta and Suburbs	63	9	187,222	264,795	69,535,800	a 31	3,480	217	b 45,597	1,077	c 65,408	1,944	d 68,508	49,811	e 812,330	20	f 1,007	19	1,301	g 1,015	h 21,005	10	836	53,804	1,040,727	2,016	i 35,183	1,016	j 77,680	1,250	k 14,056	4,275	55,918	68,079	1,109,516
Bhongal, including Asoan	47	10	189,031	199,223	62,724,860	25	2,331	121	17,304	1,711	64,581	1,957	49,570	32	1,417	2	173	1260	6,750	3	412	3,443	112,574	3,443	112,574
Azam	11	1	41,798	10,715	4,132,000	2	52	12	1,478	136	7,782	641	11,590	0	204	29	110	780	21,304	780	21,304
TOTAL	68	11	239,532	284,908	69,850,850	99	2,363	133	18,762	1,537	72,363	2,108	61,170	44	1,711	2	173	288	6,800	3	412	4,232	161,978	4,232	161,978

a Including the College Department of the Bhojpur Female School.
 b 10 are girls.
 c 1,000 are girls.

d 1,949 are girls.
 e 18,564 are girls.
 f 80 are girls.

g Including the College Department of the Bhojpur Female School, and two Normal Schools for mistresses.
 h Including the boys.
 i Including 803 girls in Indigenous Pathshalas.

j 1 is a girl.
 k 250 are girls.
 l Including 13 schools for European girls, with 887 pupils.

Note.—The number of districts, the area, and the population are taken from the census returns, and include Cooch Behar, Hill Tipperah, and the Tributary Mohals of Chota Nagpore, the population of which is 1,370,231, but the schools and pupils of these States are not given in the table. The area of the Sundarban, estimated at 6,976, is excluded.

212. The statistics are shown in the following table:—

SECTION A — *Indigenous Instruction.*

243. The increase above noted in the Lower Provinces has taken place largely in the primary schools; not that so many fresh primary schools have been set up by the Department, but rather that so many have been brought into connection with it out of the body of indigenous schools which have always existed. What additions took place were few, and were almost entirely confined to those districts in which the Aryan element of the population was small, and the indigenous system of education weak, if not absent. In this system, which has existed in the country from very early times, are included tols, pathsalas, and mukhtabs, in which the standard of instruction is not directly affected by the operations of the Department of Public Instruction.

244. It is not possible even now to estimate with perfect accuracy the extent of the indigenous system, or of any increase in attendance that may have been brought about by the operations of the Department. Statistics of indigenous institutions seem never to have been exhaustively obtained, either by the Department, or in the partial censuses taken from time to time in different districts or parts of districts, or even in the general census of 1871. The last census of February 1881 has, no doubt, gone very much farther in this direction. But that it has not been exhaustive is seen in the fact that it returns 1,045,759 as under instruction, while the departmental returns of the following year show 1,106,645 as attending school. The discrepancy may be easily accounted for, and is indeed no greater than might have been expected from the different objects and methods of the agencies employed. It will be sufficient here to say that some of the Magistrates, in whose districts the discrepancy was large, have expressed their conviction that of the two the departmental returns were the more accurate.

The number of indigenous schools and of their pupils, as ascertained by the inquiries of the Department, amounts to 4,275 schools and 56,918 pupils.

245. Of the three classes of indigenous schools—tols, pathsalas, and mukhtabs—pathsalas and mukhtabs are places for elementary instruction, while tols impart education of a higher class in Sanskrit. The pathsalas teach the vernacular of the different districts in which they are situated—Bengali in Bengal, Hindi in Behar and Chota Nagpore, and Uriya in Orissa. The mukhtabs teach Urdu everywhere, with a little Persian, and parts of the *Koran Sharif*. But the Bengal mukhtabs are taking of late to teach Bengali also, as the Behar too are beginning to instruct their junior boys in a little Hindi.

246. Generally speaking, the subjects of indigenous pathsala instruction are writing, reading, arithmetic and accounts, zemindari papers, and letter-writing, together with versified Puranic tales, and in Behar versified heroic legends as well. The method of instruction is still the same that struck Dr. Bell in 1793 in a Madras pathsala, and which inspired the Bell and Lancaster system, afterwards so popular in England. The direct teaching of the children is conducted by monitors or pupil-teachers, and compact divisions of classes are not made. With the views of school method now prevailing, the want of division into classes in the indigenous schools is of course much deprecated, although it is well known to every schoolmaster how injurious to the great majority of pupils rigid class-divisions tend to become; how every class in fact has always a long tail, which under no process of development can be absorbed into the head. But as another and looser system of class-divisions is attaining popu-

larity in England, it is possible that a favourable change may yet take place in the opinion now entertained of the indigenous method of separate lessons for separate pupils. The method is described as follows :—

247. On entering a pathshala, a boy writes the letters of the alphabet with a piece of chalk on the ground, repeating the names of the letters as he writes them. After the letters have been thus learnt, palm-leaves are used as materials for writing on with pen and ink, the first attempt being only to ink off the letters as they are traced by the guru with a pointed iron stylus. The pupils go on with the palm-leaves till they learn to write the compound letters, committing to memory at this stage the multiplication-table and various fractional tables, and being constantly practised one after another in the several money-tables, weights and measures. Every evening before the pathshala breaks up, all the children stand together and repeat the tables simultaneously in chorus, or sometimes they follow a monitor's lead. From "palm-leaf" promotion is given to "plantain-leaf," in which Subhankari or native arithmetic is taught. In most of the pathshalas, slates and (in Behar) *taktis* are also being used. The scholar is now at liberty to take up "paper." He is taught letter-writing, zemindari and mahajani accounts, forms of documents, and the versified Puranic tales, and lastly a little Sanskrit grammar and *abhidhan*. The age at which it is customary for pupils to enter pathshalas is five years, on some auspicious day ascertained by the Purohit. The stay of the pupil at school is about five or six years, comprising two full stages of instruction, although cases are not uncommon in which a boy leaves school after a month or two, having attended in compliance with some customary observance. The pathshalas sit during all seasons of the year, long vacations being given in the agricultural villages once during the rains, when the sowing commences, and again at the harvest. The boys generally meet morning and evening, working from about six to seven hours a day with short intervals.

248. In muktabs the pupils learn by rote parts of the Koran Sharif, and also (in Bengal) the Alif Laila and Chahar Dervish, &c., and in addition to them the Persian Gulistan and Bostan, &c., in Behar and Orissa. The age at which pupils, Musulmans chiefly, enter muktabs is as with the Hindus, about five years, and they sometimes stay more than ten years, *i. e.*, between three and four full stages of instruction. The muktabs are closed on Fridays and on all Muhammadan holidays.

249. The language taught in the tols is Sanskrit; and the subjects are usually grammar, *abhidhan*, poetry, rhetoric, logic, and to a less extent astrology, philosophy, law, and medicine. All these subjects are not taught in the same tols. Those which teach grammar, *abhidhan*, and belles-letters, do not take up the higher subjects of logic and law; and those which teach the higher subjects do not teach the lower. Again, a tol for the study of law will not usually take up logic, nor a tol of logic take up law. Medicine also forms a distinct subject for a separate tol. All tols are taught by Brahmin teachers, except those in which medicine is taught; these have Vaidya teachers. There are also a few tols in which astrology is taught by Acharjyas, a lower order of Brahmins. The method of teaching is thus described.

250. In tols where grammar is taught, the beginner first commits to memory (as under Jacotot's system) a certain classical work, or part of it. Explanation is not given until that part has been fully committed to memory. Constant exercises in past lessons are kept up. The systematic division of pupils into

classes is not enforced; but where the same lessons are received by several pupils they form a class by themselves and help each other. In higher tols lectures are given, accompanied by explanation of the text-books, the lectures being relieved every now and then by recourse to the interrogative method. The Pandit generally teaches the advanced pupils, who in their turn teach their juniors. The tols sit both morning and evening. The usual holidays are the 1st and 8th days of the moon, with a long vacation commencing from the rains in July down to the end of October. On the weekly holidays new lessons are prohibited, and those are the days set apart for the revision of old lessons. Students generally enter the grammar tols at twelve years of age, after leaving the pathsalas; and they stay for six or seven years longer. In the more advanced tols the age for beginning is generally eighteen or twenty, and that for withdrawal twenty-eight or thirty; although, as in European universities, men of very advanced years occasionally attend for the purpose of gaining titles or finishing their studies.

251. The operations of the Education Department have not directly affected the tols; their decline is due to those general causes which have brought about the neglect of Sanskrit learning. The Sanskrit title examinations lately established may in time bring under the complete control of Government the privilege of conferring titles, now used in a perfunctory manner by the tol Pandits; and may have the effect of raising those titles in public estimation. At the last title-examination, 53 students from 20 different tols presented themselves, and twenty-four obtained titles. Ten prizes of the value of Rs. 450 were also given by Government, and twenty of the value of Rs. 1,111 from private foundations.

The pupils who now attend the pathsalas connected with Government are drawn from the same classes that used to fill the indigenous schools. It has already been stated that what the Education Department has gained has been almost entirely at the expense of these institutions.

The muktab, being *quasi*-religious schools, are not equally affected by the operations of the Department; but as English education advances, Hindus will probably cease to patronise them.

252. The pupils in tols pay no fees, but on the contrary are assisted by the Pandit to the extent of his means; the chief income of the Pandit being derived from presents in cash or kind from rich families, usually on occasions of marriage or other ceremonies. No endowments of land for the support of tols are now reported.

At muktab, the pupils pay fees in cash and also in kind. They also pay a pice each on Thursdays and on Muhammadan festivals. The teachers generally board and lodge in the houses of well-to-do Muhammadan gentlemen. There are also a few muktab which are supported out of endowments to mosques.

Pathsala pupils pay monthly fees varying from half an anna to eight annas each; sometimes fees are paid in kind only. The guru also gets presents of food and clothing on occasions of marriage or other ceremonies, as well as when a boy is promoted from a lower to a higher standard of study.

253. On the methods of pathsala instruction it will be advisable to dwell at some length. It has been supposed that the methods followed in the pathsalas are rude and primitive. It has been said that these schools did not teach reading, but writing only; that they taught multiplication by continued addition, and division by continued subtraction; and that they could not carry

their pupils as far as the rule-of-three. The following considerations may serve to throw some light on their actual character :—

254. The pathsalā method of teaching reading and writing is this : Pathsalas take up writing before reading, or rather both simultaneously. “Writing and reading,” as some of the old guru mohashays used to say, “are like the two legs of a man ; as both legs are made use of in walking, so both writing and reading must be used for progress in knowledge.” The pathsalā boy is made to read out as he writes. Bell and Lancaster, who imitated this system in their schools, considered it an improvement ; and every Pestalozzian must admit that the system which makes the learner use his fingers and his eyes, at the same time that he employs his vocal muscles and his sense of hearing, is more scientific, because capable of making stronger and more diverse nervous impressions, than that of quietly looking at letters in a printed book in order to learn their shapes.

255. Subhankar—possibly a symbolic name like Vyasa, which means “one that makes [methods] easy”—is credited with having framed all the arithmetical formulæ of the Bengal pathsalas. From the mode which he adopted of expressing those formulæ it seems that he was familiar with the great mathematical works in Sanskrit of Bhaskaracharya and others, whose applications of trigonometrical formulæ to the calculation of astronomical phenomena have been noticed with approbation by European mathematicians, and whose method of solving quadratic equations is still quoted in English school-books on algebra. It is therefore hardly likely that the pathsalas, deriving their inspiration from such sources, should know no better than to work ordinary multiplication by continued addition, &c. The fact is that the pathsalā system of multiplication commences from the left-hand figure of the multiplicand as that of division does from the left-hand figure of the dividend ; the work is not more cumbrous than under the European system, and may, from a certain point of view, be deemed more scientific. As for the pathsalā method of the rule-of-three, it is no other than the unitary method, lately adopted in English arithmetical works.

256. Another idea, that of the exclusively technical character of the pathsalas, has gained support from the circumstance that the weights and measures used in different arts and trades, which are taught in a versified form in the pathsalas, are the subjects of important lessons for weeks together, large practice in each table being enforced before the pupils take up the table next in order of difficulty. It may be fairly argued that this method is superior to that adopted in schools of higher pretensions, in which the tables are to be found by the learner from a book, for the purposes of the special problem in reduction or proportion which he has to work. The question in fact has been finally decided by the increased stress which has of late years been laid, in the standards of elementary schools in England, on actual knowledge of the tables in use in the localities in which those schools are situated.

257. Any patient observer of the indigenous schools will, as a simple matter of fact, be struck by seeing in their “customary ways” the relics of much deep thought and of many nice adaptations to circumstances. He will see in their methods the recognition of the soundest principles of education—principles which, partially embodied in the Bell and Lancaster system, in the Jacotot system, and in the Simultaneous system, have come into fashion at different times in European countries. He will find that all these principles have been brought into appropriate action, and are still alive in the customary ways of

the pathsalas. But there is one thing that he will not see. There is no recognition in the indigenous schools of the full Pestalozzian principle which requires a due and regular exercise of the external senses for the reception of knowledge. He will mark, in this great omission, an instance of arrested growth or of the defective genius of the people. It may point out to him also the direction of the educational remedy. But that which in present circumstances tells most against such patient observation of the indigenous schools is the stark inferiority of their teachers, and also the wretchedness of their poverty, and of all their belongings.

SECTION B.—*Primary Instruction.*

258. The primary schools of the Department are, as has been said, so many indigenous pathsalas brought under departmental influence. This influence has not been equally exerted in all cases, but has varied within certain limits in different parts, as the different magistrates who have, since 1872, had direct management of this department of Public Instruction, have devised or accepted more or less strong systems of school organisation for their respective districts. Under their supervision the indigenous pathsalas have everywhere begun to conform to that definition of primary education which discards all subjects but the simplest elements of reading, writing, and arithmetic. In fact Government officers, as representatives of the communities of which they have charge, and in the exercise of that control which belongs to the community over all its institutions, have systematised the pathsalas into primary schools of such a type as they supposed best suited to the circumstances of the country. In the Lower Provinces no efforts could be made for starting new primary schools, as was done in other parts of the Empire; but the schools of the people have been taken and fashioned into those forms which chiefly commended themselves to the officers of Government.

259. There is one specially distinguishing feature in the administration of primary schools in the Lower Provinces, which needs to be dwelt upon a little. While Government officers in other parts of the country, whether directly or indirectly connected with educational administration, habitually regret the downward tendency of the primary schools they have set up, the Bengal officers, whether administrative or educational, seem to have devoted a large portion of their attention to keeping down the standard of instruction in schools of this class.

260. This difference of tone became most marked when the immediate control of primary instruction passed over to the administrative officers in Bengal. As officers of the revenue administration, they had observed closely how the interests of class and class were opposed, and it was natural that they should suppose those interests to be antagonistic in the arena of primary instruction also. They felt surprise at seeing children of the middle and upper classes attending the pathsalas; they apprehended the conversion of the pathsalas into high schools, and the loss to the children of the poor of the means of education they had always enjoyed. Some went so far as to propose that the children of the middle and upper classes should not be admitted into them; and all combined to reduce the standard so low that it would not be worth the while of well-to-do people to send their children to them. It is, however, clear that the past history of the pathsalas, their internal constitution, and their present condition are alike opposed to such views. As to their past history, it is a simple fact that as long as Persian was the language of the courts, the well-to-do

classes of the native community brought up their children to learn Persian with at least as much eagerness as they have yet manifested in the case of English. But they did not in those times convert the pathsalas into Persian schools. They sent their children as before to the pathsalas; but they kept them there for shorter periods, and then either removed them to the Persian schools or entertained Persian teachers for them at home. The constitution of the pathsalas, as originating in the village communities, has always been perfectly democratic. These institutions have been attended from the earliest times by pupils from every class of the community, and the presence of children of the higher classes is no novelty in them. These children are in fact their best paymasters. Besides, a pathsala, however large, has no more than one guru. The monitorial system is essential to it. The head boys must consequently be more advanced than the rest of the children, in order that they may be able to assist the teacher effectively. To forbid any instruction beyond the three R's is therefore to reduce the teaching power and efficiency of a pathsala. Even as they are, the pathsalas have not been wholly deserted by children of the upper and middle classes.

261. But all these considerations, as well as the main object of the educational system, which is to diffuse widely among the people European knowledge (para. 7 of the Despatch of 1854), seem to lose their force in the light of the administrative idea above referred to, which has been further strengthened in some instances by the apprehension that education above the sphere in which the pathsala children were born would breed discontent among them. In this apprehension it is first of all taken for granted that every pathsala child is born in a humble sphere of life; and secondly, that that constitution of native society which recognises caste and which unites the man of wealth and position to his poorer neighbour by indissoluble ties of birth and marriage, has already become powerless and dissolved. The fact, however, is that the man of higher caste, however low his own sphere, still wishes so to teach his child that he may be in a position to rise above the status of his father, and become what his grandfather or his great-grandfather was. In view of these considerations, the proposals for making over educational administration to local boards, constituted as these would be of the people themselves, do not seem to be misplaced or premature.

262. A different idea, but one which led in practice to the same result, has generally governed the dealings of educational officers with these schools. It is that, in order to make sure of their ground as they proceed, the pathsala should not be encouraged to advance beyond the stage of such instruction as they can effectively impart. To the inferiority of their teachers as a class, reference has already been made; and it was felt that it would be a fruitful source of difficulty, and a bar to real progress, to assume that all the indigenous schools of the country, as they were discovered and brought into connection with the Department, would at once be able to attain to that standard of general instruction which experience shows to have been within reach of the best among them. It was known that the new lower primary, and still more the new upper primary, scholarship course contained subjects which were altogether novel to the great majority of indigenous teachers. Hence it was believed that if the scholarship standards were recognised as determining the ordinary course of instruction in pathsalas, an excessive share of the teacher's time, even in the case of those who were otherwise well qualified, would be taken up with mastering and teaching the new and unfamiliar sub-

jects. That this danger was not altogether imaginary, is shown by the deterioration that has been noticed in some districts in the standard of mental arithmetic, the strength of the pathshala system; and also by the reports that have been occasionally received of the children of ryots and artisans leaving the subsidised pathshalas, because the subjects they wanted to learn were no longer taught in them: "the pathshalas were being turned into schools." The competition for scholarships also introduced a new condition tending in the same direction, though its effects were necessarily confined to pathshalas of the first rank, and though the scholarship course had carefully secured the retention of the old subjects of pathshala instruction, which still form its most important elements. Acting on these beliefs, the Education Department has generally directed its efforts to keeping down the standard; and has declared that the success of a district in primary instruction is to be judged, not wholly or chiefly by the success of its pupils at the scholarship examinations, but by the number of those who acquired a sound knowledge of the rudiments of instruction in the form in which it was most likely to be of practical use.

263. It is possible that these measures of precaution may have been carried too far. It is possible that, in their anxiety not to advance prematurely, to make sure of the ground that has been won, educational as well as district officers may have actually lost ground; and that in some instances the schools may have fallen in public estimation without gaining in real efficiency. The teaching of the "useful" or "technical" subjects has been encouraged and strengthened; but while the elements of a liberal education, as that was understood by the Hindu of former days, have disappeared from the pathshala course, they have not been replaced to the same extent by more modern subjects of instruction. If this be the case, it would follow that the lower primary scholarship standard at least should be recognised as that at which every primary school should aim. The advance already made in this direction, under the cautious mode of procedure above described, may be shown as follows: In 1876-77, the first year of the introduction of a definite system of examination for primary scholarships, 3,110 schools sent 11,462 candidates, of whom 5,246 passed the examination. In 1881-82, 8,196 schools sent 29,182 candidates, of whom 15,897 passed. It would also be necessary, in order to secure efficient teaching in all subjects throughout the school, to recognise and strengthen the monitorial system. In these ways it would appear that the requirements of liberal as well as of technical instruction would be alike met. It may be added that the recognition of the lower primary standard, at least as that proper to primary schools generally, would be in full accordance with a change made in 1881-82 in the nomenclature of a class of schools previously called lower vernacular, included in the secondary system, and in many cases supported, not from the primary grants in the hands of the Magistrates, but from the grant-in-aid assignment at the disposal of the Department. These have now been called "upper primary," and their standard is thus admitted to be that at which the best among the primary schools should be encouraged to aim, the lower primary being the standard to which the general body of schools might in time conform.

264. The following summary of the history of elementary schools in England may throw light on the question which has now been discussed, and may perhaps afford a useful parallel for guidance. Under Sir J. Kay Shuttleworth's Minutes of 1846, the curriculum of studies for elementary schools in

England was fixed as follows : (1) Holy Scripture, (2) Church Catechism, (3) Reading, (4) Writing, (5) Arithmetic, (6) Geography, (7) Grammar, (8) British History, (9) Music, and (10) Drawing. Under the New Code of 1861, which became law after much angry discussion, the grants for elementary education were made to depend (1) on average attendance and (2) on the result examinations in the three R's. The inevitable result was, as shown in Mr. Foley's Minute in 1867, that all the other subjects of which elementary education consists were starved out. This is the system of which Mr. Huxley spoke as "one that supplied the knife and the fork, but withheld the meat." It was to palliate this mischief that in 1867, and subsequently in 1870 and 1871, the "class subjects" and the "specific subjects" were allowed to be resumed and greatly enlarged in the elementary schools of England. (See note, Appendix D.)

The line that was taken in England in 1846 was that which was taken by the Education Department in Bengal in 1862-63. The departure from that line made in Bengal in 1872-73 was precisely in the direction followed in England in 1861. A return to the old line, with large extensions, was begun in England in 1867, and has now been almost completed under the Code of 1882. A similar change of direction may, perhaps, have to be made in Bengal.

265. Of the 50,788 primary schools for boys, 1,944 with 68,598 pupils teach to the upper primary standard; the rest are classed as lower primary schools. There is a further sub-division of primary schools as Government, aided, and unaided, according as they are more or less supported from public funds. In the subjoined statement the schools are shown arranged under these several heads :—

	Upper.	Lower.	Total.	Pupils.
Government	18	10	28	916
Aided	1,847	44,606	46,453	820,080
Unaided	79	4,228	4,307	59,941
TOTAL	1,944	48,844	50,788	880,937

266. The 28 Government schools are situated for the most part in the remote or backward parts of the country, such as the Tributary Mehals of Orissa and the base of the Garo Hills. The unaided schools are those which have been cut out in the course of the year from the quarry of indigenous pathshalas, and have either adopted the departmental standards or have attended the public examinations, but without as yet receiving any sum of public money, however small. The aided schools are under some one or other system of payment by Government officers.

267. The subjects of instruction differ in the upper and lower primaries. In the upper primaries the children begin from the alphabet, and ordinarily in five years come up to the scholarship standard, which consists of (1) the vernacular language; (2) the history and geography of the Lower Provinces; (3) arithmetic, inclusive of zemindari and mahajani accounts; (4) Euclid, the first book; (5) elements of physics; and (6) the sanitary primer. This standard

corresponds approximately to the fifth standard of the elementary schools of England (see Appendix E).

The second class of these schools teaches :

1. *Literature*.—Charupath, Part I; Padyapath, Part I; or other similar books.
2. *Grammar*.—Sisu Byakaran, or other similar book.
3. *History*.—History of Bengal, by Rajkrishna.
4. *Geography*.—Bhugol Sutra, or other similar book.
5. *Mathematics*.—Euclid (I. 1—26), Arithmetic, and zemindari and mahajani accounts.
6. *Science*.—Sanitary Primer, Prakriti Path, or other similar book.

In the third class, the text-books correspond with those of the first class of lower primary schools.

268. The lower primary schools also begin with the alphabet, and come up to a scholarship standard which consists of (1) a vernacular adaptation of Chambers' Rudiments of Knowledge; handwriting and reading of manuscript; (2) arithmetic up to the first four rules, simple and compound, according to the European method; Subhankari, or rules and formulæ for mental arithmetic; (3) bazar accounts, zemindari accounts, and simple mensuration; and (4) the sanitary primer.

269. In order to pass the primary scholarship examination, candidates must obtain one-fourth of the marks in each group of subjects, and two-fifths of the aggregate marks. Average specimens of the examination questions will be found translated in Appendix F.

270. The number of pupils learning each language in the primary schools for boys is shown in the following table :—

CLASS OF INSTITUTION.	NUMBER OF PUPILS IN UPPER PRIMARY SCHOOLS LEARNING			NUMBER OF PUPILS IN LOWER PRIMARY SCHOOLS LEARNING		
	English.	A classical language.	A vernacular language.	English.	A classical language.	A vernacular language.
Government	659	257
Aided	297	13	65,136	258	49,615	742,265
Unaided	50	...	2,760	124	479	56,844
TOTAL	347	13	68,555	382	50,094	799,366

In reference to the above table, it is necessary to explain that in the process of converting the pathsalas into primary schools of the Department, some of the pathsalas (chiefly under missionary management) have taken up a little English, and some others have not altogether dropped the small amount of Sanskrit brought down from early times. The *muktabs* more particularly have retained their Persian and Arabic, and a few have taken up a little English also. These facts account for 729 boys being returned as learning English, and 50,107 as learning a classical language in primary schools.

271. The text-books in use in the lower primary schools are named in the subjoined table :—

1st Class.	2nd Class.	3rd Class.	4th Class.
Primary scholarship course.	Bodhoday, or similar book; Sanitary Primer, Subhankari, and accounts.	Sisusikhya, Part III; Balyasikhya, or other similar book; Subhankari.	Barnoparichay, Parts I and II; Akharsikhya, Parts I and II; Dharapath, or other similar book.

It is perhaps unnecessary to add, after what has preceded, that other text-books belonging to the indigenous system are still in use in the primary schools. But they are not recognised in the departmental examinations, and will gradually disappear from the pathsalas. They will probably hold their ground longest in the Muhammadan mukhtabs.

272. The fixed standards are those prescribed for the upper and lower primary scholarship examinations. The intermediate standards vary in different districts. A statement of the number of pupils that competed and that passed the two scholarship standards is subjoined :—

	Number of pupils that competed.	Number of pupils that passed.
Upper primary	2,813	1,716
Lower "	29,182	15,987
TOTAL	31,995	17,703

Thus out of 880,937 pupils in primary schools for boys, 31,995, or 3·6 per cent., competed for the 651 scholarships available, and 17,703, or 55 per cent. of the number that competed, passed. The distribution of the 820,080 pupils in aided schools (paragraph 265) according to different classes, or under different standards of instruction (paragraphs 267, 271), is shown below (see Appendix H) :—

	Pupils who have passed beyond the lower primary standard.	Pupils who read printed books, but have not passed beyond the lower primary standard.	Pupils who do not yet read printed books.
Upper primary schools	11,299	25,592	28,271
Lower " "	7,220	291,966	455,732
TOTAL	18,519	317,558	484,003

If, however, regard be had, not to the departmental standards, including the definite subjects above shown, but to the general course of instruction under the indigenous system, the standard of which had a different range, the distribution of the pupils may roughly be indicated by the following percentages :—

1st Class	5 per cent.
2nd "	6 "
3rd "	9 "
4th "	10 "
5th "	50 "
6th "	20 "

273. The library of a primary school is not worth the name. Some of the schools have such books of reference as a vernacular dictionary, an elementary geography and history, a copy of some work on arithmetic, and wall-maps of India, or the world, or both. One black-board is usually found in an upper primary school.

274. As to school accommodation, it does not as yet form a very important point for consideration in this country, the climate permitting the children, except during the rains, to sit out in the open air. Of the 50,788 schools, 6,545 have houses of their own; 43,256 are accommodated free of rent in the houses of other people, and 987 are held under the shelter of trees.

The primary schools have, as a rule, little or no furniture. The upper primaries, which until lately ranked as secondary schools, have a few benches, and a chair or stool for the teacher. But lower primaries, generally speaking, have never indulged in such luxuries. The children bring small mats from home to squat on, and take them back when they return.

275. In indigenous pathsalas, out of which the primary schools have been formed, it was never the practice to keep registers of attendance. These have now been generally introduced; and in many districts small payments are made to the teachers for keeping regular attendance-rolls and a few simple school records. The annual returns are ordinarily collected at appointed centres by the Sub-Inspectors, who have the means of checking false statements by referring to their own notes made at visits *in situ* and at gatherings of pathsalas. There is no temptation to give in false returns, as there are no capitation grants for numbers on the roll or numbers in attendance.

The total number of villages and townships with more than 200 inhabitants each is 99,260; the number of recorded primary schools is 50,788; and the average roll-number of a school is not more than 17·3. These figures appear to supply internal evidence of the general accuracy of the returns. The further confirmation supplied by the census of 1881 has been referred to above (para. 244).

276. The training of teachers from outside must necessarily be out of place in a system of primary schools growing, like that of Bengal, out of an old organisation which is slowly changing under the new influences brought to bear upon it. If the pathsalas are to retain any trace of their original constitution, and their hold on the popular sentiment, the choice of the teachers must still be left to the people; and the only way in which, as it appears, the Department can usefully intervene, is that of so improving the position of the teacher that men with higher qualifications for the work may be gradually attracted to it. The attempts made at different times to bring in the pathsala teachers themselves for training at normal schools yielded no satisfactory results, and have generally been abandoned, except in the most backward districts. The *personnel* of the primary school teachers is, however, gradually changing, as will be seen in the tabulated statement below:—

Total number of teachers of primary schools from whom returns have been received.	Trained in High English schools.	Trained in Middle schools.	Trained in upper Primary schools.	Trained in Normal schools.	Trained in Indigenous schools.
50,448	62	4,056	1,601	3,358	41,371
Total, trained in Departmental schools.	9,077	...

It will be seen that out of the total number of teachers, which must exceed 50,788 (since most of the upper primaries have more than one teacher each), the number that have had some kind of recognised departmental training is 9,077, or 17·9 per cent.

277. The Normal schools and departments which train teachers for primary schools are situated in backward districts and are fourteen in number, ten being Government institutions, and four aided. The number of pupils in these

schools on the 31st March 1882 and their outturn of the preceding year are shown in the table below :—

NAMES OF SCHOOLS.	Number of pupils on 31st March 1882.	Outturn of certificated teachers in 1881-82.
GOVERNMENT—		
1. Jalpigori	43	16
2. Chybassa	42	10
3. Purulia	27	14
4. Ranchi	29	20
5. Motihari	20	27
6. Palamow	12	14
7. Balasore	14	29
8. Pooree	14	14
9. Cuttack	27	36
10. Rungpore	20	13
AIDED—		
11. Midnapore	49	...
12. Kishnaghur	30	...
13. Ranchi	214	...
14. Darjiling	42	...
TOTAL	583	193

The course of studies in these schools occupies from six months to one year, and in the Government schools it is prescribed by the Director of Public Instruction. (See Appendix J.)

278. The average pay of the teacher of an upper primary school is estimated at above Rs. 100 a year in cash, of which Rs. 48 are from Government and Rs. 52 from local sources; besides occasional payments in kind and clothes, and in many instances gratuitous maintenance by some well-to-do villager. The average income of the teacher of a lower primary school probably falls short of Rs. 100 a year. The Government contribution varies, under the result system, from the highest average of Rs. 16 to the lowest average of Rs. 4; under the stipendiary system the average payment is Rs. 31 a year; and under a mixed system Rs. 39. A very large number of the teachers of lower primary schools have free board and lodging at respectable households.

279. The question of promotion from post to post, and from lower to higher pay, never rose in indigenous schools, and has only just begun to appear after their organisation as departmental primaries. Cases are coming to be known of primary school teachers seeking for promotion, and getting it as assistant teachers of middle schools, with some improvement to their position, but with no gain, as they quickly find, to their income.

280. On the subject of expenditure on primary schools, General Form No. 3 (see Part IV) affords every information. It need only be said in explanation that the small entries under "local rates or cesses" refer to certain percentages paid on the collections from the Government khas mehals, and to certain rates levied in the Himalayan regions. The fee-rates vary in different schools, and in different classes of the same school, from half an anna to eight annas a month. The payments, which in indigenous schools were largely made in kind, are being gradually commuted into cash, not without some loss to the recipient, who is the teacher. Since the introduction of registers of attendance, accounts of the fee-receipts are usually kept, and the annual returns are prepared from those accounts. But the teacher is the collector and appropriator of the fees, and the departmental officers

have no concern with them. One fact, however, is perfectly clear. The number of pathsala gurus yet brought on the departmental returns is, as has been seen, more than fifty thousand, and the annual expenditure on them by Government has now risen to the sum of five lakhs of rupees in round numbers. This gives on an average ten rupees a year to each guru. Supposing a guru's income to be no more than a peasant's, he must yet receive from his pupils, in fees and other ways, at least Rs. 63 a year in order to make up a peasant's average annual income, which is Rs. 73. Even on such a supposition, therefore, the minimum income of the pathsalas from private sources must be taken at $32\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs of rupees in the year. But actually it is something more. It is well known that the guru mahashay is the lowest term of the series of village gentry in Bengal; and that his family is, as a rule, better off than that of an ordinary peasant. There is little ground therefore to doubt the accuracy of the departmental returns, which allege the people's contribution to the support of their own schools to be $15\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs of rupees a year, exclusive of payments in kind, which probably come to about double that amount.

281. In the case of primary schools under the grant-in-aid system, accounts of all fees, subscriptions, and other collections are rendered, along with the monthly grant-in-aid bills, to the Inspector of Schools; and no amount collected by the school in excess of the sanctioned expenditure can be spent without the permission of that officer.

282. While elementary indigenous education has been systematised in the departmental primary schools on the lines indicated in the foregoing paragraphs, a way, although as yet narrow, has been opened for a gifted child to obtain access to places of superior instruction. This has been done by the institution of primary scholarships. These are of two kinds, upper and lower primary, and of the value respectively of Rs. 36 and Rs. 24 per annum, tenable for two years in middle and upper primary schools. The upper primary scholarships are 217 in number, and the lower 434, or altogether 651, being one scholarship for 78 schools and 1,351 children. There are prizes also for the encouragement for primary school children, which in 1882 amounted in value to nearly Rs. 30,000.

SECTION C.—*Secondary Instruction.*

283. Before taking up the subject of secondary instruction under its different heads, some general remarks as to the distinction implied in the contrasted names, primary and secondary, may not be out of place. The distinction was well known to the people of this country, but it was of a very different character from that now commonly made. Secondary education never implied any higher status of wealth in its recipients. On the contrary, it was elementary instruction, to the idea of payment for which least discredit was attached, while higher education was always imparted as a free gift, and often supported by grants from the sovereign. It will not be correct to suppose that these ideas were the fruits of the caste system, for they are found to prevail in Europe also. That only those members of society who can bring large contributions in money should have facilities for superior education is an idea which never commended itself to the Continental States of Europe; nor, in England itself, to the founders of those magnificent endowments which have rendered any direct expenditure by the State on higher education almost unnecessary at the present day. But even in England itself, where so much has been done by ancient munificence, the cost of secondary and collegiate education has latterly been found so bur-

densome that a general attempt has been, and is still being, made to reduce it. It was felt to be a national scandal, and a certain source of national injury, that the advantages of a University education should be open only to those who could afford to support a costly life at Oxford or Cambridge. Accordingly, in these older foundations, as well as in the new colleges and public schools of the United Kingdom, high education has been made very much less expensive.

284. In no country in the world has superior education been successfully promoted without large contributions either from the State, or from the endowments of past generations and past sovereigns—the capitalised resources of the nation. In the United Kingdom almost all the colleges of the old Universities are maintained from private or Crown land endowments. The fee-rates, although sometimes as high as £21 a year, seldom exceed one-fifth of the charges for boarding. In the Continental States, such as Prussia and France, secondary education has always enjoyed a substantial share of State support. Living is cheap in both countries, and the fee-rates and boarding charges of students in their public schools and colleges are low. In both, children belonging to all classes of society attend the same schools; and in both there are large exemptions from the payment of fees.

(a) *Middle Schools.*

285. The name of middle schools is not very strictly applied to any body of schools in the United Kingdom. The local or middle class examinations were first instituted by the great Universities some twenty-five years ago, with the object of testing and improving the education given in schools attended by the middle classes of society. But as the standard of these schools was found to lie midway between that of elementary schools on the one hand, and of the great public (or high) schools on the other, the local examinations are now gradually marking out the middle-class schools as schools also of a middle standard of instruction. Thus the term “middle schools” is in process of acquiring a definite meaning as a basis of classification. An idea of the middle examinations, which define the highest standard of these schools, will be gained from the Cambridge University standards given in Appendix G.

286. The middle schools of Bengal are the genuine fruits of departmental action, although these, too, like the primary schools, have derived their materials from the indigenous pathshalas. Their course extends from the alphabet to the standard of middle scholarships, which consists of (1) the English language, (2) a Vernacular language, (3) Arithmetic, (4) History and Geography, including Physical Geography, (5) Euclid (Book I, with deductions) and Mensuration, (6) Sanitary Science, with one of the following subjects:—

- (a) Elements of Natural Philosophy.
- (b) Elements of Chemistry.
- (c) Elements of Botany.

The last two subjects have been actually not much taught.

287. Middle schools are of two kinds, middle English and middle vernacular. In the former the course includes (1) to (6) of the subjects above named, in the latter it includes (2) to (6), the two courses being in every respect identical, except that a little English, as a language merely, is taught in the former. The distinction between them is now rapidly disappearing, since in both classes alike all substantive instruction is imparted through the medium of the vernacular, and a school passes from one to the other without difficulty. A middle school may open an English class and still be reckoned as a Vernacular

school, until it has won for itself a different classification by passing pupils by the scholarship standard in English. Again, an English school may find that its English classes are not sufficiently supported; it therefore drops that subject and passes over to the class of Vernacular schools, until it becomes stronger or better able to pay. The number of middle schools of both kinds, Government, aided, and unaided, is shown below :—

	Middle English schools.	Pupils.	Middle Vernacular schools.	Pupils.
Government	9	1,349	183	10,467
Aided	465	28,981	791	41,623
Unaided	138	7,629	76	4,351
TOTAL	612	37,959	1,050	56,441

The number of townships in Bengal with from 1,000 to 2,000 inhabitants is just 7,000; those with from 2,000 to 5,000 inhabitants is 1,400. Each of the former class might become the site of an upper primary or, in favourable circumstances, of a middle school; in each of the latter a middle school teaching elementary English might hereafter be set up. Of course all such numerical estimates would be largely modified by the varying conditions of the population in different villages.

288. It will be understood that in middle as well as in high schools in Bengal, no formal separation into primary and higher departments is made. A high school includes what in other provinces would be reckoned as a primary, a middle, and a high school. The majority of the pupils shown in the above table are in the primary stage of instruction. In Appendix H is given the distribution of pupils in every class of schools according to the stage of instruction in which they are.

289. Of the nine Government Middle English schools four are situated in hill tracts, for the benefit of backward races; two are model schools attached to training schools, and one is a Muhammadan school subordinate to the Calcutta Madrassa; while two are Government Vernacular schools in which an English class has been opened at the cost of the pupils, with no increase in the Government grant. The bulk of the schools receive grants-in-aid. Government Vernacular schools are intended as pioneers of education in backward places; and as soon as any of them has so far prospered that it can be replaced by an aided school, it is removed to another backward village.

290. The number of pupils learning each language is shown below :—

CLASS OF SCHOOL.	NUMBER OF PUPILS LEARNING		
	English.	A classical language.	A vernacular language.
Middle English	24,538	813	32,956
Middle Vernacular	4,419	189	55,407

In reference to the above statement it should be explained that the teaching of a classical language is not recognised in the course of studies prescribed for these schools. But in those aided middle schools which Muhammadan children largely attend, a little Persian is taught, just as a little Sanskrit is taught to Hindu children in aided schools attended by Hindus.

The text-books in use are given in Appendix I.

291. The subjects of examination for middle scholarships were last prescribed by the Bengal Government Resolution of 7th January 1882. They are—

	Marks.
1. English language	150
2. Vernacular ditto	150
3. Arithmetic	150
4. History and Geography, including Physical Geography .	150
5. Euclid and Mensuration	100
6. Sanitary Primer	50
7. One of the following—	
(a) Elements of Natural Philosophy	} 50
(b) Botany	
(c) Chemistry	
TOTAL	800

To be eligible for a vernacular scholarship a candidate must obtain 33 per cent. of the total marks in the vernacular language and in the arithmetic papers; and to qualify for a vernacular certificate he must obtain 25 per cent. of the marks in each of those subjects. Similarly, to be eligible for an English scholarship (or certificate) he must also obtain 33 (or 25) per cent. of the total marks in the English paper. In order to obtain either certificate a candidate must obtain 25 per cent. of the total marks.

292. The number of pupils that presented themselves for and that passed this examination on the last occasion are given below :—

	Candidates.	Passed.
For Middle English	962	683
For Middle Vernacular	3,350	2,175
TOTAL	4,312	2,858

293. The libraries of middle schools consist ordinarily of a few books of reference and a few for general reading. There are also in most of these schools black-boards and wall-maps. All middle schools, so far as has been ascertained, are accommodated in houses either built, or rented, or given free of rent by the managers, as shown below :—

CLASS OF SCHOOL.	Number of schools that have houses of their own.	Number of schools that have rented houses.	Number of schools that have rent-free houses.
Middle English	382	35	178
Middle Vernacular	631	73	332
TOTAL	1,013	108	500

294. There is no want of light and ventilation in the houses built for the schools; and the rented and rent-free houses are generally above the average found in the villages and townships in which they are situated. The schools are furnished with the required number of benches, chairs, and tables, a clock, and an almirah.

295. Every school keeps its register of attendance, which is daily filled up by the teachers. The register is also examined by the inspecting officers on their visits, and abstracts of it are sent to the Inspector with the monthly bills. The annual returns are prepared by the head teacher, endorsed by the Secretary, and examined by the Sub-Inspector of Schools, who submits them through the Deputy Inspector to the Inspector.

296. There are at present no special arrangements for training teachers of English for middle schools, with the single exception of an English Department at the Patna Normal School, to provide for the schools in Behar. In Bengal and elsewhere the teachers of English are supplied by the ordinary colleges and high schools without any special training. Vernacular teachers are trained in Bengal and Behar, as well as in Orissa and Chota Nagpore, in Normal schools, and a common "vernacular mastership" examination is held yearly for all Normal schools, on which certificates of three grades are given. These Normal schools are eight in number, and are all Government institutions. The number of pupils in them on the 31st March 1882 and the outturn of certificated men from them are shown in the table below:—

NAMES OF SCHOOLS.	No. of pupils on 31st March 1882.	Outturn in 1881-82.
1. Hooghly	102	83
2. Calcutta	63	37
3. Dacca	64	45
4. Rungpore	43	23
5. Chittagong	42	24
6. Patna	{ Vernacular 72 } { English . 21 } 93	{ 11 } { 7 } 18
7. Ranchi	27	11
8. Cuttack	32	25
TOTAL	466	266

The course for these schools extends over three years, and consists of a classical language, a vernacular, and mathematics and science to some point rather above than below the First Arts standard. But no English is taught except, as stated above, in the English Department of the Patna Normal School. The course of studies as last prescribed for these schools by the Director of Public Instruction is given in full in Appendix J.

The training which the teachers of middle schools have received is shown in the subjoined table:—

CLASS OF SCHOOL.	Total number of teachers.	TEACHERS TAUGHT IN				
		Colleges.	High schools.	Normal schools.	Middle schools.	Indigenous schools.
Middle English	1,849	284	622	432	413	98
Middle Vernacular	2,238	39	195	1,035	842	127

Class of Institution.	GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.								AIDED.								UNAIDED.					TOTAL EXPENDITURE.				AVERAGE ANNUAL COST OF EDUCATING EACH PUPIL.																															
	Provincial revenues.		Local rates and cesses.		Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal grants.	Other sources.	Totals.	Provincial revenues.		Local rates and cesses.		Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal grants.	Other sources.	Totals.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal grants.	Other sources.	Totals.	Provincial revenues.	Other sources controlled by Government officers.	Other sources not controlled by Government officers.	Grand total of expenditure.	GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.				AIDED INSTITUTIONS.				PRIVATE INSTITUTIONS.																			
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.						Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.																	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Middle English	15,275	80	7,667	600	105	23,820	1,30,201	817	1,078	1,47,216	92,863	6,971	6,475	3,75,610	81	20,308	20,468	463	9,339	66,706	1,35,479	16,783	3,03,974	4,56,136	20	15	5	13	7	2	0	0	0	0	8	5	14	5	2	4	9	4	0	0	6	0	4	3	8	1	5	0	1	0	
Middle Vernacular	61,668	300	...	5,620	22,730	216	617	81,608	1,04,507	...	773	88,815	90,529	3,347	7,174	2,86,145	770	11,032	4,280	650	5,165	22,787	1,50,975	32,637	2,04,428	3,88,440	8	9	0	5	7	0	0	0	0	7	0	0	4	7	10	8	2	12	3	0	0	0	0	1	0	5	14	5	0	2	8
TOTAL FOR 1872	77,143	300	...	6,790	30,148	816	812	1,06,328	2,24,708	817	1,661	2,31,080	1,83,382	9,318	13,649	6,61,755	854	38,294	24,748	1,103	14,494	79,493	2,01,854	49,420	5,08,302	8,49,576																															
TOTAL FOR 1871	67,924	37,900	1,591	1,07,406	2,72,354	1,71,130	...	2,58,818	7,02,308	3,40,278	4,60,625	8,00,893																																

297. The necessary information with regard to expenditure from different sources on middle schools for native boys is here given:—

298. The pay of the head masters of middle schools varies generally from Rs. 20 to Rs. 40 a month, and that of the assistant teachers from Rs. 10 to Rs. 20. The pay of the head vernacular teachers varies from Rs. 15 to Rs. 30, and that of the assistants from Rs. 7 to Rs. 20. There are no large prospects of promotion for these teachers.

299. The rates of fees in middle English schools vary generally from 4 annas to Re. 1 a month, and those in middle Vernacular schools from 2 annas to 8 annas a month. In Government schools there are no exemptions from fee-payment, and in aided schools only in rare instances. What is more common in aided schools is, for the school managers to pay the fees on account of some or of all the children. Accounts of fee-receipts are kept at the schools, and abstracts of them are sent monthly to the Inspector with the aid or salary bills. The fees collected in Government schools are either credited at the district or sub-divisional treasury, or if the school is situated in the interior, they are retained by the teacher, a deduction of equal amount being made in the establishment bill.

300. The middle scholarships are of two different values; middle English are of Rs. 5 a month, tenable for three years; middle Vernacular of Rs. 4 a month, tenable for four years. The number of scholarships awarded last year was for middle English schools 122, and for middle Vernacular 221. The Government assignment on this account was Rs. 54,000. In almost all middle schools prizes are distributed after the annual examinations. A small part of the prize fund comes from the grant-in-aid assignment, but the largest portion from local subscriptions.

(b) *High Schools.*

301. The name of "great public" or high schools is applied in England to a class of institutions in which the course of studies goes somewhat beyond that at which collegiate instruction commences. Some nine or ten of these schools had achieved for themselves a greater reputation than the rest by the value and antiquity of their endowments, by the social position of the pupils attending them, and by their proved efficiency. The rest teach to a standard, generally speaking, not below that of the great public schools; but many of them which have weak endowments receive State support under the Endowed Schools Act. The First Arts or second grade colleges of this country may be supposed to correspond to these English schools in point of standard. The collegiate, the zillah, and the aided high schools in Bengal can hardly be said to correspond to them, for, properly speaking, those of Bengal are not high but middle schools only.

302. High schools are classed as Government, aided or unaided. Their number and that of their pupils are shown as follows:—

CLASS OF SCHOOL.	Number of schools.	Number of pupils.
Government	51	14,795
Aided	96	12,696
Unaided	60	16,256
TOTAL	207	43,747

The total number of towns in Bengal with 5,000 inhabitants and upwards is 242. Each such town may hereafter be the site of a high school.

303. Of the 51 Government schools, 15 are the school departments of Government colleges, there being included in this class the Hindu and Hare Schools

attached to the Presidency College, the Sanskrit Collegiate School, the Anglo-Persian department of the Calcutta Madrassa, which teaches to the Entrance standard only, and the school department of the Bethune School,—all these being in Calcutta. The collegiate schools have an average of 360 pupils, the Hare School in Calcutta having 640, and the Patna and Dacca Schools over 500 each. Of the 36 (so-called) zillah schools, all but six are at the head-quarter stations of districts. They are divided into three classes, according to the number of their pupils. In the first class, defined by having 300 pupils and upwards, there are 13 schools, with an average of 407 pupils. In the second class, with pupils over 175 and less than 300, there are 10 schools, with an average of 255 pupils. In the third class, with less than 175 pupils, there 13 schools, with an average of 119 pupils. These last are situated in backward parts of the country, where English education mostly requires Government support.

304. All Government schools of this class are maintained on what is called the "net grant" system. The Government grant is fixed for a term of years, and the school is credited, for the payment of its establishment and necessary expenses, with the amount of that grant, and with the whole private income that it may derive from fees, subscriptions, municipal grants, endowments, or other sources. All receipts are paid into, and all payments made from, the Government Treasury; and any balance that may remain at the credit of the school at the close of a year is re-granted for the following year. Under this system, many Government schools have large sums at their credit, from which they are enabled to increase their staff, to purchase furniture, books, and other school materials, and to carry out additions to their buildings. It is understood that whenever any considerable additions have to be made to Government school buildings, at least half must generally be contributed from local sources, including the balance at credit of the school. Generally a larger local contribution is insisted on, and small additions are in all cases carried out from the school funds alone. The amount of the net grant varies in different schools, even of the same class, according to their size and locality; but a general idea of the financial position of the zillah schools may be given as follows. In schools of the first class, with a standard establishment of Rs. 8,460 a year, the Government grant is generally Rs. 2,100, against local contributions amounting to Rs. 6,360. In schools of the second class, with an average establishment of Rs. 6,000 a year, the Government grant is Rs. 2,100, and the local income Rs. 3,900. In schools of the third class, with an establishment costing Rs. 4,200, the Government grant is Rs. 2,400, and the local income Rs. 1,800.

305. In aided schools, the average number of pupils is only half that of Government schools. The Government schools, in fact, have been established in the most populous places.

The fee-rates in unaided schools are much smaller than in Government or aided schools, and hence the larger attendance of pupils in them. In many cases also they are situated in large towns, where there is a great demand for education, even without Government aid.

306. The high schools of this country in no case go beyond the Entrance standard of the Calcutta University, which is that of the highest class in them. The text-books in use are given in Appendix K. The medium of instruction is generally English, though an experiment has lately been made in a few schools of this class to place the instruction in the lower department of the school on a purely vernacular basis, the use of English as the medium of instruction

being confined to the four upper classes. The experiment is not without promise of success. Either some vernacular of the Province or Sanskrit, or Persian, and more rarely Arabic, is taken up as the second language in the higher classes.

307. The numbers learning different languages are specified in the subjoined statement:—

Total number of Pupils.	NUMBER OF PUPILS LEARNING		
	English.	A classical language.	A vernacular language.
43,747	42,212	15,720	23,251

For the Entrance Examination a classical or a vernacular language may be taken up. But the number of those taking up a vernacular is steadily and rapidly decreasing; and in a few years the number will probably become so small as to justify the Calcutta University in making a classical language compulsory at this examination. It may be added that a classic is now made a compulsory subject for the First Arts standard.

308. At the Entrance Examination held in December 1881, out of 2,105 pupils that competed 1,026 passed. From 49 Government schools 462 candidates passed, being 58 per cent. of the number sent up; from 88 aided schools 178 passed, or 39 per cent.; and from unaided schools 386 passed, or 46 per cent.

309. Every high school has a library containing the most necessary books of reference and of general interest. The school apparatus is generally sufficient for its purposes. Black-boards, wall-maps, globes, drawing instruments, chains and compasses, are to be found in all the schools, the Government schools being, generally speaking, better off in this respect than aided schools. With very few exceptions, aided schools are poorly supplied with libraries and apparatus.

310. The houses belonging to Government schools, having been built for the purpose, are well ventilated and lighted, as also are some of those in which aided and unaided schools are held. A few of the schools are accommodated in ordinary native houses, either rented or rent-free. Of all schools that have sent returns, 140 have houses of their own, 21 have rented, and 30 have rent-free houses.

311. All high schools keep registers of attendance, and the records are duly kept by the teachers or clerks appointed for the purpose. All records are supervised by the local managers, whether District Committees, or private Boards, or proprietors; and they are checked by the inspecting officers.

312. There are no special arrangements for training teachers for these schools. Of the total number of 1,319 teachers employed in them, 579 received their education in colleges, 491 in high schools, 97 in vernacular normal schools, and 152 in indigenous schools, tols, or mukhtabs.

313. The pay of the teachers in Government high schools ranges from Rs. 15 to Rs. 400 per month; in aided high schools from Rs. 10 to Rs. 150. Some unaided schools pay their teachers as well as aided schools do. Out of 327 officers in the subordinate educational service, 136 are teachers in high schools. The head master of the Hare School in Calcutta, which returns a considerable yearly profit to Government, is in the first class of that service, on a salary rising from Rs. 400 to Rs. 500 a month.

314. The necessary information with regard to the expenditure in high schools for native boys is given in the following statement.

GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.							AIDED INSTITUTIONS.							UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS.					TOTAL EXPENDITURE.				AVERAGE COST OF EDUCATING EACH PUPIL.																														
Provincial revenue.	Local rates and cesses.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal grants.	Other sources.	Total.	Provincial revenue.	Local rates and cesses.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal grants.	Other sources.	Total.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal grants.	Other sources.	Total.	Provincial revenue.	Other sources controlled by Government officers.	Other sources not controlled by Government officers.	Grand total of expenditure.	Government Institutions.				Aided Institutions.				Unaided Institutions.																			
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.A.P.	Rs.A.P.	Rs.A.P.	Rs.A.P.	Rs.A.P.	Rs.A.P.	Rs.A.P.	Rs.A.P.	Rs.A.P.																			
1,07,120	205	14,407	7,809	2,71,001	720	7,835	4,70,465	54,130	...	9,701	05,031	1,07,090	3,800	2,100	2,41,900	10,122	20,133	08,508	1,570	12,747	1,41,080	2,21,068	3,08,400	3,23,417	8,53,451	31	10	2	12	5	2	0	0	3	0	0	10	21	7	8	4	12	10	...	0	5	5	9	4	1	0	1	7
Total for 1971	2,11,420	27,300	1,04,000	1,37,731	58,333	04,201	70,473	2,02,007	2,60,850	3,60,012	0,30,801			

315. The fee-rates are on an average slightly above Rs. 20 a year in Government schools, above Rs. 16 in aided schools, and above Rs. 4½ in unaided schools. In Government and aided schools none are exempt from the payment of fees except middle English and middle vernacular scholars, who are also entitled to exemption, on condition of good conduct and progress, for one and two years respectively after the expiration of their stipends, being thus enabled to read continuously up to the Entrance Examination. In unaided schools there are always a large number of children exempted from the payment of fees.

The fee-collections made at Government schools are paid into the local treasuries; the collections in aided schools are disbursed in part-payment of the establishment charges by the local managers, who account for them to the Inspector of Schools.

316. Junior scholarships, tenable for two years in colleges at the option of the holder, are awarded annually by the Director of Public Instruction on the results of the University Entrance Examination, and are open on equal terms to students from all schools. They are 152 in number, and are of three grades; the first of Rs. 20 a month, the second of Rs. 15, and the third of Rs. 10. The annual assignment on this account is Rs. 45,600. There are also three junior scholarships for girls. Prizes in books are given on the results of the class examinations conducted by the teachers and local managers. In some schools, Government and aided, a definite yearly sum is sanctioned for prizes; but in most the expenditure depends on the amount of the balance that may be from time to time at the disposal of the school, and on local subscriptions.

317. There are no special arrangements for the instruction of the sons of Native Chiefs. The Wards' Institution, for the training and education of minors under the Court of Wards, has been recently abolished; and arrangements for the education of each minor at the zillah or collegiate school of his district, as well as for his home instruction, are now made by the Commissioner in communication with the Director of Public Instruction, and subject to the sanction of the Court.

318. For the education of Muhammadans, Government maintains the Calcutta Madrassa, an old institution dating from the time of Warren Hastings, at a yearly cost of Rs. 30,000 from Provincial Revenues. It has a purely Arabic Department, with 253 pupils, an Anglo-Persian Department teaching to the Entrance standard of the University, with 386 pupils, and an attached school of a lower class, with 484 pupils in its English and Oriental departments. Of the total number of 1,123 pupils in this institution, 716 learn English. Government has also devoted to the education of Muhammadans the income arising from the Mohsin Endowment Fund, amounting to about Rs. 55,000 a year. Half this sum, or Rs. 28,000, is applied to the maintenance of four Madrassas at Dacca, Hooghly, Rajshahye, and Chittagong. In each the full Arabic course of the Calcutta Madrassa is taught; and in each also instruction in English is given to all pupils who wish for it. In the Dacca Madrassa the course in English is carried up to the Entrance standard. Of 1,048 pupils in these four Madrassas, as many as 322 learn in English. The other half of the Mohsin income, amounting to Rs. 27,000, is devoted to various purposes. A sum of Rs. 18,000 is assigned for the payment of two-thirds of the fees of Muhammadan pupils in Government colleges and schools outside Calcutta, and also

for the payment of maulavis in these schools; while Rs. 9,000 are spent upon scholarships of different kinds, tenable by Muhammadans either in Madrassas, or in colleges and schools. By more recent orders of Government in 1881, the privilege of reading at two-thirds of the ordinary fees was extended to Muhammadan students of any college in Calcutta, whether Government or private; in the case of private colleges the amount of the remissions is paid from Provincial revenues. These orders have given a great stimulus to the higher education of Muhammadans in Calcutta.

319. No special provision is made for the education of peasants' sons, other than that supplied by the primary schools of the country. But these schools are, and always have been, used in full measure by the peasant class. The pupils of the cultivating class in primary schools compose a nearly constant average of 41 per cent. of the total number. By the census, cultivators amount to 45 per cent. of the population. A more definite provision for the higher education of these classes is supplied by the primary scholarships, of which the full share falls to the peasant class. The "lower classes" or "masses," who form from 80 to 85 per cent. of the pathsala pupils, win from 70 to 75 per cent. of the primary scholarships, and considerably more than half of these "lower class" scholars are sons of cultivating ryots. These promising lads, have thus the chance given them of going on to the highest standard of instruction which the country can supply.

SECTION D.—*Collegiate Instruction.*

320. The number of Government Colleges in Bengal in 1881-82 was 12, as in the preceding year. Eight of these, namely, the Presidency, Hooghly, Kishnaghur, Dacca, Patna, Cuttack, and Rajshahye Colleges, and the College Department of the Bethune School, teach the full course for the B.A. degree. The remaining four, *viz.*, the Sanskrit College of Calcutta, and the Berhampore, Midnapore, and Chittagong Colleges, are second grade institutions, and teach up to the standard of the First Examination in Arts. Of the 12 colleges six have large private endowments. All students in colleges have passed the matriculation examination of the University.

321. The aided colleges are five, namely, the General Assembly's Institution, the Free Church College, St. Xavier's, the Doveton, and the London Missionary Institution; four of these are in Calcutta and one in the suburbs. The first three teach the full course of the degree.

322. Unaided colleges for Native students increased during the year from three to five, owing (1) to the establishment of the Maharaja's College at Burdwan, in which no fees are charged; and (2) to the opening of a college class in connection with the Albert School in Calcutta. The other three colleges were the Metropolitan Institution, the City College, and the Baptist Missionary College at Serampore. Of these five colleges, four are under exclusively Native management. The Metropolitan Institution is the only unaided college that prepares candidates for the degree. The Bishop's College, which is affiliated in Arts to the Calcutta University, and which at long intervals sends a candidate to the F.A. or the B.A. examination, may also be placed among unaided colleges. La Martinière has seven European students in the College Department.

323. The following statement compares the number of pupils in Arts Colleges in 1871 and 1882. It also shows the fluctuations in attendance during the last three years :—

ARTS COLLEGES.	No. of Pupils.				REMARKS.	
	1871.	1880.	1881.	1882.		
<i>Government.</i>						
Presidency College	405	336	344	374	* Including 23 non-matriculated students reading for the Sanskrit Title Examination.	
Sanskrit "	26	34	54	68*		
Hooghly "	152	155	194	194		
Dacca "	112	187	257	290		
Kishnaghur "	116	75	80	56		
Berhampore "	41	20	33	36		
Patna "	84	149	162	160		
Ravenshaw " (Cuttack)	22	31	40	38		
Rajshahye "	66	63	55		Established in 1873.
Midnapore "	23	15	11		Established in 1873.
Chittagong "	5	10	13	17		
Calcutta Madrass a		College classes closed in 1871.
Gowhatty College	17		Separated from Bengal in 1873.
Bethune Girls' School	5	6		Established in 1880.
Total	980	1,086	1,260	1,305		
<i>Aided.</i>						
General Assembly's College	62	361	501	484	No returns for 1871.	
Free Church "	120	69	145	221		
St. Xavier's "	36	86	84	72		
Doveton "	27	28	55		
London Missionary "	45	47	50	63		
Cathedral Mission "	131	63		Closed in 1880.
Total	394	653	808	895		
<i>Unaided.</i>						
Metropolitan Institution	328	380	341	Established in 1872.	
Baptist Mission College, Serampore	9	No returns.	
City College, Calcutta	58	103	Established in 1881.	
Maharaja's College, Burdwan	52	Established in 1882.	
Albert College, Calcutta	42	Established in 1881.	
Total	337	438	538		
GRAND TOTAL	1,374	2,076	2,506	2,738		

324. Of the colleges abolished in or since 1871, it is to be remarked that the Anglo-Persian Department of the Calcutta Madrassa ceased to work as an English College in 1871, because undergraduate students no longer joined the institution. Since that date it has taught to the Entrance standard only. The Gowhatty College was transferred to Assam in 1873. Within the same period, college classes to the First Arts standard were added to the Rungpore School in 1877, and were closed again in 1879. The Cathedral Mission Aided College was closed by its managers at the end of 1880. From 1865 to the date of its abolition, it had passed 140 candidates at F.A., 61 for the B.A., and 4 for the M.A. degree. No candidates passed from the Rungpore College or the Calcutta Madrassa during the period in which college classes were open.

325. Other changes that took place in existing colleges within this period were as follows: The Sanskrit College was reduced to the second grade in Bengal.

1872, though it continues to teach the M.A. course in Sanskrit. In the same year the Kishnaghur College was reduced to the second grade; but the B.A. classes were restored in 1876, an Endowment Fund to the amount of Rs. 40,000 having been created by local subscriptions. The Berhampore College was reduced to the second grade in 1872. The Ravenshaw College at Cuttack was raised to the first grade in 1876 as an experimental measure, and it was permanently established in that grade in 1881. A sum of Rs. 25,000 was provided by local subscriptions towards the support of the college during the experimental period; and a further sum of Rs. 20,000 has been invested as the nucleus of an Endowment Fund. The Rajshahye College was raised to the first grade in 1878, when a sum of Rs. 1,50,000, yielding Rs. 6,000 a year, was invested from local contributions towards its permanent endowment, in addition to a further guaranteed income of Rs. 5,000 from local sources for the maintenance of the First Arts classes. It should be added that the Berhampore College has an endowment of Rs. 14,000, and the Midnapore College an endowment of Rs. 51,000. The Chittagong College has also a small endowment of Rs. 2,000.

326. The race or caste of the pupils in Arts Colleges is tabulated below :—

COLLEGES.	Number of Institutions.	Total number of pupils.	Europeans or Eurasians.	Native Christians.	Hindus.	Muhammadians.	Others.
Government	12	1,305	39	28	2,530	106	35
Aided	5	895					
Unaided	5*	538					
TOTAL	22	2,738	39	28	2,530	106	35

* The Baptist Mission College at Serampore furnished no returns.

327. The creed and caste of these scholars in fuller detail, together with some particulars of their social position, is shown in the subjoined tables, to which the returns of the Medical College of Calcutta have been added :—

Return of Creed and Caste of Scholars for the year 1881-82.

COLLEGES.	Number of Colleges which have sent in returns.	Number of Students on the rolls on 31st March 1882.	Number of Brahmins, Rajpoots, Kayasths, Banias, Rajas, Muzaffars, Leites, Buhhans, Karnas, Mowhants, Khandais, Ghatwals, and Tikayets.	Number of Students belonging to Hindu Trading Castes, such as Banias, &c.	Number of other Hindu Castes.	Number of Muhammadians.				TOTAL.
						Sunnis.	Shias.	Christians.	Others.	
Government Colleges, General	11 (a)	1,145	974	70	31	52	1	11	5	1,144 (d)
Aided	2 (b)	550	405	23	87	7	6	26	3	556
Unaided	3 (c)	435	405	16	13	1	435
Medical College, Calcutta	1	117	60	7	2	48	...	117
TOTAL	17	2,233	1,844	115	133	60	7	65	8	2,232 (d)

(a) No returns from Patna College.

(b) " from the Free Church, Doveton, and London Missionary Society's Colleges.

(c) " From La Martinière and the City College.

(d) One student from Hooghly not returned.

Return of Social Position of Scholars for the year 1881-82.

COLLEGES.	No. of Colleges which have sent in returns.	Annual income of guardian between £16 and £20.	Annual income of guardian between £20 and £50.	Annual income of guardian between £50 and £100.	Annual income of guardian between £100 and £200.	Annual income of guardian between £200 and £500.	Annual income of guardian upwards of £500.	Not returned.	TOTAL.
Govt. Colleges, General Aided	11 (a)	163	266	211	176	171	144	14	1,145
Unaided	2 (b)	15	37	210	193	88	13	...	556
Medical College, Calcutta	1 (c)	15	14	13	8	2	52
	1	15	26	35	23	16	2	...	117
TOTAL	15	208	343	469	400	277	159	14	1,870

(a) No return from Patna College.

(b) No return from the Free Church, Doveton, and London Missionary Society's Colleges.

(c) No return from the Metropolitan Institution, La Martinibre, the City and Albert Colleges.

328. The results of the University examinations in Arts of each college are given in the following statement:—

COLLEGES.	F.A.		B.A.		HONOUR AND M.A.	
	Candidates examined.	Candidates passed.	Candidates examined.	Candidates passed.	Candidates examined.	Candidates passed.
<i>Government.</i>						
Presidency College	77	31	75	28	30	9
Sanskrit	21	10	5	5
Hooghly	52	27	22	13	7	4
Dacca	88	43	16	7	5	3
Kishnaghur	22	9	10	1	2	...
Berhampore	12	3
Patna	58	25	18	6	2	1
Ravenshaw (Cuttack)	8	5	1	1
Rajshahye	24	10	6	3
Midnapore	6	4
Chittagong	9	3
Bethune	1	1
Total	378	171	148	59	51	22
<i>Aided.</i>						
General Assembly's	189	44	82	21	10	2
Free Church	72	19	11	3	5	2
St. Xavier's	12	4	7
Doveton	11	4
London Mission	20	9
Total	304	80	100	24	15	4
<i>Unaided.</i>						
Metropolitan	115	31	42	7	1	...
Baptist Mission	9	5
Bishop's College	1	1
Total	124	36	43	8	1	...
GRAND TOTAL	806	287	291	91	67	26

329. The second languages taught in Government colleges are Sanskrit and Persian or Arabic. In aided colleges for the education of Europeans, Latin or Greek is the second language. Of the 2,745 students in the Government, aided, and unaided colleges, 2,196 took up Sanskrit, 15 Arabic, 114 Persian, 132 Latin, and 1 Greek. Of the 6 undergraduate students in the College Department of the Bethune School, the second language of one was Latin, of four Sanskrit, and of one Persian.

330. Of the Bengal candidates for the B.A. degree examinations, 184 took up the Literature and 125 the Science Course. Of the former 42, or 23 per cent., passed, and of the latter 53, or 42 per cent.

This is the first occasion, since the alternative courses were established, on which the number of A course candidates has exceeded that of those taking up the B course. In the earlier days of the new system the B course was thought to be easier, because it comprised a smaller number of subjects, and

involved a smaller number of pages to be read. That illusion was soon dispelled by the results of the examinations; and yet it was found that increasing numbers of students, even in the colleges in which the fullest option was allowed, took up the B course. It was discovered also that the B course was selected by all the best students, a fact which pointed to a growing taste for scientific instruction. Of late years, accordingly, the proportion of success among B course candidates has been very much higher than among those taking up literature. The recent increase, noted above, in the number of candidates taking up the A course for the degree is due to the great increase of late years in the number of students at private colleges, which generally confine themselves to that course.

331. Of the Honour and M.A. candidates 11 passed in English, 3 in Mathematics, 4 in Physical Science, 4 in Sanskrit, and 3 in History.

332. The libraries in the Presidency, Hooghly, Dacca, Kishnaghur, and other old colleges are richer than those of the colleges opened in later years. The Presidency College has for many years enjoyed an allowance of Rs. 300 a month, and has accumulated a comprehensive library of modern literature in all branches of knowledge. The Hooghly, Dacca, and Patna Colleges have a library allowance of Rs. 400 a year; and the Kishnaghur, Rajshahye, and Ravenshaw Colleges from Rs. 300 to Rs. 350 a year. It is believed on good grounds that the general reading of college students is getting limited to a very narrow range. This result may be attributed with fair probability to the system of University examinations hitherto prevailing. The library medal, and the other special rewards created by the Council of Education for the encouragement of private reading, no longer exist. But the new scheme of examinations, which will be described hereafter, and which will come into force in 1884, has been designed with the declared and express object of promoting among the best students a taste for private reading, on subjects allied to those of their college studies. This it hopes to effect by instituting for the B.A. degree an honour standard, over and above the pass standard which every candidate has to take up.

333. Since the introduction of the scientific course in the degree examinations, all colleges of the first grade have been supplied with laboratories, apparatus, and scientific appliances generally. The Presidency College has a complete physical and chemical laboratory, and a good supply of instruments. The Hooghly College has a good chemical laboratory, in addition to a botanic garden. A spacious and well-equipped laboratory has just been built for the Patna College, and large extensions have been sanctioned for the Kishnaghur College laboratory. In the other colleges the laboratories, although not so completely equipped, serve the necessary purposes of instruction. When the alternative courses in science were adopted by the University for the B.A. degree, a grant for the purchase of scientific apparatus, to the amount generally of Rs. 5,000, was sanctioned for each Government College of the first grade. The scientific course is now taught in every Government College, the course in literature is taught in addition in two only,—the Presidency and Dacca Colleges.

334. The total expenditure on all the Arts Colleges returned was Rs. 5,24,165 in 1881-82, out of which the State contribution amounted to Rs. 2,77,278, or a little more than half. On the Special Colleges the Government contribution was four-fifths of the total expenditure. The following

tabular statement gives the details of income and expenditure from all sources. No contributions towards the cost of collegiate education were received from Municipalities, or from local rates and cesses.

	GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.						AIDED INSTITUTIONS.						UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS UNDER REGULAR INSPECTION.					TOTAL EXPENDITURE.				AVERAGE ANNUAL COST OF EDUCATING EACH PUPIL IN															
	Provincial revenue.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Provincial revenues.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Other sources.	Total.	Provincial revenues.	Other sources controlled by Government officers.	Other sources not controlled by Government officers.	Grand Total.	Percentage on total expenditure.	Government Institutions.		Aided Institutions.		Unaided Institutions.										
																							Total cost.	Cost to Provincial revenues.	Total cost.	Cost to Provincial revenues.	Total cost.	Cost to Provincial revenues.									
Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.		Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.									
Colleges for General Education	2,55,823	17,540	...	1,09,831	126	3,77,934	21,450	20,430	11,601	41,364	37,804	1,41,750	2,077*	2,065*	5,043*	2,77,278	1,21,506	1,25,381	5,24,165	8.36	320	0	5	217	5	6	185	5	6	28	0	7	49	7	8
“ „ Special “	2,04,422	800	...	42,363	...	2,47,585	2,04,402	43,163	...	2,47,565	3.04	379	1	10	313	0	3		
<i>Figures for 1871.</i>																																					
Colleges for General Education	1,93,182	60,541	33,637	3,06,260	24,000	10,711	62,877	1,07,488	2,17,082	1,06,606		4,13,748		
“ „ Special “	1,32,911	62,280	1,085	1,80,276		

* Exclusive of expenditure in the Metropolitan Institution, La Martinière and Albert Colleges.

Integral.

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335. The following statement shows in detail the expenditure from State funds and from local sources on each Government and aided college. Unaided institutions generally furnish no returns of expenditure.

COLLEGES—GENERAL.	Number on the rolls on the 31st March 1892.	Rates of fees monthly.*	EXPENDITURE IN 1891-92.			COST PER ANNUM FOR EACH STUDENT.†		
			From State Funds.	From private sources.	Total.	From State Funds, &c.	From fees, &c.	Total.
			Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Government—								
Presidency College	374	12	71,805	48,569	1,20,498	214 14 0	144 12 7	359 11 1
Sanskrit "	68†	6	10,031	1,805	20,423	288 5 0	24 2 8	313 8 2
Hoochly "	194	6	94,607	12,877	47,884	192 4 2	71 8 7	263 12 9
Dacca "	290	6	21,170	18,603	39,873	92 0 8	80 7 2	172 7 10
Kishnaghur "	66	6	32,025	6,917	38,842	438 11 2	93 6 1	632 1 3
Berhampore "	36	6	10,365	1,940	12,325	324 8 6	69 10 0	385 2 6
Patna "	160	6	33,495	11,018	49,513	273 0 2	78 2 3	351 2 5
Ravenshaw " (Cutlack)	38	4	14,031	2,439	17,120	444 14 1	73 14 8	518 12 7
Rajshahye "	66	3	3,458	13,204	16,663	42 13 11	210 1 2	302 15 1
Midnapore "	11	5	2,700	3,848	6,028	213 13 6	236 0 0	609 13 6
Chittagong "	17	3	4,201	646	4,847	280 1 1	43 1 0	323 2 1
Botanic Girls' School	6	...	3,000	116	3,116	750 0 0	29 0 0	779 0 0
TOTAL	1,305	...	2,65,828	1,21,606	3,77,334	217 5 8	103 3 9	320 9 5
Aided—								
General Assembly's College, Calcutta	494	5	7,200	49,078	66,278	15 5 1	104 6 8	119 11 10
Free Church College, Calcutta	231	5	5,400	26,844	31,244	33 2 0	168 8 10	191 10 10
St. Xavier's "	73	6	4,200	24,760	28,960	82 5 8	435 14 1	608 3 9
Doretton "	65	5	2,250	6,750	12,000	55 5 4	301 1 0	444 7 1
London Mission " Bhowanipore	63	5	2,400	10,887	13,287	44 7 1	201 8 8	240 0 10
TOTAL	905	...	21,450	1,20,338	1,41,789	28 0 7	157 4 11	185 5 6
GRAND TOTAL	2,200	...	2,77,278	2,41,945	5,19,123	142 12 5	124 8 7	267 5 0

* The fee-rates in the unaided colleges of Calcutta under native management are Rs. 3 a month. The Burdwan Maharaja's College charges no fees.

† Found by dividing the expenditure by the average monthly roll number.

‡ Including 14 students of the 3rd and 4th year classes, who read their English subjects in the Presidency College.

336. The staff of each college and the salary attached to each professorship are tabulated below:—

NAME OF COLLEGE.	Professors.	Salary.
	GOVERNMENT COLLEGES.	
		Rs. A. P.
PRESIDENCY COLLEGE	Principal and Professor of English	1,500 0 0
	1 Professor of Natural Science	1,150 0 0
	1 Do. of Chemistry	1,150 0 0
	2 Do. of Mathematics	800 0 0
		650 0 0
	3 Do. of English	1,000 0 0
		925 0 0
		366 10 8
	1 Professor of History	1,000 0 0
	1 Do. of Mental and Moral Philosophy and Logic	550 0 0
	1 Professor of Sanskrit	300 0 0
	1 Assistant Professor of Sanskrit	260 0 0
	1 Teacher of Sanskrit	50 0 0
	1 Do. of Arabic and Persian	50 0 0
	to 75 0 0	
HOOCHLY COLLEGE	Principal and Professor of Mathematics	1,250 0 0
	1 Professor of History and English Literature	900 0 0
	1 Do. of Logic and English Literature	700 0 0
	1 Lecturer in Botany	150 0 0
	1 Do. in Chemistry and Physical Geography	250 0 0
	1 Lecturer in Mathematics	100 0 0
	1 Assistant Professor of Sanskrit	180 0 0
	1 Do. of Arabic and Persian	60 0 0

NAME OF COLLEGE.	Professors.	Salary.
GOVERNMENT COLLEGES— <i>contd.</i>		Rs. A. P.
KISHNAGHUR COLLEGE	Principal and Professor of Science 1 Professor of English 1 Lecturer in Science 1 Assistant Professor of Mathematics 1 Lecturer in English 1 Assistant Professor of Sanskrit	650 0 0 550 0 0 200 0 0 300 0 0 130 0 0 190 0 0
DACCA COLLEGE	Principal and Professor of English Literature 1 Professor of Logic, Mental and Moral Philosophy 1 Professor of Natural Science 1 Do. of English Literature 1 Lecturer in English 1 Do. in Chemistry 1 Assistant Lecturer in Mathematics 1 Do. Professor of Sanskrit	940 0 0 700 0 0 550 0 0 550 0 0 250 0 0 50 0 0 75 0 0 75 0 0
PATNA COLLEGE	Principal and Professor of Science 1 Professor of Mathematics 1 Do. of Literature 1 Assistant Professor 1 Do. Lecturer in Science 1 Do. Professor of Sanskrit 1 Head Moulvi	1,250 0 0 940 0 0 650 0 0 460 0 0 100 0 0 190 0 0 100 0 0
CUTTACK COLLEGE	Principal and Professor of English Assistant Professor Lecturer in Science Do. in Mathematics Do. in English 1 Sanskrit Teacher	450 0 0 280 0 0 100 0 0 150 0 0 100 0 0 60 0 0
RAJSHAHYE COLLEGE.	Principal and Professor of Literature Professor of Literature Assistant Professor of Mathematics Lecturer in Physical Science Sanskrit Teacher	750 0 0 300 0 0 200 0 0 150 0 0 50 0 0
COLLEGE DEPARTMENT OF THE BETHUNE SCHOOL.	2 Lecturers	150 0 0 100 0 0
SANSKRIT COLLEGE	Principal and Professor of Philosophy and Rhetoric Professor of Sanskrit Literature and Grammar Do. of do. do. Law Assistant Professor of Rhetoric and Grammar English Lecturer Additional English Lecturer	900 0 0 150 0 0 100 0 0 95 0 0 150 0 0 150 0 0
BERHAMPORE COLLEGE	Principal Assistant Professor of Sanskrit Lecturer in Mathematics Lecturer in Chemistry and Botany	620 0 0 180 0 0 100 0 0 50 0 0
MIDNAPORE COLLEGE	Head Master 2nd Master 3rd Master Head Pundit	300 0 0 200 0 0 150 0 0 50 0 0
CHITTAGONG COLLEGE	Head Master 2nd Master 3rd Master Head Pundit	200 0 0 150 0 0 150 0 0 50 0 0

NAME OF COLLEGE.	Professors.	Salary.
AIDED COLLEGES.		Rs. A. P.
GENERAL ASSEMBLY'S INSTITUTION.	Principal and Professor of Philosophy	610 0 0
	3 Professors of English Literature	1,780 0 0
	1 Professor of Mathematics	220 0 0
	1 Do. of Chemistry and Botany	75 0 0
	2 Professors of Sanskrit	196 0 0
FREE CHURCH INSTITUTION.	Principal	450 0 0
	3 European Professors	1,140 0 0
	6 Native do.	470 0 0
ST. XAVIER'S	Rector	500 0 0
	2 Professors of English	600 0 0
	1 Professor of Science	300 0 0
	2 Professors of Mathematics	600 0 0
	1 Professor of Latin	300 0 0
	1 Do. of Sanskrit	35 0 0
	1 Do. of Persian	20 0 0
DOVETON COLLEGE	Principal, Professors, and Teachers	1,795 0 0
LONDON MISSIONARY INSTITUTION, BHOWANIPORE.	Principal and Professor of English Literature	350 0 0
	2 European Professors	395 0 0
	3 Native do.	226 0 0
UNAIDED COLLEGES.		
LA MARTINIÈRE COLLEGE	6 Professors
METROPOLITAN INSTITUTION.	1 Secretary
	3 Professors of English Literature	{ 225 0 0
		{ 200 0 0
		{ 100 0 0
	2 Do. of Mathematics	{ 225 0 0
		{ 80 0 0
	1 Professor of Logic and Psychology	{ 140 0 0
	1 Do. of History	{ 100 0 0
	{ 140 0 0	
	{ 60 0 0	
SERAMPORE COLLEGE	1 Principal
	1 Professor of Mathematics
	2 Assistant Professors
	1 Pundit
CITY COLLEGE, CALCUTTA	5 Professors
	1 Sanskrit Professor
BURDWAN MAHARAJA'S COLLEGE.	Principal	150 0 0
	1 Lecturer	100 0 0
	1 Do.	100 0 0
ALBERT COLLEGE, CALCUTTA	1 Rector
	3 Professors
	1 Sanskrit Professor

337. The question of raising the fee-rates in colleges (see table, para. 235) was again raised last year. With the exception of the Principal of the Patna College, who considered that the fee-rate might be raised from Rs. 6 to Rs. 8 a month, the Principals of all colleges unanimously represented that any

increase in the existing rates would largely reduce the number of students, and would thus defeat the object in view, namely, the reduction of the Government expenditure; while at the same time it would make the attainment of degrees more and more difficult for the struggling middle classes by whom the colleges are chiefly recruited, and would confine the spread of "Western science and Western culture" within a still narrower range of students than at present. The conclusion to be drawn appears to be that any sensible increase in the fee-rates would entail greater hardship on students, and limit the spread of knowledge in a greater degree than would be warranted by any questionable decrease in the Government expenditure. The fee-rate in the Presidency College, Rs. 12 a month, is exceptionally high, and this high rate is presumably the cause why the number of pupils in it has fallen from 405 in 1871 and 442 in 1872 to 374 in 1882, notwithstanding the fact that the total number of college students has doubled within that period.

In no college are students exempted from the payment of fees. But in the Hooghly College Muhammadans, and in the Sanskrit College the sons of *bonâ fide* pandits, are allowed to read at reduced rates. Again, a portion of the fees of Muhammadan pupils in all Government colleges, and in the private colleges of Calcutta, is paid from the Mohsin Fund.

The highest boarding charges at the hostels in Calcutta and Hooghly are Rs. 12 and Rs. 4 a month respectively. Thus in Bengal the fee-rates exceed the boarding charges for the students. At Oxford and Cambridge the tuition fees amount to about one-fifth of the boarding charges.

338. The following were the sanctioned grants for Government scholarships tenable in colleges for the year 1881-82:—

	Rs.
Senior	24,720
Junior	45,735
Sanskrit College scholarships	2,832
Engineering „ „	10,680
Medical „ „	4,800

Besides the above Government scholarships there were also the endowed scholarships detailed in paragraphs 89 and 140.

339. On the results of the Entrance and First Arts Examinations held in December 1881, 155 junior and 50 senior scholarships respectively were awarded. Of these, one senior and three junior scholarships were awarded to female students. The junior scholarships are of the value of Rs. 10, Rs. 15, and Rs. 20 a month, tenable for two years after passing the Entrance Examination; the senior scholarships of the value of Rs. 20 and Rs. 25 a month, tenable for two years after passing the First Arts Examination.

340. There is no serious complaint in Bengal that encouragement to enter the public service is not offered to distinguished students of the University. The Government of Bengal appears in the main to have acted from the earliest times on the conviction that in moderation, in balance of mind, in stability of character, and in those mental qualities which generally distinguish men of sound and solid education, the foremost students of the English colleges were in no way deficient. Accordingly, the Government has selected many such students year by year for responsible and honourable employment in the public service. Similarly, the High Court, as a dispenser of patronage in appoint-

ments, has consistently raised the standard of the educational qualifications which it requires of candidates; and the number of University graduates that proceed to the highest degree, that of Master of Arts, is, under the inducement thus offered, constantly increasing.

341. Before proceeding to a statement of the number of graduates that have joined the public service and the various professions, some account may be given of the existing provision for professional instruction. The number of professional colleges increased from 9 to 10 in the year 1881-82, on the opening of a law class in connection with the (unaided) Metropolitan Institution. In 1871 the number of professional colleges was 10, the Law Department of the Chittagong College having been closed on the last day of the preceding year. The following statement compares the number of students in these colleges in 1871 and 1882, and the rates of fees charged in them:—

COLLEGES.	NUMBER OF PUPILS.		RATE OF FEES.	
	1871.	1882.	1871.	1882.
<i>Government.</i>				
1. Presidency College, Law Department	310	121	5 and 10	5 and 10
2. Hooghly " " "	65	37	5	5 and 7
3. Dacca " " "	81	38	5	7
4. Kishnaghur " " "	45	12	5	5
5. Berhampore " " "	31	Abolished in 1875.	5	...
6. Patna " " "	87	37	5	7
7. Cuttack " " "	9	8	5	...
8. Gowhaty " " "	15	Transferred to Assam.	5	...
9. Rajshahye " " "	Established in 1880.	17	...	3
10. Medical College, Calcutta	219	117	5	...
11. Civil Engineering College	103	170	5	3, 5, and 8
<i>Unaided.</i>				
Metropolitan Institution, Law Department .	Established in 1882.	198

342. The seven Law Departments send up candidates to the B.L. degree examination. The law classes in the Berhampore College were abolished on its reduction to the second grade, the University requiring that law lectures should be attended for a period of two years after taking the B.A. degree. From the Berhampore Law Department, during the 11 years that it existed, 14 obtained the degree of B.L., and 19 passed as Licentiates in law, for which in former days the degree of B.A. was not required.

The Law classes are not now attended by as large numbers as in 1871. They have been not merely self-supporting, but have yielded a profit. The total expenditure (met from fees alone) was Rs. 23,892 during the last year, and the income of the classes exceeded this sum by over Rs. 4,000.

343. The subjoined statements show (1) the number of graduates in Arts from collegiate institutions, and the number of such graduates who have taken service, public or private, or who have joined the medical, legal, and civil engineering professions; (2) the number of graduates or Licentiates in other Faculties, the great majority of whom, it may be assumed, have joined the corresponding professions. The information as to the subsequent employment

of graduates in Arts is taken from a paper contributed to the *Hindoo Patriot* by Babu Krishna Chandra Roy, of the Hare School, Calcutta:—

I.—GRADUATES IN ARTS.

PERIOD.	Entrance.	First Arts.	B.A.	M.A.	Number of B.A.'s and M.A.'s that have joined the public service.	Number that have joined private service.	NUMBERS THAT HAVE JOINED PROFESSIONS.		
							Legal.	Medical.	Civil Engineering.
1857 to 1882	16,291	3,874	1,589	398	526	180	581	12	...

II.—GRADUATES IN OTHER FACULTIES.

PERIOD.	License in Law.	B.L.	Doctor in Law.	LICENSES IN MEDICINE AND SURGERY.		BACHELOR IN MEDICINE.		Doctor of Medicine.	License in Civil Engineering.
				1st Examination.	2nd Examination.	1st Examination.	2nd Examination.		
1857 to 1882	207	949	2	579	343	127	164	5	98

The number of subordinate executive and ministerial public offices (Government and Municipal) in Bengal, of the value of Rs. 50 a month and upwards, may be roughly calculated at about 4,500. But notwithstanding the encouragement offered by Government, only 526 graduates out of the whole number are employed in the public service, the great majority being in professions, and some few in private service. The more extended employment of college-educated youths in public offices would increase the efficiency, the purity, the economy, and the popularity of the public service. A very large supply, therefore, of these educated men is still required to meet the felt wants of the public service; not to speak of the necessity of so far increasing their number as to force them by the struggle for existence into new paths of trade and industry.

344. With regard to the effect of collegiate instruction on the general education and enlightenment of the people, little need be said. It has been already remarked (paragraph 18) that "education in English was expected to perform a threefold function—to prepare a body of competent public servants, to diffuse European knowledge, and to elevate the moral and intellectual tone of the people. No one can seriously question that in Bengal English education has served all these useful purposes." The broad results of English education of the higher kind may be shown in several ways. In the first place, it is to the establishment of Government schools and colleges, and to their maintenance at a high pitch of efficiency, that the wide acceptance of the grant-in-aid system by the people, and the multiplication by private effort of colleges and schools of all classes, is to be ascribed. If there are eleven colleges maintained by Government, there are four private colleges under exclusively native management. Of high schools, for every one that is maintained by Government, there are three (two aided and one unaided) supported by private effort. Of middle English schools, there are 465 aided and 138 unaided, to nine that Government maintains. Of middle Vernacular schools, the number of private institutions exceeds those of Government by five to one. Of primary schools no mention need be made, since these owe both their origin and their continued existence to conditions outside the sphere of Government action. But after the first establishment and organisation of the departmental system, its further development has been effected almost exclusively by private enterprise and enthusiasm, called forth by the zeal for education which collegiate instruction has implanted. In fact, the first thing that an educated native does, when he

embarks on the business of life anywhere outside Calcutta, is to look to the means of education that the place affords. He may want a school for the sake of his own children; he may (if he is a rich man) be ambitious of founding a school for the glory of his name, or out of a sentiment of real benevolence. Whatever the motive may be, the result is that, either by himself or in combination with his neighbours, his efforts are directed towards establishing a new school or raising the status of one that already exists. Our young graduates, and not least among them our zemindar graduates, are the most active promoters of education in the country. It is well known that the bulk of the endowment of Rs. 1,50,000, subscribed by the Rajshahye Association for the endowment of the local college, was the gift of a young zemindar who had just completed his education. The same thing in a smaller way goes on all over the country; new schools are being constantly opened, or existing schools raised to a higher status, without any initiative action on the part of Government.

In the second place, it is the English colleges alone that have produced the body of vernacular literature, both for school use and for general reading, for which Bengal is at the present day so remarkable. School-books on history, geography, literature, and grammar, and even on elementary science and mathematics, issue from the presses of Calcutta and Dacca in numbers which would appear very surprising to one unacquainted with the development of vernacular literature in recent years. Much of it is of slight value; but there is so much that is worthy of attention that a permanent Committee, whose numbers have recently been strengthened, has been in existence in Bengal for the last few years, for the sole purpose of selecting from the mass of vernacular publications those that are fit to be adopted as text-books for use in schools. At the present day, practically the whole of the school-books in use in middle schools in Bengal are the work of writers who have reproduced in a vernacular form, for the benefit of scholars in a lower stage of progress, the information they have acquired under our University system. This seems to be an instance of "downward filtration" of a very marked character, when all the pupils in middle schools profit by the labour of those who have passed through our colleges.

A third mode in which the effects of collegiate education are manifested is seen in the associations which have been formed all over the country for the promotion of objects of social and national importance. All these are the work of the young men educated in our colleges; and it should be noticed that the promotion of female education is an object to which these associations devote special care. The Bengal Administration Report for 1881-82 contains a list of some 125 societies which have been established under native management for purposes of mental culture or social improvement. Among their declared objects are found "technical instruction in the arts and sciences;" "to ameliorate the social, intellectual, physical, and moral condition of the young men of the neighbourhood;" "to bring Europeans and natives into closer literary union and intellectual sympathy, to promote the cause of social and moral progress, and to diffuse among the masses such education as the club is capable of with its means and resources;" "to create a taste for study, and to bring together intelligent minds;" "to educate the poor, to distribute medicine to the indigent sick, to support poor widows and orphans, to encourage female education, and to ameliorate the social, moral, and intellectual condition of the neighbourhood;"—all these being taken from the first page of the alphabetical list. The phrases "to diffuse knowledge among the poor," "to distribute medicine to the sick," "to promote female education," "to inculcate

principles of morality," "to promote temperance," are of constant recurrence; and though many of these societies exist as yet rather for the purpose of debate than of action, it is equally certain that many of them do a great amount of practical good. Amongst them may be specially noticed such societies as the Jessore Union, and those others which were united with it in a joint memorial to this Committee. These last are chiefly composed of gentlemen living in Calcutta, and thence organising and directing the practical measures to be carried out in the different districts from which they come. From such beginnings as these have also developed, at a later stage, those Associations which are now chiefly known by the influence which they exercise on the course of political affairs. The criticism and advice which their knowledge and experience enable them to supply is constantly invited by Government when measures affecting the national welfare are proposed.

A society of a different kind, though of similar origin, is the Indian Association for the Cultivation of Science, which now gives systematic courses of lectures on the highest branches of experimental science to classes of students who have finished their collegiate education.

345. Before quitting the subject of collegiate instruction, it may be mentioned that the University courses in Arts have been greatly improved and strengthened by the new regulations adopted by the Senate in 1881, after prolonged discussion. The general character of the changes may be shown as follows: (1) a broadening of the basis of instruction at the First Arts stage, so as to allow of fuller and more complete courses of study being followed in special directions for the degree; (2) the limitation of the number of subjects required for the B.A. degree, so as to secure greater depth of attainments in each; (3) a great increase in the options, so as to provide for the varying tastes and capacities of students, and to encourage them to study those subjects for which they may have special aptitude; (4) the introduction of an Honour in addition to a Pass standard for the B.A. degree, the declared object of this regulation being the promotion and encouragement of private study; (5) the elevation of the standard for the M.A. degree, and the removal of the limit of time within which that degree can be taken. This elevation of standard is rendered possible by the specialisation of the B.A. courses, and the higher standard consequently attainable in them. The general result of all the changes above described may be expected to be a marked advance in attainments and in standard of culture among the best students of the University. Hitherto the University has turned out men of good general education; it has hardly ever produced a student who would be called a scholar if judged by the highest European standard. Up to the B.A. degree, the attention of students has necessarily been spread over a large number of subjects, and they have been deprived of the opportunity of devoting special attention to any, however pronounced their tastes and capacities may have been. The fear of failure in any one of their multifarious subjects of examination has naturally led them to pay undue attention to those in which they were weakest, and which they were least likely to study with profit. Having to learn many subjects, a student was master of none: what was learnt without enthusiasm was readily forgotten. The system in fact has encouraged mediocrity; and it is only after the B.A. examination has been passed that a student has hitherto felt himself free to pursue the bent of his own inclinations in the field of study. Under the new system it may be hoped that, both in accuracy and precision of knowledge, and (a more important matter) in the free play of his faculties on their appropriate objects, the B.A. student of the future will start with those advantages which have hitherto been confined to students reading for the M.A. degree.

346. The new standard of the First Arts Examination is as follows :—

- I.—English.
- II.—A classical language.
- III.—Pure Mathematics, including Algebra, Modern Geometry of the Straight Line, Circle, Parabola, and Ellipse, and Trigonometry with Logarithms.
- IV.—Elementary Physics, including Heat, Light, and Electricity (Frictional and Dynamical).
- V.—History of Greece and Rome.
- VI.—Deductive Logic.

347. The standard for the B.A. degree is divided into two courses, A or Literature, and B or Science.

A COURSE.

Pass Subjects.

- I.—English.
- II.—Mental and Moral Science, *i.e.*, Psychology, including the Psychology of Ethics and the History of Moral Systems.

And one of the following—

- III.—A classical language.
- IV.—History of England, and History either of India or of Greece and Rome. Elements of Political Economy.
- V.—Mathematics as in the B Course.

Corresponding Honour Subjects.

- I.—In addition to the Pass subjects, a further course in English and the history of the English language and literature.
- II.—In addition to the Pass course, the History of Modern European Philosophy and either—
 - (a) Pure Logic, *or*
 - (b) Natural Theology.
- III.—In addition to the Pass course, Comparative Grammar and either a second course in the classical language or a second classical language.
- IV.—History of England, India, Greece and Rome, a fuller course of Political Economy than the Pass course, and Arnold's Lectures on Modern History, *or* Mill on Representative Government, *or* History of the Jews.
- V.—Mathematics as in the B Honour Course.

B COURSE.

Pass Subjects.

- I.—English.
 - II.—Mathematics :—
 - Statics.
 - Dynamics.
 - Hydrostatics.
- And one of the following—
- III.—Physics and the Elements of Chemistry.
 - IV.—Chemistry and the Elements of Physics.
 - V.—Physiology and either Botany or Zoology.
 - VI.—Geology and either Mineralogy or Physical Geography.

Corresponding Honour Subjects.

- I.—In addition to the Pass course, a course of prose works on scientific subjects.
- II.—In addition to the Pass course, Analytical Plane Geometry and the Differential and Integral Calculus.
- III.—The full course in Physics and Chemistry, together with the Doctrine of Scientific Method.
- IV.—The full course in Physics and Chemistry, together with the Doctrine of Scientific Method.
- V.—Physiology, Botany and Zoology, together with the Doctrine of Scientific Method.
- VI.—Geology, Mineralogy and Physical Geography, together with the Doctrine of Scientific Method.

348. Any candidate who has passed the B.A. Examination may be examined for the degree of M.A., in one or more of the following branches :—

- (1) Language.
- (2) History.
- (3) Mental and Moral Philosophy.
- (4) Mathematics.
- (5) Natural and Physical Science.

SECTION E.—*Female Education.*

349. The extent to which the education of native girls has spread in the Lower Provinces will be seen in the following statement. It includes six girls reading in the College Department of the Bethune School, but excludes three who are reading for the First Arts Examination in the Free Church Normal School :—

	Schools.	Pupils.
Government schools	2	305
Aided	939	16,004
Unaided	71	2,200
	—	—
TOTAL	1,012	18,509
Girls in boys' schools	22,805
	—	—
TOTAL	41,314
	—	—

350. It should be added here that, just as there are girls in boys' schools, so there are little boys who attend the schools for girls. The number of such boys in 1881-82 was 236. It would thus seem that the question of mixed schools has been to some extent practically settled. Not only are there more girls in boys' schools than are found in schools of their own, but schools specially designed for girls are attended to some extent by boys also. The country, it would seem, is not rich enough to maintain separate systems of schools, and the attempt at systematisation on the model of far richer countries may possibly result in frittering away its small resources. It is clear that a mixed school can entertain a stronger staff of competent teachers and claim a larger grant. As it is, girls' schools are, broadly speaking, very weak; although the terms on which aid is given to them are more liberal than those on which aid is given to boys' schools, and the payment of fees at these schools is not made an indispensable condition. As long as, in accordance with the custom of the country, girls are married early, and attendance at school ceases after marriage, it is worth considering whether mixed primary schools are not on the whole better suited to the circumstances than separate primary schools for girls.

The fact is, little girls have occasionally attended pathsalas with their brothers and cousins from early times, and they do so now. Departmental officers have encouraged such attendance by giving additional rewards to those pathsala gurus who receive and teach girl pupils; and the primary instruction of girls may, it would seem, be carried out very largely by the steady employment of such means. In villages where there are middle schools for girls, as well as schools for boys, the girls would naturally join the schools appropriated to them.

351. The Government girls' schools are (1) the Bethune School in Calcutta and (2) the Eden School at Dacca. The Bethune School, which has 106 pupils on its rolls, consists of a College and a School Department. Six pupils, after

passing the University Entrance Examination, joined the College Department. Two of them are now reading for the F.A. and two for the B.A. Examination. The other two, Miss D'Abreu and Miss Abala Dass, who own first grade scholarships in the Entrance and First Arts Examinations of 1881 respectively, have recently joined the Madras Medical College, in which provision exists for the superior instruction of women in medicine. An application was made by the Director of Public Instruction to the Council of the Medical College in Calcutta for the admission of these young ladies to that institution, to study the ordinary course prescribed for the degree; but it met with such determined opposition from the Professors of the College, that the proposal was for the time dropped. Of the other five girls who have passed the Entrance Examination (eleven in all), three are reading for the First Arts Examination in the Free Church Normal School, one is reading privately, and one has discontinued regular study on her marriage.

Of the 100 pupils in the School Department 58 learn English, 7 a classical language, and the rest Bengali.

The Eden School at Dacca has 198 pupils. This school sent three successful candidates to the middle English and eleven to the lower primary scholarship examination of 1881.

352. The aided and unaided schools are spread over the whole country, being more numerous in the Dacca, Presidency, Burdwan, and Chittagong Divisions than elsewhere.

353. The subjects of instruction and the text-books in use in girls' schools are much the same as in schools for boys. Geometry, however, which is taught in all middle and upper primary schools for boys, is not taught in girls' schools, in which sewing and knitting ordinarily receive some attention.

354. Some Primers were written in Bengali under the auspices of Mr. Bethune, expressly for use in girls' schools; these, however, were used from the beginning in boys' schools also. The books intended for general reading by women, such as *Navanari* and *Susilar Upakhyan*, which were brought out by private publishers and the Vernacular Literature Society, are largely read in the zenanas; although the national epics, the *Ramayana* and the *Mahabharat* still hold their places unrivalled. These are followed by the *Chandi* and the *Annada Mangal*, and yet more distantly by superior publications of the day, such as Babu Bankim Chundra's novels. Many bad books also make their way into the zenanas, if the male members of the family neglect the duty of selection.

355. The main agency for the education of females in this country consists of the educated male members of the families to which they belong. The young man who has read Shakespeare and Scott explains them to his wife, sisters, and cousins; if he knows Kalidas and Bhababhathi, he will not feel satisfied until he has made the ladies of his house acquainted with them; and if he be a Musulman gentleman familiar with Gulistan and Alif Laila, he must in conversation with his ladies quote the former and tell stories from the latter.

Education of a more formal and definite kind is carried on in the zenanas by the same agency, under the system of zenana examinations instituted by the *Sabhas* which have sprung up in different parts of the country, on the model of the Hitakari Sabha of Uttarpara. Pupils of girls' schools are thereby induced to keep up their studies to some extent, after they have quitted public schools on their marriage.

356. Missionary agency is also at work in the same field, and is largely extending female education in this country. There are (1) the Church of England Zenana Mission Society, (2) the Church of Scotland, (3) the Free Church,

(4) the American Mission, (5) the Ladies' Association of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, and (6) the Baptist Mission. These agencies work in Calcutta, the 24-Pergunnahs, Hooghly, Nuddea, Midnapore, Dacca, Tipperah, and Balasore. The number of zenanas in which they work varies from time to time. Detailed returns of the progress of female education under missionary societies, either in zenanas, or in schools mainly connected with zenana agencies, are received for Calcutta only, in which there is an Inspectress of Schools constantly at work. The standards under which they are examined are the following: The primary stage, lower section, is that of a pupil who can read little words, can distinguish the different letters composing the words, can write the alphabet neatly, and can numerate up to 50. In the higher section of the primary stage, a pupil should be able to read little stories, to spell words with compound letters, to write easy sentences from dictation, and to write and count the numbers up to 1,000. If she can answer questions about the stories she has been reading, can write such stories from dictation, can read, spell, and explain compound words, can numerate up to five figures, with ciphers, and do a simple addition sum, she is on the upper limits of the primary, and close on the middle stage. In the middle stage she should read Bodhoday, write and spell well, and do addition and subtraction. If she further knows a little grammar and the definitions of geography, can write and spell faultlessly, can turn a piece of poetry into prose, and do a multiplication sum, she is approaching the confines of the upper stage. Applying these standards, the Inspectress reports that of 1,841 pupils examined, 1,381 are in the lower primary stage, 405 in the higher primary, 49 in the middle, and 3 in the upper stage. The American Mission agency, which receives a grant of Rs. 750 a month, had 856 pupils examined. Three other agencies receive zenana grants varying from Rs. 90 to Rs. 300 a month. The ages of the pupils examined varied from 4 to 40 years in all the agencies except those of the Society for the Propagation of the Gospel, the maximum age of pupils in that agency being 14 years. In schools under native managers the maximum age is generally 10 years. Three of the Missionary Societies also receive grants varying from Rs. 40 to Rs. 100 a month for the maintenance of orphan girls.

357. The work of these various Missionary agencies, so far as concerns Calcutta and its neighbourhood, has been to some extent tested by the work of the Inspectress above referred to, whose visits appear to be well received; in fact the only complaint has been that they have not been sufficiently frequent. Some defects have thus been brought to light, partly in the system, and partly in the character of the teachers employed. The want of unity and of a common organisation among the different agencies appears to lead to a considerable waste of power, which might be obviated by an agreement to divide the ground. Till recently, there has been no sustained attempt to enforce the payment of fees; and there has even been a sort of competition among the agencies, which could not fail to react unfavourably upon those whom they sought to teach. Schools, too, have been unnecessarily multiplied within a limited area, leading to needless expense and to deterioration of discipline. It may not be possible for the Zenana teachers to abstain from the attempt to teach elderly women ignorant of previous training, but certainly the younger women who have had some elementary teaching in the schools appear to offer much more promising material for their labours; and a system of following up pupils when they leave school to be married would certainly be a great advantage, though it might require a little organisation among the different bodies. Nor are the Native

Christian teachers always sufficiently well taught, nor invariably trustworthy. They are, however, improving as a class, as the Normal Schools send out women who have had a proper training. The European and Eurasian ladies also need in some cases a better acquaintance with the language, though the former practice of employing interpreters to accompany them seems to have died out.

358. There is no special provision for the examination of girls, other than that just described for zenana agencies. Girls have long competed at the ordinary departmental examinations, and they have begun to do so at the University. In some districts, however, there are local examinations held either by the authority of the District Officers (see Appendix F), or under the auspices of Associations or *Sabhas*, such as the Hitakari Sabha of Uttarpara, the Bikrampur Sanmilani Sabha of Dacca, the Mymensingh Sanmilani Sabha, the Zenana Associations of Fureedpore, Backergunge, Balasore, and others, which undertake to examine and reward the girls within their different areas.

359. The following table will show the results of the various examinations held in the last year:—

	Local examinations held by the District Authorities.	Lower Primary Scholarship Examination.	Upper Primary Scholarship Examination.	Middle Vernacular Scholarship Examination.	Middle English Scholarship Examination.	University Entrance Examination.	First Arts Examination.	School examination held by the Uttarpara Hitakari Sabha.	Zenana examination by the Hitakari Sabha.	TOTAL.	REMARKS.
No. of candidates	94	186	15	...	4	5	3	85	5	337	
No. of successful girls	27	144	13	...	4	4	3*	50	4	249	* Passed in two years 1880 and 1881.
No. that obtained scholarships	1	17	3	4	1	40	...	66	

It thus appears that the number of girls that came to any kind of recognised examinations in the last year, over and above those that attended the reward examinations of the lower primary pathsalas, was 337, of whom 249 were successful and 66 obtained scholarships.

360. The schools for the training of female teachers are the following:—

- (1) The Normal School under the Church of England Zenana Mission Society in Calcutta, dating from 1857. It has 11 Eurasian pupils. Since its establishment it has trained a very large number of teachers for work in zenanas or native girls' schools, more than half of whom, it is stated, are still engaged in teaching. All pupils bind themselves to serve as teachers for two years. The school receives a Government grant of Rs. 160 a month.
- (2) The Free Church Normal School in Calcutta, dating from 1872. It has 30 native pupils, all of whom are Christians and learn through English. No engagement to serve as teachers is taken from the pupils, and the number actually so engaged is not believed to be very great. Many of them marry after completing their course of training. This school has won distinction by the success of its pupils at the University examinations. The school receives a grant of Rs. 166 a month.
- (3) The pupils in the Orphanage under the American Mission are all trained to be teachers, though it is stated that many of them after training have given up the work.
- (4) In the Church Mission School at Agurpara, several teachers have been trained and are still at work. Some of these can teach elementary English.

361. The results hitherto attained, such as they are, are therefore the work of that which appears to be the most efficient agency at hand for the purpose, namely, the Missionary Societies. No greater success than that which has attended the efforts of these bodies can be expected from any purely Government organisation. The history of the Normal School which was established in connection with the Bethune School in Calcutta at Miss Carpenter's instance in 1868, and which was closed by Sir George Campbell's orders in 1872, is a record of almost unredeemed failure. The failure may have been partly attributable, it is true, to the religious scruples of the head mistress, who manifested not merely indifference but absolute aversion to the principle of a school conducted on a non-Christian basis. Still, it is not easy to see how the school could have been much more successful than it was. The only classes of persons to which it was possible to look for a supply of such teachers were three, namely, Native Christians, Bairaginis, and widows left with few or no relatives to maintain them. The Committee of the Bethune School were of opinion that there existed in the minds of natives a prejudice against female converts as teachers in zenanas, which, whether reasonable or unreasonable, it was impossible to disregard. In the same way, though a certain staff of pupil-teachers composed of Hindu widows and Bairaginis might be got together, yet it was open to grave doubt whether prejudices might not arise against their employment, quite as strong as those felt towards native converts, and perhaps capable of greater justification. The Committee therefore concluded that "a class does not exist and cannot at present be called into existence, out of which the admitted want of trained teachers can be supplied." The anticipations of the Committee have been in many respects confirmed by experience. The experiment of training Bairaginis has been fully tried at Dacca, but not with such results as would justify its renewal. The Bairaginis were succeeded by Native Christians; but they were found to be such unsatisfactory pupils that the failure of the scheme was admitted, and the school closed in 1871. The Inspector of Schools, referring to the fact that the pupils under training were all Native Christians, observed: "In this statement lies the practical condemnation of the scheme; these Christian pupils only differ from those furnished by Missionary institutions in being rather worse educated, and somewhat lower in the social scale." He afterwards stated that they belonged to a class which looked to domestic service on two or three rupees a month as employment suited to them. It is not from such sources that a supply of female teachers who can command respect can be looked for.

362. In 1872, the Training Department of the Bethune School was found to consist of two married women and two widows, all Brahmos. One of them was afterwards removed from the school, as it was found impossible to teach her anything. In two years there had been no admissions, the only applicant being a Brahma widow of 35, wholly uninstructed. In these circumstances the school was closed under orders of Government. In reply to a memorial praying for its retention, the Government of Bengal explained its reasons for closing the school. "The Lieutenant-Governor has directed that the Government Normal School for women at Calcutta should be closed, not merely because it had been for three years unsuccessful, but because he is satisfied that if any undertaking of this kind is to succeed in the present state of Indian society, it must be started and managed by natives, according to native feelings and native fashions;" and the Government letter went on to say that the Lieutenant-Governor was convinced that, as native society is now constituted, a

Government boarding school would not attract the class of women who would make satisfactory schoolmistresses.

363. To take the second of these statements first. The question of a boarding school for adult females should be kept apart from that (with which it is sometimes confounded) of a training school for teachers. Success may be possible in the former case where it cannot be hoped for in the latter. It would be quite possible, for example, to get together in considerable numbers, as pupils of a Government boarding school, young Brahma ladies, married women whose husbands are anxious to have their wives instructed, and Hindu widows whose relatives feel the burden of supporting them. Native Christians would not generally be allowed by their pastors to attend such a school; and Bairaginis, it is presumed, would not be encouraged. With the first three classes, however, the school might be filled. But it can hardly be assumed that the pupils would in their turn become teachers. The married woman, when her education was complete, would go back to her husband's house. The educated Brahma girl, even if she became a teacher, would soon be sought after as an eligible wife. The widow, if elderly, could derive little profit from her training, after a life spent in ignorance: if still young, the conditions of Hindu society are not such that she could go off to a strange place to undertake the charge of a school.

364. It is probable that the employment of Native Christians as teachers for Hindu girls is not regarded by native gentlemen with that suspicion and distrust with which the Bethune Committee believed that the attempt so to employ them would be attended. Those who are anxious about the education of their children seem to care little for the circumstance that the teacher, whether in the zenana or in the school, is a Christian; it is apparently thought that the habitual surroundings of the pupils' lives are sufficient to counteract the influence of occasional Christian teaching. But it is equally certain that such teachers are best trained, not in a neutral Government institution, but in a school maintained by the Church to which they belong. Further, the constant superintendence which they are found to require can be best secured by their working under such supervision as a Missionary organisation alone can supply. Government cannot invade that field with profit, or with any chance of success. The Missionary institutions of Calcutta are quite strong enough for the work, and they alone can effectually carry it out.

365. To the Brahma body again may be entrusted the task of educating the ladies of that sect. The majority of those so educated would not, it is true, be educated for the calling of teachers, but here and there a pupil might be found who was willing to teach, especially if circumstances so favoured her that teaching did not involve separation from husband and family. This last condition seems indeed to be an almost essential condition of success in any scheme for the provision of female teachers. The experiment of training the wives of actual teachers has not, as a matter of fact, been yet tried in Bengal.

366. As to widows, there is one section of that class from which better results may be anticipated. For a long time the home education of women has been spreading; and in many parts of the country, zenana associations, aided by Government, have been organised with the express object of subjecting such home-taught pupils to a common examination, and rewarding the best of them with prizes and scholarships. Some of them are doubtless widows in middle life. It was partly to this class that the Female Normal School at Boaliya appealed. This was established in 1868 by the munificence of Kumar Chundranath of Nattore, in response to an appeal made on the occasion of Miss

Carpenter's visit to India. The Kumar subscribed Rs. 120 a month for the purpose; and the school was for two years maintained solely from that source. In 1870, Government supplemented the local income by a grant of Rs. 250 a month, and a well-qualified European lady was appointed superintendent of the school. Yet the results were hardly proportionate to the outlay. The pupils were for the most part widows of respectable family and good character, chosen out of the villages by the Deputy Inspectors in communication with the leading men. Their number was generally 10 or 12. The number sent out as teachers from the foundation of the school to the end of 1877 was 8 only; and the expenditure had been Rs. 30,000. So small was the demand for female education in that quarter that there were at that time four trained pupils ready to serve as teachers, for whom no employment could be found; two of them had been seven or eight years in the school. Of the pupils then in the school, 2 were Bairaginis, 3 inferior Brahmins, 4 Sahas, 1 Goala, 1 Lala, and 1 Baroi. The difficulty of finding a constant supply of women, fitted by position, intelligence, and character to become pupils of training schools, was certainly very great; and not less so was that of finding employment for them when trained. Possibly with patience, and with a disposition to be content with small results at the outset, greater success might have been attained. However that may be, the promoter of the school withdrew his subscription, and the school was closed in 1878. The head mistress was transferred to the charge of the new Government school for girls at Dacca.

367. As to the future provision of female teachers, two suggestions may be made. The first is, that a class for teachers might be opened in connection with the Government school for girls at Dacca, where there is much enthusiasm about female education, especially among the Brahmo community and the less conservative among the Hindus. There is already an adult class in the school; and we might perhaps look with confidence to the varying circumstances and conditions of life of the pupils, and to the judgment of the managing committee in admitting them, as affording a guarantee that some among them would of their own free will take to the profession of a teacher. The second suggestion is, that the question of female training schools may be taken up as part of the larger question of European and Eurasian education. A central training school for European and Eurasian pupils might be established, or if already in existence liberally aided, under the charge of a well-qualified lady-superintendent. The pupils would be trained with the object of taking charge, not of the small village schools throughout the country, but of provincial female training schools hereafter to be established; and it would be in these latter schools that the actual village or zenana teachers would be trained. This seems to provide for a supply of female teachers on a sufficiently comprehensive basis; and it is probable that under such conditions the girls' schools would be well attended and successful.

368. Nothing has been said here with regard to the relative efficiency of male and female teachers. In Bengal, where the difficulties of obtaining female teachers has been found very great, male teachers have been almost exclusively employed in girls' schools. In many cases they are the vernacular teachers of the neighbouring boys' school, whose services can thus be obtained at a very cheap rate. In some places the girls' and the boys' schools sit in the same building under the same teachers at different hours. The teachers receive no special training qualifying them for the charge of girls' schools; and it seems to be admitted on all hands that if competent female teachers can be found, the schools would become much more popular and efficient. But no particular difficulties have arisen from the employment of male teachers.

369. The following table shows the income and expenditure from all sources in schools for native girls:—

	GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.							AIDED INSTITUTIONS.							UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS.					TOTAL EXPENDITURE.				AVERAGE ANNUAL COST OF EDUCATING EACH PUPIL.														
	Provincial revenues.		Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal grants.		Other sources.	Total.	Provincial revenues.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal grants.	Other sources.	Total.	Endowments.	Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal grants.	Other sources.	Total.	Provincial revenues.	Other sources controlled by Government officers.	Other sources not controlled by Government officers.	Grand total of expenditure.	Government Institutions.				Aided Institutions.				Unaided Institutions.			
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs.	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.	Rs.	Rs.	
High Schools	12,000	3,498	15,488	12,000	3,489	...	15,488	154 14 4	120 0 0	
Bible English	4,928	...	880	5,817	1,063	...	4,492	1,408	7,563	6,501	880	5,900	13,380	31 7 1	26 10 2	54 12 10	12 0 9			
" Vernacular	3,011	231	5,068	278	300	73	10,270	33	...	453	468	...	3,011	800	6,765	10,766	20 5 4	7 2 4	...	0 12 4	48 9 7		
Upper Primary	32,511	6,147	75,040	8,948	857	6,319	1,29,722	...	6,367	322	893	12	7,584	32,511	1,760	1,03,045	1,37,300	23 12 1	5 15 3	...	0 2 6	7 3 0	
Lower "	16,652	30	10,724	1,048	364	3,154	30,073	950	2,345	17	36	2,622	6,010	16,652	400	2,1,931	36,993	8 9 10	1 13 5	7 6 0
TOTAL	16,928	...	880	3,498	21,305	53,437	6,408	95,942	11,583	1,611	9,647	1,78,528	950	8,70	512	929	2,087	14,089	70,765	6,017	1,36,631	2,13,913	74 12 0	59 0 4	12 2 9	3 10 3	...	0 1 9			
<i>Excess for 1971.</i>	10,630	800	10,648	41,357	6,443	...	64,040	1,10,740	61,393	09,992	1,21,385		

370. The total fee-collections for the year in Government, aided, and unaided schools for native girls are shown below :—

CLASS OF SCHOOL.	High Schools.	Middle English.	Middle Vernacular.	Upper Primary.	Lower Primary.	TOTAL.
Government	3,488	3,488
Aided	1,408	278	8,848	1,049	11,583
Unaided	33	322	157	512
TOTAL	3,488	1,408	311	9,170	1,206	15,583

371. The only Government girls' school which charges fees is the Bethune School at Calcutta; and even in this case the fee is really a charge to cover the cost of conveyance or board. The middle vernacular, upper primary and lower primary schools are the institutions for native girls under private managers in the country. As a rule, prizes are given in all girls' schools, encouragement by means of rewards being thought particularly necessary in these schools in order to secure large and regular attendance.

372. As noticed elsewhere, there are no special provisions for girls' scholarships, except what are either set apart by district officers from the primary assignments at their disposal, or are awarded by the private associations which have started up. The University and the departmental examinations on which scholarships are awarded, are, however, all open to girls and boys alike.

SECTION F.—*Supply and Distribution of Text-books.*

373. The text-books in use in the indigenous schools were and still are to a large extent in manuscript. Printed books began to be used in them about the year 1814. Bengali type had already been founded in England; founts were also cast in Bengal under the supervision of the Serampore Missionaries, and a weekly newspaper, the *Samachar Darpan*, was first brought out by them. Before long, type foundries and printing presses multiplied, and more Bengali newspapers were brought out; the printing of the Bengali almanac, and of the Mahabharat and the Ramayan and other popular works, followed in due course. The Sisubodhak, the first pathsala primer, was compiled at the same time from the short poems and versified arithmetical tables and Sanskrit aphorisms then in use. The Sisubodhak sold by tens of thousands, and similar compilations for pathsala use followed, thus bringing into existence the many printing establishments which still exist at Bartala, the Grub Street of Calcutta.

374. In 1817, about the time when the Hindoo College of Calcutta was being established by local enterprise, a private association, called the Calcutta School Book Society, was started. The object of the Society was, from the beginning, the production and distribution of English and Indian publications at the cheapest possible rate, without regard to commercial profit. The distribution of books is effected (1st) by the grant of a liberal discount on cash purchases, and (2nd) by the establishment of agencies in the mofussil, at which every book sold by the Society can be obtained at Calcutta prices without any charge for carriage or other expenses. There are now about 150 agents at different stations in the interior. From the year 1821 the Society received a grant of Rs. 500 a month from Government, in aid of the large contributions made by the public toward its support.

375. Another Society, called the Vernacular Literature Society, was started in 1851 for the preparation of Bengali books, chiefly for girls' schools and general reading. This Society received a monthly grant from Government of Rs. 180. In 1862 it was amalgamated with the Calcutta School Book Society; and in 1875 its separate grant was finally withdrawn.

376. The affairs of the Calcutta School Book Society are managed by a committee, of which, by the conditions of the Government grant, the Director of Public Instruction is *ex-officio* President. Its functions as a producer of school-books have long since passed into private hands; and it is now almost exclusively occupied with the distribution of standard books, maps, and school materials, which it imports largely from England, or procures directly from the publishers in this country. It possesses also many copyright works, which are a source of considerable profit. Still, even in the distribution of books, the Calcutta trade has entirely passed into the hands of native booksellers, who are also underselling the Society in the great towns. Its chief function in such places is to keep down prices by competition.

377. For the first nine years of the existence of the Society, the annual sales were on the average 14,000 volumes. During the 17 years from 1834 to 1850, the average sales increased to 30,000 volumes. In 1852, the number of volumes sold was 41,075. Since that year the sales have been as follows:—

	No. of books.	Price of books.
		Rs.
In 1855	76,113	34,628
In 1860	118,083	47,265
In 1865	184,043	74,032
In 1870	258,636	1,28,468
In 1871	258,980	1,24,649
In 1881	208,303	89,710

378. The business of the Society has been contracted in recent years from two causes. In the first place, the importation of miscellaneous English books has been almost entirely stopped; and in the second place, as stated above, the operations of the Society have been largely checked by private competition. Printing and publishing establishments have been multiplied, not only in Calcutta, but also at stations in the interior. The railways and canals, which have facilitated intercommunication, have enlarged the booksellers' trade; and book-shops of some sort are to be found at all sudder stations of districts and at many sub-divisional head-quarters. Villages where schools exist are visited by hawkers who, among other articles, are found to bring a supply of school-books. Many schools get their supplies of books through the Sub-Inspectors, chief gurus, and other travelling educational officers.

379. In the sixty years of its existence as an institution receiving Government aid, the Society has accumulated a very large capital; and its net assets are now valued at Rs. 1,37,000. In 1880 the Government grant was reduced to Rs. 200 a month, which amount may be taken as the present Government contribution towards the cost of distributing books to distant places, for sale at Calcutta prices.

380. The Education Department in Bengal has therefore very little to do directly with either the production or the distribution of text-books. The position advocated by the Simla Text-Book Committee in 1877, and subsequently endorsed by the Government of India, was that "independent provincial effort" rather than "centralised imperial control" was the safest guide to follow in

regard to this subject. The advantages of such a course in stimulating local effort are obvious, and its results have been quite satisfactory in Bengal. In this province school-books in abundant quantity issue from the press without any need of Government assistance; and all that is required is the maintenance of the existing Text-Book Committee, composed of official and non-official members, whose function it is to select from the list of published books any that are of sufficient merit to justify their introduction into schools of different classes. The further selection from this list, after it has received the confirmation of the Director of Public Instruction, is left to the local managers of schools, subject always to the limitations imposed by the standards of the several examinations which are prescribed by the Department.

381. In Behar and Orissa, which are less advanced than Bengal proper, the conditions are different. In Behar certain sums taken from the primary assignments of the different districts are placed at the disposal of the Inspector, and constitute a fund enabling him to make arrangements for the preparation and publication of school-books, in the form of translations or otherwise, by competent men whom he may select for the work under his immediate guidance. Under this system 33 new publications, comprising original works, translations, new editions, and transliterations into the Kaithi character, have in the last four years issued from the press of Patna for use in the schools of Behar, at a cost of from Rs. 2,000 to Rs. 3,000 a year.

382. A fount of Kaithi type has been cast under the orders of Government, and arrangements are being made for reprinting standard Hindi books in the Kaithi character at the Government press. The recognition of Kaithi as the popular character of Behar has been a measure of the highest importance in promoting the educational progress of the province.

383. In Orissa, almost every Bengali school-book of merit gets itself translated into the closely-allied language of that province. The supply of books for use in middle and primary schools may be left to the operation of the laws of supply and demand. Further encouragement is, however, needed for the production of text-books for use in training schools, as well as for maps and atlases. A grant varying from Rs. 1,500 to Rs. 4,000 a year is made by Government for the promotion of these objects.

SECTION G.—*Physical and Moral Training.*

384. Provisions for physical exercises have always existed in pathshalas. The following are the indigenous games :—

1. Foot-race.
2. Hurdle-race.
3. Long jump.
4. *Kapati* (sort of mock-fight).
5. *Guli-danda* (something like bat and ball).
6. *Makur-makur* (leap-frog).
7. *Mayur Howa* (standing like a peacock, *i.e.*, on the hands with the legs in the air).
8. *Mayur Hata* (walking like a peacock).
9. *Dhanuk Howa* (bending like a bow).

385. The above games are to some extent in use in middle and high schools. In colleges and high English schools, a few English games and exercises

have been generally introduced, chiefly since the year 1873, when much encouragement was given by Government to the establishment of gymnasiums for schoolboys. The following games are in use: Cricket, croquet, exercises on the parallel bar, the horizontal bar, the vaulting bar, the trapeze, the vertical pole, &c., &c.

386. In the Dacca College, gymnastics on Maclaren's system have long been practised, and cricket is an institution of many years' standing. Year after year the Dacca College has played the European residents of the station at cricket, and the College has won rather more than half the matches. The Muhammadan students of the Calcutta Madrassa have also displayed much aptitude for gymnastic exercises; and cricket is much played at Kishnaghur.

387. But although such games and exercises are in use, very little attention is paid to systematic physical training either in the elementary or in the higher schools of Bengal. That Bengalis are not, however, so averse to physical exercises as is commonly supposed, will appear from the fact that only one generation back there was not a village in the country which had not an *akhra*, where the young men wrestled and took their exercises regularly every morning. The *akhra*, as an institution, has perished within the memory of living men.

388. Strict discipline is preserved in all the institutions under the Education Department. It is seldom that reports are received by the controlling officers of cases of grave misconduct. Instances of petty theft or the use of indecent language are sometimes reported. What is called disobedience to teachers has often been found on inquiry to have arisen rather from misconception than from wilful disrespect. The shyness of native boys is often mistaken for sullenness or incivility.

389. The pathsalas of Bengal have always been institutions for secular instruction. No religious or theological manuals have been used in them. The books read in pathsalas are the Ramayan, the Mahabharat, Chanakya Sloka, Guru Dakhina, Data Karna, and other similar Puranic legends inculcating a high standard of moral conduct. In the primary and middle schools under departmental control, these books are seldom studied. In Behar, however, Tulshi Das's Ramayan is still a text-book in departmental schools. The Bengali text-books in use are Bodhoday (Rudiments of Knowledge), Nitibodh (Moral Class Book), Charupath (Entertaining Lessons), and similar works, which are either free translations from, or adaptations of, English text-books. All these books inculcate moral lessons which a good teacher will not fail to impress upon his pupils. In middle and high schools he will find similar opportunities in the course of his explanations of the English text-books in use. It is hardly necessary to say that the departmental officers are attentive to moral conduct and training at the schools under their supervision, though no definite rules or instructions have been issued on this subject by the Department. The following circular was recently issued by one of the Inspectors to his Deputies:—

“In going through the new Education Code for England, my attention has been attracted to the following passage:—

“To meet the requirements respecting discipline, the managers and teachers will be expected to satisfy the Inspector that all reasonable care is taken in the ordinary management of the school to bring up the children in habits of punctuality, of good manners and language, of cleanliness and neatness, and also to impress upon the children the importance of cheerful obedience to duty, of consideration and respect for others, and of honour and truthfulness in word and act.”

“The above expresses so concisely the views I have so often expressed in respect of school discipline and formation of character, that I have much pleasure in asking your co-operation in seeing it acted upon in the schools under your charge.”

390. In most Government colleges there is no attempt at systematic instruction in duty and the principles of morals. In those colleges, indeed, which take up the course in literature for the B.A. degree, moral science is taught as a part of it ; but it is taught purely as a branch of psychology, and it is only in the analysis and comparison of ethical systems, and in the reference to the facts of consciousness implied in such analysis, that the study of this subject begins to have any relation to, or influence on, conduct ; and it is perhaps doubtful whether the moral principle, as one of the springs of action, is in any way strengthened or elevated by such a habit of analysis. The real moral training in colleges consists in inculcating habits of order, diligence, truthfulness, and due self-respect, combined with submission to authority ; all which lessons a good teacher finds abundant opportunities of imparting. The formation of such habits is promoted by the study of the lives and actions of great men, such as the student finds them in the course of his English reading, and, it may also be hoped, by the silent influence upon his character of constant intercourse with teachers whom he is able to regard with respect and affection.

SECTION H.—*Grants-in-aid.*

391. The systems of grant-in-aid for native schools in Bengal are three:—

- (1) The ordinary system of fixed grants, based on expenditure and modified by results. This, as having achieved marked success in Bengal, is known as the Bengal system.
- (2) The system of capitation grants to Native girls' schools.
- (3) The system of result-grants for primary schools.

392. (1) *The Bengal system.*

I. The local Government, at its discretion and upon such conditions as may seem fit in each case (reference being had to the requirements of each district as compared with others, and to the funds at the disposal of Government), grants aid in money, books, or otherwise, to any school under adequate local management, conditional upon the attendance and proficiency of the scholars, the qualifications of the masters, and the state of the school.

II. Any school to which aid is given, together with all its accounts, books, and other records, shall be at all times open to inspection and examination by any officer appointed by the Government for the purpose. Such inspection and examination shall have no reference to religious instruction, but only to secular education.

III. Inspecting officers will not interfere with the actual management of schools, but are employed to see that the conditions on which the grants were made are fulfilled ; and aid will be withdrawn from any school in which such conditions are not fulfilled.

IV. Grants are given on the principle of strict religious neutrality, and no preference is shown to any school on the ground that any particular religious doctrines are taught or not taught therein.

V. Grants are given to those schools only (with the exception of normal schools) at which fees of reasonable amount are required from the scholars.*

* At present exceptions may be admitted in the case of girls' schools, but fees will be insisted on wherever possible.

VI. Grants are in no case to exceed in amount the sums to be expended from private sources.

VII. Applications for grants must be made in the first instance to the Inspectors of Schools,* and the promoters and managers of any school for which application is made must appoint one of their own body to be the Secretary of the school, and to conduct their correspondence with the Inspector.

VIII. In respect of any school for which application is made, full information must be supplied on the following points :—

- (a) The pecuniary resources, permanent or temporary, on which the school will depend for support.
- (b) The proposed monthly expenditure, in detail.
- (c) The average number of pupils to be instructed.
- (d) The persons who will form the Committee of Management.
- (e) The nature and course of instruction.
- (f) The number and salaries of teachers.
- (g) The nature and amount of aid sought.
- (h) The treasury at which the grant, if sanctioned, is to be payable.
- (i) The existence of other schools within a distance of six miles.

IX. The persons who for the time being are Members of the Committee of Management are responsible for the due application of the school funds in accordance with the conditions of the grant.

X. Schools are divided into the following classes :—

Colleges—In which the scholars have passed the University Entrance Examination.

Schools of the higher class—In which the scholars are educated up to the standard of the Entrance Examination.

Schools of the middle class—In which the scholars are educated up to a standard not above that of the 3rd class of a higher class school. Schools of this class are styled "*English*" or "*Vernacular*" according as English is or is not taught in them.

Schools of the lower class—In which the scholars receive elementary instruction only, and in the vernacular language.

Girls' schools—Including agencies for *zenana* instruction.

Normal schools—For the training of masters and mistresses.

Special schools—For instruction in special subjects.

XI. Grants are of two kinds,—monthly grants and special grants.

Monthly Grants.

XII. For colleges, the grants are not to exceed one-third of the income guaranteed from private sources.

XIII. For schools of the higher class, the grants are not to exceed one-half of the income guaranteed from private sources.

XIV. For schools of the middle class, in which the expenditure is more than Rs. 30 a month, the grants are not to exceed two-thirds of the income guaranteed from private sources, except in certain specified districts.

XV. The proportional amounts above laid down are *maximum* amounts, and it is understood that the *maximum* grant will not in all cases, and as a matter of course, be sanctioned.

* In the case of colleges, application may be made to the Director of Public Instruction.

XVI. The sanction of a grant is conveyed in the following form* :—

Office Memorandum of the Director of Public Instruction.

(1) A grant of Rupees
a month is sanctioned from the class school at 188 , for the
in zillah on the following conditions :—

a.—That Rupees a month
at least be regularly contributed from private sources.

b.—That the following rates of fees be levied :—

	Rs.	A.	P.
1st Class			
2nd „			
3rd „			
<i>c.</i> —That the following rate of expenditure be maintained :—			
Head-master			
2nd „			
3rd „			
4th „			
5th „			
Library			
Prizes			
Servants			
Contingencies			

(2) A bill for the grant in Form A (Appendix L) must be sent to the Inspector for countersignature at the expiration of each month, and must be accompanied by a certified abstract in Form B (Appendix L) of the receipts and disbursements of the school for the month preceding that for which the bill is drawn. After countersignature, the bill will be paid at the Treasury.

(3) The monthly bill and the certified abstract of the school accounts must be signed by the Secretary of the school.

(4) The bill is countersigned on the distinct understanding that the salaries and other charges, certified by the Secretary to have been paid, have actually been paid.

(5) Contingent charges are to be accounted for to the Inspector in detail.

(6) The surplus balance of the School Fund cannot be expended without the concurrence of the Inspector.

(7) Salaries for service in any month become due on the first day of the following month.

(8) The grant is liable to be reduced or withdrawn if the payment of any teacher's salary is delayed for more than one month after it has become due.

(9) The grant is liable to be reduced or withdrawn if the school is unfavourably reported on as regards the attendance or proficiency of the scholars.

(10) The grant is liable to be reduced or withdrawn if the managers employ ill-qualified masters, or if they keep their accounts in a negligent and untrustworthy manner, or if they send to the Inspector incorrect accounts, or if they fail to transmit punctually the periodical returns required by the Education Department, or if the school-house is unfit for the purposes of the school, or is untidy or dirty.

* In the case of colleges, the form is modified.

(11) The grant is liable to be reduced or withdrawn if the teachers keep untidy or untrustworthy registers, or if they are frequently absent from duty.

(12) Holidays are not to exceed sixty days in the year, exclusive of Sundays, except under peculiar circumstances and with the sanction of the Inspector.

(13) The Committee of Management is constituted as follows :—

} *Members.*

Member and Secretary.

(14) Every new election to the Committee of Management must be notified to the Inspector, under the signatures of the Secretary and of the member or members elected.

(15) Every change of Secretary must be notified to the Inspector, under the signatures of the new Secretary and the members of the Committee of Management.

Director of Public Instruction.

Dated 188 .

XVII. The conditions of every grant are subject to periodical revision generally at intervals of five years, commencing from the date of sanction.

Special Grants.

XVIII. Special grants are given towards the cost of furnishing school-houses, and providing maps and other school apparatus, in consideration of expenditure from private sources incurred in the establishment and equipment of schools, and on condition that the managers undertake to refund the amount, of any such grant, if the school obtaining it should be abolished within a period to be fixed by the Director of Public Instruction.

XIX. Special grants are given towards the cost of building school-houses, provided such houses are *pukka* masonry structures.

XX. Grants are not given to pay off debts for building, nor in consideration of former expenditure for building, nor for the maintenance of buildings.

XXI. Before a building grant is sanctioned, the site, plans, estimates, specifications, title and trust-deed must be approved by the Director of Public Instruction.

XXII. The trust-deed must declare the building to be granted in trust for school purposes, and for no other purposes whatever. It must also provide for the legal ownership of the premises, for the proper maintenance of the building, and for the inspection and management of the school.

XXIII. The grant is not paid until—

- (1) A report is received from the Executive Engineer, Department of Public Works, certifying that the building has been completed in accordance with the sanctioned plans and specifications; and,
- (2) A certificate is received from the managers, setting forth that the funds in their hands will, when added to the grant, be sufficient to meet the claims and finally close the account.

393. (2) *The System of Capitation Grants to Native Girls' Schools.*

Capitation grants to native schools, at the rate of 4 annas a head on the monthly average attendance, are made up to a limit of Rs. 10 to those schools for which no separate house or staff of teachers is maintained, the girls being taught by the staff of a neighbouring boys' school.

394. (3) *The System of Grants to Primary Schools.*

This system has been referred to in paragraphs 151—162, 280. Some further account will be given below.

395. A general description of the working of the Bengal system, and of the discussions which it evoked in its earlier years, has already been given (paras. 120, 121, 179, 180). In view, however, of the possibility of a revival of antiquated controversies about fundamental principles, it may be well to re-state in some detail the character of that system and its relation to others of a different nature.

The objections to determining the rate of aid by reference to the alleged income of a school rather than to its proved efficiency as tested by examination, are on the surface; and they have constantly been urged against the system in force in this province. But the implied contrast is rather apparent than real. The first of the Bengal grant-in-aid rules sets forth that aid is given "to any school under adequate local management, conditional upon the attendance and proficiency of the scholars, the qualifications of the masters, and the state of the school." So far, there is no difference between the Bengal system and any other that professes to aid schools in proportion to their merits. But with respect to the means by which it is attempted to attain that end, the Bengal system has a special character of its own. The rate of aid is governed by the amount contributed from local sources; and in adopting that principle, the authorities in Bengal conceived that they were going most directly to the end in view. Efficiency is very much a matter of good teachers and adequate school appliances, and these again are questions of money chiefly; so that if in any village sufficient money to support a school can be raised, the first condition of success is secured. And there seemed to be little doubt that money could be raised much more readily if it was known that the amount of the Government grant would be determined by the amount of the local contributions. There was also a simplicity and directness about the method which could not fail to attract those who wished to know precisely, in opening a school, what the extent of their resources was. After the school was once opened, it was anticipated the supervision of the Department would serve to maintain it in efficiency.

396. A system of this simple kind has of course the defects of its qualities; and these became patent to all during the earlier years of its introduction. Nothing is easier than to frame a scale of establishment, and to claim aid at a certain rate in consideration of a certain sum guaranteed from local sources; but an important question is, whether the guarantee is sufficient. Now it is quite clear that in the earlier years of the system many instances of fraudulent management came to light. Either the local subscriptions and fees did not come up to the guaranteed amount, while that fact was concealed; or if they did come up, it was only by the device of deducting from the salaries of the masters a sum large enough to make good the deficiency, and crediting this enforced "benevolence" as a subscription. And it will not be said that cases of this kind are absolutely unknown at the present day. What may be said, however, is that the hypothesis of any large or wholesale system of dis-

honesty in the management of aided schools cannot now be reasonably maintained. Indeed, it appears at the outset to be a somewhat gratuitous and violent assumption that those educated men who are foremost in promoting the work of education for the benefit of their neighbours, and at expense to themselves, should on any appreciable scale set an example of dishonesty in their public dealings. But leaving aside that *a priori* consideration, it may be pointed out that the existing checks are now quite searching and stringent enough to make it worth no manager's while to endeavour to evade the spirit of the regulations. The attempt would generally be as hopeless as it would be dangerous. In the first place, no teacher can be appointed to any aided school without the Inspector's confirmation. The Inspector, knowing the sanctioned scale of establishment, and knowing also what salaries will attract teachers with what qualifications, accords or withholds his assent to the appointments, according as the proposed teachers do or do not come up to his standard. And since no teacher can be changed without his sanction, there is a permanent guarantee that the staff of teachers possesses the requisite qualifications according to the prevailing market rate. In the second place, each grant-in-aid bill when sent to the Inspector is accompanied by an abstract account of receipts and disbursements, attested by the declaration that "I (the Secretary) have actually paid the sums stated above in the column of disbursements." A foot-note is added to the effect that "if the declaration at the foot of this account is falsely signed, the Secretary is thereby rendered liable to all the penalties of Section 415 of the Penal Code." If smaller salaries are paid than those specified in the grant, that fact would generally come to the ears of the Deputy Inspector, even if the aggrieved masters did not at once appeal to the Inspector, as in similar cases of dispute experience shows that they are quite ready to do. The occasional prosecutions that have taken place or that have been seriously threatened, have convinced school managers that the danger is not an altogether imaginary one.

397. But, in the third place, after assuming the hypotheses of fraud in the management, of want of spirit and independence in the teachers, and of connivance or inattention on the part of the Deputy Inspector, there is still the Inspector to be reckoned with. Each aided school reads for a certain departmental standard in its highest class, and sends or should send a due supply of pupils year by year to the departmental or University examinations. Year by year, therefore, the Inspector has before him the results of the examinations, compared with the results of previous years, so that he sees at a glance which schools are advancing and which are going back. A school that passes its fair proportion of scholars year by year, needs very little criticism at such times from the Inspector. His chief duty then lies with those that manifest weakness; and they are the schools that occupy the largest share of his attention, and demand the most careful and judicious treatment at his hands. Special visits and reports are made in the case of each declining school; and if its decadence is due to dishonest management, that fact will not long be concealed, and ruin will be the result. But if it is due to causes which are in their nature temporary and capable of removal, such as dissensions among the managers, or frequent changes of teachers; or again, if it arises from causes beyond human control, such as an epidemic of sickness, the Inspector by no means regards it as his duty to cancel or reduce the grant. These are the cases that require careful nursing. In some a revised establishment, in some the appointment of new teachers or a new Committee, in some reduction of the class, in some transfer of the site, in some, again, an increase either in the local income

or in the Government grant, has been found to supply the means of future improvement. It is only long-continued and proved inefficiency that is held in such cases to be a reason for reducing the grant; and then mainly on the ground that the existing school is shown by the fact of its failure to be of a class too high for the requirements of the place. Furthermore, a comparison of the number of scholars sent up year by year, with the total number reading in the school, gives an unfailing indication whether a few promising boys are being pushed forward to the neglect of the rest of the pupils.

398. It will be understood that this periodical review of the progress of each school, year by year, the occasion for which is furnished by the authorised examinations, is supplementary to the detailed knowledge which the Inspector independently gains of each school, partly from the quarterly reports of the Deputy Inspectors (Appendix N), and partly from his own visits to the school. The Inspector thus becomes thoroughly familiar with the circumstances and prospects of each aided school in his circle; and the result of all these provisions and checks is that, speaking of them as a class, an aided school now spends on its establishment the full amount that it professes to spend; and that the money is laid out in the way most likely to secure efficiency. If these conditions, coupled with the spirit of emulation—a factor not to be left out of account in questions of this kind—do not ensure success, it is hardly probable that any change in the mere machinery of aid would greatly affect the result.

399. With regard to the alternative system of payment on the results of examination, with fixed prices for pupils passing by fixed standards, it has already been stated that the authorities in Bengal considered it to be open to the grave objection of giving much where little, and little where much, was required. It was conceived that the lion's share of the grant-in-aid allotment would be secured by the advanced and wealthy districts near the metropolis, which least needed Government support; and that it would be practically impossible to push forward education in the more backward portions of the province, where liberal help, quite independent for the present of actual results attained, was the chief requirement. The Bengal system escapes this difficulty in a great measure by allowing higher rates of aid to certain districts specified in the rules, and higher proportionate rates also to small than to large schools of the middle class. Again, as the maximum amount is not generally sanctioned, a further means is provided for marking differences in wealth or advancement among different districts or villages. In this respect it is clear that the Bengal system possesses every requisite of elasticity.

400. Again, as has already been intimated, due allowance is habitually made under that system for causes temporarily affecting the efficiency of a school. In most villages containing aided schools, and certainly in those situated in the less advanced regions of the province, the margin between income and expenditure is so narrow that any serious and sudden fluctuation would be attended by great peril to the stability of the school. Under a system of payment by standards, it may be doubted whether the advantage to a good school of a largely increased grant is anything like as great as the loss which a weak school would sustain from any serious reduction. Clearly, a school except of the most advanced and prosperous class (and for such any set of rules would probably be equally advantageous) would have a far greater chance of stability and success if its grant were practically assured for a term of years, on condition of reasonable effort, than if it were liable to reduction from year

to year, owing to causes not permanently affecting its prospects of success. Hence it would follow that the Bengal system is better calculated to foster struggling schools; and though it will doubtless happen under such a system that money is sometimes thrown away, yet at any rate there is little chance of a promising school coming to a premature end. The Bengal system is content to leave a school to take root and establish itself, subject only to frequent and friendly supervision by the Department; and the visits of the inspecting officer are welcomed by the managers as valuable aids to progress. At any rate it has no tendency to inspire the teachers, as the day of examination approaches, with any deep anxiety as to the effects of the examination upon the resources of the school; nor to subject the scholars to any of that high pressure which, even if continued for a short period only, is admitted to be injurious to the growing intelligence. The anxiety which results from uncertainty of income has no place in a system which measures the success of a school by its progress through a fairly long time. There is no fear that if the scholars do ill at any particular examination, that fact will of itself be accepted as decisive against the school; and hence one of the predisposing causes of failure ceases to exist. The value of such a system can only be judged on broad grounds of general progress; and thus judged, the Bengal system will stand the test.

401. It will be seen from General Form No. 5 (see Part IV) that there has been no great increase, since the year 1871, either in the total number of grant-in-aid schools for natives, or in the total expenditure on them. With a grant-in-aid allotment the amount of which could not be easily increased, chiefly on account of the large sums spent since 1872 on primary education outside that allotment, the only means by which education on the grant-in-aid system could be extended was found in the general rule of reducing grants at each renewal, wherever such reduction was found to be possible without manifestly impairing the efficiency of the school. Acting on the general principle of aiding those schools most which were least able to help themselves, and of gradually reducing the rate of aid to schools of established position and growing resources, the Department has put constant pressure upon aided schools to increase their local income, and to this call they have, as a body, readily responded. The grants have been almost uniformly reduced on renewal, and the deficiency has been made good by an increase in the local income. This is incontestably proved by the fact, well known to inspecting officers, that the reduction of the grant is very seldom attended by change of teachers, as would be the case if their salaries were affected. Nor is there any reason to doubt the advance of the schools in efficiency under this somewhat stringent system. In the last two years the aided high schools in Bengal passed 178 and 196 candidates respectively at the Entrance Examination. On the average of the previous six years they passed 122 candidates. The results of examinations in the case of middle schools are not shown separately in the earlier returns for Government, aided, and unaided schools, and hence the contrast cannot be so clearly shown. But it may be remembered that it is in this region that the grant-in-aid system has taken hold most firmly of the popular feeling; the great majority of middle schools, whether English or Vernacular, are aided; and the general results of the examination may be accepted as a sufficiently fair test of progress among aided middle schools. In 1871, 495 candidates passed the middle English, and 1,574 the middle vernacular scholarship examination; in 1881, the numbers had increased to 683 and 2,175. With regard to aided colleges, the same argument hardly applies, since these institutions are almost entirely independent of

departmental control, except in the fact that their grants are liable to periodical revision with reference to the success shown by them. In 1871, however, the aided colleges passed 38 candidates at the First Arts Examination, and 15 for the degree; in 1881, the numbers increased to 84 and 24 respectively.

402. The chief complaint against the grant-in-aid system of Bengal at the present day is that the procedure involved in the sanction of a grant is tedious. A school is opened in a village, and the managers apply to the Deputy Inspector for aid. He supplies them with the necessary forms, and these, when filled up with all the required particulars, are sent to the Inspector. The Inspector, after having referred the case to the Deputy and received his report, sends the application with his opinion to the District Magistrate. Between the Magistrate and the Inspector correspondence may now arise, involving considerable delay; and it is only after this is settled that the application can be forwarded to the Director for sanction.

403. The maximum grant payable to colleges is limited to one-third of the income guaranteed from local sources. The amount actually paid in grants to colleges was Rs. 21,450, the total expenditure in the colleges being Rs. 1,41,789. Therefore the actual grant was not 33 but only 18 per cent.

The maximum grant to high schools for native boys is fixed at one-half the income from private sources. The total income of the 96 aided high schools in 1882 was Rs. 2,41,906, and the Government grant was Rs. 54,139, being not 50 but only 29 per cent. of the private income.

The grants to middle schools, in which the expenditure is more than Rs. 30 a month, are not to exceed two-thirds of the income from private sources, except in certain backwards districts, in which the grants may be equal to the guaranteed income. The actual grant made to 1,263 middle schools was Rs. 2,30,092. Their total expenditure amounted to Rs. 6,78,182. Thus the grant was about 51 per cent. of the private income.

For girls' schools, normal schools, and other special schools, the grant may be equal to the private income. The total grants to 941 middle and primary schools for native girls was Rs. 49,499 to meet a local income of Rs. 1,15,192, being rather more than 43 per cent. of the local contributions.

404. From the earliest days of the system of improving the indigenous pathsalas in Bengal, it was recognised that the grant-in-aid rules were far too elaborate for schools of that humble class. Indeed the Court of Directors had expressly said in 1858 (see page 19) that the grant-in-aid rules were designed for institutions of a higher order. At first a uniform system of stipends was introduced; but in the hands of different Magistrates many different methods of payment followed on the later introduction of the system of payment by results. In some districts, though they are now very few, the stipendiary system still prevails, and in nearly all, there are some primary schools that receive fixed stipends. But in the great majority of districts the bulk of the pathsalas are aided in accordance with the results of examination; while in some a mixed system of small stipends combined with payments after examination is in force. In Appendix O will be found a detailed statement of the sums paid on each of these different methods, in addition to the sums paid to schools not yet sending pupils for examination, for keeping registers and furnishing an annual return. It will be seen that 2,059 schools, with an average of 30 pupils each, received Rs. 64,182 in stipends only; that 4,658 schools, with an average of 31 pupils, received Rs. 1,34,722 in stipends and Rs. 47,248 in rewards; that 33,867 schools, with an average of 16 pupils, received Rs. 1,89,264 in rewards only; and that 5,680

schools, with an average of 14 pupils, received Rs. 9,912. Hence the average payment to a stipendiary school with 30 pupils was Rs. 31 a year; a school aided by stipends and rewards, with 31 pupils, received Rs. 29 in stipends and Rs. 10 in rewards, or Rs. 39 in all; a rewarded school received nearly Rs. 6 and a registered school nearly Rs. 2 a year. The total payments to primary schools amounted to Rs. 4,84,547, out of an allotment of 5 lakhs.

405. It may occur as an objection that while the authorities in Bengal have steadily opposed the application of the system of payment by results to schools of the middle and higher classes, on the ground that under such a system weak schools of those classes had hardly a fair chance of establishing themselves, the very same system has been applied without objection, and indeed with considerable success, to primary schools, presumably the weakest of the series. But in the first place it cannot be admitted that the Bengal pathshalas are in any sense weak. They have a vigorous life of their own, because they form a remnant of the old Hindu village system, and are strongly rooted in the sympathies and traditions of the people. And, in the second place, the figures given in the preceding paragraph point to the true cause of difference. The pathshalas exist, not because they are maintained to any large extent by the State, which contributes but a trifling amount to their support, but because of their own inherent vitality. Whether the amount of the Government aid is greater or less can make very little difference of a vital kind to schools which always have been, and will continue to be, supported by the people. It is very different with the (so to speak) exotic schools of the departmental system, framed more or less on English models. If Government aid is withdrawn from them, or if its amount is liable to sudden or great reductions, such contingencies are fraught with peril to their very existence. These differences in constitution and stability furnish sufficient grounds for the difference in their treatment.

SECTION I.—*Inspection and Control.*

406. The agencies for the inspection and control of education may be treated under four different heads :—

A—Departmental officers.

B—Government officers not belonging to the Education Department.

C—School Committees.

D—Other agencies.

407. A.—The departmental agency consists of—

1 Director of Public Instruction.

5 Circle Inspectors.

5 Joint and Assistant Inspectors, now increased to 7.

216 Deputy and Sub-Inspectors.

408. The duties severally of these officers are as follows :—

(1) The Director of Public Instruction is responsible to Government for the state of education of every kind. Education in colleges, madrassas, normal schools, and all schools of technical or professional instruction, is under his immediate control; the final distribution by districts of the grant-in-aid and primary assignments rests with him; and he sanctions and withdraws all grants. He communicates with the District Magistrates on the subject of primary, and with the Circle Inspectors and District Committees on that of secondary,

education. He determines the scale of establishment in Government schools, and either himself promotes or recommends the promotion of departmental officers. He also awards all scholarships tenable in colleges.

(2) The Circle Inspector is the chief administrative officer of the Department in matters of secondary education. He has also to report on primary education, which is, however, under the immediate control of District Magistrates. The Circle Inspector is generally in charge of two Commissioners' divisions.

(3) The Assistant Inspectors under the Circle Inspector have each to supervise education throughout the districts of one Commissioner's division. These officers form no separate link in the administrative chain; they are employed by the Circle Inspector in such a way as best enables him to discharge his numerous duties. Assistant Inspectors under varying and special circumstances, when entrusted with the independent management of a portion of the Circle Inspector's work, are called Joint Inspectors.

(4) The District Deputy Inspector is charged with the immediate supervision of schools of all classes in a district, with the exception of the zillah school, which, however, he is empowered to visit as a member of the District Education Committee. In regard to primary education he is subordinate to the Magistrate, and in regard to secondary education to the Inspector. Under present orders, the Deputy Inspector's first duty is declared to be the immediate supervision of secondary schools; and his connexion with primary schools is generally limited to seeing that the instructions of the Magistrate are carried out by the Sub-Inspectors. But the Deputy Inspector is regularly present at the central gatherings of primary schools.

(5) The Sub-Inspectors are local officers, three or four in each district, who are directly subordinate to the Magistrate. They are in immediate charge of primary schools, each of which they are, in nearly all districts, required to visit *in situ* not less than once a quarter, in addition to the central gatherings. In some districts the number of primary schools is too great for this; and the period within which every school is to be inspected is extended. In such districts the local inspection of schools is carried out by the subordinate agency hereafter noted.

409. B.—Schools of all classes are subject to the inspection of Divisional Commissioners, District Magistrates, Joint and Assistant Magistrates, and Sub-Divisional officers. The head-master or the Secretary of the School Committee is required to submit to the District Deputy Inspector or to the Circle Inspector copies of the remarks entered in the visitors' book by such visitors, and necessary instructions upon such remarks are communicated to school managers by the officers of the Department.

410. C.—The functions of the District Committee are to advise the Magistrate in all questions connected with primary education; and also to supervise the working of the zillah school as regards its finances, the maintenance of the building, and the settlement of questions of discipline referred to them by the head-master. The members of these Committees occasionally visit zillah schools; and in some districts a definite month of inspection is assigned to each member. Besides the District Committees, there are Committees of Management in charge of almost every school of secondary instruction. Whenever members of these village committees visit schools, their remarks, recorded in the visiting book, are brought to the notice of the departmental officers.

411. D.—Besides the above main agencies, there are certain subsidiary agencies of control and inspection. These are—

(1) The Text-Book Committees in each province. Their controlling functions in the selection of school-books have already been described (paragraph 380). The Bengal Central Committee was strengthened in 1881 by the appointment of additional members, and by the establishment of Branch Committees,—one for Behar and another for Orissa.

(2) The chief gurus in Behar and in parts of Bengal, the inspecting pandits and abadhans in Orissa, the model gurus in Noakhally and Tipperah, and the examiner of Kyoungs (Buddhist monasteries) in the Hill Tracts of Chittagong, constitute a subsidiary inspecting agency.

In Behar and parts of Bengal, wherever the system has been introduced, the chief gurus are required to inspect primary schools within their respective beats. During the year 1881-82 the chief gurus, 584 in number, paid 163,128 visits to primary schools. This auxiliary supervision by chief gurus has been the means of bringing under departmental control a very large number of indigenous schools.

(3) In Orissa there are 50 inspecting pandits and abadhans, paid at the rate of Rs. 15 a month. Each of them paid, on the average, 411 visits to path-salas last year. The inspecting gurus in Tipperah, 11 in number, are paid at the rate of Rs. 8 a month, and travelling allowance at the rate of 1 to 1½ annas a mile. The nine inspecting gurus in Noakhally visit only the unaided primaries. They are paid at the rate of 3 annas for each school visited.

The examiner of Kyoungs in the Hill Tracts of Chittagong works for half the year as a Sub-Inspector of Schools. During the other half he examines the primary schools attached to Buddhist monasteries.

412. When visiting schools, inspecting officers are required to note and report on the following points :—

- (1) State of the school-building.
- (2) Furniture and apparatus.
- (3) Attendance of pupils and teachers.
- (4) Finances of the school.
- (5) Account and other books.
- (6) Library.
- (7) Teachers' salaries.
- (8) Discipline.
- (9) Organisation of classes.
- (10) The progress made in different subjects, as tested by the examination held.
- (11) Success at the University or departmental examinations.
- (12) Competence of teachers.

The form to be filled up in the case of high schools is given in Appendix M.

413. The extent of a Circle Inspectorship is generally two Commissioners' divisions, of a Joint or Assistant Inspectorship one division, of each Deputy Inspectorship a Revenue District, and of each Sub-Inspectorship a Sub-division of a District. The duration of the annual tour of the Inspector, calculated on an average taken over five or six years, may be put down as six to seven months in the year.

The Assistant and Joint Inspectors are out on inspection between eight and nine months every year.

414. The average yearly inspection work of the Deputy and Sub-Inspectors is shown in the subjoined statement :—

CLASS OF OFFICERS.	Average area under inspection, in square miles.	Average number of days spent on inspection.	Average number of miles travelled.	Average number of schools under inspection.	Average number of schools visited <i>in situ</i> .	Average number of schools examined at central gatherings.	Average number of schools.
43 Deputy Inspectors	3,539	150	2,053	1,301	188	260	23,842
173 Sub-Inspectors	874	201	1,935	312	189	152	5,926

415. The Departmental form of Inspection Return submitted quarterly is given in Appendix N. In addition to this quarterly statement, Deputy Inspectors, in certain divisions, submit monthly a report of secondary schools under the following heads :—

- (1) Schools inspected during the month.
- (2) Defects noticed.
- (3) Remedies applied.
- (4) Effects of former inspection.

416. There is no general Code of inspection rules for the whole province. But rules are framed by the district authorities, and by Inspectors of Schools in concurrence with the Commissioners and Magistrates, for the working of the different systems of primary education in force in the different districts. As examples, the rules laid down by the Magistrate of Pubna, and by the Inspector of Schools, Behar Circle, are quoted below :—

(1) *Pubna Rules.*

“The Sub-Inspectors shall, by teaching a class, show to the teachers, particularly to gurus and munshis of aided and unaided pathshalas and mukhtabs, the mode of teaching, shall induce and make them learn those subjects in the course not well known to them, and shall explain at each visit any difficulty they may have met with since their last visit. The improvement which the teachers may thus make shall be recorded in the visitors’ book.

“The following particulars shall also be recorded consecutively by the Sub-Inspectors, in Bengali, at each visit to a pathsala in the visitors’ book :—

- “1. Aided or unaided.
- “2. Month and date of visit.
- “3. Average attendance of last month.
- “4. Cause of increase or decrease in the teacher’s income.
- “5. Number of boys reading the full primary, middle vernacular, or lower vernacular course.
- “6. Number reading below the primary course.
- “7. Number present in the 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, &c., classes.
- “8. What progress was made by the pupils in each class after last visit in reading, writing, and arithmetic, &c.; and what number passed the examination made by the Sub-Inspector.
- “9. Remarks. Steps taken for improvement.”

(2) Behar Rules.

“The Deputy Inspector of Schools should hold half-yearly examinations of pathsalas, stipendiary and non-stipendiary, at central gatherings.

“It will be the duty of the Deputy and Sub-Inspectors, when visiting the middle schools (Government or aided) situated within their beats, to carefully examine the accounts, and to compare carefully the several books in which copies are kept of bills drawn, and receipts taken of payments made, whether of salaries or of scholarships. Every irregularity that may be detected on such comparison is to be immediately brought to notice.

“The books to be kept up at each middle school are (1) a register of attendance of Masters, (2) a register of attendance of pupils, (3) a letter book, (4) a bill book, (5) a receipt book.

“All the above books should be examined at each visit, and signed by the inspecting officer if found correct.

“There ought to be no long intervals between the date of cashing any bill and that of payment of the money drawn by that bill; nor, again, between the dates of realisation of fees and those of their payment into the local treasury.

“Deputy and Sub-Inspectors should mention, in the remark columns of their monthly diaries, that they have examined the books of the middle schools visited by them.

“It will be the chief gurus’ duty to visit occasionally the pathsalas in their circles, and help their gurus to teach themselves and their more advanced pupils.

“As regards inspection work, the Sub-Inspectors have now had, or will shortly have, their respective beats divided into small sub-circles, with one important ‘A’ pathsala under a comparatively efficient teacher, called the chief guru, at the centre of each sub-circle. Each Sub-Inspector’s beat has been, or will be, divided, on an average, into *ten* sub-circles. Generally speaking, then, a Sub-Inspector will have to give two days to the inspection of each sub-circle.

“When inspecting pathsalas, other than those of the chief gurus in a sub-circle, the Sub-Inspectors should—

“(a) *Examine* every child in attendance.

“(b) *Drill* the children occasionally by manual exercises.

“(c) *Teach* in the guru’s presence one class at each visit in some one subject of study.

“(d) *See* that the register is correctly kept.

“(e) *Sign* the register specifying the date and hour of visit.

“(f) *Ascertain* that the guru (if stipendiary and paid by police) has been *fully* and punctually paid.

“(g) *Induce* the village people to send their children to school and pay the guru his dues in cash, or in kind, or in both, as may be customary in the village.

“(h) *Fill* in their own diaries.

“When inspecting the pathsalas of the chief gurus, the Sub-Inspectors should make longer stoppages, and try to pass at least *one night* at each of the villages where these pathsalas are situated.

“During the day the Sub-Inspectors will examine and teach and do other work in the pathsalas, as already laid down in paragraph 4.

“In the evening the Sub-Inspectors will give all the help they can in removing what difficulties the gurus may have met with in imparting their lessons to the children.

“Sub-Inspectors should avail themselves of these occasions to induce the chief gurus to take to the study of such books as are likely to prove interesting and helpful to them.

“Sub-Inspectors should state in their diaries (in the columns of remark) what chief gurus they have been able to induce to take to the study of books, and to seek their help and advice.”

417. The Sub-Inspectors while at head-quarters prepare detailed bills of primary schools, write out their own formal diaries, and receive instructions from district and sub-divisional officers. As disbursing officers, they have to make payments and account for the primary school money passing through their hands to the Magistrate, to whom they submit receipts of gurus for all sums drawn by them.

418. When at head-quarters the Deputy Inspector is required to attend meetings of the District Committee, to wait upon the Magistrate for instructions, to administer the primary grant under the Magistrate's orders, to prepare statements required under departmental rulings, to write out monthly reports and bills, to examine the diaries and bills submitted by the Sub-Inspectors, and to make arrangements, as required, for the departmental and other central examinations. In the month of May the Deputy Inspector is employed in preparing annual reports and returns. During his stay at head-quarters the Deputy Inspector visits schools situated within short distances.

419. The Circle Inspector and his Assistant are in charge of an office in which all educational work throughout the area of one or more Commissioner's Divisions is transacted.

420. The charges on account of inspection amounted in the year 1881-82 to Rs. 3,79,190. Details, showing the salaries of each class of officers, and their travelling and contingent allowances, are given in the subjoined statement:—

Number of Officers.	Officers of each class.	Salaries.	Travelling allowance.	Contingent allowance.	TOTAL.
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
5	Circle Inspectors	84,744	97,379	10,888	3,62,936
6	Joint and Assistant Inspectors				
43	Deputy Inspectors				
173	Sub-Inspectors	1,69,925			
	Establishment of Inspectors and Joint and Assistant Inspectors	16,254			16,254
					3,79,190

SECTION J.—*District Committees.*

421. There is at the sudder station of every district in Bengal an Education Committee, with the Magistrate as Vice-President, and official and non-official gentlemen, Europeans and Natives, as members. These Committees, which were re-modelled in 1872 from the Local Committees first instituted in 1835, have rendered material help to the district and departmental officers in educational administration. For some years, in the beginning, work was carried on jointly by these Committees and the Inspectors of Schools. But as this system of mutual references involved delay and lessened responsibility, a more definite separation of duties has now taken place. The powers exercised by the District Committees have been described in paragraph 410. District Committees have much concern with the finances of the zillah school, though no actual control over their administration. Budgets are prepared under their authority, and in framing them they have to bring the total expenditure of the school within the limits of the income derived from the Government net grant, the fees, and subscriptions, and proposals for extraordinary expenditure originate with them; but they have no power to sanction such expenditure. The excess of the income of the zillah school, consisting of the Government "net grant" *plus* the fees, subscriptions, &c., over the expenditure sanctioned in the budget, constitutes the surplus balance at credit of the school. This balance is re-granted from year to year; but expenditure from it requires the sanction of the Director of Public Instruction.

422. There are branch committees at the head-quarters of some subdivisions; they are subordinate to the district committees, and exercise similar functions. In certain districts, instead of delegating their powers to branch committees, the main committees split into sub-committees; for example, in Midnapore, there is a college sub-committee, a sub-committee for vernacular schools, and a sub-committee for primary schools.

Local fund boards are not known in Bengal.

SECTION K.—*Functions of Municipal Bodies.*

423. The municipalities and municipal unions in Bengal exercise no direct control over education. There are a few municipal pathsalas in the province, the gurus of which are paid a small stipend by the municipality; but these are the only instances of municipal schools. Municipalities contribute occasionally to the support of schools, although to nothing like the extent that might reasonably be demanded of them. To Government schools they contributed in 1881-82 the trifling sum of Rs. 1,542, and it is noticeable that the total contributions made by the municipalities of Bengal to the zillah schools in their midst amounted to only Rs. 726. To aided schools they showed greater liberality, contributing Rs. 3,860 to high schools, Rs. 7,391 to middle schools, and Rs. 2,941 to primary schools, besides Rs. 1,611 to schools for girls. To unaided schools they contributed Rs. 5,261. Their relations with education have been limited to the payment of small contributions, amounting in all to Rs. 24,953 for the year, and with direct control they have had nothing to do. It may be conjectured that the apparent reluctance of municipalities to contribute in any large way to the support of zillah schools has arisen from the knowledge that the

schools existed for the benefit of the district, and not of the town only. Under recent orders of Government, municipalities are to bear the greater part of the cost of zillah schools, and the whole cost of vernacular schools at headquarters.

SECTION L.—*Withdrawal of Government from the direct management of Schools and Colleges.*

424. No general policy of withdrawal has yet been followed in Bengal. The Despatch of 1859 declared that the policy of Her Majesty's Government was, among other things, "to maintain the existing colleges and schools of a high order, and to increase their number when necessary," and also "to introduce a system of grants-in-aid, under which the efforts of private individuals and of local bodies would be stimulated and encouraged by pecuniary grants from Government." These declarations were intended to elucidate and develop the policy expressed in the earlier Despatch, in which the Court of Directors "looked forward to a time when any general system of education entirely provided by the Government might be discontinued, with the gradual advance of the system of grants-in-aid," and when "many of the existing institutions, especially those of a higher order, might be transferred to the management of local bodies under the control of and aided by the State," and in which they declared that "no Government colleges or schools should be founded for the future in any district where a sufficient number of schools exist capable, with assistance from the State, of supplying the local demand for education." These lines of policy have been followed by the Government of Bengal. Practically, the whole later development of education has been brought about by the system of grants-in-aid. This is obviously true in the case of high schools, middle schools, and primary schools. As regards primary education, the schools of the people have been recognised and fostered, and such aid and encouragement given them as have served to express the interest of Government in their stability and success, to strengthen their organisation, and to add useful elements to their traditional course of instruction. Middle education has proceeded almost exclusively on the same system. The number of Government English schools of the middle class is only $1\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the whole; and even the Government vernacular schools, which compose 18 per cent. of the whole number, have always been established in backward parts of the country, and have been transferred to other backward parts as soon as the people became sufficiently appreciative of education to set up an aided school of their own.

425. With high schools it is the same. The Government Anglo-vernacular schools were 47 in 1855 (paragraph 43); these constituted the zillah schools, which are no more than 51 in 1882. Offers have from time to time been made by private bodies to transfer to departmental management the high schools under their control; but these offers have, with one exception, the special character of which was recognised and asserted by Government as the reason for departing from its habitual policy, been consistently declined. Throughout the same period, the establishment of private schools of this class has been sedulously fostered by the Department, so that at the present time there are 156 high schools under native management, 96 of which receive grants-in-aid. Indeed, as before explained, the system in force in Government schools is really in essentials one of grants-in-aid. To each zillah school a

“net grant” is assigned; and the District Committee have so to arrange their proposals for expenditure that it shall be covered by the total income of the school. The amount spent by Government on Government high schools is $35\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. of the total expenditure,—a rate only slightly in excess of the maximum allowed for aided schools of the same class. And if Government has not yet withdrawn from the direct control of any high school, it is chiefly by reason of the advantage which seemed to accrue to education generally, from retaining in each advanced district one first-rate school to serve as a model and stimulus to the rest; and one in each backward district, because it was in such places that the direct action of Government was most required. Still it may be said that the people, and especially the people in the head-quarter stations of forward districts, have now become so fully capable of managing schools of this class, that the advantage of transferring them to the control of some at least of the zillah schools may be held to outweigh any possible, and perhaps only temporary, loss of efficiency that may result. There is little doubt that the action of the Government of Bengal in the immediate future will follow this policy, and a declaration to that effect has already been made in connection with the proposals for local self-government.

426. The case of colleges stands on a different footing. The circumstances under which new colleges have been opened in Bengal, since the date of the Despatches of 1854 and 1859, have already been considered in detail. It may be well, however, to recall attention to the fact that Government has consistently acted on the principle that no new college was to be established except in places where the strong desire of the people for education of a high order was manifested by liberal private contributions. It was on that principle that the colleges at Rajshahye, at Midnapore, at Cuttack, and at Chittagong were set up, after repeated memorials for their establishment had been submitted. In the first two cases practically the whole of the expenditure, and in the last two a substantial portion of it, was contributed at the outset from private sources. This principle has quite recently been accepted and enforced in a Despatch from the Secretary of State, in which the action of the Government of Bengal, with reference to the colleges at Rajshahye and Cuttack, was upheld and commended. In every case the opening of college classes was sanctioned in the first instance as a legitimate development of the zillah school to the next higher standard of instruction, that of the First Arts Examination; and it was only in two of them that B.A. classes were added at a later date in deference to the reiterated requests of the people for higher education, backed by considerable and even magnificent local contributions. It may also be recalled that where there has been no sufficient demand for education of this class, the experiment has been abandoned. This was done in Rungpore, where the people contributed a full third of the cost of the college during its experimental period, and in the Calcutta Madrassa, where the re-establishment of college classes for the benefit of the Muhammadan community is again loudly demanded.

427. It should also be noticed that in every case the people have made it a condition of their co-operation that Government should undertake the control of the college. Even now a large sum of money has been raised by local contributions in the district of Bhagulpore, with the object of inducing Government to raise the status of the zillah school by the addition of First Arts classes. The Department has been reluctant to accept the charge; and the result is that the classes have not been established. Even in the case of the college classes recently opened by the Maharaja at Burdwan, in connection with the

high school which he and his predecessors have maintained and managed at that place from the date of the Despatch of 1854 and earlier, the only condition on which he would consent to carry out his plan, which he had much at heart, was that the administration of the college should, in the last resort, be under departmental control. The aid which he sought for was not money, but that supplied by departmental experience. This condition was accepted in terms, though as a matter of fact the college now governs itself with only a nominal and very occasional interference by the Department, and then only when its interference is solicited. For example, the Department, at the instance of the Maharaja, has selected and recommended professors, but the Maharaja has appointed them.

428. The truth appears to be that, except in Calcutta, the people, however wealthy and enlightened, distrust their own powers of administration in the matter of colleges. Nor do they appear to think the time ripe for such a change. The highest level reached by the students of the Calcutta University is not yet up to that of the professors who have been brought from English Universities for the purpose of their instruction. Until that level is reached,—until the graduates of the Calcutta University can take up the higher education of the country, and carry it on from the same point and with undiminished efficiency from their European predecessors,—the question of anything like a general transfer of the Government colleges to the control of private bodies, or even of local bodies of a semi-public character, will probably be thought premature. It is no slight thing that the principle of self-help and self-government in matters of education has been so far developed in Bengal that the people have learnt in a quarter of a century to set up and maintain their own middle schools, as they have always done by their primary schools; and that the time seems to have arrived when even high schools can now be transferred in a great measure to local control. What is true of high schools may also be true, to a limited extent, of the smaller colleges. • But the transfer to local control of the great colleges of Bengal, on which the higher education of the country altogether depends, is a measure which has not been demanded either by the people or by the leaders of missionary enterprise, and of which it may be said that the time has not yet come when it could be carried out by the people without such a check to the intellectual progress of the country as it has never yet received. The beginnings of high education, so far as it has yet taken root in this country, give promise of a vigorous life in the future; of an intellectual vitality one of whose chief practical expressions will be the capacity for self-government in almost every department of the social organisation. It will be necessary to guard against the danger of diminishing that capacity by tapping, in its supposed interests, the sources of its strength—*propter vitam vivendi perdere causas*. It is not altogether a question of money, although necessarily that aspect of the case has the gravest significance; and even in this point of view the price which the nation pays for the foreign education which is to qualify its natural leaders for the manifold duties devolving on them—duties which will be more onerous and responsible in the future than even now they are—cannot be declared on any definite and accepted grounds to be excessive. It is quite as much a question of the ability of the people, the necessary resources being assumed to maintain in unimpaired efficiency the institutions for their own higher education, when the country itself does not yet supply the only agency by which it can be kept at its present standard.

SECTION M.—*Relations of Departmental Officers to private Schools and Colleges in competition with Government Colleges.*

429. As no distinction is made in the exercise of patronage in appointments, which is entirely guided by the results of the University examinations, and as scholarships are competed for on equal terms by students of both Government and private institutions, the relations of departmental officers with the managers of private schools are thoroughly cordial. Educational officers are frequently invited by private managers to visit their schools, or to preside at the distribution of prizes to the pupils; and they are ordinarily consulted on matters connected with school management and the course of instruction. The only possibility of friction or disagreement arises if a private school is set up side by side with a Government school. Whenever, in the opinion of the officers of the Department, the establishment of a competing school is likely to prove injurious to the interests of the scholars concerned, by the substitution of two comparatively weak schools for one strong one, in a place which is not populous or wealthy enough to support two schools in efficiency, or in which there is no guarantee or hope that the competing school will be established on a permanent basis, the departmental officers have not encouraged the opening of such a school, although their interference has generally taken no more active form than the refusal to recommend a grant-in-aid in such cases. The Department has acted on the principle that if the new school is essentially a bad one, real and often lasting harm is done; the discipline of both schools suffers, and a lower standard, both of instruction and of conduct, is substituted for a higher. Where such a case arises, it is found that the evil is in general only temporary; and that, though a badly-managed school may do harm for a time, it contains the seeds of its own extinction. In such cases it appears to be a short-sighted policy to lend temporary support to a school that can do no permanent good. The only instances in which aid has been refused to a private school in proximity to a Government school are five; and for each instance of refusal good grounds can be shown. But refusal of aid has by no means been the policy of the Department in cases where the new school offered good promise of success, or where there appeared to be room for it in addition to the Government school. There are several instances in which the Department has actively assisted in starting grant-in-aid schools, when the Government institution has become overcrowded. And even when no aid has been given, the Government school has never entered into competition with the private school, but has invariably kept its fee-rates much higher. It is true, and it is only natural, that an earnest head-master is apt to be jealous of a rival school; but this has not been in any general way the policy by which the Department has been governed. In 1880 the Government of Bengal confirmed that policy in the following terms: "The Director rightly urges that no Government school has any good ground to resent the uprising of a good and well-managed private school in its neighbourhood, even though its fee-receipts may be thereby diminished. The general extension of education at a cheap rate is a solid gain to those benefited by it, outweighing the loss of pupils and of income which any individual school may suffer, and which a zealous head-master naturally regards with regret;" and the Resolution went on to quote with approval the Director's remark: "If the school becomes in time good enough to take the place of the Government school, there is a still more solid and permanent gain. There is a large and growing demand for English education at a cheap rate; and even if a school, which springs into existence to satisfy that

demand, does not possess the elements of permanent existence, it has at any rate stimulated the desire for education, which does not cease with its disappearance."

430. It is the regular practice of departmental officers in charge of Government schools or colleges to take the managers of neighbouring private schools into conference with them, and to frame rules for their mutual governance, chiefly with the view of regulating the transfer of pupils from one school to another, which is so common a source of disagreement. A set of rules known as the "Inter-school rules," framed with this object, have been widely accepted by managers of private schools throughout Bengal, at the instance of departmental officers. And there are very few proposals for the management of Government colleges, of a kind likely to have any sensible effect on private colleges, which are not first of all brought to the notice of the managers of such colleges with the object of learning their views. It may be confidently asserted that there is no semblance of a hostile feeling towards the Department in Bengal on the part of managers of private institutions.

431. A policy similar to that above described in regard to the relations of Government with aided schools has also governed the officers of the Department when they have to deal with private schools in competition with one another. That policy is to promote education in its best and cheapest form, and not to sacrifice that end to any object of inferior importance. Thus, if a private school is set up side by side with an existing private school, the Department encourages or discourages the former according as it considers that the second school will or will not confer any tangible benefit on the people affected by it.

PART IV.

TABULAR STATEMENTS.

432. These statements are here given in the form prescribed by the Commission. Schools for Europeans and Eurasians and schools for special or technical instruction are excluded.

EDUCATION GENERAL TABLE No. 1.]

Return of Arts Colleges and Schools for the General Education of Native Students in Bengal for the year 1881-82.

Number of Revenue Districts.	Total area of Province.	Number of Towns and Villages.	Total Population.	Institutions and Scholars.	UNIVERSITY EDUCATION.	SCHOOL EDUCATION, GENERAL.			TRAINING SCHOOLS OR SPECIAL SCHOOLS ATTACHED AS DEPARTMENTS TO GENERAL SCHOOLS.						GRAND TOTAL.	PERCENTAGE OF		REMARKS.				
					Arts Colleges (English and Oriental).	High Schools.	Middle Schools. ^a	Primary Schools.	Schools of Art.	Medical Schools.	Engineering Schools.	Training Schools.	Industrial Schools.	Other Schools.		Colleges and Schools to number of Towns and Villages.	Male Scholars to male population and Female Scholars to female population.					
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10a	10b	10c	10d	10e	10f	11	12	13	14				
45	*165,775†	259,918‡	Males.	INSTITUTIONS { For Males . For Females . TOTAL	26	207	1,662	50,788	20	52,708	19.90	...	(a) Excluding 8 non-Government madrasahs and other private schools and 4,275 indigenous schools not within the Departmental system.				
			Females.		1	2	20	990	2	1,015	.38	...					
			34,227,665																			
			68,121,160†																			
				SCHOLARS { Males . Females . TOTAL	3,821	43,747	93,534	860,429	977	61,002,508	...	2.95	(b) Excluding 353 pupils attending non-government madrasahs and private schools, and 55,703 pupils in indigenous schools not within the Departmental system.				
				6	184	1,733	37,960	71	c 39,95411						
				3,827	43,931	95,267	898,389	1,048	‡1,042,462	...	1.53	(c) Excluding 4 pupils attending private schools and 1,135 attending unaided indigenous schools.					

* The area of the Sundarbans, estimated at 5,978 square miles, is excluded.
 † Excluding Kuch Bihar, Hill Tipperah, and the Tributary Mubals of Chota Nagpore with a population of 1,378,263. The European and Eurasian population, amounting to 39,438, has also been excluded.
 ‡ Excluding 22 unattached institutions for special instruction attended by 1,408 pupils, and 50 European and Eurasian schools attended by 5,470 pupils.

EDUCATION GENERAL FORM No. 2.

EDUCATION GENERAL TABLE NO. 2.

Return of Colleges, Schools, and Scholars

CLASS OF INSTITUTIONS.	GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.							AIDED INSTITUTIONS.								
	Number of Institutions.	Number of scholars on the rolls on 31st March.	Average number on the rolls monthly during the year.	Average daily attendance.	Number of scholars on 31st March, learning			Number of Institutions.	Number of scholars on the rolls on 31st March.	Average number on the rolls monthly during the year.	Average daily attendance.	Number of scholars on 31st March, learning				
					English.	A Classical language.	A Vernacular language.					English.	A Classical language.			
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14			
<i>Arts Colleges.</i>																
University Education	{	English	12	1,305	1,177	1,009	1,261	1,071	...	5	895	765	647	895	864	
		Oriental	6*	1,050	913	671	322	770	131	
<i>Schools for General Education.</i>																
School Education.	Boys.	High Schools	English	51	14,785	13,583	10,839	14,720	5,852	7,266	96	12,696	11,262	8,642	11,858	4,061
			Vernacular
		Middle Schools	English	9	1,349	1,136	852	932	435	1,027	465	28,981	26,220	19,825	18,966	269
			Vernacular	183	10,467	9,483	7,194	1,387	...	9,794	791	41,623	37,691	29,224	2,867	189
		Primary Schools	English
			Vernacular	28	916	805	544	916	46,453	820,080	714,381	601,558	555	49,628
	Girls.	High Schools	English	1	100	100	77	68	7	93	
			Vernacular	
		Middle Schools	English	1	199	185	95	25	3	199	4	141	138	123	141	...
			Vernacular	14	508	505	384	16	...
		Primary Schools	English	
			Vernacular	921	15,355	14,023	10,471	275	411
<i>Schools for Special or Technical Training attached as Departments to General Schools, viz.—</i>																
Schools of Art			
Medical Schools			
Engineering Schools			
Training Schools for Masters	16	672	599	503	21	373	651	4	335	299	278	68	26			
Training Schools for Mistresses	2	41	35	34	41	3			
Industrial Schools			
Others			
TOTAL OF PUBLIC COLLEGES AND SCHOOLS	307	39,892	27,981	21,794	18,720	8,511	20,097	48,755	920,656	805,316	671,166	35,682	53,411			
Private Uninspected Schools			
GRAND TOTAL FOR THE BENGAL PRESIDENCY			

Note I.—This table excludes 50 schools for Europeans and Eurasians, with 5,470 students.
 Note II.—The term *classical languages* in columns 7, 14, 21, and 28 includes European and ...
 Note III.—By *Aided Schools* are meant schools not managed by Government officers and not ...
 Note IV.—*Unaided Schools* are private schools not managed by Government officers and not ...
 * Includes the Calcutta Madrasa (Arabic Department) and the five Madrasas maintained ...
 †† The high and middle schools of Bengal include lower departments; of the 139,188 pu ...
 ‡‡ Attending schools for Natives of India.

Lower Provinces of Bengal for the official year 1881-82.

UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS UNDER REGULAR INSPECTION.							Grand Total of Institutions.	Grand Total of scholars on 31st March.	GRAND TOTAL OF SCHOLARS ON 31ST MARCH, LEARNING			CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO RACE OR CREED OF THE SCHOLARS ON 31ST MARCH.					REMARKS.	
Number of Institutions.	Number of scholars on the rolls on 31st March.	Average number on the rolls monthly during the year.	Average daily attendance.	Number of scholars on 31st March, learning					English.	A Classical language.	A Vernacular language.	Europeans and Eurasians. §§	Native Christians.	Hindus.	Muhammadians.	Others.		
10	17	15	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26	27	28	29	30	31	32	33	34
4	535	459	355	533	516	...	21	2,735†	2,657	2,451	...	39	28	2,539	106	35	†6 Girls.	
...	6	1,050	332	770	131	1	1,055	...		
60	10,256	11,999	12,757	15,634	5,517	7,555	207	43,747	42,212††	15,720	23,251	55	251	33,367	3,531	213		
...		
133	7,629	7,016	5,513	4,640	169	6,769	612	37,959‡	24,535††	613	32,056	56	369	32,300	5,632	262	‡251 Girls.	
76	4,351	3,561	3,070	165	...	4,351	1,050	56,441§	4,419††	159	55,407	...	100	43,159	7,735	417	§555 do.	
...		
4,307	59,941	53,164	45,425	174	470	59,604	60,783	850,937*	729	59,107	867,921	1	3,426	641,454	217,216	18,849	*20,744 Girls	
1	84	74	61	84	24	73	2	184	142††	31	186	15	59	77	...	33		
...		
...	5	340	166††	3	340	5	147	177	4	7		
1	19	10	9	10	...	19	15	527	26††	...	511	4	148	303	6	6		
...		
69	2,697	1,569	1,359	21	...	2,697	590	17,452†	289	411	17,164	7	1,175	14,530	1,570	129	235 Boys.	
...		
...		
...	20	1,697**	80	399	956	...	235	535	55	79	**30 Girls.	
...	2	51	41	3	35	11	39		
...		
...		
4,656	99,915	81,353	68,614	21,299	6,945	80,511	53,714	1,042,492	75,677	79,597	998,371	193	6,951	779,623	236,643	19,952	21,549 girls in boys' schools; 236 boys in girls' schools.	
...	4,383	(a) 57,395	60 1,152 Girls.	
...	58,691	1,094,767		

Institutions for special or technical instruction, with 1,495 students.
 classical languages.
 from provincial revenues or from local rates or cesses.
 aid from provincial revenues or local rates or cesses.
 Mohsin Endowment Fund.
 returned, 7,461 were in the high stage, 37,399 in the middle stage, and 34,318 in the primary stage of instruction.

EDUCATION GENERAL TABLE NO. 3.

Return of Expenditure on Educational Establishments

OBJECT OF EXPENDITURE.	GOVERNMENT INSTITUTIONS.								AIDED INSTITUTIONS.							
	Provincial Revenues.	Local Rates or Cesses.	Municipal Grants.	Fees.	Subscriptions.	Endowments.	Other sources.	Total.	Provincial Revenues.	Local Rates or Cesses.	Municipal Grants.	Fees.	Subscriptions.	Endowments.	Other sources.	
	1	2a	2b	2c	2d	2e	2f	2g	2	3a	3b	3c	3d	3e	3f	3g
<i>Arts Colleges.</i>	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	
University Education	2,55,823	1,03,831	...	17,549	126	3,77,334	21,450	41,354	11,691	29,430	37,864	
{ English	
{ Oriental	12,304	3,580	360	32,259	10	48,513	
<i>Schools for General Education.</i>																
{ English	1,67,420	205	726	271,904	7,869	14,407	7,835	4,70,465	54,180	...	3,860	1,07,000	65,031	9,761	2,106	
{ Vernacular	
Boys. Middle Schools	15,278	...	600	7,667	80	...	195	23,820	1,20,201	817	6,971	92,853	1,47,215	1,078	6,478	
{ English	
{ Vernacular	51,868	390	216	22,797	5,620	...	617	81,508	1,04,607	...	2,347	90,529	63,815	773	7,174	
Primary Schools	
{ English	
{ Vernacular	3,135	55	...	46	3,236	4,75,255	8,121	2,941	10,64,070	1,43,652	104	1,83,612	
Girls. High Schools	12,000	3,488	15,488	
{ English	
{ Vernacular	
Middle Schools	4,928	580	5,817	1,063	1,408	4,492	
{ English	
{ Vernacular	3,611	...	390	278	5,656	231	74	
Primary Schools	
{ English	
{ Vernacular	49,163	...	1,221	9,897	55,761	6,177	9,473	
<i>Schools for Special or Technical Training attached as Departments to General Schools, viz.—</i>																
Schools of Art	
Medical Schools	
Engineering Schools	
Training Schools for Masters	62,704	350	...	581	3	63,038	4,758	273	16,593	
Training Schools for Mistresses	3,451	2,073	1,212	
Industrial Schools	
Other Schools	
‡ University	
‡ Direction	
‡ Inspection	
Scholarships	
{ Colleges	
{ Schools	
Buildings	
Miscellaneous	
TOTAL	5,84,774	915	1,542	4,13,938	14,673	64,218	8,832	10,89,119	8,37,201	8,938	17,730	14,09,741	6,62,972	47,554	2,47,900	31,

Note I.—This table excludes Rs 17,452 expended from provincial revenues, and Rs 7,49,000 total expenditure, on schools for Europeans and Eurasians. The expenditure Rs 3,07,721 on technical instruction.
 Note II.—The stipends attached to training schools are regarded as part of the expenditure on the same schools, and not included in the separate head "Scholarships."
 Note III.—Column 9 shows the proportion which the expenditure on each class of institutions, &c., bears to the total expenditure of the year (Rs 2,70,415).
 Note IV.—In calculating the expenditure from provincial revenues or any other fund, all payments or contributions from fees or other sources credited to that fund are included.
 Note V.—The average annual cost of educating each pupil has been calculated on the average monthly number of the pupils enrolled.
 † The only aided institutions that furnished returns of expenditure were the City College, Calcutta, and the Maharaja's College, Bardwan. The latter, in which no fees are charged, is included in the total expenditure.
 ‡ Including Rs 17,184 for district committees.
 § The expenditure on University direction and inspection, being for the common benefit of all classes of institutions, is shown in columns 5a to 5 only.
 ¶ Excludes the expenditure of Rs 4,272 from provincial revenues on indigenous schools outside the departmental system.
 †† Including Rs 67 for European schools, and Rs 77 for Special Instruction.
 ††† Including about Rs 7,000 for Medical College Scholarships, and Rs 5,000 for Engineering College Scholarships.
 †††† Including attached primary and middle schools.
 ††††† Including attached primary schools.

s in the Lower Provinces of Bengal for the official year 1881-82.

UNAIDED INSTITUTIONS UNDER REGULAR INSPECTION.*					TOTAL EXPENDITURE.					Percentage on Total Expenditure.	AVERAGE ANNUAL COST OF EDUCATING EACH PUPIL IN								REMARKS.																				
Subscriptions.	Fees.	Municipal Grants.	Other sources.	Total.	Provincial Revenues.	Other sources controlled by Government Officers.	Other sources not controlled by Government Officers.	Total.	Government Institutions.				Aided Institutions.				Unaided Institutions.*																						
									Total Cost.		Cost to Provincial Revenues.	Cost to Local Rates and Cesses.	Cost to Municipalities.	Total Cost.	Cost to Provincial Revenues.	Cost to Local Rates and Cesses.	Cost to Municipalities.	Total Cost.		Cost to Municipalities.																			
4b	4c	4d	4e	4	5a	5b	5c	5	6	7a	7b	7c	7d	8a	8b	8c	8d	9a	9b																				
R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R	R a. p.	R a. p.																				
...	*2,077	...	*2,965	*5,042	2,77,275	1,21,506	1,23,351	5,24,165	8.36	320	9	5	217	5	8	*45	7	8	...																		
...	12,304	30,209	...	43,513	.77	63	2	2	13	7	7																		
122	39,133	69,505	1,570	12,747	1,41,050	2,21,595	3,95,466	3,23,417	††9,53,451	13.61	34	10	2	12	5	2	0	0	3	0	0	16	21	7	8	4	12	10	...	0	5	5	9	7	5	0	1	8	
84	26,382	20,465	453	9,339	56,706	1,35,479	16,783	3,03,571	††4,56,136	7.27	20	15	5	13	7	2	...	0	8	5	14	5	2	4	9	4	0	0	5	0	4	3	8	1	3	0	1	0	
770	11,932	4,250	650	5,155	22,737	1,50,375	32,637	2,04,425	††3,93,440	6.27	8	9	6	5	7	6	0	0	7	0	0	4	7	10	8	2	12	4	...	0	1	0	5	14	5	0	2	8	
42	15,616	92,032	1,623	21,034	1,30,347	4,73,300	12,750	15,20,992	20,11,265	32.65	4	0	3	3	14	3	...	2	10	0	0	10	7	0	0	2	0	0	0	1	2	7	2	0	0	5	...		
...	12,000	3,455	...	††15,455	...	25	154	14	0	120	0	0	
...	
...	6,591	689	5,900	††13,380	...	21	31	7	1	26	10	2	54	12	10	12	0	9	
...	33	...	453	460	3,611	390	6,755	††10,756	...	*17	20	5	4	7	2	4	...	0	12	4	43	7			
960	6,702	479	929	2,534	13,594	48,163	2,150	1,23,976	1,74,259	2.75	11	7	4	3	6	11	...	0	1	4	7	4	4	0	7	11			
...
...	68,762	631	15,598	63,592	1.33	105	1	1	103	6	2	0	9	4	...	63	15	7	15	14	7	
...	3,451	...	3,255	6,734	...	*11	192	8	8	9	10	11	
...	69,521	...	69,521	1.10
...	†71,405	71,405	1.14
...	3,08,523	1,510	...	3,08,333	5.85
...	**83,296	17,903	...	**1,01,009	1.61
...	73,475	3,104	...	76,552	1.22
...	2,11,572	27,915	...	2,39,657	3.82
...	35,075	7,190	...	42,205	.65
9,065	1,01,745	1,67,577	5,225	54,227	3,70,042	22,83,597	6,62,754	26,32,974	55,59,295	85.66

* Uninspected schools and of schools in Native States that administer their own system of education is also excluded.

deducted. Such payments are shown as expenditure under the sub-head to which they belong.
 ged, was open for only three months of the year.

NATURE OF EXAMINATION.	NO. OF INSTITUTIONS SENDING EXAMINERS.				NUMBER OF EXAMINEES.					NUMBER PASSED.					PERCENTAGE OF PASSED SCHOLARS TO TOTAL NUMBER ON ROLLS OF CLASS EXAMINED AT BEGINNING OF THE YEAR.		
	Government Institutions.	Aided Institutions.	Other Institutions.	Total.	Government Institutions.	Aided Institutions.	Other Institutions.	Private Students.	Total.	Government Institutions.	Aided Institutions.	Other Institutions.	Private Students.	Total.	Government Institutions.	Aided Institutions.	Other Institutions.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	17	18	19
<i>Arts Colleges.</i>																	
Master of Arts	6	3	1	10	51	15	1	...	67	22	4	26
Bachelor of Arts	7	3	2	12	148	106	43	18	309	59	24	8	4	95
First Arts or Previous Examination	11	5	2	18	377	304	124	27	832	170	80	36	8	294
Girls	1	1	1	1	1	1
<i>Schools.</i>																	
Matriculation	50	88	67	205	789	454	805	52	2,100	460	178	373	11	1,022
Girls	1	2	...	3	3	2	5	2	2	4
Standard equivalent to Matriculation
Girls
Middle School Examination	164	1,197	1,361	615	3,294	403	4,312	416	2,291	151	2,858
Girls	1	...	1	4	4	4	4
Upper Primary School Examination	15	1,252	1,267	43	3,016	83	3,142	37	1,887	43	2,531*
Girls	10	10	...	14	1	15	...	12	1	13
Lower Primary School Examination	7	8,189	8,196	19	29,162	1	29,182	11	15,975	1	16,417†
Girls	87	87	...	184	2	186	...	142	2	144
Uttarpara Hitakari Sabha Examination	33	33	...	85	...	85	...	85	...	50	50

GENERAL TABLE No. 5.

Return showing the number of Grant-in-aid Schools for Natives on the 31st March 1870, 1876, and 1882, and the amount of the Grants awarded during the years 1869-70, 1875-76, and 1881-82(a).

CLASS OF INSTITUTIONS.	NUMBER OF SCHOOLS.			AMOUNT OF GRANT.			REMARKS.		
	1870.*	1876.	1882.	1870.*	1876.	1882.			
				₹	₹	₹			
Under Native Managers.	Arts Colleges	{ English		
		{ Oriental		
	<i>General Education.</i>								
	Schools	{ English	{ For Boys	582	557	582	1,75,314	1,67,916	1,98,911
			{ For Girls
		{ Vernacular	{ For Boys	660	713	795	91,955	1,01,082	1,09,866
			{ For Girls	243†	101	101	40,764	14,696	14,585
	<i>Special Schools attached as departments to General Schools.</i>								
	Training Schools for Masters	1	99	...
	Ditto for Mistresses	2	3,014	...
Building Grants	4,068	578	...	
TOTAL			1,485	1,374	1,478	3,12,101	2,87,355	3,23,362	
Under Other Managers.	Arts Colleges	{ English	6	6	5	29,600	22,795	21,450	
		{ Oriental	
	<i>General Education.</i>								
	Schools	{ English	{ For Boys	22	23	20	16,558	13,403	15,720
			{ For Girls	3	700
		{ Vernacular	{ For Boys	154	269	231	10,331	14,340	13,792
			{ For Girls	172	204	...	30,608	30,564
	<i>Special Schools attached as departments to General Schools.</i>								
	Training Schools for Masters			6‡	10‡	4‡	5,835	9,222	4,758
	Ditto for Mistresses			1	3	2	1,760	2,414	3,454
Building Grants	
Total			189	453	469	64,084	92,782	90,438	
GRAND TOTAL			1,674	1,857	1,947	3,76,185	3,80,167	4,13,800	

* The returns for 1871 are destroyed.

† Includes schools under missionary and other Christian managers.

‡ Boarding schools for Kols and Sonthals, formerly classed as training schools, were transferred in 1879 to the class to which they belong.

NOTE.—In addition to the schools aided under the grant-in-aid rules, as shown in the above table, the following schools were aided under other rules during the same years from the allotments for primary education:—

Year.	Schools.	Government expenditure.
1869-70	1,884	₹ 93,542
1875-76	12,897	3,99,403
1881-82	46,264	4,84,547

(a) i.—European and Eurasian schools are entirely excluded from this table for 1881-82, and partially for the two other years.

ii.—The grants represent awards only, and do not tally with the actual expenditure shown in General Table 3.

iii.—Owing to differences of classification, the number of schools here shown for 1881-82 does not agree with that given in General Table 2.

PART V.

GENERAL SUMMARY AND RECOMMENDATIONS.

433. It has been shown, in the course of this narrative of the progress of Public Instruction in the Lower Provinces, how the country possessed from early times both high and elementary schools, the former of a more or less religious and the latter of a purely secular character; the changes effected in these institutions by internal revolutions or by foreign conquest have also been indicated; and the educational influences resulting from connection with a free and progressive nation have step by step been traced.

434. In considering the analogies which have been found to subsist between the educational movements of England and those of this country, nothing has been more clear than the fact that the British administrators of India have constantly endeavoured to give to the Indian people things analogous to what England had gained or was gaining for herself in the sphere of national education. But underneath this broad view of the attitude of the ruling country towards her dependency, which has presented itself from time to time in the course of this narrative, closer and more practical considerations have also come into notice. The educational administration of India has followed, although at a distance, in the wake of that of the ruling country. It has been found that in so following the lead of England, it has in some cases agreed unmistakably with the feelings and wishes of the people of this country on the subject. With such a guide there could be no chance of mistake. That the object pursued was in itself right was shown by the example of the ruling country; that it was right for this country also was proved by its agreement with the wishes of the people.

435. The change which was made from the cultivation of the Oriental Classics to education in English was, as has been seen, an imitation of the non-classical system of instruction which had at the same time begun to prevail in England; it was, as has also been seen, what was most desired by the natives themselves. Accordingly this system has taken root in the country and borne fruit. The upper and middle classes cherish it, and the lower classes of the native community manifest their confidence in it. Not only in Bengal but everywhere in India, the Native States not excepted, English education is eagerly sought and largely paid for by the people, who have instinctively felt, in the altered circumstances of the country, the necessity for the change.

436. The institutions for professional education, which are themselves offshoots from English colleges and schools, are also most highly valued by natives of all classes. Wherever general English education has made progress, the colleges of medicine, law, and engineering have been crowded by pupils. These have raised the efficiency of their several professions to the advantage of rich and poor alike.

437. When such have been the results of the impulse given to the system of 'modern' culture in this country, the question will naturally arise whether a further step should not be taken in the same direction, by the establishment in this country of technical colleges and schools, such as those which in Europe have followed upon the extension of 'non-classical' or 'real' schools. That a necessity for 'real' as distinguished from 'gymnastic' education has been felt for some time, may be gathered from the changes in the school curricula which the Council of Education began to introduce in its later years, and also in the nature of the alterations made from time to time in the examination standards of the Calcutta University. But such small alterations in the standards of