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DEPUTATION STUDIES

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**EDUCATION, INDUSTRY & COMMERCE,
AND LOCAL GOVERNMENT**

BY

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Education.

THE GERMAN SYSTEM.

THE present drift in education is towards what are called 'Modern Studies,' and away from classical and purely literary education. In Italy, the modern schools are, I hear, both more numerous and better attended than the Lycees of the olden time. In Germany, gymnasia or Grammar Schools, which make a speciality of instruction in Latin and Greek, are a diminishing factor; but the real schools, or those in which modern languages and scientific and technical subjects figure prominently, are on the increase in importance and popularity.

These real schools arose in the middle of the 18th century under the auspices of the merchants of the big cities, and as their very name implies, they were meant to deal with the realities of life, and not the fancies of a dead past. The greatest obstacle to efficiency from the point of view of a knowledge of things or realism in India is the extraordinary position occupied by English in the curricula of the schools and colleges. The growth of real schools is probably the most remarkable feature of the educational history of Germany. In 1870 there were 204 gymnasia and 14 real schools; in 1903, the number of gymnasia rose to 315 and the number of real schools to 145. If the percentages of increase are compared, they would show conclusively the preponderating popularity of the newer type of school.

Though Germany is a Bureaucratic country, centralisation of the whole elementary school system does not exist either in the Empire or in Prussia. Local authorities enjoy considerable latitude; of this latitude advantage has been taken, especially by the towns, so that largely at the expense of rate-payers, schools have arisen that may vie with the best of any countries. Doubtless, uniform organisation has its advantages. But the absence of it may not be an unmitigated evil. To local autonomy are attributed some interesting experiments and improvements such as Sloyd, supplementary schools for backward children, the introduction of Sanitary Regulations, and medical inspection.

The efficiency of the German system is due in great measure to the liberal manner in which teachers are treated financially. They have a right to a fixed salary, and to superannuation, and to provision for their families after their death. In Universities, for instance, the professors get a salary of about 6,000 to 7,200 marks per annum, and in addition rent allowance of 500 to 900 marks, and a fee income from their lectures up to 3,000 or 4,000 marks. Provision is also made, on a non-contributory basis, by which the widows and children of the professors receive help without reference to the duration in office of the deceased. Widows of professors get 1,650 marks; the eldest child until the 21st year or till marriage receives 480 marks; and the other children 300; and one orphaned of both parents 720 marks. The lot of the German teacher is far better than that of his French or Italian colleague, a fact which has something to do with the greater success that has attended the labours of German educationists, who are saved all worldly cares and given full opportunity to devote their entire attention to their special fields of instruction or research.

In the German Universities the chief requirement for the degree is the thesis. The professor under whom a candidate works suggests a subject for original investigation and guides the progress of the student's labours. Even in the Technical High Schools or Colleges the highest degrees are awarded only on the merits of the thesis presented.

In fact, examinations do not play a large part in the German system. Degrees are conferred on a general estimate of work done, especially in the seminaries, and the thesis and oral examination. The age of graduation is, I am told, about 23. In India it is 3 years less. A question presents itself:—Are we not forcing the brains of our young men too much? especially, when it is remembered that knowledge is to be mastered through the medium of a foreign language? Does not our system, in which the language of education is not the language of the home, promote uncanny precocity to the detriment of a strong, healthy, though gradual growth? Specialisation is in Germany postponed to a much later stage than in India, though, when once it is entered upon, it is carried to a greater and more satisfactory length. In case it is proposed to postpone the stage of specialisation in India, as Dr. Miller has advocated, it would be necessary to postpone the age of graduation also, or in other words, to extend the school or college course by a year or two.

Even teachers require to be looked after continuously like pupils, and this is done by means of periodical literature, by scientific and pedagogic associations, and by courses of lectures arranged for their benefit by local authorities.

Most of the Universities in Germany are medieval foundations which still show some archaic vestiges in their

constitution. They are all state institutions, and not semi-private corporations like Cambridge and Oxford. The chief feature in their recent development is the organisation of specialised branches in Science. A change has also come over the teaching. Supplying information is subordinated to the higher task of guiding the student in independent research in the seminaries. The seminarial system cannot be adopted in India without a large increase in the staffs of the colleges.

A good point about the organisation of continental Universities is the permission given to private people to lecture at the University either for a small salary or in consideration of the income they are allowed to derive from the fees levied on the students attending their classes.

Theological studies are, as was to be expected, not so popular now as they were before the era of scientific enlightenment. For instance, in 1830, there were 6,000 theological students to about 3,000 perusing arts and sciences. In 1903, however, the total number studying Divinity fell to 3,700 while the number of those pursuing secular studies rose to 15,000.

PHYSICAL EDUCATION.

Both the Italian and German organisations provide for the taking of what is called an anthropometrical census of school children every year or even every six months. The child's weight, height, lung capacity, chest measurement, grip power, etc., are noted down and the results compared. If the child shows physical deterioration, the parents are warned. In most of the big cities the children are given at municipal expense one good meal a day, a substantial luncheon irrespective of rich or poor. One of the underlying motives for keeping this record of physical history is

to know whether the race is improving or not. Defective children are made to take special courses in gymnastics under competent guidance. Physical education is compulsory. Boys and girls have to attend drill in uniform, a very essential thing if gymnastics should have an educational value of high importance. In Japan all school children above what we should call the elementary grade must attend school in uniform. This gives the classes a very picturesque appearance, makes them shake off slovenliness and inert airs, and assume a brisk business-like bearing, which is highly conducive to the morale of the school.

One of the great concerns of France has been to maintain the younger generation in proper health and strength. There has been a complaint that the courses of studies are becoming harder and harder every year. Undoubtedly they are harder than in England, which according to some is one of the causes of the physical weakening of their race. "We must attend to muscles" says one critic. An echo of this complaint has been heard from Germany too, where the number of school days and hours are heavier than in any civilised country. But this error of over righteousness has, I was told, been corrected in recent years.

RELIGIOUS TEACHING.

Religious instruction is the one great vexation of Western education. The sects are many and all are aggressive. In Italy the device adopted is to provide religious instruction only to those pupils whose parents desire it. It is well known that parental enthusiasm for religious teaching is somewhat lukewarm, for the heart of the West beats faster to the impulse of patriotism than to religion.

The religious difficulty has made itself felt in Canada also, where it is even more troublesome to solve satisfactorily,

owing to the absence of a state church, and the democratic principles like universal suffrage on which the country is governed.

The French Canadians, unlike their kinsmen of Europe, are highly ultramontane and orthodox. They want to have their own schools in order to be able to surround the children with the proper atmosphere, and this renders a national system of education impossible for the present. The Catholic party is opposed to the institution of a Dominion Department of Education, and even to compulsory education; for, they fear that either of them may be the thin end of the wedge of national organisation. So education is not compulsory in Quebec.

Three compromises seem to be possible under the stress of this antagonism:—(1) to make education secular, but allow time to the different denominations to do their preaching in school hours, (2) the middle course adopted by the English Education Act of 1904 and (3) separate schools. It is this last solution that the Catholic church in Canada prefers. Both the Protestants and Catholics rate themselves separately and provide their own schools. The rates on corporations, other than religious, are divided between the two communities according to population. Government grants are given on the basis of average attendance in each school. Perhaps some such solution as this may be found to be necessary in India if the various sects and creeds begin to clamour loudly for special schools under their several management.

THE CANADIAN SYSTEM.

Elementary education is generally left to the care of Municipalities and other local bodies in Europe. This is

the case also in Canada. The Canadian organisation however, is not quite uniform. It is highly decentralised, but works with fair success, as the people are really keen on education. Rural parts are divided into small districts of the average area of 42 miles each. Each of these localities elects a School Board of five by manhood suffrage. The members of the School Board hold office for three years. The Board appoints the teachers, but they cannot appoint any one who does not possess the certificate of a recognised normal school. The salaries are determined by the Board; and though there are variations from district to district, the tendency in recent years has been towards a uniform level. The revenue of the Canadian rural school is derived from the following sources :—(1) Rates on landed property. The landless escape though they may be well to do, and there is a movement to get these also to pay. (2) Private endowments, which, however, are quite insignificant. Rural districts could never be well off in this respect. Still there are a few technical and general schools which owe their origin to private philanthropy. Government assists in three ways: (1) By providing training schools, which are entirely financed and controlled by Government. (2) Inspection. The Inspectors are all Government officers. (3) Grants-in-aid which, as a rule, do not come up to more than 20 per cent of the total expenditure. But they are large enough to enable Government to exercise some control over the local authority by threats of reduction or withdrawal. For the poorer tracts special grants are given in addition to the usual ones based on average attendance.

Critics are not quite unanimous as to the success of this Board system of education, though it seems to be generally agreed that it works on the whole satisfactorily. Some districts are inclined to be negligent in order to

escape rates or to keep them low. Every citizen has the right of complaining to the Central Authority, which then undertakes the disagreeable task of persuasion, which has to be done very tactfully. In a large and sparsely populated province like Quebec, or any of the Western provinces, with their extraordinary variety of conditions, it is too soon to expect system and uniformity. Government officials hold meetings frequently to awaken the people to a higher sense of responsibility. In the week in which I arrived in Quebec, as many as 31 meetings had been held, four of which were attended by the Education Secretary himself.

The Secondary Schools are started and managed in the same way as the Elementary. Government grants are even more meagre, and yet the number of schools is quite adequate. It may be mentioned that the permission of the Central Authority is not necessary for starting schools.

This Board system is not universal in Canada. Some rural townships or districts possess only one tax-levying authority for education and general purposes; not two as in Quebec, one for education, and another for general purposes like police, lighting, and water-rates. Though the tax-levying authority is one, each school is under its own Board, which sends up its Budget to that Authority. In some of the provinces, collegiate institutions or High schools are under the direct jurisdiction of the Educational Department, but in all provinces elementary schools are placed under specially elected Local Boards. If it is asked how uniformity in standards and efficiency are secured, the answer is (1) by the inspecting staff, (2) the normal schools and the regulations for teachers' certificate and (3) public examinations.

How rapidly education seems to spread even in the

newly settled provinces of the West which in population are far inferior to Mysore! In 1905, there were hardly any schools in Saskatoon but now there are some 25. Mr. Smith, the Superintendent of schools, who is an officer appointed by the City School Board, told me that they had not gone in for luxuries like kindergarten. In these new provinces, where the first thing to aim at is the multiplication of schools, high standards and up-to-date methods should be wisely neglected for the time being. The city schools which are under the City School Board are also inspected by the Provincial officers because the Province of Saskatchewan gives grants to the schools based on attendance, number of teachers, and other considerations. I noticed that even in elementary schools facilities were given for learning French or German. The school buildings were exceedingly fine; but then even village schools in Canada have debenture debts to be repaid in fifteen or twenty years. Provision is made for frequent medical inspection in schools, and when necessary parents are warned about the condition of the children's health. Education is compulsory in Saskatchewan though it is not in Manitoba. Dr. Mackenzie, the Deputy Minister of Education in Alberta, informed me that schools were springing up rapidly everywhere. As the local supply of teachers was not sufficient, they had to import a large number from the Eastern provinces. The normal courses are made short, because of the large number of teachers required every year. Here again, considerations of theoretical standards have to be, to some extent, subordinated to what is a more important consideration in newer or backward countries, namely, increase in number of schools and rapidity of extending education. The buildings I inspected were exceedingly good, but they were as usual built on credit.

There is more centralisation in Saskatchewan as regards Government Control of Municipalities. If a school Board does not do its work properly, it may be superseded by a Trustee appointed by the Provincial Government. Government Inspectors supervise the work of the Local Boards.

The following extracts from the regulations and courses of studies of the public schools of the province of Ontario may be of interest as illustrating still further the school system prevailing in that new country. Every rural school celebrates what is called the Arbor day, which is generally fixed for the first Friday in May, and devoted to planting shade trees, making flower beds, or otherwise beautifying and improving the school grounds. It is treated as a holiday, when songs and recitations calculated to inculcate greater interest in trees and flowers, and the study of Nature, form part of the exercises. The dental inspector visits regularly to examine the teeth of the children and to prescribe if necessary. The kindergarten course is treated as optional. Physical exercise receives greater attention. The object of physical culture, say the regulations, is symmetrical development of the body, securing at the same time strength and grace. A systematic and well organised course of physical exercise, both free and with apparatus, should be taken up in each of the grades, and attention shall also be given to class room exercises. Prevailing defects should be studied and exercises and direction given to correct them. The Arbor Day is celebrated in the Philippines too, a tropical country in which love of plant life needs to be specially encouraged, and where it has produced very good results in developing the cultivation of market vegetables. In the Philippines even University students are required to undergo physical examination twice a year. Athletics are compulsory. No candidate is admitted unless he is medi-

cally certified to be fit and strong. If a student is pronounced to be unfit physically, he is dismissed on the ground that the money spent on his education becomes a waste and dead loss to the tax-payer.

There is a good deal to be said in favour of the oft repeated proposal to make physical exercise a compulsory branch of culture in our schools and colleges. But perhaps, the students may be allowed an option between gymnastics, athletics and sports, and manual training of the Sloyd variety, or vocational and industrial classes in carpentry, machine shop practice, and smithing.

Dr. Bumpus of the Wisconsin University is a great believer in the cinema as a means of educating the public, and the pupils in elementary schools. It is as he puts it, teaching by perception, which is an easier and better method than the usual one of teaching by conception. Lessons in geography and in history could be visualised and rendered attractive. The cinema, doubtless, is a great help to attention and memory and serves to economise mental effort. No organisation of Extension lectures can be said to be complete or efficient unless provided with a picture-show-apparatus.

SPECIAL INSTITUTIONS.

In some of the European countries there are special institutions and special organisations which, without materially adding to the capital expenditure in the way of new buildings or equipments, utilise the ordinary facilities afforded by existing schools and colleges, to carry on popular education or to give extra courses for the regular students. In Rome, there is a 'Popular University', which is something like a corporation of Extension lecturers, who give systematic teaching to the general public, especially the artisans

and business people. It is supported by private subscriptions and grants-in-aid from the state. Most of the lecturers give their services free. The classes are held in evenings for two or three hours a week for about four months in the year. The programme is fairly extensive and covers such subjects as history, geography, philosophy, economics, and politics, all treated in a popular manner. These "Universities," which however hold no examinations and give no degrees and have no special habitations, but hold their classes in ordinary schools and colleges, when the regular work is not going on, are very popular in the industrial towns of the North. No fees are charged for attendance. There is also an "Official Institute" in which specialists lecture on political and administrative subjects with a view to keeping Government officials in touch with what is going on in the world and the most up-to-date experiments in executive or legislative functions. University Professors handle such topics as movements of wages and prices, labor legislation, charity organisations, contemporary politics and history, the doings of the different parliaments, and all matters of administrative or legislative interest. Admission is confined to officials who, I was told, attend regularly and in large numbers. The lectures are held in the evenings about two hours a week for about four months.

In Germany, the Directors of Scientific institutions (libraries, botanical gardens, observatories, Government chemical laboratories, museums, etc.) are required to deliver regularly lectures on their special subjects for the benefit of the general public and students. In the winter of 1903, 119 courses in all branches of science were conducted by 97 teachers; and the total number of the audience was 58,498. Occasional lectures are, as a rule, delivered gratis, but courses are paid for either by private organisations or by the state.

Answering to the official institute at Rome, there is in Berlin "An association for extended instruction in political science," destined chiefly for the improvement of officials and to keep them up to the scratch. The "Berlin University Teachers' Union for popular courses" carries on extension work on the same lines as the University Extension system in England and America. An organisation like this is one of the first needs of India; and it goes without saying, that most of the lecturing should be done in the vernaculars. In Dresden there is an institute founded by a rich merchant for the investigation of economic and social questions.

MUSEUMS.

Museums are an integral part of educational organisation, and not idle side-shows as they are in most instances in India. The educational museum in Berlin, one of the largest institutions of its kind, contains exhibits illustrative of school work and teaching, such as kindergarten materials, manual training models, equipment for teaching Arithmetic, Geometry, Geography, Nature Study, and every subject included in the curricula of elementary schools. I saw fine albums of historical personages; animals, flowers, vegetables, specimens of special appliances for the benefit of backward pupils, a small collection of geological specimens, simple machines, and similar objects of interest. All the articles exhibited here could be had for sale from the dealers and manufacturers whose addresses are attached to each of the specimens. In America it is considered to be part of the regular work of a museum to give occasional lectures illustrated by specimens to school children. In the Natural History Museum of New York, there is a beautiful hall which could easily accommodate a thousand children, devoted to educational purposes. Not a day passes without parties of

school children being conducted by experts through the particular sections which would be most helpful in connection with their school work. Museums loan out for short periods, on requisition by Head-masters or other specified authorities, small collections of specimens for illustrating class lessons. One of the most interesting and useful museums I have known is the "Working Men's Welfare Exhibition" at Berlin. It contains a specimen of every device that has been invented for the prevention of accidents in the different trades, such as effective methods of fencing machinery; of pumping air into deep pits, drains and other unwholesome places; and also exhibits illustrating methods of first aid to the injured; industrial diseases, that is to say, special diseases due to the nature of occupations, such as match making; evils of intemperance, such as a diseased condition of the heart, liver, and other organs; ravages of consumption; different kinds of respirators used by people working in drains and other places surrounded by foul gases; and apparatus to test the purity of air in factories. Near each exhibit is a small open wicker basket filled with pamphlets containing an account of the particular exhibit; and visitors are allowed to take away copies free. I saw a large party of working men and women who were going round listening to long discourses from one of the officials.

The great zoological garden at Berlin may be looked upon as a living illustration in Geography, Botany and Zoology. Though it is called the Zoo, the anthropological interest is never absent. To illustrate my meaning I give a few instances: The elephant is lodged in a huge building modelled after a Jain temple, which is one of the typical modes of Hindu Architecture. The ostrich serves as an opportunity for a building in the style of ancient Egyptians,

on the walls of which are inscribed texts in hieroglyphics while the roof contains a fresco showing their cosmological conceptions. Inside the building there is a panorama, in the fore-ground of which are a couple sphinxes steeped in the mysterious rose of an evening sky; to the left a shallow tank on the bund of which stand a few date trees; some cows are drinking water; a woman dressed in Egyptian garb is preparing to go home after filling a pitcher with water and raising it to her head. In a similar way Chinese life and architecture find admirable exposition. The Indian cows are sheltered in a sorry looking tiled hut strongly resembling the reality as it is found in India. The general idea underlying the laying out of this wonderful garden is to reproduce the environment of the animals, and make it a living text in Geography.

Amongst the special institutions, educational or professional in character, Clarke's college, London, which is the biggest manufactory of clerks, holds an interesting position. It is a private institution with some thirty branches and auxiliary schools scattered over London. It is a splendid instance of that continuous expansion of organisation which is so marked a feature of western business enterprise. It trains young men and women for Civil Service and business appointments. The functions it performs can be broadly classified under three heads: (1) General education, (2) Civil Service, (3) Commercial training. The general education undertaken is too insignificant to require detailed mention. Training for civil service and commercial work holds a more important place.

In India the term Civil Service is associated with the higher appointments in the Revenue or Executive line. In England it enjoys its full dictionary connotation and

includes all offices, other than military and menial, however low, such as clerkships at the War office, Admiralty, Board of Education, and other public departments. The English system of recruiting these offices aims at two things: (1) at enforcing a standard of general capacity, and (2) seeing that in addition to general knowledge, the candidate possesses some knowledge, theoretical and practical, of office work. The method adopted is that of prescribing subjects, general and technical, and holding open competitive examinations. There is much to be said against making competition the universal principle of selection in India, and in favour of employing nomination to maintain a just balance between the different communities. To sacrifice efficiency, for the sake of maintaining a sociological balance, has its own defects, just as the abandonment of sociological fairness, which is in itself a great factor in national efficiency, in favour of a lopsided efficiency, has also its defects. But cannot the claims of both principles be reconciled by the institution of a qualifying or enabling examination, accompanied by nomination from amongst the successful candidates, according to the larger interests and requirements of the State? It would prevent the selection of the utterly unworthy, and at the same time enable statesmanship to guardian the interests of the different classes satisfactorily. The chief features of the English system are: (1) selection by open competition and (2) the division of appointments into three grades, requiring different standards of educational and technical qualification. Amongst the subjects included are English, History, Geography, Book-keeping, Shorthand, Copying manuscripts, Stenography and Typewriting. Even Postal Sorters and Telegraphists are chosen by competition. Those seeking employment as Abstractors have to do Precis-writing and Indexing, digesting returns,

and Book-keeping or Shorthand. The bigger county councils and Municipalities hold similar examinations for recruiting their clerks.

THROPE ARCH SCHOOL.

There is at Thorpe Arch near Leeds an industrial school for the children of criminals and delinquents. It is not a reformatory, for the children themselves have committed no crime beyond being born to undesirable parents. The children are taught till 15 or 16 years of age, and then put out to service, though, even for a year or two after they leave, they continue to be under the motherly supervision of the institution. Reading, writing, drawing, arithmetic, color work, needle work, sewing, mending, cutting, making simple garments, housewifery, baking bread, cooking, laundry work, all these are taught to the girls; and the entire work of the Establishment is borne by the girls themselves who take turns at it. Western nations do not allow precious human material to go to waste for want of common prudence, common exertion, common charity on their part.

Modern humanitarianism looks upon crime as a disease and instead of merely punishing the offender, endeavours to cure him of his weakness. In Ontario some of the prisoners are housed on an extensive farm, where they work and live as free labourers. They are not locked up at nights or treated as wild beasts who would break loose if not caged in and guarded. They are trusted and put on their honor; and this probably causes the first germination of conscience and self-respect in those poor wretches. There are guards, but they are instructed to occupy an unobtrusive place in the background. I was told that the system has been successful in preventing demoralisation and hardening of the heart, which are too often the only products of methods of

unmitigated severity. Many of the prisoners become thus reclaimed to decent citizenship.

Manchester maintains a school in the country to which city children are taken by batches for change of air. The ideal of Englishmen is to produce a race which is, in the first place, physically fit and strong; for that is the secret of success in the stern struggle of life, and not sly intellectuality and capacity for arguing law points.

The medical care of school children is in a state of utter neglect with us. A well-organised system of health guardianship would include the following items:—(1) Medical inspection of children at stated periods or on requisition by the headmaster, (2) giving notice to parents regarding the illness and the treatment, which incidentally has the advantage of spreading medical knowledge, however meagre, amongst the parents and the entire community, (3) treatment by public authority in bad cases, (4) compulsory physical training, (5) provision of meals to starving and under-fed-children. This last item becomes an unavoidable necessity if compulsory education is introduced. For nothing could be more cruel or wasteful than to keep a hungry child at school against the yearnings of his nature and treating him to an intellectual diet, when he is in need of something more substantial and wholesome. In some of the schools in Europe and America, dirty looking lads are given a compulsory bath and made to wash their clothes. School Hygiene shades off into the more complex and obstinate problem of poverty, and that is the rub!

THE BIRMINGHAM AND MIDLAND INSTITUTE.

In Birmingham there is an institute, called the Birmingham and Midland Institute, which combines in itself the features of a social club and educational institution. It

arranges for weekly lectures to the members, and also conducts an industrial department where special subjects like modern languages, mathematics, and science are taught. The institute receives grants both from the Board of Education and the City. Connected with it are the Birmingham Archæological Society, the Birmingham Chess Club, Scientific Society, and an amateur Opera Society. It arranges for excursions of social and scientific interest. It is a matter for consideration whether some of our so-called Cosmopolitan Clubs should not introduce elements of this nature into their organisation. The institute also arranges occasionally for free public lectures on subjects of national interest. Need it be added that it is located in a sumptuous building provided with a large number of rooms, well furnished and rendered thoroughly attractive? The catalogue of periodicals taken in would cover about five typed pages. For the convenience of the members of the institute who have vacancies to fill in their offices, a register is kept in the Secretary's office of vacant appointments and of the qualifications of candidates seeking employment. The employment bureau of the institute thus serves to make the supply and the demand for labor meet without much trouble.

SOCIAL SERVICE.

In Western countries social service is almost assuming the place of religion. It exercises an attraction and awakens an enthusiasm generally associated with spiritual movements. I know that a good many people who are not over-rigid in their orthodoxy enter the church chiefly for the opportunities it gives of being helpful to the poorer members of the community. Whatever the western does he does on scientific lines; and the first principle of all rational help is that it should never become a substitute for self-help. It should

supplement and not supplant self-help. Charity should be organised and not left to the chance operation of sentimental impulses. After all, the object of charity is not to pauperise people, but to help them to realise a manly independence. Paradoxical as it may sound, charity should aim at eliminating itself !

Social service, like any other work involving serious purpose, and requiring to be persevered through till the end is attained, requires special qualifications and training. In all the newer Universities, the study of social problems and of the methods of social reform and relief appears as a special branch in the curriculum. In the University of Bristol a certificate is awarded for proficiency in social studies, which comprise both theoretical and practical courses such as Psychology and Ethics, Social and Economic history, local government, central government, sanitation, taxation, tariffs, insurance, co-operation, unemployment, and visits of observations to institutions of interest to the social worker, and social studies of poor law institutions, police courts, factories and workshops, labour exchanges, educational institutions, and institutions giving medical aid. Students are given training in office work ; relief work ; school, club, and class work ; and personal visiting. The course extends over two years ; and there is an examination at the end of each year. In addition to the provision made in the Universities for learning the methods and practice of social work, there are what are called settlements, where those desirous of doing philanthropic work may fore-gather and work in unison intelligently, systematically. At Bristol, there is a University Settlement situated in Barton Hill, which is a private organisation maintained by voluntary subscriptions for doing social work in the slums and amongst the poor.

Kind of work done :—

- (1) Visiting mothers that through negligence do not carry out the treatment prescribed by the school doctor for their children, and inducing them to pay better attention.
- (2) Getting boys to register their names at the labour exchanges and finding out if the work suits them.
- (3) Organising clubs for men and women. In these clubs in addition to recreation, education also forms an important feature: (*e.g.*, reading, cookery, needle-work classes, etc.)
- (4) Taking the children of the poor out for holidays to sea-side or country places. The parents pay 2/6 per week, or whatever the actual cost of maintaining the children at home is *plus* the railway fare. Ideas of charity and beggary are excluded as far as possible.
- (5) Visiting the sick and helping them with advice and care.
- (6) Arranging lectures for the different labour clubs trades' unions, etc. Lecturers give their services free.
- (7) Getting the children to come to the settlement for play and reading.

A fair number of the higher class women and University students devote themselves to this work, living in these settlements and leading very simple, ascetic lives. Social work in England requires much tact and sympathy, for the poor are pretty sensitive and occasionally rebellious.

By social reform, as used here, is meant a reform in the material conditions of the poorest classes. It deals primarily

with problems of poverty and its attendant evils, such as overcrowding, insanitary lives, and ignorance. The only way of effecting a radical and permanent improvement in the condition of the people is by providing them with education and employment. Charity is not an end in itself, but only a means of tiding over a bad crisis, an occasional measure intended to remedy the distress of the moment.

The question of employment receives the attention both of philanthropic bodies and of the government. Mr. Lloyd George has given the country labour exchanges, by which Government assists those who are in search of work to meet those who are in search of workers. In regard to education, again there is complete co-operation between the state and the people. To Gladstone belongs the credit of having introduced free and compulsory elementary education. This measure was partly the result of sentiment, but chiefly the outcome of the newer industrial conditions, which were transforming the face of Europe and creating keen international competition for markets and trade, which could not be successfully met except with the aid of an intelligent population of artisans. Universal Education is in some part the cause, and in great part the effect, of industrialism.

EXTENSION WORK.

Compulsory elementary education requires to be followed up by other measures if the benefits effected by it are to be made permanent. Man has a great tendency to forget what he has learnt, as learning seems to go against the grain; and so it is necessary to keep the working man and the lower classes by special measures in touch with intellectual culture of some kind. This is done by means of the extension system of which enough has been said in my previous report, and by a new scheme which has sprung

into existence within the last decade in England, and which is spreading with marvellous rapidity throughout the British Isles and the Dominions across the seas. This is the University Tutorial classes scheme.

UNIVERSITY TUTORIAL CLASSES.

Some ten years ago, a few leading Trades-Unionists and Co-operators met in London to concert measures for improving Workers' education. They opened a class in reading without previous plan or programme, expecting, as all sensible men do, to learn from experience. The thriving industrial city of Rochdale took up the hint and developed the scheme still further; Birmingham followed suit, adding a few elements which brought it nearer perfection. The great leader of this movement is Mr. A. Mansbridge, who, at the time I was in England, was touring in Australia organising University Tutorial classes. In 1903, the scheme existed only as an idea. It took a few years to acquire shape and substantial reality. To-day, within ten years of its origin, it is a national and Imperial organisation with affiliated bodies scattered all over England and the Empire. So far as the expenses of organising are concerned, it is dependent chiefly on private subscriptions.

The lowest Unit is a local branch ministering to a small area in rural parts, a parish, or a few parishes, and in cities like London, the Boroughs or Wards. Anyone interested can join by paying 1/- a year. Societies also can join in their corporate capacity. For management a small Executive Committee is elected. The work of the branch consists in :—(1) Organising public lectures. Isolated lectures and occasional speeches are discouraged as leading to desultory habits and trifling with serious subjects. As a rule, the lectures form a connected course of twelve. (2) Inter-

esting people in the movement ; (3) and in a few rare cases, where the attendance is sufficient to justify it, opening Tutorial classes.

Above the local branches are the Districts Associations. The whole of England is for this purpose divided into 7 or 8 divisions, east, west, northwest, north-east, and so on by rule of compass. Several local branches go to form a district. Care is taken not to split up counties. The revenue of the district association is derived from (1) Individual members, the subscription being 2/6 a year. (2) Levy of 1d. in the shilling collected from affiliated local branches. (3) Grants of local education authorities, Trades' Unions, Co-operative Societies, adult school societies and other charitable institutions. The work of the district associations is not different from that of the local branch; only these are able to maintain a larger number of Tutorial classes. The Central Organisation which is located in Red Lion Square, London, obtains its revenue from the following sources :—(1) from individual members, the subscription being 2/6 a year. (2) a levy of 2s. in the £ from district associations (3) grants from public bodies (4) grants from Trade Unions and other organisations which are of national, not merely of a local, character. These large societies pay one guinea a year. The work of the Central organisation falls under the following heads ;—(1) popularising the movement by means of talks, interviews, lectures, publications, articles in the press, and other methods of publicity ; (2) arranging programmes for the various associations and (3) carrying on correspondence with the Board of Education and other public departments.

Tutorial classes are formed wherever a certain number of workmen desire to join and promise to attend for three

or four years. The classes must be small and should not exceed 30. They meet once a week from October to April, and sometimes twice or thrice, for two hours of an evening. Papers are set weekly or fortnightly, and the students attending are expected to send in their answers regularly. The subjects and the curricula are settled by the students and the tutor themselves. In fact, the class manages itself and takes pride in its Home Rule. Women could be admitted. Lecturers should be men of high educational qualification, recognised by the Board of Education or other authority deputed by it. Special classes are sometimes held for women if a sufficient number appear on the scene. The control of classes is vested in a Joint Board, on which Working Mens' Organisations and the University to which the class is affiliated are both represented. Students have to pay a nominal fee, enough to cover the expenses of lighting, printing syllabuses, etc. The remuneration of the teachers, which never falls below £60 a year for each class they take, is paid by the Joint Board chiefly from (a) the grants made by the parent University and (b) those of the Board of Education, which gives at the rate of so much per head on the attendance. The education grants derived from these two sources go entirely for the teaching expenses. The maintenance and the furtherance of the organisation has to be financed from other sources, and the other expenses incurred for conducting the school are met by the 'boys' themselves on the principle, I suppose, that even the poorer people in the land could not be maintained at a proper level of self-respect without being obliged to exercise some amount of self-help. A tutor can manage three or four classes and thus make a comfortable £200 to £300 a year.

The tutorial classes represent an intensive form of the Extension principle. They serve that section of the masses

who are not content with the general information they can derive from attending Extension courses, and desire, so to speak, to specialise a little. The students sit for an examination at the end of each year, and, I was told, do remarkably well.

The Workers' Educational Association now consists of over 1,879 organisations including local branches and the national societies that support the movement, which may be classified thus:—

Trades Unions	...	...	848
Co-operative Societies		...	299
University Bodies	...	...	16
Local Education Authorities		...	153
Working Mens' Clubs and Institutes		...	113
Teachers' Associations		...	161

In 1911-12, the organisation conducted 101 classes with a total attendance of 2,780. In addition, the Summer schools held were attended by about 900 men and women. The stupendous nature of this achievement, and the testimony it bears to the earnestness of Western people in the matter of education, cannot be fully grasped, unless it is borne in mind that the people seeking specialisation in these classes are all adults, engaged in the hard work of earning their livelihood during the day. Most of them are men with wives and children to look after, which is the stock excuse in more lethargic countries for failing to face one's duty and disowning all responsibility to one's ideals.

There is a logical relation between the different methods of education. Compulsory elementary education cannot yield full, lasting fruit unless it is supplemented by

Continuation Schools and Extension. Tutorial classes are a specialised form of the Extension system. At the basis of all these developments, lies the fundamental question of organising the people into societies, clubs, or other corporations. Unless the people are organised, it is not easy to reach them. Individuals are notoriously fugitive; they must, as a first step, be formed into societies; village, taluk or other associations should be brought into being; that is why many an American University maintains a staff of social centre organisers to develop club life in the land.

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION.

At the Sorbonne, Paris, public administration is studied as a separate branch to which are appointed full-time professors with the necessary staff of assistants. In a country like India, where people are naturally given to vague visionary dreams and passive contemplation, Realism in education is urgently required to act as a corrective. This realism is at present conspicuous by its absence. It is even doubtful whether the need for it is generally and seriously felt, which is exactly the reason why those who believe in it should agitate in season and out of season for its adoption. It is sad to think that the Indian student, as a rule, knows a great deal more about the condition of things in England or America than he does of that in India. And it should be possible to include a course on Social study and Public administration with reference to Indian conditions in all our Universities and to make it compulsory for all candidates to appointments in the public service. A realistic study of social conditions, and of comparative legislation and administrations would probably result in giving the officials larger ideas, more enthusiasm, and keener intelligence in conceiving and executing reforms.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

In Italy, elementary education is divided into two grades, each a three year course:—Lower elementary education and Higher elementary education, the age of pupils attending being respectively from 6 to 9, and 9 to 12. Both are free ; but the former alone is compulsory in the full sense of the term. Every village is required by law to maintain a Lower elementary school. Where there are Higher elementary schools, there that course too is compulsory. That is to say, the compulsory age in such places is raised to 12. The point of this arrangement is that the compulsory period is elastic and varies with local conditions. But in Italy there is a long distance between law and practice. The execution of the compulsory law is left to local bodies, which, I was told, would not be the case from 1914 onwards. And this has meant considerable variation in the stringency of application. The percentage of illiterates ranges from 17 in the north to 78 in Calabria. It is clear that industrial North is keener on Education than agricultural South, for the simple reason that education pays more directly and abundantly in districts which are well advanced in industry and commerce. Rural peoples all the world over have a healthy scepticism regarding the virtue of the three R's. In America too, as has often been remarked, industrial progress preceded educational.

In no country in the world is the compulsory system so well enforced as in Germany which forms in this respect a pleasing contrast to Italy. None are exempted except those who are physically or mentally unfit or those who receive an equivalent education in other ways. The strictness with which the act is operated is proved by the following remarkable facts. In 1901 among 5,754,728 children on the register

in 36,756 schools, evasions amounted to only 5,481. Entries may be deferred by illness or other causes. Under certain circumstances children may be dispensed from further attendance. In 1901, the number of children unable to attend owing to mental or bodily defects was 10,672; the number of those whose entry was deferred 16,109; and those dispensed from attendance before completion of the course 53,794. A compulsory system thus provides valuable data regarding the health and efficiency of a community. The State takes care to provide necessary school buildings within reasonable distance from the houses of the people; reasonable seems to mean a mile or below.

In the Philippines in spite of the great enthusiasm and earnestness felt by the Government for mass education, it has not been thought advisable to introduce the compulsory system owing to lack of buildings and other facilities. But the thing that is next best is being done. Schools are being opened at the astonishing rate of over 1,000 each year! When it is remembered that the population of the Philippines is only a trifle above that of Mysore, this fact cannot be without its value and lesson to us.

The compulsory idea seems to be spreading from elementary to higher education. Radical reformers are dissatisfied with the evening continuation schools. They argue that many of the working men would be too tired to attend or to benefit by the lessons. So they advocate the system which prevails in Munich and other German cities, *viz.*, of compelling employers to send their men to school twice a week in the afternoons and treat it as part of the regular work for which no deduction in wages should be made. The Cadburys have adopted this plan at Bourneville, where workmen are allowed to attend school on two or three after-

noons a week without loss of pay. A very successful inspector of schools at Liverpool informed me that the evening school system should be reformed in another direction which too would serve the same purpose. If the teacher thought that any of the pupils were specially clever, he should notify the employers, who thereupon should be bound to give them half-holidays on the days that the employees in question attend school without making a cut in the wages. From these picked boys the best should be sent up to the University with adequate State or Municipal scholarships. The Secretary of the Education Board of Bristol also expressed himself as being in favour of the Munich system.

EVENING CONTINUATION SCHOOLS.

Boys enter elementary schools at the age of 7 or 8 and leave when about 14. Many have to earn their living. In England education is not regarded solely or primarily as an introduction to Government service. One of the problems of continuation is how to enable the boys and girls who have gone out to work for their livelihood to continue their studies? Until 12 or 15 years ago, there were no facilities at all for secondary education for the poor; that was the privilege of the rich 'public school' class. Hence, as Sir Isambard Owen remarked, the creation of that educational wonder known as the pupil teacher. That is to say, they wanted elementary teachers. They had only elementary boys and girls available, for, the public school class which had secondary education were not likely to take up the humble post of an elementary teacher. So they allowed elementary graduates to teach in elementary schools for a few hours a day and spend the rest of the time learning at a Grammar or other secondary school recognised as a Pupil

teacher centre. At the present time, the lot of the poor student has changed for the better ; the secondary schools are within his reach. But as was said above, all of them cannot attend in the day time, and hence the evening continuation schools.

These institutions are maintained by Municipal rates and other public grants. Even in a comparatively small city like Bristol, there are about 20 schools costing about £4,000 a year. The teachers are paid from 6 shillings an evening to 13 according to service and the grade of class they take. In addition they get an allowance for correcting home-exercises. The minimum strength required to keep open a class is only 10 ; but this rule is not rigorously enforced. The classes are held from October to April, between 7-30 to 9-30 P.M. The minimum age for admission is generally 14, that is, after the pupil has completed his elementary course, though there are exceptions to this rule. The attendance is composed mostly of working boys and girls. After completing their secondary course in these evening schools, they go to the evening classes of the Technical College, if they want to, or attend the newly formed Tutorial classes ; thus evening provision is made for secondary and higher education, so that even the poorest in the land can, without detriment to their occupations, get the benefits usually reserved for the rich, and continue their studies up to college or University standard. No fees are levied except 1 shilling for admission, and this shilling is returned if the pupils put in 80 per cent attendance.

It is not possible to go here into the details of the curricula pursued in these institutions. In western countries it is the rule for every institution, from the elementary school to the university, to hold evening classes, the most popular and the best attended of which are those devoted

to scientific and technical subjects. Every school building and equipment is economised to the full and made to yield all that it is capable of for the good of the nation. Once upon a time continuation schools were regarded as outside the regular system of education. Now they are an essential part of it. In villages the rural school is the scene of evening classes whether for technical or general education, but chiefly, of course, for the former, as continuation classes are mainly intended to improve the earning capacity of artisans. The teaching staff may be different, but equipment and the buildings are the same as for day classes. For obvious reasons, technical day classes are not so numerous as those held in the evenings. Here it may be remarked that, in general, these schools have sprung up as an adjunct of pit, factory, and firm, to meet the demand of labourers in actual employ. Industrial and commercial competition of the kind that would lead to educational demands is not yet visible in the horizon of Southern India, but there is no doubt that when the country becomes more industrial, as a consequence of the people becoming more industrious and ambitious, it will come. Meanwhile, wherever there are evening or night schools, it must be made a rule that they should be held in the regular school of the locality, so as to economise expenditure, and give the evening students a feeling of equal educational standing.

TRAINING INSTITUTIONS.

I visited the Birmingham Training College for men and women, the Fielden Demonstration schools at Manchester, the City Training College at Leeds, the Macdonald College near Montreal, the Normal School at Regina, the Normal School at Manila and various other institutions. In

England, in many cases, the expenses of training schools are borne by the Board of Education, and students under training receive from the same source bursaries or scholarships of the value of £ 20 each for men and £ 15 for women, or higher if they live in hostels, on contracting themselves to serve for five years as teachers. As Elementary teachers should possess a higher general qualification than is obtained by passing the mere elementary course, they are made to attend secondary schools for two years either as regular students or as Pupil teachers, that is to say, as those who are engaged in teaching for part of the time and in learning for the other part.

In regard to secondary teachers, the tendency now is to appoint only those who have a University degree, in which case, training is not considered essential. In fact, it is in the lower courses that trained teachers are peculiarly necessary. The Leeds Training College, for instance, was founded for training elementary teachers. It is almost universally felt that secondary teachers do not need training as they are generally University Graduates. At Birmingham and other modern Universities, teaching is included as one of the principal subjects for the B.A. degree; in India it forms a post-graduate course. Some of the college students in England who take up education as their optional branch, as we should call it, do not even read for the degree, but are content to prepare for the Diploma or Certificate which represent lower standards of proficiency.

Neither the Leeds nor the Birmingham institution is provided with practising schools of its own; the students go out to the neighbouring elementary schools for practical work, and they are content with about eight weeks of it for their whole course. The system of observation teachers, such as I found to be in excellent operation in America, is

also absent. At Leeds they borrow the children of a neighbouring school and practise on them. Summer schools for elementary teachers are held here and there but are not decided successes. The moral of all this is, and it is a moral which will receive added emphasis from the accounts that follow, that the growth of elementary schools should not be retarded by absurdly high requirements in regard to the qualifications of teachers; and that true statemanship in a backward country would be content with an imperfect improvisation for the time being, as promoting, in however rough a manner, the sovereign purpose of a rapid extension of education. The head of one of the most flourishing normal schools in England assured me that they had no first-rate elementary schools, in the sense of schools manned by first-rate teachers, that theirs were all second-rate ones, and that they did not bother to have first-rate ones till every place was first supplied with an adequate number of second-rate ones. At Regina, in Canada, I was shown round the normal school by Mr. Ball, the Deputy Minister of Education, who was kind enough to explain to me the various devices, necessarily imperfect, which they had to adopt in order to supply the rapidly growing number of schools in their new province with sufficient number of teachers. The Normal School certificates are of three grades. The qualifications for the first grade are a four years' course in a High school plus training; for the second grade three years' course in a High school plus training and for the third grade two years' course in a High school plus training. The second and third grade students take training for two months, and then go out to teach for a year or two, and then come back to take a further training for four months. First grade students complete their training by taking it only for four months at one stretch. The total amount of training

that the authorities in Alberta are satisfied with covers a period of four to six months, which enables them to send out from their training institutions from two to three batches of elementary teachers every year. No training is given in kindergarten, manual work, such as sloyd, and other modern developments. There are hardly any technical schools in these new Provinces which are almost entirely agricultural in their character. The demand for elementary teachers is overwhelming, and the department has enough to do in meeting these demands without undertaking the latest educational fashions or seeking perfect standards. During the last three or four years they have been opening new schools at the rate of 300 a year.

A new Canadian province is confronted by a problem similar to our own, *viz.*, how to provide every village or settlement with an elementary school of some kind *without delay*. The number of schools required is large, and if high standards of normal training are set up, the supply of teachers would be small and only very few classes could be opened every year. And so, like practical men, they have decided to make some kind of beginning immediately, leaving further improvements and the installation of higher standards to a future which they hope is not far distant.

MACDONALD COLLEGE.

The Macdonald College near Montreal consists of a college of Agriculture, a training institution, and a school of Household science. The number of teachers in the training department was fourteen and that of students 146. The School of Household Science was attended by 128 girls. The Macdonald College is thus a composite institution, the like of which does not exist in any part of the world. The departments included have however some logical relation.

In a country which is mainly agricultural, it is felt that all teachers should know something of scientific agriculture ; and women too have more need to be in close touch with agricultural pursuits than their sisters in big cities or in industrial countries like England. House-keeping means Farm-house keeping. There is thus much method in what at first sight appears to be a mad medley of departments.

PHILIPPINES.

In the Philippines as has been already observed, compulsory education has not yet been introduced, but education is being extended at an astounding rate. In 1912, 1,300 schools were newly opened. The difficulty about trained teachers is met by not worrying whether they are fully trained or not ! Ten years ago, some of the teachers could hardly manage to teach a second reader. However matters have much improved since then. In India too, the need today is to make a start, and then improve as we go on, and not wait till perfect conditions have presented themselves of their own sweet accord. The question of training teachers for the thousand schools which are being opened on an average every year in the Philippines is solved partially by the employment of supervising teachers, at so many for each district or such a number of schools. Their functions are to go round inspecting the schools, giving talks to teachers, holding model lessons, and acting in short, as peripatetic normal institutions. Special supervising teachers are also employed for lace work, embroidery, wood work, kindergarten and other subjects which have recently come into importance. The Normal school at Manila gives both academic and normal instruction to boys and girls. It is of High school grade in regard to general education, *i.e.*, its graduates are eligible for admission to the University with-

out further examination. The length of the Normal course varies from one to four years according to the nature of the certificate sought. For house-wifery and other special subjects even a few months of training suffice. Every student taking the full course must take two years of farming and two of some other industrial work like lace-making, house-keeping, household arts, embroidery, straw hat weaving, matting, textile weaving and bamboo furniture making.

EDUCATIONAL ORGANISATION OF THE PHILIPPINES.

The educational organisation of the Philippine Islands should be of interest to every Indian. The Philippines are a dependency ; they are governed by a democratic nation ; and they are governed with the sincere object of enabling them to attain to the dignity of Nationhood and Self-Government within a measurable time. In all these respects, there is a certain amount of resemblance between those Pacific Islands and India. And the resemblance becomes stronger if ethnic considerations are taken into account. The Filipino is a member of the Brown race, and being of Malay stock has probably some kinship with the South Indian. He is clannish or tribal in social development, and has been for ages under foreign domination. The mental and moral qualities engendered by these conditions have not been dissimilar to those engendered in us by a similar set of causes. The early rulers of the Philippines were known as Rajas. This together with a large number of Sanskrit and Dravidian expressions which are found in their language affords ample proof of the affinity subsisting between the two races.

One of the highest officials at Manila drew my attention to an article that had recently appeared in the 'Atlantic Monthly' by a well-informed American in which it was

contended that Indian education was a failure both from the point of view of the development of intellect and of character. It fitted the people neither for political, industrial, nor intellectual advancement, and its one object seemed to be to produce Government clerks. The Americans had to face many difficulties in the Philippines. Under the Spanish regime, the people were put down and kept down thoroughly. Education consisted of Grammar in the lower and Logic in the Higher grades. Many people could get education only by professing an unfelt desire to become priests, and naturally, such people gave up their studies just in time to escape the danger of initiation into the priesthood. Degrees were made very easy to get, and they led to nothing so much as to social distinction, which in its turn, led to political snobbery. When Americans commenced their work in education people asked "Well, what degrees does this lead to?"; and when they were told that degrees were nothing and that they had better learn something useful, the honest people wondered what lunatics their new masters were. At the beginning they would not send their children to schools. The higher classes were indignant that their children were made to sit along with the children of the common folk. A good two-thirds of the time allotted to teaching was taken up in collecting the boys together and keeping them there, and only a third was available for teaching, and often the aid of the police was sought for gathering the unwilling flock. This went on for nine long heart-breaking years. But American earnestness triumphed in the end. During the last five years the eagerness for education has become so strong, so general, that Government finds it difficult to raise the money for providing the necessary expansion of facilities. Put up a twenty-room building anywhere and it is filled up in five weeks and

people clamour for more buildings and more teachers. The Filipino has undergone a new birth and the younger generation laughs, as at a good joke, when told of the difficulties met with in inducing the people of the senior generation to learn a few things. Another obstacle that the American had to face was the violent dislike of the Filipino to leave his immediate neighbourhood for the sake of attending school at even a short distance. But now he has become more migratory. Now he goes anywhere and at any time, so that it has become easy to provide remote localities with competent teachers trained in the Normal schools of the bigger cities. The Filipino also objected at the beginning to co-education, but now co-education is fairly general, and meets with approval on all sides. To the modern Filipino the degradation experienced under Spanish rule has become almost a myth.

The entire population of the Islands is about ten millions, of which the Filipinos form more than three-fourths. It must be admitted that the Filipinos have certain advantages over us in India. They have no caste, and owing to the Christianisation of the whole race and the disappearance of the minor creeds and religions, there is more uniformity in manners and life than is to be found in India, which renders social commingling and residential arrangements in connection with schools and colleges easy. Women hold a high position in society; they go about freely, and engage in trade, business, or teaching without let or hindrance from ancient scriptures or modern prejudices. They figure largely on the teaching staffs of elementary schools, and show like all the women of the Far East a hereditary aptitude for needle work and embroidery.

The department of Education found that the texts used in the American schools were utterly useless for

Filipino boys and girls, and so undertook the arduous task of preparing special books possessing plenty of local color and interest.

The division of publications attached to the department of education at Manila has published the following works which throw a valuable light on the present condition of education in the Philippines:—

Courses of instruction for the public schools.

School law of the Philippine Islands.

Government in the United States.

Lessons on familiar Philippine animals.

Outlines of a year's course in Botany.

Lessons in English for Intermediate grades.

School and home gardening.

Courses in mechanical and free-hand drawing.

House-keeping and Household arts.

Athletic handbook.

Libraries for Philippine Public schools.

A course in Civics.

Rights and duties of the citizens in the Philippines.

Diseases of animals.

Cocoanut beetles.

Rice.

An introduction to the study of Colonial History.

Economic conditions in the Philippines.

Corn.

Good manners and right conduct (for use in primary grades).

The above list, which is by no means exhaustive, is a sufficient testimony to the remarkable activity of the Department in promoting and guiding the educational interests, in the larger sense of the term, of the Philippines.

PRINCIPLES UNDERLYING THE CONSTRUCTION OF THE CURRICULA.

As regards the general principles underlying the adoption of the curricula for the different grades, the following remarks from the 13th Annual report may be quoted :—
“Conditions in this country demand *early specialisation*. In the prescribed courses of study this specialisation is introduced in the first year of the Intermediate courses. (By Intermediate they mean something different from what we understand by that term according to the nomenclature of the Madras University). Six courses are provided :—The general course, the course for teaching, the course in farming, the trade course, the course in housekeeping, and household arts, and the course in business. To delay specialisation until the secondary course is reached would result in sending out from public schools the vast majority of the pupils without any special preparation to fit them for useful careers in the more or less humble stations of life to which the activities of the great majority of this or any country must be confined.”

“It is planned to establish at least one school offering the course of farming in each division. There are 259 Intermediate schools (*i.e.*, schools between the Primary and Secondary grades) offering a general course ; 96 housekeeping and household arts ; 49 teaching course ; 40 trade course ; 6 farming course ; and 2, courses in business.”

Normal teaching is made part of the curricula of what may be called the Intermediate or lower secondary schools which is one way of assuring a plentiful supply of efficient elementary teachers. I may also state that in every High school Normal training forms an optional branch in which students could specialise.

The Philippine Normal school, the Philippine school of Arts and Trades, the School of Household Industries, the Philippine School of Commerce and the School for Deaf and Blind are the only schools maintained by the Insular or Central Government. All other schools are either Provincial (District) or Municipal in character although they may receive aid from the Central Government.

The Central Government provides scholarships in the Philippine Normal School. Teachers accepting these scholarships or pensions *must agree to return to their respective districts and engage in teaching for a period equal to that during which they enjoyed such scholarships.* I gather that the conditions as to pay and service are settled beforehand so that there may be no room for bargaining or discontent after the student has graduated.

Occasionally the better and more hopeful teachers already in service are sent up to the Normal School to undergo training for a year.

High Schools;—There are 36 High Schools maintained by the different districts and every school is located on sites large enough to furnish ample play grounds. A base ball field, a quarter mile running track, and course for group games are found in connection with the majority of these schools.

Vacation assemblies of teachers are held every year.

The Bureau of education is conducting a vigorous campaign to promote the utilisation of corn as human food.

Arbor day is celebrated. It was reckoned that in 1912 some 340,000 trees were planted by children in public schools.

EDUCATIONAL ORGANISATION OF JAPAN.

The Educational organisation of Japan suffers from lack of funds which is nothing strange in view of the many burdens that this poor but gallant country has to shoulder. Out of a total expenditure of 554 million Yen, the sum budgeted for education is about 20 million; but to this must be added the prefectural and local contributions which doubtless amount to a large sum. Primary education is treated chiefly as a local concern, and Japan has adopted the policy of putting the burden of compulsory primary education on the Local Boards. This sometimes works harshly but relief could be given by imperial subventions. In 1913, some parts of the Islands were afflicted by a severe famine and many schools had to be closed because the localities could not pay the teachers and the children could not bring any lunch with them. The compulsory system was adopted in 1872. Religious education is forbidden but morals are taught. By morals are meant the public virtues underlying citizenship and service to the country.

The Meiji statesmen understood the importance of greater social harmony amongst the people as a factor in national strength and forced the pace of civilisation without leaving it to the slow, clumsy operation of what are called 'moral forces.'

The ideas underlying the Japanese educational system and its growth are these:—

(1) The chief aim of Elementary schools should be to establish a general basis of national education, having in view, also, the physical development of the children.

Elementary education is correlated with Local Self-government. The State lays down rules as to standard and salaries and appoints Inspectors: the localities must find

the money, a system not dissimilar to the one prevailing in Canada and the States.

(2) Education should increase the practical efficiency of the people for wage-earning and national purposes. A general education having no special aim constitutes a serious misdirection of energy. Prince Ito was very emphatic in his condemnation of purposeless systems of vague general culture.

(3) It therefore follows of necessity that education should be given in the vernaculars. (See pages 45-48 in Deputation Studies No. 1 where this basic principle is treated at greater length.)

All children are given a common education, in common schools. Boys in the middle, technical, and high schools are obliged to wear a prescribed uniform—a measure which has done much to promote social solidarity. During the holidays bona-fide-students could travel about the country at reduced railway fares, a measure which may be adopted here as a possible remedy for our sit-at-home habits. The problem of encouraging our people to travel will have to be borne in mind in connection with the higher degrees of the University which is proposed to be established at Mysore and the scholarship system therein.

AID TO POOR STUDENTS.

Loan funds are maintained by some of the higher schools and colleges, as is done in America.

In addition there are local Societies, privately organised, to give advances to deserving poor students. Some of these societies have accumulated funds of 100,000 Yen (Rs. 1½ lakhs) and are doing good work in their respective localities. The student undertakes to set apart a portion of

the income he may be able to earn in later years in repayment of the loan.

Heads of schools send periodical reports relative to the number of needy students under them.

RELIGIOUS TEACHING.

The Government issued the following regulation which seems to have had the effect of seriously jeopardising missionary education. Religious instruction is forbidden in public schools. Private schools may include it in their curriculum but then they forfeit the privilege of eligibility to the Junior Civil Service or of being ranked as Middle Schools. All schools desirous of being classed as Middle schools must conform to the regulation forbidding religious teaching. The Government may also have been actuated by the desire to counteract the reactionary tendencies of Shinto and especially Buddhist teachers. For Japan could ill afford at this juncture in her history to allow unfettered scope to quietistic, pietistic orthodoxies.

The Buddhist colleges have now little of that obscurantist obsession which characterised their previous history. Western philosophy occupies a chief place in the curricula and the priests are encouraged to travel to India, Burma, and China including the inaccessible regions of Turkestan in search of knowledge and manuscripts! One of the leading monasteries claims to have made in Tibet and parts of Central Asia discoveries no less magnificent than those of Dr. Stein and of equal historical and artistic importance. The priest must know the world, if he is to influence it for the better, and the world is not all compressed into ancient books or an equally ancient neighbourhood.

MORAL EDUCATION IN JAPAN.

This figure prominently in the curricula of Secondary schools. As will be seen from the details given below, it is secular in character and has much of the clearness of a practical code, kept clean and free from the admixture of abstruse metaphysics or the mystic dogmas of contentious creeds. In the regulation issued by the Department it is stated :—"Its objects are to give the culture and character necessary for men of middle or higher standing, and to encourage and promote the practice of virtues. The teaching should be done by explaining essential points of morals in connection with the daily life of pupils, by means of good words or maxims and examples of good deeds ; and be followed by a little more systematic exposition of the duties to self, to society, and to the state ; elements of ethics may also be given."

The syllabuses are :—

"Things to be borne in mind as pupils : Regulations of the school ; relations to the authorities of the school, duties of a pupil, etc.

Things to be borne in mind with respect to hygiene :—
Exercise, temperance in eating and drinking, cleanliness, clothing, dwelling, etc.

Things to be borne in mind relative to study : Tenacity of good purpose, industry, etc.

Things to be borne in mind in relation to friends :
Truth, righteousness, affection, mutual help.

Things to be borne in mind in relation to one's own bearing and action :—Value of time, order, courtesy, of speech, etc.

Things to be borne in mind in relation to home : filial piety, brothers and sisters.

Things to be borne in mind in relation to the state—

Respect for the Empire, observance of laws, sacrifice for public good, etc.

Things to be borne in mind in relation to society :

Respect for superiors, public virtues, etc.

Things to be borne in mind in relation to the cultivation of virtues : Principal virtues, danger of temptation, hindrances to good conduct, etc."

In the third and fourth years the teaching is more systematic and includes the following chief points:—

Obligation to self :—Body, health, life, mind, intellect, emotion, will, independence, occupation, property, and personality.

Obligations to family :—Parents and family, relations, ancestors, and servants

Obligations to Society :—Personality of others, personal property and honor of others, secrets, promises, confidence, gratitude, friendship, relation of elder and younger, of superior and inferior, of master and servant, women, public, co-operation, order of society, discipline, mutual rights and duties, corporate life.

Obligations to the State :—The Empire, Imperial house, constitution of State, patriotism, military service, taxation, public rights and duties, international relations, obligation to humanity.

Obligations to Nature :—Animals, beauty in nature, etc.

ASSOCIATIONS FOR PHYSICAL CULTURE.

The chief organisation is the Military Arts Association started at Kyoto in 1895. The present strength seems to be well over 1½ million and it has branches in all parts of

the country. The exercises practised are Jiu-jitsu, fencing, archery, and boating. An annual tournament is held at Kyoto, which is largely attended by participants from nearly all the districts.

There is also a special tournament for boys of middle and higher schools.

Next comes the national physical organisation society started some 19 years ago, which is subsidised by the Imperial house and Government. One of its chief functions is to train teachers in physical culture. In 1901 a women's department was opened.

There is a strong reform movement which advocates lessening of working hours and shortening the duration of education so as to enable boys to graduate at 20 or 21, and the dropping of one foreign language, (at present boys have to take up two in the higher courses) and the abolition of the special privileges of the Imperial University graduates. These matters are not of much interest to us except as showing the greater emphasis that is coming to be laid on physical culture and instruction through Japanese.

In France, too, as has been already noted, there is a general complaint that the school course is so severe as to affect the physical fitness of pupils, and reformers are endeavouring to have it lightened.

In all Japanese institutions—technical and commercial—the number of applicants for admission is out of all proportion to the accommodation available; so much so indeed, that I have been told that only from $\frac{1}{4}$ to $\frac{1}{3}$ of them are admitted. The demand for skilled labour is going up by leaps and bounds, and along with it the demand for technical training is increasing, but unfortunately the financial position of the Government does not seem to

permit of the speedy expansion of teaching facilities to the requisite dimensions. A leading educationist deplored the enforced idleness of a large number of young men who could not get admission into the proper schools at an age when they were very liable to be led astray or become gloomy and embittered through undeserved disappointment. It is indeed a pathetic spectacle—thousands of young men thirsting for useful knowledge being put off for years or else sent away for good because funds are lacking. There are some countries where it is easier to put up schools than to fill them ; in Japan it is easier to fill schools than to put them up !

Another most striking feature is the way the Japanese have modified and adapted things Western to suit their national genius. This is especially seen in the manner in which they have developed their mother tongue so as to fit it to the needs of modern progressive culture. Even some Indians occasionally make light of the Japanese as mere imitators of the West, trying to find in the more stable and steadier ways that are supposed to characterise their own behaviour, a complimentary excuse for their inaction, or else reaction ; but indeed such remarks come ill from a people who are trying to imitate a Western nation in the most inimitable of all features, its language.

Government publications, departmental reports, speeches of officials, and all things of interest to the people should be presented in the vernaculars. Otherwise it is difficult to maintain the ideal of Government by or for the people.

The Universities should be put on a vernacular basis, but not puranic of course, with English occupying an important role as a second language ; and every University should be made to regard the publication of vernacular books bearing on subjects of modern interest as one of its

primary functions. A University which does not look beyond its four walls is a purblind anachronism in this age of larger, more democratic, academic responsibilities. Unless science and the mother-tongue are brought into happy conjunction, progress can never be certain, reliable, or rapid, either sure-footed or swift-footed.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

The urgent need for vocational instruction or technical education owes its existence to the following causes:—

(a) The business rivalry of nations, especially of those which are aggressively pursuing the policy of conquering and cornering markets. (b) The general democratic tendency of the age which disapproves of the older type of education as fit only to produce a set of parasitical aristocrats or bureaucrats. (c) The teaching of a truer psychology which emphasises the importance of manual work and self expression, and regards them as better methods of developing the eye, hand, and the intellect than the mere exercise of memory which was the method practised under the literary traditions of old. In India, these considerations assume an added importance on account of the general backwardness of the country, and the antiquated methods of education, habits of mind, and conduct which still prevail so extensively.

Technical schools in England are of different kinds.

(1) **Day Technical Schools.**—Pupils are sometimes admitted a year before they complete their elementary education. The programme is not of a highly specialised character; the classes are usually held in the buildings of the Technical schools which are chiefly devoted for evening classes. In this way, unnecessary duplication of buildings, etc., is avoided; and there is also the further advantage

that the pupil gets accustomed to a place to which he may return as a member of the evening classes after he commences his industrial career.

London is the only city where Day Technical Schools have met with pronounced success. The causes are :—

(1) They have existed for a longer period in London than in the provincial cities where they are just being started.

(2) Life and industrial competition are probably less strenuous, and it is not necessary for boys to go out to earn their livelihood at so early an age as in the industrial centres of the North.

Technical schools in London are divided into two classes, the Junior and the Higher; the Junior are for pupils between fourteen and sixteen years of age; fourteen being the age at which boys complete their elementary education in London. The object of the junior technical schools is to prepare boys and girls for their vocations. The training is not too specialised. One-third of the time is devoted to general education. The demand for skilled labor being great, the pupils of these schools are easily absorbed by the industries.

Trade-subjects taught in the Day Technical Schools for boys are—Bakery, confectionery, printing, book-binding, building, carpentry, masonry, bricklaying, plumbing, painting, decorating, architectural drawing, carriage and motor-body building, engineering and metal-working, furniture, cabinet making, wood work, photo engraving, process work, professional cookery, (Chefs), professional waiting, tailoring, jewellery, engraving and wood carving.

The headmaster of the Borough Polytechnic at Southwark told me that in these technical institutions, they did their best to encourage social life. “Our object is to make

the boys look on the school as a second home. London is full of temptations, and this is one of the ways we have for keeping young persons from going astray." The teachers keep in close touch also with the 'old' boys. The Technical Day school covers the period between the age of fourteen, when the boy finishes his elementary course, and seventeen, when he can enter a higher technical or evening school. The nation is not keen on putting boys to earn their livelihood while too young, and fourteen is considered to be too tender an age; and as mere general education diminishes the industrial efficiency of a people, on which the greatness of England depends, this middle course has been devised wherein practical training and some general education are combined in order to enable the boys to become efficient wage-earners.

Post Industrial Study, that is to say, studies of people who have already entered a trade, performs a great social function by correcting the evils due to over-specialisation and extreme division of labour in the trades. In the industry the workman can attend only to a single process; in the school, he gets an idea of the connection of that process with the other processes which constitute the entire industry.

Evening Technical Schools.—There is no age limit for education in the Evening schools excepting in one direction. Boys cannot be admitted before they are sixteen or seventeen; they may be of any age above this. The boys of the Day Technical Schools are not allowed to attend evening classes; overwork is thus forbidden. In the evening classes the majority of boys are generally between eighteen and twenty five years of age.

These Evening schools vary widely in scope ranging from insignificant rural Continuation schools to institutions

which are next only to technical colleges. The following is their programme of work :—

(1) Preparatory and general : Reading, composition, writing, arithmetic, knowledge of common things, elementary principles of science, theory of music and vocal music.

(2) Literary and commercial : English, Latin, French, German, any other modern language, mercantile law and practice, commercial correspondence and office routine, book-keeping, and shorthand.

(3) Manual instruction.

(4) Science : Any general or special branch of science including mathematics.

(5) Home occupations and industries : needle-work, domestic economy, cookery, dressmaking and cutting out, laundry work, dairy work, gardening, cottage industries, ambulance, homenursing.

(6) Physical training.

(7) Arts.

Other subjects too may be provided ; and every school must make provision for at least two subjects, though only one is compulsory on each pupil. There is much elasticity in the arrangements in the country parts. Dairying and farming are taken up along with the regular elementary subjects.

Travelling Schools are intended to meet the wants of the less thickly populated rural districts. The County Committee maintains a Dairy school, or a travelling Forge, etc., which travel for forty weeks, giving a ten days' course in each locality. This feature seems to be a recent imitation of the American system of short period institutes. It has been noticed that the Continuation schools are not so popular as the Travelling schools amongst the villagers.

Preparatory Trade Schools:—There are in some places Preparatory Trade schools which rank as elementary institutions and not as secondary or Continuation schools. Manual work is held in such high estimation that in most of the ordinary elementary schools too in London, some amount of wood work is included and in a few, a little bit of metal work also.

The most remarkable feature in the methods adopted by the London Technical schools is the scientific manner in which subjects are correlated, as for example, mathematics and manual work. Arithmetic is taught in connection with geometry, and card-board work and metal-work are made to illustrate the propositions in geometry. Take for instance I—47 Euclid. For purposes of demonstration cardboard is cut into figures to show how the squares on the two sides are equal to the square on the hypotenuse. Again by means of cardboard work is shown how a rectilinear figure can be regarded as the sum of a certain number of triangles or prisms. This cardboard work is then reproduced on tin sheets. I saw wood beautifully worked so as to illustrate Euclid I—47. It is not possible to go into greater details of a technical character in a report mainly intended for the general reader. The managers of all the technical schools do their best to find situations for the boys when they leave the school. It is generally agreed that no technical school can be a success unless it is staffed by practical men who have had some training in Engineering which is the basic subject in Technology. Technical courses managed by ordinary graduates invite ridicule and failure.

Municipal Technological Institutes.—Most of the big towns in England maintain at their own expense large technical institutions. The Municipal Technical school

at Liverpool, the Central Technical school at Leeds, the Municipal school of Technology at Manchester, the Municipal school of Industrial Arts at Birmingham are amongst the largest and best equipped institutions of their kind in the country. The subjects taught include the following:—

Arts, biology, botany, brickwork, carpentry, bread-making, confectionery, drawing, electrical engineering, geology and mineralogy, gas engineering, heat-engines, machine construction, metal plate-work, motor car engineering, surveying and levelling, tailoring, telegraphy, chemistry including metallurgy, pharmaceutical chemistry leather analysis, boot and shoe manufacture, photography, printing, civil, mechanical, electrical and sanitary engineering, applied chemistry, textile industries, architecture, and mining.

Dr. Robertson's Views:—As was to be expected, the American and Canadian systems of Education, which lay greater emphasis than does the English on the method of training the intellect through activity and work, have very naturally assigned an important position to Technical education. Dr. Robertson, an eminent Canadian authority, is of opinion that in the later stages of Technical Education, instruction and practice should be conducted on what may be called a commercial scale. He would make manual training and gymnastics *compulsory all through the educational career of a student*. Vocational training should be a compulsory part of the elementary curricula also, because though not directly professional in character, it would give enough exercise in manual methods to correct the defects of book-learning, develop a taste for work, bring the boys or girls into more intimate touch with life, by making them useful and not merely ornamental members of the community, and act as a test

for determining whether the pupils are fitted for an academic or for an industrial life. The present system of literary education such as is found in India disqualifies a man for life's keen contest. And yet in one sense, India is in greater need of technical instruction than America, because the American continent can be colonised by trained people from Europe, whereas India could at best be only exploited.

Technical Education in Germany.—A good deal has been written on Technical Education in Germany which admittedly represents the highest excellence in this line. But so far as the gradation of institutions is concerned, there is not much difference between the German system and the English and American. There are all the varieties from mere handicraft and trade schools to Technological institutions of an advanced kind devoting special attention to research. The Technological High Schools of Germany form the climax of the organisation ; but as they are far too grand to suit our needs, or rather our capacities, they must be bowed out of court with the reverence due to impracticable ideals. As in the Universities, research takes precedence over teaching. It is to these High Schools, or Colleges as we should call them, that we owe the discovery or invention of processes that have revolutionised so many industries and almost completely destroyed Indigo cultivation in India.

The number of students attending these schools in 1903 was 16,826 and there was not a single institution with attendance of less than 500. The branches of study comprise : architecture, ship building, chemistry, metallurgy civil engineering, mechanical engineering, electro-technology, electro-chemistry, mining, general science, agriculture, commerce, forestry. There are special academies for (1) mining (2) forestry, (3) agriculture.

Middle and Lower Technical Schools have for their object the training of foremen and technical instructors and also affording future proprietors of industrial establishments opportunities of acquiring technical knowledge. Subjects taught include : business knowledge, mathematics, physics, chemistry, mechanics, component parts of machinery, knowledge of boilers, lifting apparatus, steam engines, motors, metallurgy, electro-technology, building construction, drawing. The course extends from two to four years of half-yearly courses.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES.

Answering to the changed point of view adopted by the Government of the Philippines in regard to the organisation of general education, there is a similar change in regard to the organisation of industrial education, which is both logical and proper.

“ It covers seven years of work, the four years of the Primary course and the three years of the Intermediate course, and provides instruction in agriculture, domestic science, needle-work in its various forms, weaving of Philippine fibres, and work in wood, iron, and clay. *No provision is made for passing pupils through the primary and intermediate grades without some industrial instruction.* In general, it may be said that the industrial work of the two lower primary grades consists of weaving for both boys and girls, sewing for girls, and gardening for the bigger boys. Work along similar lines is further developed in the last two years’ work of the Primary grades.”

“ *Specialisation is begun at once in the Intermediate grades.*—Six courses are provided : the general course, the course for teaching, the course in farming, the trade course, the course in housekeeping and household arts and the course in business. *The general course,* although it is more

purely academic than the others, *still provides for industrial work in every way.*"

Seven hundred and thirty-six teachers give their entire time to industrial work. Of these thirty-two are division industrial supervisors and assistants; one hundred and fifteen are domestic science teachers; one hundred and one are trade school and shop teachers, the remainder being instructors in the various lines of handicraft. In addition, several hundred teachers give part of their time and attention to industrial instruction. As a result of this organisation almost every school in the Philippines provides industrial work in one form or another. Practically every pupil in the Primary and Intermediate grades is learning to do something with his hands—a condition sought by up-to-date schools everywhere as a matter of educational principle, irrespective of economic considerations.

Attendance at the different Trades.—

Trades and shop work	...	19,958
Gardening and farming	...	100,648
Girls doing garden work	...	12,969
Girls studying house-keeping and household Arts	...	83,193
Girls learning lace work	...	12,993
Girls learning embroidery	...	12,625
Cooking		6,660
Hat making—		
Boys		10,456
Girls		3,031
Mat making—	. .	
Pupils		29,527
Baskets—		
Pupils		773,835

Until 1910, home-gardens were practically unknown.'

For the year 1911-12, there were 22,958 home-gardens ; for 1912-13 the number went up to 35,719 gardens cultivated by pupils themselves at their homes and modelled closely on the plots which they worked at the school garden.

“ Without question the garden feature of the school programme is largely responsible for the marked improvement in the quality and quantity of fresh vegetables now available in the public markets all over the islands. This work logically leads up to the course in farming which this Bureau is endeavouring to establish in at least one farm school in each district.” **REPORT OF THE BUREAU OF EDUCATION.**

In the trade and industrial schools, as soon as a pupil attains a certain degree of skill, he is permitted to do commercial work and receive pay for it.

THE 1913 EXHIBITION OF SCHOOL INDUSTRIAL WORK.

Number of units displayed	... 23,305
Value of the goods ...	... 57,184 Pesos
(1 Peso is roughly equal to a rupee and a half)	
Value of goods sold ...	... 40,114 P.

“ Much work has been done in the selection of typical Philippine designs which will be applied to the articles produced from materials grown in the Philippines. Foreign designs will be followed for the most part in needle-work with the possible exception of that in piña and jusi. A large body of information has been collected relative to opportunities in various industries which will be used by the Bureau in advising pupils of the lines of work they might profitably pursue during and after their school courses.”

No where in the world is the correlation between life and education so complete or fruitful as in the Philippines.

A large number of American teachers are employed as supervising teachers for elementary schools, and as class teachers in secondary and industrial schools.

SOME STATISTICS OF EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES.

Total population of Filipinos	...	7,533,351
School population	...	1,256,046
School attendance	...	418,673
Percentage of attendance to school population is 26.		

There were held in 1912-13, 146 Normal Institutes or temporary classes extending from three weeks to six and attended by some 5,200 students. The instructors in these institutes were :—

	Men.	Women.
Americans ...	164	25
Filipinos ...	171	83

Normal institutes of this kind are another device for giving some training to teachers and keeping them up to the scratch.

The number and distribution of American teachers, which is the most important cause for the rapid advancement of Filipino education, are as follows :—

	Men.	Women.
In the primary grades	...	15
In the intermediate grades	76	57
Secondary schools	... 96	57
Industrial schools —		
(a) Class work	... 37	39
(b) Supervision work	... 38	4
Supervising teachers	... 129	7
Total	... 446	212

I hold that it is this distribution of capable, earnest, single-minded foreign workers in the cause of Filipino education amongst all the grades and ranks of the service, including the inferior, that explains the pronounced superiority of Filipino schools to Indian though they are not such long established institutions as ours.

The number of Filipino teachers for the same grades as the above is men, 930, women, 224.

The large number and percentage of teacherships filled by women, in which respect we are certainly far behind the Filipinos, also deserves to be noted.

SPECIAL INSTITUTIONS AT MANILA.

Amongst the institutions at Manila requiring special mention are the following :—

(1) **The School of Household Industries** which is quite an unique institution.

No general education is given; literacy of any kind is not demanded as a condition for admittance; girls from the provinces, that is to say districts, as we should say, are brought here and taught lace-making and embroidery; all their expenses are met by the Government, including expenses of boarding. The length of the course is eight months, after which time, they are sent back to their villages. The object of the Government is to train the women to organise these industries throughout the Islands. When they go back, it is believed, they would gather their neighbours around them and get enough material produced to make marketing feasible. As, in hot climates, women devote a good part of the day to sleep, gossip and other unproductive pursuits, it is believed that industries of this type, which are eminently sedentary industries of leisure hours, have a big future in the tropics. The Boarding

school system is adopted; and the number of pupils for which there is accommodation is 150. At the time of my visit I was informed that already two batches of the total strength of about 200 had gone forth trained well enough for the purpose. The boarders could earn a small wage for themselves by overtime if they cared to. Incidentally, these village dames and maidens are taught how to live hygienically in the hope that they would spread this knowledge also in the villages and help to civilise life in the remoter parts.

(2) **The Sales Agency.**—This is an institution established by the Government to create markets for articles which, it is believed, will have a market when properly advertised and displayed. The Agency buys curios and other articles not yet possessing a regular market from mofussil parts, and exhibits them for sale in order to create a market and bring producers and dealers together. It has been established as a temporary expedient.

(3) **The Philippine School of Arts and Trades.**—This best illustrates the modified type of industrial education adopted by the Government as best fitted for the conditions in the Philippines, and as such even the general reader in India may be interested in knowing some of the details.

THE PHILIPPINE SCHOOL OF ARTS AND TRADES.

Courses—Academic, drawing and design, machine shop practice, woodworking, wheelwrighting, blacksmithing ceramics, stationary, engineering, automobile operation, drafting, normal course for industrial teachers and preparatory engineering. Length of course: 4 years.

Attendance: over 500. Something like 300 applicants had to be refused for want of room in 1912.

No one is admitted without a written promise to follow the trade pursued in school. This is done because under the Spanish regime people took up courses for getting degrees, and got degrees for acquiring social distinction or an occasional Government job. If a pupil has no mechanical bent of mind, he is advised to leave. Applicants must pass a physical test, and be more than fourteen years of age as the shop-work can't be adequately performed by weak people.

No fees or tuition charges are levied.

No one is allowed to remain in the same grade for more than two years. He must either pass or quit. Two unexcused absences in a month qualify one for expulsion.

Fifty pupils earn board and lodging by working as house-boys out of school hours. Seventy five more earn part of their expenses as clerks, stable boys, painters, gardeners, cigar makers, teachers, etc. If a pupil has funds for the first year, the rest of the course may be conducted on self-supporting lines—such are the opportunities for work and the spirit to undertake it created by the Americans!

All scholarship holders should contract to serve the Government or Municipality granting the scholarships for as long a period as they receive the "pensions." The conditions of service are, I believe, agreed to beforehand and sureties taken.

Visits of inspection to large commercial and manufacturing plants in the city are made by the shop classes.

Plan of Instruction—Conditions in the Philippines are different from those in America. There are no large factories in such numbers as to absorb the skilled labour trained in these schools; therefore the graduates are in many cases obliged to organise independent businesses of their own on a small scale. This involves the adoption of two

important principles: (1) Boys must be trained to do not isolated pieces, like a chair or table, but the entire group of articles that go together. For instance, they must know something of the full art of furniture making. This in its turn requires skill in general *design* for satisfactory execution. (2) Since he is both manufacturer and shop keeper, the student must also be trained in the commercial side of business, in estimating cost of materials, etc. So the problem is unlike what it is in America and more like what it is in India.

In America, commercial work for public offices or private persons is not accepted as interfering with the pure spirit of instruction. But here such orders are directly helpful, and so are welcomed. Orders for single articles, or a large number of single articles, are not taken, but only for commercial groups of things. The great bulk of commercial works requires special designing, which necessitates preliminary work in drafting to prevent the possibility of doing work in a purely mechanical manner. For these jobs, work orders are made, estimates prepared, account is kept of materials issued, labour is reported on daily slips, and tools are checked in and out by the pupils themselves.

Academic work is correlated with the industrial. Emphasis is placed on literature dealing with industrial subjects and current periodicals are read in the class to stimulate the reading habit. To train the boys to self-government, they are made to organise school councils, provincial boards, and general parliaments.

Amongst the courses given is one on Manners and Right Conduct.

The Filipinos are racially not very different, or at all events, very superior to us, and yet these schools owing to

the presence of teachers combining skill with enthusiasm have accomplished far more in a few years than ours have done during decades of unprogressive existence.

I carefully went over this institution and was struck by the business manner in which everything was done. Punctuality in meeting obligations and executing orders is rigorously enforced. The finish of the work is splendid. I examined three large round tables and the joining of the planks was so delicately managed that I could not tell if they were made of single pieces of wood or not. There is a kind of wood called Nara here, which has a fine rich colour like Mahogany—and the drawing room sets made of that wood were most attractive. The best testimony to the success of this institution as a *business* organisation as well, is seen in the amount of commercial work accomplished in 1913, the returns from which totalled 25,000 pesos (or Rs. 37,500).

Local bodies like Municipalities and Provincial (that is to say, district) Governments encourage industrial schools by giving orders, for furniture, etc., but it must be remembered that the Philippine Industrial Schools turn out work which does not bear manifest traces of amateurishness and slovenliness, and which further is executed with particular regard to punctuality.

4. The Bureau of Science—This is devoted chiefly to investigation work with a view to determine the industrial possibilities of the Islands. Research undertaken on behalf of private agencies has to be paid for; but the fees are small and intended only to prevent idle enquiries. The chief divisions are:—

(A) **A Biological Laboratory**:—which in addition to routine work is making special investigation into plague, rabies, various kinds of sera and other matters of health

interest. The Botanical section is experimenting with plants imported from India, China, and other countries.

The Entomological section investigates pests, and injurious insects; and gives both written and oral information on sericulture.

The Government has arranged a campaign against flies and mosquitoes; and it is reported that much success has attended its efforts. It is indeed curious that though Manila has the same climate as Madras,—damp heat being the chief and most disagreeable feature—there were no flies in the hotel I was staying in, either in sleeping rooms or the dining hall. The Americans consider flies a much more serious menace to health than mosquitoes and are most sarcastic about the English for tamely submitting to the fly nuisance without attempting remedial measures. Some of the Municipalities in America employ special officers to organise the destruction of flies. Experiments are carried on in the treatment of tobacco and cigars with a view to lessening the ravages of the cigarette beetle; insects which breed in horse manure and other excreta, and insects attacking castor oil plant which is a likely food plant for the Eri Silkworm are also receiving attention.

(B) **The Chemical Laboratory.**—In addition to the routine work the Inorganic section of this laboratory is conducting a complete study of soils and making enquiries into the economic possibilities of a local sand lime brick industry and other business questions.

The Organic section is in charge of the enforcement of the Pure Food Act. More than two thousand samples were examined in 1912. It further is engaged in an investigation of copra and the amount of oil contained in the different varieties of it; of the chemical properties of

Philippine fruits in order to determine their food value and their adaptability for making flavouring syrups and wines ; of the most economic ways of bleaching fibres with the object of establishing the hat-making trade ; of buffalo milk (buffalo is the most important domestic animal in the Islands) ; of sunlight and sunlight reactions, in order to determine the question of the residence of white men in the tropics ; of native food products and the indigenous methods of preparing them ; and generally all subjects of hygienic or economic interest such as extraction of essential oils from woods, testing fibres, water analysis, and improvement in the indigenous manufacture of salt.

The best testimony to the thoroughness and scientific value of the work of the Americans in regard to the two great essentials of life—food and water—is found in the enormous decrease in death rate amongst the people. In no country in the world have such astonishingly vast results been produced in such a short space of time. Till recently the Filipinos were using water from shallow wells, as we do, which is easily contaminated, but now this evil is getting rarer and rarer every year. There were already in 1913, over 900 artesian wells at depths ranging from 400 to 1,000 feet, and the Government had organised a vigorous artesian well campaign as it is called.

Extension of knowledge is in the very blood of the Americans—part of their democratic heritage I suppose—and so this Bureau arranges for a few lectures, though its main occupation is research and not teaching. Some of the members are also engaged as professors of the University ; but the arrangement is of doubtful value.

The best testimony to the reality of the Filipino renaissance is found in the eagerness with which people have taken to education and the manner in which they are

supporting it by voluntary contributions. In 1912, the kind and value of voluntary contributions were as follows:—

	Pesos.
Industrial supplies, materials, etc. ...	105,205
House rent	9,492
Lumber	13,022
School sites	20,334
Sand and gravel	3,054
Labour	18,766
Library books	3,623
Other donations	16,437
Total ... (about)	198,545

Statistics are kept of the occupations of the Secondary and University graduates in order to judge how exactly education was affecting the people, whether they were growing more self-reliant or not, whether they were fonder of service or independent occupations connected with industry or commerce, and what the general, social, and economic effects of this new and powerful factor were in a country so different from America in its ethnic, historical and social conditions.

Mr. Jernegan thus describes the spirit in which education is organised and conducted in the Philippines:—

“These schools are supported by a tax of one-fourth of one per cent. of the assessed valuation of the lands, and improvements thereon, of the municipalities, and by certain funds from the internal revenue receipts. The superintending force, however, including all American teachers and a number of Filipino teachers, and the text-books, are at present a charge of the Insular Government. The superior wealth of the Insular Government renders possible frequent aid to the municipal and provincial schools, aid which will

be withdrawn as soon as the local centres of education become sufficiently prosperous to maintain their own schools. *There is no burden of taxation which more properly belongs wholly to a municipality than that for its schools.* The ambition of every municipality should be to make every possible sacrifice both as a municipality and by the gifts of private citizens to support its local schools from its own funds.

“Modern Education is more practical than that of former times. The most pressing wants of the Philippines are better homes, better methods of cultivation, and the extension of the arts and industries. It is a part of the duty of education to provide instruction in correct housekeeping and to prepare the young for self-successful support as well as to train the literary and artistic faculties of the mind and to give instruction in science and history. The demands of modern citizenship are so great, and the life of a modern civilised people is so varied and rich in its activities, that no single phase of education can wisely be allowed to receive more than its due share of attention. The schools exist not to form all the youth in one mould, but to give to each the particular opportunity to develop his own powers in the way that will be most useful to himself and to his country.”

TECHNICAL EDUCATION IN JAPAN.

It is not necessary to say much on the subject of Technical Schools in Japan. They are replicas of American institutions, quite up-to-date in equipment, and in every way suited to give stimulus and guidance to the industrial activities of the country. Amongst the more notable institutions may be mentioned the following:—

• (1) **The Higher Technological School of Tokyo:** which

provides instruction, in the following subjects, *viz.*—dyeing, ceramics, applied chemistry, mechanical engineering, electricity, industrial designs, and architecture.

- (2) **The School of Apprentices:** in which the following ten courses are provided, *viz.*, wood-work, metal work, fine metal work, electricity, weaving, dyeing, printing, tanning, lacquer work, and ceramics.
- (3) **Kyoto Higher Technical School** which includes the following divisions, *viz.*, dyeing, weaving, and decorative designing.
- (4) **Minor Institutions** such as the Nautical School, the School of Mining at Akita and quite a large number of schools for agriculture and other industries.

The technical institutions of Japan are divided into three classes, *viz.*, Higher schools, schools of the Secondary grade, and Apprentice schools. The general course given in the Higher schools has already been touched upon. The curricula of the Secondary Technical schools comprise reading, composition, mathematics, physics, chemistry, drawing, gymnastics, and practical training in technical subjects. Geography, history, foreign languages, political economy, book-keeping, etc., may be taken up as additional subjects according to circumstances. The technical subjects in which a practical training is given include the following:—Engineering, metal work, shipbuilding, electricity, wood-work, mining, dyeing, ceramics, and designing.

Most of the Apprentice schools are managed by local bodies. The subjects taught are:—Arithmetic, geometry, physics, chemistry, drawing and practical training in one or more technical subjects. Morals are always included, but these really deal more with the duties of citizenship, and good manners than with abstract ethical principles.

Technical Continuation schools too are to be found but these are not of much importance.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

For a long time, Commercial education meant no more than training in office work and clerks' courses such as book-keeping, and typewriting. But in recent years, it has been gradually undergoing reorganisation on more scientific lines. The study of industrial and economic conditions, of foreign languages, and the markets of special commodities is often included.

The Commercial Schools in Italy—are mostly managed by the local bodies, and since the efficiency of the local bodies in Italy is at a low ebb, they are not regarded as being in a very satisfactory condition. They are divided into three classes, Lower, Middle, and Higher. Here is a rough outline of the programme of work of the Commercial School at Bologna:—French, English, Spanish, political and economic history, physical, political and commercial geography, political economy and statistics, commercial and industrial laws and legislation, arithmetic and algebra, banking and mercantile calculus, actuarial work, chemistry, tariff, transport laws, professional ethics, practical commerce, stenography, book-keeping.

In the City of Bristol School of Commerce Technology is included as part of the commercial courses taught. In the course for the Senior Certificate are included modern languages, inorganic chemistry, magnetism and electricity. The technological section of the school includes book-binding, boot and shoe manufacture, bread making, building construction, carpentry and joinery, brass work, embroidery, and engineering. One noteworthy feature of most of the existing vocational institutions is that

they are of a composite character. Almost all the technical schools provide courses in commerce, and almost all the commercial schools provide courses in technology. For, after all, are not industry and trade two aspects of the same business reality? There cannot be any commerce without industry, and a good deal of the industry of the present time is engaged in producing articles for sale and not for direct consumption. This intimacy between industry and commerce is reflected in the newer educational organisations bearing on these subjects.

Philippine School of Commerce.—Perhaps, a short description of Philippine School of Commerce may not be out of place here.

Day Classes.—Staff, About 13 teachers.

Night Classes.—Staff, About 4 teachers.

Object.—To train people for clerical service under Government or in business houses.

All applicants for admission must have completed the Intermediate course (corresponding roughly to our Lower Secondary course at least). High School graduates are given advanced standing. There is a one year course in stenography, to which only High School graduates are eligible.

About 56 pupils earn all or a part of their expenses, working as houseboys, clerks, stenographers, book-keepers, and teachers.

Neatness, accuracy, punctuality, industry, and reliability—the fundamental business virtues—are insisted upon. Pupils who do not possess or acquire such habits are encouraged to leave the school. The good reputation of the school demands that certificates or diplomas should not be granted to those that are likely to prove unreliable.

In connection with the course in commerce and study of commercial geography, a Commercial Museum is maintained which has now a collection of about 2,200 specimens, illustrating the raw materials of commerce, processes of manufacture, varieties and grades of finished products of the different industries, and methods of packing and transportation. What is most remarkable is that nearly all the specimens have been obtained through the aid of the pupils in the Commercial Geography classes.

A Night School is conducted, meeting for five nights a week, for the accommodation of young men and women who are employed during the day. The subjects taught are arithmetic, book-keeping, business correspondence, English, stenography and typewriting.

Courses of Study.—(a) Book-keeping course; (b) The four-year course in commerce; (c) The two-year stenography course; (d) The one-year course in stenography for High School graduates.

It is said that a good stenographer has a more prosperous career before him than the majority of the graduates of the Law College. Mercantile firms offer high salaries to all who are really capable.

The Higher course includes (1) Courses in Government accounting, for those who aim to become municipal or provincial treasurers. (2) Investigation of special lines of business. This consists of reports on information derived from books on the subject, and observation, and actual experience during vacations or afternoons.

There are many industries in the Philippines open to young men which require but little capital. Young women too, have an opportunity along business lines, especially, those connected with the household industries such as weaving, embroidery, and the canning and

preserving of home-grown vegetables and fruits. Nearly all the industries mentioned below may be taken up with either the production or the brokerage end in view. Such investigation should leave in the pupil's mind a definite knowledge of the manner of producing the articles; the places where they are produced; their uses, prices, and market conditions, both domestic and foreign; and the methods to be followed when investigating an industry.

Some of the special lines of business recommended for investigation are: Eggs and poultry, pork products, firewood, rattan, bamboo, nipa, Philippine hats, embroidery, salt, pottery, native cloth, chocolate, and fruit.

COMMERCIAL EDUCATION IN JAPAN.

The Japanese have devoted particular attention to the development of commercial education. This zeal probably owes its origin to the lamentable degradation in commercial morals produced in the people by the feudal regime under which they lived for many centuries and which by despising the artisan and the merchant very naturally also depressed them in the scale of society and character.

The Tokyo Higher Commercial School is the leading institution. Its programme of work is as follows:—

Schedule of Studies in the Preparatory Course.—Commercial ethics; Japanese penmanship; Japanese composition; mathematics; book-keeping; applied physics; applied chemistry; first principles of law; first principles of economics; English; French, Spanish, German, Italian, Chinese, Russian or Korean; gymnastics.

Schedule of Studies in the Principle Course. Commercial ethics, commercial correspondence, commercial arithmetic, commercial geography, commercial history;

book-keeping, mechanical engineering, commercial products, economics, finance, statistics, private law, law of bankruptcy, commercial administrative law, international law, English, French, Spanish, German, Italian, Chinese, Russian or Korean, commercial science, commercial practice, gymnastics.

Loan Scholarships.—A loan scholarship, not exceeding one-hundred yen per annum, may be allowed to a student who has proved himself to be of worthy ability and character, but is unable to meet his school expenses, the amount of the same to be determined according to the application of such student and the discretion of the Director.

A student desirous of receiving the above loan shall apply in writing to the Director of the school, stating his reasons for making such application, the same to be signed by two sureties residing in Tokyo.

Those who have received the above loan shall, after graduation, be under obligation to follow the instructions of the Director regarding their employment, etc., until they shall have returned the sum borrowed.

In case any Government office, company, or private person offers a loan scholarship to be given to a student with the object of employing him after graduation, and deposits the same with the school authorities, a contract shall be drawn up between the parties concerned.

The commercial schools also are divided into higher and lower schools. In the lower schools, which are chiefly maintained by local bodies, pupils who have finished their primary education could be admitted.

A Commercial Museum.—In connection with the Tokyo Higher school of commerce, there is a Commercial Museum located in one of the school buildings with the object of affording the students an opportunity for the

practical study of the principal commercial products both domestic and foreign. The museum is arranged in two sections, one containing specimens of the latest articles of export and import, and the other objects for reference. A special room is provided for Chinese products. The articles in the first section are renewed from year to year by new purchases. The museum is so arranged that the student may be able to acquire a knowledge of the qualities of various articles, the localities of their production, prices, markets, and the processes of their manufacture. The museum is managed by a committee appointed from among the professors, and is intended some day to be thrown open to the public.

The specimens are classed under the following heads:—
DIVISION I.—*Industrial Products*.—

Class.

1. Textile fabrics.
 Raw materials.
 Finished products.
2. Lacquer ware.
3. Ceramics.
4. Metal ware.
5. Cloisonne.
6. Glass-ware,
7. Straw-braid.
8. Paper and paper ware.
9. Matting.
10. Matches.
11. Leather and leather goods.
12. Bamboo and wooden ware.
13. Oils, wax, and rubber ware.
14. Dyes, paints, and other chemicals.
15. Miscellaneous articles.

DIVISION II.—*Agricultural and Marine Products.*—

- Class 1. Rice and other cereals.
 2. Tea and coffee.
 3. Sugar.
 4. Indigo and tobacco.
 5. Forestry products.
 6. Marine products.

DIVISION III.—*Mineral Products and Metal Products.*—

- Class 1. Mineral products.
 2. Cutlery.

The Commercial Teachers' Training Institute, was established in the Tokyo Higher Commercial School in accordance with the Regulation for the training of Technical teachers issued by the Department of Education in March 1899, for the purpose of training those who wish to become teachers in commercial schools and like schools of lower grade. It was placed under the control of the Director of the Higher Commercial School.

Commercial Exhibits:—I noticed that in more than one city in Europe, the people maintained a permanent exhibition of their manufactures, which renders marketing easier, as it enables visitors to decide on their purchases easily after a survey of the entire field. Europeans excel us even more in marketing than in production. India is rich in wares of various kinds, for which there is quite a rage at the present time in foreign countries, and yet we do not take advantage of this opportunity to profit ourselves, because, we lack the gift and spirit of advertising and organising. Orders given are promptly executed in Europe, but this is not always the case in India.

Municipal Museums.—In addition to exhibits, which are mainly intended to promote sales and bring custom, the more

important cities maintain museums, the chief purpose of which is to serve as a collection of models for the manufacturers. One of the grandest collections of this kind in Europe is the museum of Industrial Arts at Berlin. The specimens are arranged in what may be called a chronological order. Some specimens of furniture, metal work, etc., date from the 13th century and earlier. A few of the departments represented are:—(1) Metal work:—bronzes, bolts, locks, swords, boxes, clocks, etc., (2) Glass, (3) Porcelain, (4) furniture—the chief attraction in the building and (5) carpets. About ten halls are assigned only to furniture. India figures in the jewellery department; China, Japan, Turkey and Persia in ceramics and carpets. There is also a good collection of book-bindings.

The museum is useful for students of art and industries. Near by is an industrial school.

It will be acknowledged that a collection of models should be formed in Mysore for the improvement of Industrial education. When I was in America in 1906, I noticed at the Pratt Institute, New York, some 300 samples of Indian carpets! I wonder if such a collection exists in India! I was informed that the Management of the Institute sent out a committee of experts to India for making collections illustrative of our art industries.

Foreign Exhibits.—The Americans are great believers in increasing export trade by means of exhibits of their wares in foreign countries. Some years ago I saw a fine exhibit of Japanese furniture in the Natural History Museum at New York; and I was told that that brought the Japanese firm concerned a large number of orders. The experiment is worth trying and it could be done if the Native States and the Merchants in India co-operate. If a number of Governments would sanction a monthly grant and the big merchants

also give handsome contributions, then Indian Wares—especially art works for which there is a demand—could be exhibited at some of the important capitals of the world, and the managers, under whose charge they are placed, set to do the work of consular agents for supplying information and pushing on trade. Governments should co-operate ; for as things are at present our merchants and chambers of commerce cannot guarantee the permanence of such an organisation ; and if you want good men to act as agents—and none but real good men could make it a success—they must have the certainty of a decent career.

Commercial Exhibits in Japan.—In Japan too each big city has a commercial museum of its own in which the chief local products are displayed by the merchants who rent a portion of the building for putting up their exhibits. There are commercial museums at Tokyo, Nagasaki, and other important centres, maintained by Municipalities. Merchants rent portions of the building to exhibit their goods ; the prices are clearly marked and visitors could buy them if they want. Girls are largely employed as attendants in charge.

The Central Government too maintains a few. Domestic Exhibitions are to be held once in four years ; and Japan has always been well represented in world fairs. The chief object of these activities is the promotion of foreign trade by facilitating an inspection of products by foreign tourists and commercial agents. All the large railway stations too contain exhibits set up by local merchants ; and in the art of salesmanship Japanese men and women—and women figure largely as shop assistants—are the equals of any people in the world. The way they arrange things and dress their windows is a pretty study in the æsthetics of commerce. Many Europeans think

that Japanese shops are more attractive and tastefully got up than their own. Add to this the supreme beauty of their manners; the courtesy and charm of their reception—well, you cannot come away without buying something whether you wanted it or not!

Berlitz School.—Most towns, even the smaller ones in the West could boast of Berlitz schools for modern languages. Shopkeepers and people of that type attend them for six months or so, and in that time acquire sufficient facility in English, French, or German to be able to conduct their transactions with foreigners in the language of the foreigners. For instance, in many parts of France and especially the south coast, shop assistants, and hotel-servants are able to talk English which is the language of the chief and most considerable section of the visitors to those parts.

TECHNICAL EDUCATION.

The details given in the foregoing pages will have suggested the lines on which reform should proceed in India. Probably the system adopted in the Philippines would strike most readers as extremely helpful.

The following observations are submitted for consideration :—

(1) Technical education should leaven more strongly than it does now the general system of education in this country. Technical classes should be housed in the same buildings as the general, and must not be treated as things apart. It should be possible for students to take them along with or as alternatives to some general lessons.

(2) It should form an essential part of the High school and College curricula. In the college classes it may be made an alternative to athletics or physical culture, which too should figure as a compulsory subject. Technical

and Vocational schools must be abolished as separate institutions and merged in the General schools. This will conduce to economy and efficiency, and take away the stigma of inferiority from them.

(3) The more specialised part of technical education, *viz.*, vocational instruction pertaining to particular trades or businesses, should be encouraged; and this could best be done by making them also parts of general education, and by discontinuing the present policy of establishing them as separate schools, isolated, and consequently unattractive.

The Industrial Schools of Mysore are far inferior to similar institutions in the Philippines, and this defect is perhaps due to lack of efficient management. If we could import, say for a period of ten years, teachers of the type now serving in the Philippines, our industrial schools would become a striking success, not only from the educational but from a financial point of view. Doubtless this measure would be very expensive; but this is one of the departments in which the presence of foreign experts is absolutely essential, and the sooner Government faces this problem resolutely the better it would be for the industrial training and prospects of the State.

As in the Philippines here too artisans should be trained to do not isolated pieces of work but the entire group of things to which such pieces belong as parts. It is no use training a man to make a chair or a table when there are no big furniture firms to give him employment. If, on the other hand, he is trained to supply the entire set of furniture himself, he would be able to open an independent shop and pursue the trade on a small-capital basis.

In some of the chief towns it would be well to open central institutes for trade education whether for men or

for women and attract pupils by means of scholarships on condition that they go back to their own taluks and establish businesses there for a certain period of time. Here again, the organisation of the Philippines Home Industries School will serve as an example. Some such measure as this is necessary to disseminate technical knowledge amongst the entire populace and thus raise the level of industrial skill in the State.

Whether it be in matters pertaining to general education or to technical and vocational pursuits, persons living in isolation in mofussil parts are apt to degenerate unless they are kept in constant touch with the progress of knowledge by means of publications in the Vernacular, itinerant lecturers and other forms of Extension work. For want of Extension work, the State loses much of the benefit that it might otherwise derive from a generous system of elementary education. Incidentally, Extension lecturers will benefit the rural teachers as well.

The Industrial survey of the State recently completed would doubtless have suggested the economic possibilities of the State, which should be the regulating factors in the organisation of technical education. An examination of what is being done in Bengal and other places may be of value as indicating the trades that are most likely to flourish in the present condition of the country and the methods by which their growth may be stimulated.

Whatever is done in our schools, should be done on a commercial scale. Perhaps public bodies could be directed to give their custom to these institutions.

As in Japan, or rather very much more so than in Japan, our artisans and business men have to be taught the elements of business method and morality, as without these, technical excellence will not be able to effect in-

dustrial revival. People do not produce except to sell; and not much can be sold unless custom is attracted and kept. It is possible that of the two evils, lack of technical knowledge and lack of business manners, the latter is the more serious one in India. In Japan the principles and practice of business credit occupy a leading part in the curricula and conduct of industrial and commercial schools, and the art of marketing receives every attention.

Commercial museums in the different district and hobli centres will have some educational value, while also serving as emporia for sale of goods exhibited.

The problem of developing business morality seems to have been solved in Japan in great measure by the institution and legislative recognition of guilds, membership of which naturally entails a certain standard of conduct. Where public opinion is so indifferent, as it seems to be in India, to public or business morals, the creation of Guilds and special corporations may be the only means of generating a healthy popular sentiment. I expect that with the increase in Joint Stock companies and other enterprises, the ethics of corporate life will show a general improvement.

Our shop-keepers must also learn the value of courtesy towards customers and straight honest dealing. All bargaining is waste of time; quicker sales at fair prices are more profitable than occasional gains made by means of lengthy disputation and wrangling. If only our people realise that there is money in good manners, and fair, fixed prices, they would easily cut out foreign firms in retail trade, as they could sell cheaper.

It will be noticed that no hard and fast distinction is drawn between technical and commercial schools or between technical and commercial schools for men and those for women. Important institutions like the Borough

Polytechnics of London provide for every variety of vocational instruction, both for men and women, and maintain both day and evening classes. The modern tendency is for concentration of all allied subjects under the same roof and management. As institution with a large and comprehensive programme has obvious advantages over small schools teaching isolated branches. It can employ a highly qualified staff, and be more efficient, while spending a relatively less sum. It can arrange to take in students pursuing a large variety of professions and create a fuller and more healthy life amongst them. It enables students to learn something of the related branches of study and thus corrects the defects of short-sighted, empirical absorption in isolated pursuits.

It must be confessed that technical schools of the order described here contribute to material prosperity chiefly by supplying skilled artisans or foremen. In other words, they are auxiliary to large capitalistic enterprises. It is doubtful if they are in any measure so much the cause, as they are undoubtedly one of the products, of the astonishing growth of big factories and business houses. Historically speaking, the demand for skilled labour, represented by large capital concerns, has preceded by a good period of time the origin of technical schools and even compulsory education.

Whether technical schools will in their turn react so as to produce large-capital industries is a difficult question to answer. They certainly supply one element in industrial success, skilled labour. It is obvious that they cannot supply the capital, and it is very doubtful if they can produce Entrepreneurs.

Their influence on small-capital industries, does not seem to be very remarkable. Most of the students of

technical schools are persons who are either already employed in factories or are destined soon to be absorbed by them. I never heard, except in the Philippines, of Industrial schools serving the purpose of creating firms owned and managed by men of small capital trained in those institutions.

If one examines the industrial organisation of advanced countries, one notices that the small-scale industry is dwindling in importance day by day. The countries where technical education is most highly and widely developed are exactly the countries where mammoth factories are in striking evidence and where industrial and commercial organisations are of the large-scale order, which is a further proof that the chief function of technical schools has so far been the supply of labour, and not the creation of new or independent enterprises. If my analysis is correct, anxious consideration may have to be devoted to the following propositions:—

(a) Is our purpose the same as that of the European and American educationists? Are we not thinking more of producing small independent business men than labour required for factories, which are still in the lap of the future?

(b) If our purpose is different from that of the Western educationist, then should we be right in adopting Western methods without drastic modifications?

Such revolutions as have taken place in the industrial world are due—not to vocational education—but the progress of science and discovery, which is quite another matter. The universities and higher technological schools of Germany have achieved the most wonderful results—they have in fact ushered in the era of chemical industries—but it would be absurd to confound a Technological institute like that at Charlottenburg, near Berlin, with our industrial

schools and engineering colleges. Research forms no part of the work of these humbler institutions; even the mastery of the most up-to-date knowledge is somewhat beyond their scope; and so it is doubtful, if in the absence of business enterprise in the country, they can do much to help industrial revival.

In the West, the motive for technical training and compulsory education has been international competition. Ours is still the age of small enterprises, though there are signs that the epoch of large combinations is near at hand.

All our schools, technical and general, should keep a register of the alumni, in which the professions the old students are following should be recorded. This would afford a good gauge of the value of the instruction received, and keep the Department well informed of the actual results, which may then be compared with its original intentions, much to the benefit of Departmental administration.

Heads of industrial schools should hold annual or biennial social gatherings, or school days, to which the alumni too should be invited. It ought pre-eminently to be an old boys' function. Whatever promotes comradeship in school is apt to promote partnership in business; and from this point of view regard for the development of social life is of greater importance in a vocational than in a general school. This is another feature in which the soil of the Philippines is more favourable to the seeds of modern civilisation than that of India. Even in technical schools co-education prevails, the girls taking Domestic Science. Once a year, about March, the boys elect a "Queen of Beauty and Popularity," in which the humourist can detect a combination of Mediæval Romance and American democracy. The annual festivities are as great a feature

of school life in the Philippines as the Mays are at Cambridge. Games and school life are fast welding the Filipinos into a solid nation; but then they have a single religion in the land which is not a disruptive social influence.

The relation between industrial and commercial prosperity and vocational instruction is mutual, organic; and no measure of a purely educational nature can do much to improve the outlook unless steps are taken to render capital less timid and the people more ambitious and venturesome. I agree with a leading publicist in England in thinking that it is futile to leave matters to private enterprise in a country with the antecedents and traditions of India. Government ought to do here, not less, but more than what has been done in Germany and Japan. The fear of state-socialism has no logical ground in a country where the land is already 'nationalised' or, more properly speaking, 'Governmentalised.' There is no special reason why laissez-faire should be honored in the economic while it is discouraged in the political sphere. The analogy of England, where Individualism prevails in both spheres, is obviously irrelevant. Details of how Government could come to the rescue are indicated in the concluding interview narrated in this report and the chapters on Japan. As political status is a direct incentive to industrial and commercial progress, the methods by which the Americans have filled the erstwhile down trodden and crushed Filipino with a new joy, hope and energy and aptitude for progress should be studied.

This short discussion shows how intimately the different aspects of progress are related and how impossible it is to effect a forward movement in any department of human life without some advance or readjustment all along the line. And in any such move onwards, Government

will have to lead the people until their ingrained fear and suspicion of change and novelty have worn off.

A wider diffusion of a working knowledge of modern languages, Indian and Foreign, should be one of the first objects in educational policy. For this conversational schools should be opened at different centres as fast as means permit.

EDUCATION OF GIRLS.

It would be abundantly clear by now that special or rather separate institutions for girls are no longer so popular as in the days of old when a more or less rigid segregation of the sexes was considered indispensable for the upkeep of morals. The Workers' Educational Association admits the principle of co-education though it opens separate classes when there is a sufficiently large number of women on the register. In all the Continuation schools and Technical institutions of England special classes are held for women in addition to those attended by the boys, in which instruction is given in the occupations which are the chief source of their livelihood. In the Training colleges such as those of Birmingham, and Leeds, both men and women are freely admitted though, as a rule, they meet in separate classes. In Canada, and in America, and especially the more Western parts, co-education prevails almost universally. The experiment is being tried in the Philippines as well, though it is too soon to say with what amount of success. The advantages claimed for this system are economy in the expenditure for education and a general improvement in the morals and tone of society. But perhaps the system presumes a certain level of manners and morals as the ground or condition of its success.

In the London Day Technical schools, there are such courses as the following for girls:—Dress making, waist-

coat making, upholstery, corset making, millinery, photography, domestic science. Attached to the Girls' section of the trade schools are consultation committees of trade employers and social workers, who, as experts, advise on all matters connected with the programme of studies and discipline. The course, as a rule, extends over two years. For the first three months the pupils are put on probation. If at the end of that time they are found to be making satisfactory progress, they are definitely admitted. About one-half of the school time is devoted to instruction under a skilled teacher in the trade chosen and the other half to the improvement of general education of the pupil with special reference to the requirement of the trade. Such instruction includes freehand and geometrical drawing, English, arithmetic, domestic subjects, and physical exercises.

Shorter courses are arranged for girls who cannot afford a two-years-study. In some of the London schools, provision is made for a ten-months day training in plain cooking, needle-work, dress making, mending, laundry work, house management, and hygiene.

I take this occasion once again to emphasize that the present tendency is in favor of composite institutions, which in the field of educational organisation correspond to the large scale industries of the field of economics. They have inherent advantages which give them a superiority over similar but smaller institutions, especially in the larger cities where the demand for education is large, varied, continuous, and permanent. For instance, the Shoreditch Polytechnic has both day classes and evening classes. The day section includes the Trade school for girls, Technical school for boys, Domestic Economy school for girls and Music classes for boys and girls. The Evening section, which is the more important and elaborate, gives trade courses for

boys in engineering, metal work, carpentry, tailoring, boot and shoe making, book-binding, chemistry, magnetism, electricity, mathematics, modelling, wood-carving, and design. It further holds classes for women where millinery, dress-making, and other subjects of vocational interest are taught. Broadly speaking, this organisation is typical of all the great Municipal technical institutions. In some cases, in addition to these classes, normal classes are held for training teachers in manual work and industrial education. The Shoreditch Technical school contains the following departments:—Day school for boys, Evening classes for artisans, Pupil-teachers training school for handicrafts, Day and Evening classes for girls.

I need hardly add that the composite character is even more emphatically evident in the American institutions than in the English, because the Americans do not allow sentimental prejudices of any kind, however ancient or venerable, to interfere with business methods and economy.

The Macdonald College of Agriculture : includes a Domestic Science Department.

Number of teachers is about ten with occasional assistance from the teachers of the other departments.

Courses : (1) Home-makers course, which is of one year's duration ; chiefly for girls who wish to conduct their own homes on scientific principles.

Subjects :—Bacteriology, chemistry, cooking, dairying, nursing, accounts, furnishing, laundry, millinery, needle-work, value of foods, physiology, physical training.

(2) Home keeper's course : Chiefly taken by those who intend to go into service as housekeepers, dieticians, etc. This is of two years' duration.

Subjects : Same as above with a few additions, but the standard is much higher and there is also practical training.

Each girl must manage, without any assistance, for one week at a time, the home of the Lady Principal—clean the rooms, prepare the bath and bed, do the cooking, scrub the floor, wash up things, answer the door, keep the accounts. I saw the girl who was in charge for the week and she did appear rather overworked. Miss Campbell who showed me round remarked that one advantage of this system was that the mistresses and manageresses of house-holds would have sympathy with housemaids and not overwork them.

The demand for household service is much greater than the supply. For every one applicant, there are fifteen or twenty places waiting to be taken up.

(3) Three short courses of three months' duration are also held. The number of subjects is smaller and the training less thorough. Miss Campbell told me that these were nicknamed Diamond Ring Courses—for they were most popular with girls in a state of engagement!

(4) Special courses; by arrangement.

This section is run on the residential system so as to train girls in social discipline. The girls have to be in uniform most of the time.

Propoganda Work: Technical institutions must undertake also the work of spreading knowledge amongst the masses; otherwise their discoveries will not have practical influence. Miss Campbell has just begun to organise Women's Institutes in the district for teaching by lectures and correspondence.

Here are a few subjects from the programme of Cowansville and Durham Women's Institutes, the meetings of which are held thrice a month: Children's teeth, home-made candy, preparation of meals, Chirstmas recipes, marmaladees, school children's lunches, economy, dust and

its dangers, sociability, and cool dishes for summer—a varied and attractive list.

People here recognise that if you educate the farmer, but leave his wife to her original ignorance, progress would be either impossible or too slow. Hence the Women's Institutes.

Separate institutions for girls are by no means lacking in England. There are some seven schools in London for giving professional training for girls, with a total attendance of about 1,000. At Leeds, there is the Yorkshire Training School of Cookery and Domestic Economy which is intended to train teachers in these subjects for employment in Elementary or Technical schools. The course extends over two or three years but short bye-courses of one year's duration are also held for those who are not regular students. The fashionable type of private schools for girls will never of course become extinct. The Elmsdale Private school at Bristol, which is a boarding institution, charges each boarder £25 per term and the Day girls about 12 guineas. The course extends for three terms—roughly a year—and the subjects taught include cookery, housewifery, needle-work, laundry, nursing children, marketing, hygiene, and dress making. Girls are the chief votaries at shorthand, type-writing, and other subjects included under commercial education.

The Girls' schools in Germany do not need lengthy comment. They are all of irreproachable pattern and give good training in such useful subjects as Religion and Cookery and French and English.

The two conditions for efficiency in Girls' technical education concern the age up to which girls could attend school and the openings available for their professional employment. From both these points of view, the Indian

atmosphere is hardly congenial for a high growth of Women's education. It is impossible to teach girls that leave school at the age of ten or eleven or even earlier household management or maternal responsibility. Training for efficient motherhood which is the object of the famous London school, presently to be described, can hardly form a subject of sensible study in schools where the pastimes of childhood are more in place. Indian girls have neither the need nor the freedom for taking up occupations in Railways, Post offices, Government service, commercial houses, educational institutions, or as private secretaries, as the women in Canada and other advanced countries do—compulsory marriage and social seclusion bar the gate effectively. As for general education for girls, there is no need to say much. The Headmaster of an important girls' school at Bristol told me that their idea was to train up girls to earn an independent livelihood—a very laudable purpose and one without which women could never rise above the level of chattels.

It may be of interest to know that in Japan, an oriental country, women that have had a good education are largely employed in Railway ticket offices, Post offices, as Telephone girls and for office work generally. They are very efficient, especially in positions where the gift of tongues, *i.e.*, foreign languages, is necessary. In Postal and Railway offices they certainly shine far better than the men. They combine high talent with a charm of manner that is the sole monopoly of Japanese womanhood.

A LONDON HIGH SCHOOL FOR WOMEN.

The most ambitious institution in the province of women's education is the new London High school for women, which proposes to give a three-years' course to

young undergraduates, and a one year course to women who have taken their degrees already in a University, on all subjects pertaining to efficient motherhood and the management of homes.

Some of the Subjects :—

First Year : Elementary chemistry and analysis, physics, applied physics (balances, pumps, cream separators, ventilation, light, and telephone.)

Economics : Value, exchange, foreign trade, banking, production, distribution, foreign exchanges, co-operation, factory laws, taxation.

Business Management : letters, indexing, filing, bills, correspondence with solicitors, cheques, bank accounts, shares, mortgages.

General Biology of animals and plants.

Household Work : Cleaning process and disinfecting. Laundry process and disinfecting. Cooking.

Second Year : *Chemistry ; General Biology ;* evolution of sex, heredity, Mendelian experiments, geographical distribution, evolution of man. *Economics ;*—Economic History of England.

Third Year : Applied chemistry : air, water analysis, milk, foods and their nutritive value, ferments, cooking, chemistry of cleaning process, textile fabrics in common use, disinfectants and antiseptics, preservation of materials used in structure and equipment of houses.

Practical courses on above.

Economics of household.

Economic History :—Standards of life.

Principles of expenditure, fashions! economic biology in relation to health, bacteria, yeasts, moulds, fermentation, diseases and germs; sewage pollution, sterilising.

Practical Work on above.

Economic biology, life history of human parasites, non-parasitic domestic insects (cockroaches, flies, mosquitoes, spiders.)

Physiology and Hygiene :—Infant and child hygiene, care of infants, feeding, clothing, ailments.

Health of school children—diseases.

Practical work on above.

Household Work :—An advanced programme.

So far there is but one institution of this kind, but they expect that other schools will be started in the more important centres of the country. The present craze for Eugenics is sure to stimulate this movement. This is another proof of that physiological care of the race, which is the strangest concern of Europeans and especially the Anglo-Saxons. Their faith in muscles is marvellous and well-placed.

The astonishing and admirable thing in Europe is that even intellectual people are splendid specimens of physical humanity. This is one of the reasons why there is not the same divorce as with us between thought and action, wish and attempt, feeling and will, and policy and execution.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION.

Macdonald College :—*Department of Agriculture*—This department prepares both for degrees and diplomas though in point of fact, a vast majority of students are practical farmers who are trained only for the diploma.

Courses :—Entrance qualification is very low: a little English and less Arithmetic suffice. (1) Four-year course : for degree. (2) Short and special courses.

Subjects:—Animal husbandry, bacteriology, biology, cereal husbandry, dairying, economics, horticulture, physics, drainage, poultry, and some amount of general education.

The animal husbandry department supplies most of the meat and milk consumed in the college, which is no small undertaking, and also much of the milk used in the dairy classes.

Canada owes a great deal of her prosperity to the agricultural scientist. She has a short summer; and it is the discovery of an early-ripening wheat that has rolled up cultivation over millions and millions of acres.

Propaganda Work is carried on by means of Demonstrators who are paid by the college, though the State also allows a small salary. These settle down in the districts to educate the peasants by lectures and demonstration farms. The farmers are very conservative, but as these teachers are practical men and no theorists merely, they fall in line sooner or later. The college also publishes bulletins, and holds short courses for farmers at the institution.

In India, Demonstration Farms under resident demonstrators are even more essential than schools, for our farmers will not go to school if they have to go any distance from their village and have hardly ever had an opportunity of receiving education and learning to read even the simplest vernacular, which makes them completely book-and-bulletin-proof.

In France, each district has a professor of agriculture with five assistants whose duty it is to tour round and inspect crops and give advice and guidance to the farmers.

An American gentleman told me that in the rural parts, in some of the States they have what are called Travelling Libraries. A van loaded with books goes from place to place and the peripatetic librarian in charge of it gives out and

receives the books back. This is worked in conjunction with the Extension system.

In Italy, there is a voluntary organisation maintained by private subscriptions for promoting education in the rural parts. It has already founded over 30 schools in the remoter and less accessible districts. The schools are opened in the slack and closed in the busy season.

The Dominion Government at Ottawa gives a grant of one million dollars to the Provinces for Agricultural Extension work by means of Bulletins, itinerant lecturers, and demonstration farms.

AGRICULTURAL EDUCATION IN THE PHILIPPINES.

In the Philippines, as has been already remarked, Government promises to establish at least one school offering the course of farming in each Division. Some kind of training in agricultural pursuits is included in the general curricula of schools. The following figures illustrate the condition of agricultural education in the Philippines in 1912 :—

Agricultural Schools.			
Number of schools	...	...	5
Number of teachers—			
American	...	...	8
Filipino	...	...	12
Pupils enrolled—			
Grade—			
1st	..	...	45
2nd	...	...	39
3rd	...	...	37
4th	...	...	21
5th	...	...	47
6th	...	...	42
7th	...	...	32
First year College Course		...	24
Total			287

Schools giving Gardening in the Intermediate course
(that is to say, 5th, 6th and 7th Grades).

Number of schools	...	about 54
Number of teachers—		
American	...	4
Filipino	...	117
Pupils enrolled—		
Grade—		
5th		1,255
6th		843
7th		244
Value of Products raised	...	Pesos 5,564

Farming Schools.

Number of schools	...	6
Number of teachers—		
American	...	6
Filipino	...	15
Pupils—		
Grade—		
5th		270
6th		245
7th		118

Amount of land: 53·7 Hectares.

(1 Hectare = 2·471 acres.)

Stock for draft	...	12
Stock for breeding	...	3
Stock for other purposes	...	5
Stock for Poultry...	...	55
Value of products	...	Pesos 2,562

School and Home Gardens.

School Gardens, Primary	...	2,103
School Gardens, Intermediate	...	207

Home Gardens, Primary	...	30,801
Home Gardens, Intermediate	...	4,918
Value of products: nearly	Pesos	50,000
Vegetable exhibits prepared	...	262
Garden days or Agricultural fares	...	127

Vegetable Gardening.

The number of pupils engaged in vegetable gardening by grades and classes:—

Grade	Boys.	Girls.
1st	11,350	738
2nd	11,866	583
3rd	12,427	330
4th	9,501	178
5th	1,641	1
6th	3,963	5
7th	486	0
Total	51,234	1,835

School Nurseries--

Total number	...	94
Budding	...	187
Marcottage	...	120
Layering	...	896
Cuttings	...	4,733
From Seeds	...	13,397
Total	...	19,333

Arbor Day Census.

	Planted.	Living.
Shade trees	46,221	22,929
Fruit trees	97,210	56,070
Miscellaneous	68,745	37,637
Total	212,176	116,636

AGRICULTURE IN JAPAN.

In Japan, the schools relating to agricultural education are graded on the same model as the technical and commercial institutions into (a) Higher agricultural institutions and (b) Secondary schools which impart an elementary knowledge of agriculture to those who have completed their primary education and also teach farmers by means of Short-period-institutes subjects with which they are closely connected.

The Japanese Hypothec Bank, the Local Hypothec Banks, the Colonial Bank, and the system of Credit Guilds have all been created with the object of providing ready credit to the farmers at a reasonable rate of interest.

The Japan Hypothec Bank.

This is a Joint Stock bank working as a State Bank ; and the nature of the business entrusted to it is thus described in the Preamble of the Law creating this institution. "It admits of no doubt that the comparative lack of development of our agriculture is mainly attributable to absence of proper facilities for supplying funds on the security of real estate. Now, in order to carry to greater prosperity the agriculture of our country and to promote its productive capacity, there are many things to be undertaken, these being, the reclamation of new land, the control of rivers, planting of woods, providing of better facilities of irrigation or drainage, improvement of the mode of tillage, supply of cheap fertilisers, and sundry other things. But those improvements cannot from their very nature yield returns until after the lapse of ten or a score of years, so that funds which in trade can yield returns in a very short space of time are entirely out of place in undertakings connected with farming. The funds advanced to farmers must be for longer terms and at cheaper rates." There can be little question but that

ordinary banks, working on English principles, are hardly suited to the needs of a poor, backward country like India even for purposes of industrial development. Still less are they suited to encourage agriculture in a land of small, impecunious farmers where large-scale and capitalistic types of farming are all but unknown. Agriculture and Industry, should here, as in Japan and Germany, be placed under the fostering care of special banks or other credit institutions. The Hypothec Bank gives loans on the security of real estates and collects them by instalments which are sometimes spread over as long a period as fifty years. Some loans have to be repaid within five years, but the aggregate sum of these loans should not exceed one-tenth of the loans payable by instalments. Loans on mere credit without security are made only to public bodies, municipal corporations, towns or villages or other corporations established under law.

The Central Hypothec Bank deals with loans for large amounts, leaving those for smaller amounts to be undertaken by the Local Hypothec Banks. The farmers of small means are thus obliged to go to the Local Banks for aid.

The maximum rate of interest that these banks could charge is determined with the approval of the Finance Minister.

The Local Hypothec Banks.

There is one Bank to each administrative locality or prefecture. These also are Joint Stock concerns but under the special protection of the State. They are subject to the supervision of the Minister of Finance and enjoy in return much assistance from the Treasury. Loans to be made are restricted to the following objects:—

(1) Reclamation of land, irrigation, drainage, and improvement of the fertility of the soil,

(2) Construction and improvement of farm-roads.

(3) Settlement in newly reclaimed places.

(4) Purchase of seed, young plants, manure and other materials required in agriculture and industry.

(5) Purchase of implements, and machines, boats, waggons, and beasts for use in farming and manufacture.

(6) Construction or repair of buildings for use in farming and manufacture.

(7) Improvements in farming and manufacture not included in the foregoing classes.

(8) Adjustment of farm lands.

(9) Undertakings by Credit Guilds, Purchase Guilds, and Produce Guilds of unlimited liability, organised under the Industrial Guilds law.

The loans to be made for the foregoing objects are subject to these conditions :—

A. Loans on Real Estate :—

(1) Payment by yearly instalments : within 30 years.

(2) Payments within fixed periods : within 5 years.

The aggregate sum of these loans should not exceed one-fifth of that of the loans payable by instalments.

B. Loans on Credit :—

(1) Payments by yearly instalments : within 30 years.

(2) Payments within fixed period : loans payable within 5 years and loans with no such restriction.

Loans on credit and payable by instalments can be made only to municipal corporations, towns or villages, and public bodies organised under law ; while loans on credit payable within a fixed period may be made only to the following bodies :—

(1) Municipal and other civic corporations or public bodies organised under law,

(2) Groups of not less than 20 persons applying

jointly who are judged thoroughly trustworthy, and who are engaged in agriculture or manufacture,

(3) Credit Guilds, Purchase Guilds, and Produce Guilds, of unlimited liability,

on condition of repayment within five years.

The farming classes, however, are as yet unable to enjoy to any satisfactory extent the benefit accruing from these facilities, chiefly because most of the farmers possess only limited means at their disposal, and loans are necessarily accompanied by elaborate processes. Herein comes the need for Credit Guilds resembling the People's Banks existing in Germany. Even in places where bankers charge interest from 20 to 40 per cent from small farmers, these Guilds are able to furnish loans to their members at about 10 per cent.

Agricultural Experiment Stations.

Amongst the institutions founded to encourage agriculture in Japan are Agricultural Experiment Stations, the work of which is generally subdivided into several sections as follows :—

Agriculture, agricultural chemistry, entomology, vegetable pathology, tobacco, horticulture, stock-breeding, and reporting and general affairs. The last two sections deal with matters relating to compilation and publication of reports and the financial affairs of the main station.

Both the main and branch stations carry on the following lines of work:—

- (1) Inspection of fertilisers.
- (2) Chemical analysis, at the request of the public.
- (3) Supervision of experiments entrusted to farmers.
- (4) Information in response to enquiries coming from the Public.
- (5) Lectures held at the request of the public.

(6) Researches on special agricultural problems.

The principal experimental station has published over 300 or 400 bulletins bearing on such subjects as climate, soil, water, cultivation, manure, chemical analysis, agricultural technology, pests and injurious insects, plant diseases, and tobacco culture.

In addition to the experimental stations above-mentioned which are all maintained by the Imperial Government, there are local ones maintained at local expense. These are chiefly devoted to the work of practical application and of model-farming. At each of the stations, there are a number of experts under the control of the local government.

Even the sub-prefectural districts, corresponding to our Taluks, occasionally maintain model farms and experimental stations. The total number of experimental stations established by these small localities numbered 110 in 1904.

Local Agricultural Institutes

Or occasional schools for imparting to farmers' sons, and to peasant folk generally some elementary knowledge of agriculture, surveying, meteorology, physics, chemistry, natural history, veterinary science, and farriery are encouraged by grants from Central Government.

Ambulant Lectures on Agriculture.

Lecturers on Agriculture are appointed in local and sub-local districts to deliver lectures and to supply information and to answer all enquiries addressed to them by the farmers in the district. They must supervise the experimental farms and attend local agricultural shows and in other ways help the spread of scientific knowledge. In 1904, there were 310 lecturers throughout the country.

Similarly, there are institutes for Sericulture.

Provisions relating to the Protection and Encouragement of Agriculture in Japan.

1. State aid of 150,000 Yen or Rupees 2½ lakhs in aid of agricultural societies.

2. Law sanctioning the establishment of industrial Guilds which are exempted from payment of income and business taxes and are further assisted by loans from the Hypothec Banks.

3. Law relating to the adjustment of Farm Lands. "The size of farms being small, their enclosure by walls and fences entails waste of time and space that might be employed to better advantage, not to speak of the dangers to which such things give rise by providing reptiles, rodents, and injurious insects with dwelling places quite near the crops." The farms are not only small but scattered about. Thus though the average area cultivated by a family is probably less than acre, the different farms constituting this area are generally scattered about. It is to rectify this that Government passed a measure in 1900. Some of the benefits derived from the measure are described in the following extract from an official publication.

(a) Owing to the size of the lots being enlarged and their shape made regular, farm-work is considerably expedited and farm animals and labour-saving machinery can be more easily employed.

(b) Owing to the farm boundaries or paths being straightened and those that are useless destroyed, the productive power of a given extent of land thus treated, is increased at the average rate of 5 per cent.

(c) Drainage and irrigation ways being re-constructed or constructed *ab initio*, both the drainage and irrigation systems can be brought to a state of greater perfection. As the advantages arising from an insufficiency of irrigation

water or from its excess is done away with, the productive power of the farms is increased.

(d) Farmers being encouraged to exchange their fields for fields owned by others, so as to collect as much as possible in one place the farms owned by one proprietor, all the evils and disadvantages incidental to the scattering of farms owned by one proprietor are done away with or minimised.

4. State aid to local Agricultural Experiment Stations.

5. Silk-conditioning.

6. Rules relating to Cattle and Horse Guilds.

7. Rules relating to the control of breeding bulls and stallions, the object being to improve the live-stock in the country.

8. Rules relating to the castration of horses. It is provided that with the exception of approved stallions all other stallions must be castrated at the age of three years, all the expenses incidental to the operation being paid from the Treasury.

9. Game laws which have proved effective in checking the reckless destruction of birds.

10. Supervision of manure business. In procuring artificial fertilisers, farmers are liable to be duped by dishonest manufacturers and dealers. Therefore a law was passed compelling all those who manufacture or deal in fertilisers to get a license, to submit samples of their goods to the officials, and also to guarantee the alleged composition of their fertilisers. Government have employed 20 chemists and 116 fertiliser inspectors.

11. Destruction and prevention of injurious insects.

12. Inspection of Silk-worm eggs.

13. Measures to prevent epidemics amongst domestic animals,

14. Measures to prevent tuberculosis in domestic animals.

“Granting that the presence of one educated member in a family is a sufficient justification for treating the whole family as educated for agricultural purposes, about 28 per cent, of the Japanese agricultural population may be regarded as possessing adequate knowledge in agriculture.”

State Methods of Encouraging Industry and Commerce.

As would have been gathered by the foregoing account, state methods of encouraging industry and commerce are illustrated in a note-worthy manner by Japan. I gathered from one of the leading Bankers of Japan that the measures adopted by the Government to promote the material welfare of Japan were roughly as follows:—

(1) Engaging foreign experts, (2) Sending capable men to be trained abroad, (3) Bounties on output, (4) Promoting the growth of Agricultural Credit Societies, (5) Undertaking pioneer work by starting unfamiliar industries and, after conducting them for a few years as a State concern, handing them over to private parties or companies.

To give a few concrete instances. The first railway, that between Yokohama and Tokyo, was built as a Government undertaking. Most of the other lines were constructed by private companies, but in recent years the State has shown a tendency to buy up these quasi-monopolistic enterprises, chiefly owing to the heavy financial burdens imposed by military exigencies and the consequent need for a large revenue. At one time or another Government seems to have started silk, woollen, cotton, glass, iron, steel, and engineering factories in order to educate the people in modern industrial methods. It was felt that as regards capital and the employment of foreign experts, Government

was in a better position than private citizens, especially as its international status was never very low or negligible. Doubtless in the early days of the new era Japan did not find it quite easy to keep alien employees under proper control, but the splendid statesmanship of her leaders was fully equal to this and even far more difficult problems.

Many of the supplies required by Government were manufactured by its own factories, such as type and ink used in printing, and office supplies.

It is in the development of the merchant marine that the Government showed a sagacity that none could overpraise. It bought ships and leased them to Navigation companies. It arranged bounties based on the tonnage of the ships and the mileage run by them, and by gradually raising the standard of qualification in both these respects, it guided and forced the growth so successfully that Japan is almost without a rival on the Pacific and has far outdistanced some of the European competitors already. Needless to say that an island empire is dependent on ships for things even more vital than trade or industry.

To strengthen the defensive powers of the nation, the Government invited foreigners to open certain special factories under their own management but under Japanese supervision; and these were bought up later when it had men with sufficient training and experience in managing such concerns.

Agriculture has made such astonishing progress that the output has been increased by over 50 per cent within the last 12 years. For a poor country, thickly peopled and rapidly increasing in population, scientific agriculture is a necessity of the first importance. Should the output be lessened through famine or slovenly methods, the State could not maintain its army and navy on an efficient footing,

and would run serious risk of losing her honour and liberty. Japan is determined to prevent not only a lowering of the standard of living of her people, but she is fully resolved to raise it to the European level. This is due not to any love of luxury or the influence of the materialistic civilization of the West, but to the operation of powerful moral forces. Her efficiency as a nation is bound up with her economic prosperity; moreover she regards herself as the equal and more than the equal of the West and will not allow Europeans and Americans an advantage over her children even in matter of living. So sensitive are the Japanese regarding their position among the great powers of the world that they will do anything, not bad or immoral, to the limit of their power to establish their claims for equal treatment. One effect of this process has been that they are fast becoming a nation of meat eaters, which they were not in the old days under the influence of Buddhism. Most of the meat is imported from Australia and New Zealand. It struck me that cattle and sheep were a rarity in the land of the Rising Sun. A slow change is coming over the dress too, especially of the men. The head-gear is European, and in fact, the Japanese had no native style in this respect. Close fitting wollen clothes are coming more into vogue and superseding the indigenous *kimono*. Mammoth steel-frame buildings of the American type are beginning to be constructed in the busier quarters of the city in Tokyo. Within the next twenty-five years, much of ancient Japan will have disappeared like a golden mist.

It would take a volume to describe fully the manner in which each one of the great industries of the present were nourished and guided by the State. The shipping trade has been almost entirely built up by subsidies. In the carrying trade of the world Japan already holds an enviable

place. Up till 1903, the largest war-ship built in a Japanese yard was a cruiser of 4,000 tons; in 1913, two super-dreadnaughts of 27,000 tons each were launched by a single company, the Mitsubishi. The Government constructed factories for spinning, printing, silk reeling, woollen stuffs, paper making, iron and steel, etc., and either operated them itself or handed over to competent private agencies. Indeed it compelled two of their richest sowcars to form a bank!

In 1873, Mr. Kaoru Inouye (now Marquis Inouye, one of the illustrious band of Elder Statesmen,*) thus described the condition of the people of Japan. "Our farmers know only how to work their hereditary farms and have no desire to develop the arts of agriculture or sericulture. Our artisans know only how to discuss about their wages and are quite ignorant of machines. Our merchants compete only for a small profit and do not know how to carry on business properly." But forty years have passed since these words were written, and they already appear to have no bearing on the present but to apply to some prehistoric race of sluggards.

In recent years Government has been obliged for fiscal reasons to nationalise certain enterprises, and establish monopolies. In 1906, after the war with Russia, all the railways were brought up. Tobacco, salt, and camphor are amongst the monopolies. When the comparative poverty of the people and the tremendous wars that they were forced to undertake are taken into consideration, there is nothing astonishing about the establishment of monopolies or the imposition of high, exceedingly high taxes. What is astonishing is that so far from being depressed by these exactions,

* Since this was written, this famous Statesman closed the chapter of his earthly existence, much to the grief of his nation and the civilised world.

the people are working with a mightier will and more strenuous muscle to satisfy the new demands made on them, and improve the prospects of their country. If there is a risk anywhere now, it is not from conservatism and orthodoxy—for they cannot be found even in remote villages—but from over much of revolutionary zeal.

The following summary statement of the methods adopted by the Japanese Government may not be without interest, though in a sketch like this it is not possible to enter into details, which after all constitute the life and blood of a scheme.

AGRICULTURE.

1. Number of Local Agricultural Farms maintained by the Prefectural, *i.e.*, District officers about 40.

Expenses of these are met by local and Imperial grants.

2. Local Institutes—Objects: to give some knowledge of agriculture, surveying, meteorology, and veterinary science.

3. Agricultural associations in districts, towns, and villages—Total number about 12,000.

4. Prefectural experimental stations.

5. Extension lectures on agriculture.

6. Sericulture institutes. Number of students 300.

7. Local sericulture institutes, about 130.

8. Imperial stock farms, horse studs, etc.

9. Inspection of breeding stallions, manure, seeds, silk-worm eggs.

10. The Hypothec bank and its branches.

MINING, ETC.

1. 1896. Establishment of Imperial Iron Works at Yawata.

2. Between 1868 and 1884 Government undertook the mining business itself and operated seven metal mines and two collieries, engaging 80 foreign experts.

These model mines have been given over to private companies, which soon sprang up in large numbers.

3. At first foreigners were disqualified from working a mine or even becoming members of a mining establishment. In 1900, they were allowed to join corporations engaged in the business, provided they were registered under Japanese law.

MANUFACTURING INDUSTRY.

1. Establishment of *local* and *city* industrial experimental laboratories and manufacturing training schools.

2. Government Establishments:—

(a) 1872. Model filature at Tomicka.

(b) 1877. Silk Spinning Mill at Shimachi.

(c) 1877. Woollen Factory at Senju.

(d) 1881. Model Cotton Spinning Mills —two.

(e) 1884. Hemp Spinning Mill.

(f) 1875. Brick and Cement Factory at Fukugawa.

(g) 1876. Glass Factory at Shinagowa.

(h) Paper Mill for foreign style paper.

(i) Factories for machine making, soap making, porcelain, paint, type founding, etc., in foreign style.

From 1880, there being no further need of state guidance, the Government began to sell them; and now it owns only the Senju Woollen Factory.

PROTECTIVE TARIFFS.

The new tariff adopted in 1911, when Japan regained full fiscal liberty, promises to be very efficient. It has already had a great effect in stimulating industrial activity.

4. Extension lectures in Industry.

5. Sending students and merchants to foreign countries.

6. Municipalities also establish factories and laboratories on a small scale for educating the people and send out scholars abroad.

7. The Industrial Bank.

PROVISION FOR ENCOURAGING FOREIGN TRADE IN JAPAN.

1. Constitution of Chambers of Commerce.

2. The Higher Council of Agriculture, Commerce, and Industry: It is composed of twenty members apart from the Chairman and the Vice-Chairman. Of the members five are officials and the remaining fifteen business men. It deliberates on such matters as expansion of banking facilities for foreign trade, situation of foreign markets, marine insurance, operation of the currency system and its effect on foreign trade, and encouragement of exportation of silk.

3. Study of foreign markets: Government despatches a number of officials and commissioners to foreign countries to study the state of the markets with the object of promoting direct export by Japanese merchants.

4. Industrial Guilds.

5. Student commercial Agents and Manufacturers: The object is to send abroad capable young men so that they can get a practical training either in commercial establishments or factories. The candidates are selected from among those recommended by leading business men. A certain amount of pecuniary help is given to the students. All students are under the control of the nearest Japanese legation or consulate and they are obliged to send regularly reports of their progress.

6. Commercial Samples Museums: Japan has some fifty of these. Almost every big town has a Commercial Museum where anybody could go and make purchases.

7. Maintaining Commercial Exhibits in Foreign countries.

8. Experimental work in regard to the production of commercial commodities: This is undertaken in the technical schools or in special laboratories at the expense of the Government.

9. Consular reports, etc.

10. Establishment of the Yokohama Specie Bank.

RAILWAYS.

Railways were nationalised in 1906.

BANKING.

1. Government is a large share-holder in the Bank of Japan and entrusts it with the management of Treasury money.

2. The Hypothec and Agricultural and Industrial Banks are required to furnish loans on the security of immovable property.

3. The Yokohama Specie Bank was founded to finance direct import and export trade with foreign countries.

SHIPPING.

Japanese Subjects, or trading companies whose partners or shareholders are *all* Japanese subjects, engaging in freight and passenger traffic are given subsidies.

Another method of encouraging industry is by exempting business of specified size and nature from income tax for a certain time.

Since modern industry is chiefly dependent on machinery, the Imperial Government adopted the policy of establishing mechanical and industrial factories in order to furnish models and stimulate industrial enterprise. In regard to the manufacture of machinery, Japan is hampered by insufficient supply of iron, lack of skilled labourers, and the

terrible competition of the machine constructors of Europe and America; still the domestic out-put is gradually gaining strength though the volume of imports is enormous.

It is said that one drawback militating against success in this line is the desire of the Japanese workman to keep changing his trade every three or four years, which prevents him from becoming a specialist in any one line. As the causes of this are probably more economical than psychological in their nature, the employers ought to be able to find a remedy though at some cost to themselves.

Japan has very nearly captured the toy-trade of the world from Germany even before the present war brought its gruesome aid to trade.

Women and the Industrial Evolution of Japan.—In workshops using motors, 36 per cent. of the labour is male and 64 per cent. female. There can be no doubt that the vast majority of operatives in Japan are women. In 1902, it was estimated that out of a grand total of 390,000 operatives, female operatives numbered 245,000. One peculiar feature of the Japanese labour market is the large number of Boarding operatives employed in many factories, especially the spinning and weaving factories. The Boarding operatives are generally gathered from distant places, the majority of them being women, and they are made to reside within the compound practically for the entire period contracted. In some of the weaving shops, 70 to 80 per cent. are Boarders. The large majority of the women operatives are between 16 and 22 years of age. The rate of wages in fibre workshops as filature, cotton mills, and weaving shops, is about 30 sen. a day for males and 20 for females which works out at about 5 annas a day for women in Indian coin. In Machine workshops and the ship-building yards, the wages are much higher, being on an average from one to

two rupees a day; but in these most of the employees are adult males. Labour in Japan is about as cheap as it is in India, but much more efficient and reliable.

In sericulture and silk reeling 90 per cent. of the labour engaged is supplied by women; in weaving, embroidery, cigar and cigarette making, net work, and cord making over 80 per cent; in spinning, drawn work, mat making, straw-plait work, and wood shaving over 70 per cent; and in cotton spinning, braid work, basket work, paper making, preserved meat business, fans, and tailoring from 50 to 60 per cent.

The total number of employees in factories in 1909 amounted to:—Women 411,357; Men 240,864, *i.e.*, nearly 65 per cent. of labour is drawn from the ranks of women.

“As operatives of family industries, Japanese women show an efficiency rarely reached by foreign operatives of the same sex.” But the men are by no means the equals of their foreign rivals, though there is a steady improvement in their quality as workers.

Industrial Education.—The progress in Technical education has enabled Japan to dispense gradually with the services of foreign experts, though a few of them are still employed; but their number is insignificant compared to what it was before. Quite a number of the smaller technical schools are maintained by the different local Boards, which are aided by grants from the Central Government. There are also a number of apprentice schools deriving aid from the Central Government.

Special or State Aided Banks of Japan.—Banking organs for the purpose of promoting trade and industry in Japan are:—

(1) The Hypothec Bank of Japan including the Central and Local Hypothec Banks. (Described elsewhere.)

(2) The Industrial Bank of Japan established in 1902. It is a Joint Stock company with a capital of 17,500,000 yen all fully paid up. Its special object is to encourage trade and industry by giving loans to business firms on the security of shares, bonds, and other forms of commercial credit. It may be regarded as a kind of credit mobilier, while the former are credits fonciers with special forms and purposes.

The business allowed to the bank by the law comprises :—

1. Making loans on the pledge of public loan bonds, and companies' debentures ;
2. Subscribing to public loan bonds, local loan bonds, companies' debentures ;
3. Accepting deposit of money and custody of valuable objects ; and,
4. Transacting various kinds of trust business with local loan bonds, companies' debentures and shares.

Thus, loans without security or on the security of other than negotiable papers and discounts of bills are not within the scope of the bank's business. In order to enable it to obtain the necessary amount of capital for carrying out its object, the bank is also endowed with the privilege of issuing debentures to an amount of ten times its paid up capital, which however, may not exceed the total amount of advances made by the bank, and the local loan bonds and companies' debentures appropriated by it. Besides, for the first five years the dividend of 5 per cent. against its paid up capital was guaranteed by the Government.

The chief lines of business carried on by the Industrial Bank of Japan are as follows :—

1. Loans on the security of National or Local Loan Bonds or Debentures and Shares of Companies.

2. Subscriptions for or taking over by transference, National or Local Loan bonds, or the Debentures of Companies.

3. General Deposits and Safe Deposits Business.

4. Business of a Trust Company.

5. Discount of Bills on Security of National or Local Loan Bonds or Debentures and Shares of Companies.

6. Loans on Mortgages of Railway, Factory, and Mine foundations.

7. Any Banking and attendant business in Foreign countries with the permission of the Minister of Finance.

(3) The Yokohama Specie Bank : Its special object is to encourage direct export and import trades. The Yokohama Specie Bank was founded in 1879 with the authorised capital of 3,000,000 yen for furnishing financial facilities for the foreign trade of the country. It was at first supported by the Government in various directions. For instance it was entrusted with the management of several million yen of the Treasury Reserve Fund and was thus enabled to possess an ample amount of capital for discounting foreign bills of exchange. In 1882, when the Bank of Japan was established, this support was withdrawn, and instead of that the Bank of Japan was made to rediscount foreign bills of exchange upon the demand of the Specie Bank to an amount not exceeding 20,000,000 yen a year at the rate of 2 per cent. In March 1887, regulations for the Specie Bank were promulgated, and at the same time, the capital was raised to 6,000,000 yen. The consequent growth of its transactions necessitated the further increase of its capital to 12,000,000 yen in the same year. In 1899, the capital was again doubled, making it 24,000,000 yen.

The following lines of business are transacted by the Bank :—

1. Foreign exchanges.

2. Inland exchanges.
3. Loans.
4. Deposits of money and custody of objects of value.
5. Discount and collection of bills of exchange, promissory notes and other cheques.
6. Exchange of coins.

The Bank may also buy or sell public bonds, gold or silver bullion and foreign coins, if the condition of business demands it. The Bank may also be entrusted with affairs bearing on foreign loans and the management of public money for international account. The present paid up capital of the Yokohama Specie Bank is 30 million yen.

Ordinary Banks.—The total number of Ordinary Bank in 1911 was 1,616 with a paid up capital of 327,881,000 yen and a total reserve of 108,550,000 yen. Tokyo has more than 20 important Banks, Osaka 7 and Yokohama 6.

The dividends in 1911 ranged from 4 to 25 per cent. Four of the private Banks have a paid up capital of over 10 millions.

Canadian Methods of Encouraging Industry.—It is probable that Japan has borrowed many of her administrative ideas from Germany and America, and as Canada too has modelled her institutions on the pattern supplied by her great neighbour to the south, there is a certain amount of similarity between the Canadian and Japanese methods of promoting trade and industry.

The Canadian Government helps railways in two ways: (1) Subsidies and (2) Guaranteeing a certain percentage of interest. If the earnings do not come up to the fixed rates Government pays the deficit as a *loan* to be recovered when the Company is more prosperous; but in point of fact, Government does not seem to have recovered many of its industrial loans yet.

The sale of seed for agricultural purposes is more or less regulated by the Government.

Government gives bounties on steel manufacture and subsidies to shipping. There is also a commission entrusted with the task of investigating the industrial and commercial possibilities of the country. Government also gives subsidies for cold storage of fruits, butter, etc., and their export in refrigerators to the old country, and for maintaining pedigree bulls and stallions for breeding purposes.

Local bodies are spending much on trolley lines.

Agricultural knowledge is spread thus: by Colleges, Itinerant demonstrators, Stationary demonstrators, Experimental farms, Bulletins, Private societies, Exhibitions and Fairs. Trade is encouraged by protection, bounties, subsidies, technical education and other means.

A remarkable thing about Canada is that everybody borrows freely on account of the confidence they have in the success of their enterprise and their ability to pay back with interest. Moreover, Canada has come to a stage where, if anyone wants to start a new industry, he must do it on a scale large enough to hold his own against the competition of the older-established firms of Europe. Relatively to the population and industrial conditions, large industries are more numerous in Canada than in Europe. Canadian business men are of opinion that young countries like the colonies and India (India is young industrially) cannot successfully compete with the more developed countries, unless their industries are fashioned on the large scale pattern.

Some of the administrative arrangements in Canada are worth studying. There is a Fair Wages Board entrusted with the following functions:—

1. To see that Government contractors and suppliers of stores to Government treat their workmen properly and

pay regular wages. As the Government gives on an average one-hundred million dollars worth of contracts every year, this is a very important function and one which affects the general rate of wages in the country to some extent. Government Inspectors conduct a local enquiry and determine the rates. Government does not fix the rates by ordinance, but an authoritative opinion of that kind spontaneously prevents a fall in wages. In contracts conditions as to wages are included either in general or specific terms.

2. To enquire into complaints against employers (that is to say contractors or suppliers) brought by workmen.

3. The law requires that in trades and businesses concerned with public utilities such as lighting, transportation, mines, etc., no strike or lock out shall be declared, under severe penalties, before the subject of dispute has been referred to a board for enquiry, and, if possible, settlement. These conciliation boards generally consist of one nominee of labour, one nominee of capital, one other gentleman to be chosen by these two as Chairman within five days, or else appointed by the Fair Wages Board in case the two party representatives do not agree. The state cannot compel settlement, but the moral pressure exerted by such a procedure generally suffices.

4. TRUSTS: On complaint of any six men accusing a trust or other quasi-monopolistic corporation of unlawfully putting up prices or in other ways seeking illegitimate profit, an enquiry will be held to determine if the corporation accused is guilty or not, and proceedings in connection therewith are published. This threat of publicity has so far proved a fairly successful check on trust rapacity, but it is often evaded by a process known as stock-watering.

I hear that there is a lot of sweating in Canada. Wages range from \$1½ a day upwards which is considered

rather insufficient. In Government contracts it is stipulated that no labour should be employed at home, but that wherever possible all labour should be in factories, which renders Government inspection easy.

In Canada profits and wages are both higher than in Europe.

Towns and townships bonus lavishly in order to grow rapidly by attracting industries and population. A small city may have a million or so of municipal debt and this is not at all considered remarkable. Sometimes they doubtless cripple themselves by these adventures.

The Conservation Commission of Canada is as Dr. Robertson puts it, the general tonic of the Dominion. It works through seven committees: lands, mines, fisheries, water, power, health, forests, and publications.

It publishes information and results of researches. For example, take land: They send inspectors to make enquiries of the farmers of a typical locality regarding weeds; if any new ones appeared since the last visit; whether the weeds are getting more abundant or less; whether the land has been increasing or decreasing in fertility, the rotation of crops the farmers adopted, and so on. The Inspectors also advise the farmers as to the best modes of treating the soil. The Inspectors go the following year. By this time the farmer has been sufficiently roused to observe for himself and to take the lead in asking questions. Various schedules are left with him which he fills up from his observations. The inspecting agents go a third year to the same locality and then select the best farms for purposes of demonstration and illustration. They bring the neighbouring farmers to study the methods of cultivation pursued in these farms. They form associations of farmers and thus begin the work of improving the agriculture of the locality. Farmers learn

more easily from the example of their neighbours than from professors. Hence the adoption of this tedious but very effective process.

The publications of this Commission are of the highest value to the Economic statesman. In Japan there is an Economic Investigation Commission, inaugurated in 1910, which has for its objects investigations relating to the development of industry and commerce. It consists of 70 members, including members of Parliament, officials, professors, and leading business men.

The French Ministry of Commerce has a similar advising body, on which I am happy to note, an Indian citizen of the republic has a seat. It is called, I believe, the Higher Council of Commerce.

The Mysore Economic Conference, though unique in the annals of India, is not without precedent or parallel in the constitution of modern Governments.

In Western Canada, which is democratic almost to the verge of socialism, Provincial Governments have done a great deal more for the farmer than in the East. They have erected elevators for storing grain and opened co-operative creameries. The farmers bring their cream here. It is tested by the Babcock test and the amount of butter thus determined is credited to them. The butter is extracted, sold, and the money handed over to the farmers. Government has put up sheds for fattening poultry for the market. The farmer brings his poultry. They are fattened and sold by Government, and the proceeds less cost of fattening are credited to the owner. The Government buys and sells Dairy stock on the credit system. There are no resident district supervisors of agriculture yet, but the Agricultural colleges hold winter sessions and institutes in the districts.

The explanation of this paternal care lavished on the farmer is to be found in the fact that Canada is a new country which desires to attract colonists, and that the only colonists that would help to develop the country by peopling the remoter parts and spreading a permanent population over the entire area of the land, are the farmers. The agricultural classes hold no such position of unique importance in India.

RURAL LIFE IN AMERICA AND CANADA.

The problem of rural depopulation—one of the standing evils of England—is met with even in such new countries as the United States and Canada. The causes of the migration of peasant lads and lasses to towns are as follows:—

(a) Dissatisfaction with the quiet hum-drum existence to which village life condemns them.

(b) The broader and gayer life presented by towns along with better opportunities of making money rapidly.

(c) The loneliness of many farm houses. In Western America, where individual holdings may extend to hundreds and even thousands of acres, the next-door neighbour may be about three miles off, and this renders social life, which is the life-breath of Western civilisation, difficult.

(d) Isolation from civilisation and its concerns and impulses. In the old days farmers were badly off for newspapers and other necessities of modern life. They had to be outside the sphere of the great intellectual and political movements agitating the more accessible parts of the country. Such splendid isolation being own mother to ingnoble vegetation, the more thoughtful parents tried to settle in the nearest towns for the education and upbringing of their children.

(e) Lack of good schools banking facilities, etc.

Americans and Canadians have commenced to combat this tendency to migrate to towns by means of systematic, though expensive, measures calculated to render residence in villages and rural districts more attractive and less isolated. The following are some of the measures adopted:—

(a) Motor post and parcel service. To-day most of the farmers in the older established parts get their mails every day.

(b) Supply of cheap telephone service. Almost every farm house is now in touch with towns by means of the long distance phone.

(c) Good roads, branch railways, trolley lines and other means of transportation are being developed. These help the farmer to market his wares also, in addition to facilitating his appearance at theatres and music-halls.

(d) Sending out Extension lecturers and other missionaries of culture and vocational education.

(e) Organising Social centres in rural districts and sending out people on requisition to help the farmers to get up enjoyable entertainments.

(f) Travelling libraries.

(g) In some provinces of Canada, Government helps the farmers to market their dairy produce, poultry, etc.

(h) To improve educational facilities, they are opening what are called 'Consolidated Rural Schools' in Manitoba. If there should be a school in each rural centre, it cannot of course be a high class institution. So what is now being done is to abolish these small and unsatisfactory schools, and have instead one big central school to which all the children could go. But then how could the children attend from such distances as usually exist in Western Canada between home and home, and village and village?

This difficulty is overcome by running a motor-service in connection with each school.

Most of these measures are a drain on the national exchequer; but then, it is contended, that the expenditure is none too high if it could but arrest the unhealthy flow of population to the cities. For a rural population is essential to the welfare of the country, both to develop agriculture, the parent of all industries, and to maintain the race in a high state of physical efficiency. At the same time, if the old evil of giving them no opportunity for intellectual exercise or social life is perpetuated, the country side would sink into hopeless conservatism and backwardness and become a drag on the progress of the nation. There should be no big gap between town and country in the matter of culture, if the organic unity of the state and its capacity for progress should be preserved unimpaired. It is from this last point of view that this subject becomes so important and illuminating to us in India. How to bring the villages to a level with the towns in regard to intellectual and other activities comprised under the term progress, is one of the greatest and most difficult problems mutely awaiting solution at the hands of Indian Statesmanship.

THE RURAL SCHOOL HOUSE.

The School house in India is just a pen or fold for pupils; in the West and especially in America, it is the genial, general centre round which the life of the locality gathers. It is what is called a social centre, where the village club meets, and village meetings, concerts and entertainments are held, of course, out of school hours. The School master is Secretary and organiser-in-general. The chief farmer is President-in-general, and his wife probably the real boss-in-general of the manifold activities of the rural folk in their collective capacity. It is at the village

school that the extension lecturer delivers his discourses during his periodical rounds. An American social club is never complete without a gymnasium, or rather two, one for each sex, and a dance hall, dancing being both a pastime, and in the eyes of shrewd mammas, business. In designing a school of up-to-date type, the architect—for most of them are above employing mere engineers, as we do—must have regard to these varied requirements. Perhaps in India the local commercial museum—should one be collected—may be included amongst these attractions. The central fact to be borne in mind is that now-a-days a school is a good deal more than a pound for juveniles and it can become all that the general development of social life in the community may require it to be. The moral advantages of this are that the school becomes a point of attraction to the young minds too instead of appearing as the Bastille of their freedom; young and old mix in familiar innocent intercourse, and if the older people have good manners and are free from objectionable forms of conversation, the children of the village will be immensely benefited and receive adequate training in that most difficult of all educations—the education in manners and sociality. If the night classes, vocational and technical classes, athletic and social clubs of the locality, village library, etc., are included in the school, the organisation becomes very comprehensive—which is not the same as complex—and the schoolhouse becomes, to use an Irishism, the Town Hall of the village.

The development of our poor withered schools—not inapt representatives of our poor withered lives—into Assembly Halls, rich with life, joy, and activity depends on two conditions, a good teacher and a good neighbourhood.

At Wisconsin, and some other places, a regular staff of social centre organisers is maintained. This may be a

premature step for us to take but there ought to be no delay in getting a few centres organised as an experiment by departmental officers under proper supervision. An analysis of social activities will show, that poor as our life is, it is far from having reached the stage of hopeless attrition. An American social centre has usually the following items on its programme :—

1. Study branch about two hours a week—(a) Commercial subjects : Typewriting and Shorthand.
(b) Foreign languages.
2. Gymnasium—(a) for men (b) for women.
3. Dancing.
4. Library and Reading Room.
5. Concerts.
6. Meetings.

Of these Foreign languages and Dancing are impossible in the present condition of India ; Commercial subjects are possible but hardly within the reach of practical politics except in towns and cities ; Concerts could be managed with professional assistance, though they would lack the charm pertaining to amateur performances in which respectable members of both sexes take part ; and the other items could be easily incorporated in our programme.



Local Government.

From certain points of view, an exhaustive treatment of the subject of Local Government would proceed on the following classification :—

(1) Local Government in a Unitary, non-Bureaucratic, Democratic state : example, England.

(2) Local Government in a Bureaucratic, Democratic state, Unitary or Federal : example, France and Germany.

(3) Local Government in a Federal, non-Bureaucratic, Democratic state : example, United States or Canada.

(4) Local Government in an Autocratic, Bureaucratic, Unitary state : example, Russia.

(5) Local Government in a Dependent, non-Bureaucratic country : example, Philippine Islands.

(6) Local Government in a Dependent, Bureaucratic country : example, India.

It can be easily conjectured how the degree of Local Autonomy, its relation to Central Authority, and the methods by which it is organised, stimulated, or controlled would vary in each of these cases. The present sketch cannot cover a larger ground than the few impressions and observations derived in the course of my travels, and as such has no pretensions to logical completeness or thoroughness.

ENGLAND.

England is not governed on bureaucratic principles as the continental countries of Europe and dependent countries

like India are, and this has resulted in the adoption of extremely democratic forms of Local Self-Government, the chief principles of which are as follows:—

(1) Within large, though defined, limits, local boards can raise funds by imposing rates. Each locality pays for what it wants, instead of looking to the Central Government for everything.

(2) The rates vary in different localities. All places do not march forward with mathematical regularity—some move more slowly than the rest. But then if a locality continues to be behind, local honour is stirred and a new effort made to overtake the neighbours.

(3) In spending rates, localities are given a very free hand. They are almost independent units free to try any experiment they like.

(4) I believe the local councils make their own arrangements for collection of their revenues.

(5) So that a centralised bureaucracy is a thing conspicuous by its absence in England.

To give a concrete illustration take education:—

(i) Compulsory age is fixed (within limits imposed by the state) by local councils; (ii) Education rate varies in the different counties and as between rural and manufacturing tracts. People have a direct interest in things; they pay for what they get and they know that they do not directly pay for what some other place gets.

The state comes to the aid of the poorer localities by giving special subventions. In regard to services of national importance like education, state grants are given to all localities according to definite rules. In future these grants will be larger and may even form a specified proportion of the amount raised by rates.

Should an education rate be imposed in Mysore, it would be well if each taluk is credited with the amount raised in it, and allowed the power to spend freely under the auspices of the Amildar, assisted by a local board—elected either for this purpose or a more general one—and of course on the expert advice of the Education Department. Unexpended sums should be carried over to the next year's budget. In fact this is the only proper way of dealing with special rates, *viz.*, to make the locality feel that all its money goes to itself.

The spirit of organisation on the basis of locality which is the distinguishing feature of the West is illustrated, not so much by Government arrangements which may be called artificial, as by voluntary associations such as cricket, football, and other athletic unions inspired by county or other local feeling.

There are district associations for maintaining nurses. These are private bodies, independent of Government and county council, and form one of the many instances of organised local philanthropy which constitutes so much of the charm of English public life. The Tibberton district, which I happened to visit, has one nurse. She is given a house rent-free and £80 a year. She may not charge fees except in certain cases, and then only from the richer people.

The chief local divisions in England are the Parish, the Union, the County, and the Borough,

THE PARISH COUNCIL.

The Parish has few or no functions now. Legally it could raise a revenue by means of rates; but Tibberton at all events continues to be too benevolent to levy taxes. It looks after foot-paths, stiles and recreation grounds.

Tibberton Parish, of which the Head Master of the school is the Secretary, maintains an athletic field; the generous donation of a local landlord, which athletic field maintains itself by the rents it gets from the various clubs using it. The Parish Council also puts up garden seats and other sylvan attractions.

The Unions.

The Unions exist chiefly for two purposes:—(1) Poor law administration; (2) Assessment of rateable value of properties. It is managed by a Board of Guardians elected by the rate payers. Many of its functions have been handed over to the county council but still it is an important unit. Another duty it has is that of collecting not only its own rate, but the county rate as well. As the guardians are honorary functionaries, the work of collecting revenue costs little.

In fact, the most striking feature in which England differs from India is this absence of a bureaucracy spread out like a net from one centre over the entire face of the land, and of its attendant evil, a large revenue department, which reduces the net income of the country badly. As Sir William Wedderburn remarked to me, the most stimulating and hopeful feature of English public life lies in the enormous amount of administrative work discharged, conscientiously and with scrupulous regard to rule and discipline, by unpaid agencies. In India, the paid officer loses his individuality in the machine, and the honorary officer wants to be a law unto himself. The Englishman distrusts central authority and wants to do things for himself. We are in a chronic state of resigned dependence on external authorities, human and divine. But as Sir William himself pointed out the village in India is an exception to this

nerveless condition of affairs; and the aim of the Indian administrator should be to extend and expand the co-operative spirit of the village so as to make it embrace the district and the country.

Quarter Sessions.

The Quarter Sessions areas out across the union boundaries and do not always coincide with them. The J.P.'s. who administer the law applicable to matters within its cognisance are, as is well known, honorary officers.

County Council.

The number of Councillors for Gloucestershire is about 75. The council works through its own sub-committees of which the most important is the one concerned with education.

The education sub-committee is further divided into small sections, composed of two or three members, dealing with finance, buildings, elementary schools, higher schools and so forth.

Thus, the council is organised as elaborately as any bureaucratic department, though none of the members receive salaries. I need hardly say that there is nothing wanting in attendance and zeal, though the stimulus of pay or rather the fear of losing it, is absent.

The entire work of supervising the paid permanent officials is discharged by this non-official body. This is both possible and successful because each party respects the rights and duties of the other. The non-officials know their limits and observe them. They do not make fools of themselves by undue interference, simply because they have the legal right to do so. Legal right and moral competence are two very different things which are not confounded by

Englishmen. The sense of civic responsibility—what may be called public conscience—is nowhere so well developed as in England; and this is the cause why liberty never degenerates into license or authority into despotism—such license as endangers the welfare of the community and weakens the state, or such despotism as crushes out the spirit of the people and destroys manly bearing. I notice that councillors, like Members of Parliament do not directly meddle with executive officials but only through the heads of the committees or departments concerned. If liberty and constitutionalism flourish in England, it is because they are associated with voluntary, instinctive, self-restraint and a sense of mutual duty. One thing is certain, restraint there must be, and if it does not come from self, it is sure to come from an external source, whether it is liked or not.

Chief Functions of the Council.—Roads, Police, Education, Insurance Act, Small Holdings, etc.

The Police is managed by a Joint Committee of Councillors and J.P.'s.

The revenue is derived from (i) Rates, (ii) Imperial Grants.

To quote Sir William Wedderburn again, the essential thing is to make the locality realise that the money raised there is spent there. It is the failure to observe this principle that has caused mischief as regards the efficiency of Local Boards in India. I think that there are other and equally potent causes. The English county has a history behind it; it is animated by a feeling of solidarity. Is this true of Indian districts?

Rates are levied on the rateable value of properties. In Gloucestershire the rates amount to two shillings three pence in the pound of which eleven pence or so is for education. In certain cases, and for certain purposes, a limit

is imposed by the Central Government. Thus for higher education they cannot charge more than two pence in the pound. In point of fact, they have not charged as much yet.

Some councils derive a revenue from water, gas, and other industrial undertakings. But Municipal trading is more popular with cities than counties.

Rates are levied only in respect of lands and houses above a certain value. Personal property does not contribute to the local treasury ; but it is tapped by the Imperial Government rather liberally. Local burdens do not fall on labourers, and other non-propertied classes.

Position of Towns in the Country.—Towns or boroughs are of two kinds : (1) county boroughs and (2) non-county boroughs.

County boroughs have the status of counties. They are entirely independent of the county council. They have their own education officers, sanitary departments, etc. But, generally speaking, though they could, yet they do not have their own police, but pay so much per head to the county council for policing them.

Non-county boroughs enjoy fewer privileges.

Local revenues have to be supplemented by Imperial grants. But these grants could be reduced for inefficiency. So the county has to satisfy the Inspectors of the Government in the various departments. Any aggrieved ratepayer could petition the Central Government. Execution is a local and superintendence an Imperial function.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN FRANCE.

To Professor Bethelemey, professor of Administration at the Sorbonne, Paris, I am indebted for the following information on Local Government in France :—

Department or County.—The Prefect is the head ; he

is appointed by the Ministry of the Interior. Under him are three or four officers who are also appointed directly by the State. The rest are appointed by the Prefect. He could appoint whom he likes without reference to the Central Government, provided he does not go beyond the sums allotted for the departmental or county services.

Some officers like the Inspectors of Schools and District Engineers are under the direction of the State and not of the Prefect.

In every department (or district) there is a general council elected by the people. This is, so to speak, the supreme legislature of the district. It passes the district budget and exercises general control over the Prefect and through him, the executive services generally. It can also institute inquiries and report to the Ministry of the Interior.

At the same time in accordance with the favorite French maxim of separation of powers, the Executive is not bound to obey the behests of the council.

In case of a dead look between the two, an appeal should be made to the Central Government, whose decisions are, of course, final.

The reconciliation between centralisation and local autonomy is effected on the principle of a division of functions. Thus certain services, such as roads, asylums, poor relief, protection of orphans, prevention of cruelty to children, buildings for schools, gendarmere, etc., are marked out as local. And so far as these are concerned, the general council is the supreme authority. Except in case of grave abuse, the Central Government will not interfere. In other matters, the Prefect is the master, and the council, only an advisory body. The council appoints from amongst its own members a commission of four or seven persons (one

for each Canton comprised in the department) to be a kind of standing committee. The council meets twice a year; but the Commission meets more frequently and exercises effective supervision. I think, this system, the cardinal principles of which are (a) division of services into local and general and (b) the granting of complete autonomy as regards the former, may be of some value to us in our endeavours to make local Self-Government more of a reality than it is now. The Prefect has supervision of both the spheres.

Departmental Finance.—The department receives a certain percentage of the revenue collected from within its boundaries by the State. It can also levy special cesses.

Thus each department lives on its own, except in some rare cases where a small subvention from the Central Government is allowed. The Professor is loud in praises of this system. Self-Government and self-support should go together. The system of lumping all the revenues together and then spending them in the districts without special regard to their sacrifices as well as needs, cannot promote that local sentiment without which local Government could never be a success. Financial decentralisation is another point of vital importance in this system.

It is a remarkable fact that the yield from the local and minor taxes is equal to the yield from State taxes in France.

The State can insist that a department should have such and such institutions and find the money for them. The autonomy is thus tempered by responsibility.

Cities in France.—The head of the City is the Mayor, who is elected by the Citizens. He is assisted or hampered by an elective council.

. **Revenue** :—(a) Octroi, (b) State grant five centimes on every franc of State revenue from the Municipality,

(c) Special taxes for services like water, street cleaning, lighting, etc., (d) Taxes on carriages, dogs, etc. The schools are free.

Cities too do not receive grants from Government. If they want to spend more, they must find it themselves.

The Prefect of the department controls the Mayor too. The Mayoralty is an honorary office, not a salaried one. In some big towns, the Mayor receives a travelling allowance. With the exception of premier cities, like Paris, Lyons, and Marseilles, the Communes do not employ special officers of their own for the collection of Municipal taxes, but rely on the State officers.

The fundamental proposition of the French administrative system is this:—Every self-governing area must meet all its expenditure itself.

LOCAL GOVERNMENT IN CANADA.

Canada is a new country with special problems of its own. Agriculture is her main industry, population her chief need. She must attract colonists from abroad and attract them to settle on the soil as farmers. At the same time, the dangers of a one-sided development should be guarded against by adequate encouragement of manufacturing industry. There is tremendous rivalry between place and place and town and town for alluring as large number of colonists as possible to themselves. For, increase in the number of inhabitants results not only in the more plentiful supply of labour but in enhancing the value of the landed properties of the old inhabitants, who have thus a motive, in their capacity as the governing corporation of the locality, to use or abuse public money in order to develop the locality, and their own properties incidentally, by the grant of bonuses to industries and other devices for attracting

capital and labour. Attracting a population and developing industry are the two most important points in the constructive life of an American Municipality. Of these, attracting a population is certainly not the primary need of India, but developing industry is. The new arrivals are generally ignorant, and the older bosses selfish and unprincipled, and this combination of circumstances, bossism and ignorant vote, has been the chief cause of Municipal maladministration which has been a crying evil in America. For reasons not very dissimilar, Municipal administration in India too has not been without its drawbacks, and so the methods employed on the American continent to check abuses, and to enlighten people on Municipal affairs, and to bring them to a proper sense of civic responsibility, are likely to be of particular interest to Indian publicists and administrators.

The powers of the State in Canada, which is a Federal dominion, are distributed between three agencies, *viz.*, the Dominion, the Provinces, and Municipalities. In some of the Eastern provinces, the Provincial Government has very little control over the Municipalities except in regard to audit.

Every Municipality is practically independent of the Central Government except in the following particulars: (1) While the voters sanction an undertaking but will not vote the supplies when the estimates are exceeded, Government may be approached to authorise the issue of debentures for the deficit. (2) Any aggrieved ratepayer may appeal to the Central Board of Audit to inspect local accounts, and if the auditor thinks there is a case, he will appoint an officer to investigate the books. The expenses of the audit are borne by the locality. (3) A local body is by statute prevented from borrowing beyond a certain percentage of its rateable value.

The administrative control of the Central Government being very slender, the only effective remedy against a wasteful or dishonest Municipality lies in the law courts. Local authorities, like Mayors and Councils, may be sued for interest on debt, and if the debt is proved, the court may appoint a Sheriff to levy a special cess on the Municipality. This system works well because on the whole the people have a high character, and are not too ready to go to law or take advantage of every technical ground or excuse.

Local bodies look after schools, policing, sanitation, water, roads, and lighting. Owing to the long distances and the absence of first rate transport facilities, they are invested with larger powers in Canada than is the case in the older countries. It is expected that when the country is more developed, there will be a demand for more centralisation.

Municipalities are too fond of bonusing industries and railways by cheap loans, grant of sites, exemption from taxes, and other devices. They think that factories and electric lines will develop the city and increase the rateable value of property—a legitimate enough argument which is very liable to be abused.

The sources of Municipal revenue are :—(1) Rates on lands and houses, (2) Income tax, (3) Business tax—Each business, according to its nature, is rated at a certain percentage of the rateable value of the real property on which it is situated. This is a rough and ready method, but fair enough. In the Western provinces there is a movement towards a single tax system. Many people hold that all the taxes should fall on land values and on unearned increments.

Municipal Units in Canada.—Cities and Counties rank as equal. Below counties are townships and incorporated villages.

Each of these four units has the power to tax, and the tax may be levied on rateable property, business, income, licenses, etc. Both the Dominion and the Provinces maintain a separate police force and this may be called in to assist the constables employed by the Local Bodies. The detective force is maintained by the Central Government. This decentralisation works successfully enough in Canada.

In the Ontario system there is a separate school Board in each centre, which sends in its estimates to the general Board. The latter cannot interfere with the estimates but must find the money (The General Board is the Council which is analogous to our District and Taluk Boards). The object of this special educational board is to prevent short-sighted starvation of education by the general body by giving a special status to education, commensurate with its importance. If all the functions of a township or city are managed by one body, it may feel tempted to stint on education and spend in other directions, which would be fatal to the future of the country.

THE CITY OF TORONTO.

The government of the city is vested in a Municipal Council composed of two chambers, the Council and the Board of Aldermen. The Council is composed of the Mayor and four members forming a Board of Control. There are twenty Aldermen elected annually, three from each of the wards number one to six, and two from ward number seven. The Council as a whole is the legislative body of the Municipality and carries on its work through Standing Committees. The Board of Control is the executive body and prepares the annual estimates, supervises matters relating to finance, appoints officials, and carries on the general administration of the city except in regard to the departments of Education

and Police. Education is under the control of a Board of Education elected by the citizens, and the Police are under the Board of Police Commissioners which consists of the Mayor, the County Judge, and the Police Magistrate.

The regular meetings of the Council are held every alternate Monday except during the summer vacation. The Board of Control meets every Tuesday, Wednesday and Thursday in each week, and Friday preceding the regular Council meeting.

The following are the Committees of the Council :—

Legislation and Reception, Works, Property, Fire and Light, Parks and Exhibitions, Local Boardsof Health, Finance.

The Departments in the Municipal Office are as follows :—

Mayor's office, City Clerk's office, City Treasurer's office, City Auditor's office, Law Department, Work's Department, Hydro-electric Department, Department of Assessment, Survey branch, Department of Property, City Architect's office, Park's Department, Medical and Health Department, City Relief office, Police Department, and Fire Department.

Finance Debt of the City.--The gross debt is nearly thirty-eight million dollars. There is a Sinking fund of nearly nine and a half million dollars ; so, the net debt is about twenty-eight and a half million dollars.

The estimated value of property owned by the city is over twenty million dollars, and a large amount of this is revenue producing. The total revenue from city properties exclusive of water works is about one hundred and eighty-seven thousand dollars. From licenses, Police court fines, cattle markets, weigh' house fees, and the street railway service the city gets an income of about \$1,091,700 and

from the water works about \$900,000. The total revenue of the city exclusive of the amount raised by taxation is \$2,587,144.

Some estimates for the city of Toronto for the year ending 31st December 1911, to illustrate the prominence given to education:—

General Debt	...	...	\$ 1,482,775
Street Railway Debt		...	230,155
Public Schools	...	...	191,778
High Schools	...	...	36,116
Separate Schools	...	...	2,266
Public Library	...	...	7,302
Industrial Schools	...	...	2,541
Technical Schools	...	...	19,850
			\$ 1,972,783

The death rate of the city is 15·66 per cent of the population. There are seven public hospitals in addition to many private ones. Ambulances are run both by the Police and the Health Department.

Some Rules in regard to Local Improvement Works.—

When the owners of property on any street or lane desire a sewer, sidewalk, pavement or curbing, or when the property owners in any locality desire the opening, widening, extension or diversion of any street or lane, application should be made to the City Engineer for a form of petition to the Council for the work or improvement. When such petition is signed by two-thirds in number of the owners representing more than one-half in value of the property to be benefited by the work of improvement, the Council may proceed therewith and *assess the cost against the property benefited.*

If the names of two-thirds, in number of the property owners representing more than one-half in value of the property cannot be obtained, the petition may nevertheless be presented to the council, and if the council on the recommendation of the City Engineer finds that the work is necessary, and in the public interests, it may direct that it be proceeded with, unless a majority of the property owners interested representing more than one-half of the value of the property to be assessed petition against the proposed work or improvement within a month after the council gives notice of its intention to proceed with such work.

Notwithstanding any petition to the contrary, the council, if it deemed the same necessary in the public interest, and by a two-thirds vote of the whole council may proceed with any of the above-mentioned works and *assess the cost thereof against the property benefited.*

Toronto Board of Education, 1911.—This Board consists of fourteen members (two from each ward) elected for a term of two years, seven members retiring annually, and two members appointed by the Separate School Board.

Schools of Toronto.

	No.
Teachers on Public School Staff ...	890
Kindergarteners on Public School Staff ...	145
Teachers on High School Staff ...	78
Teachers on Technical School Staff ...	54
Teachers on Separate School Staff ...	114
Registered pupils on Public Schools	51,714
Registered pupils in Separate Schools ...	6,703
Average daily attendance, Public Schools	35,042
Average daily attendance, High Schools ...	2,315
Average daily attendance, Technical Schools	586
Average daily attendance, Separate Schools	4,145

Attendance at Technical Schools			
(night classes)	...	...	1,328
Number of Schools, Elementary	...		74
Number of High Schools	...		7
Number of Technical High School	...		1

VALUE.

Public School property	...	\$3,300,000
High School property	...	525,000
Technical School property	...	175,000
Separate School property	...	400,000

Public Libraries—The management and control of the Public libraries of the City are vested in a Board of Management, composed of the Mayor of the City and eight others, three of whom are appointed by the City Council, three by the Board of Education, and two by the Separate School Board. The persons appointed by the City Council and Board of Education hold office for three years, and those by the Separate School Board for two years. These numbers retire in rotation at the end of their respective terms on the 31st January.

The Board holds its regular meetings on the second Friday of each month, and the Library and Finance Committee meets on the next preceding Tuesday.

The Public Libraries are maintained *by a tax* not to exceed a quarter of a mill on the assessable property in the City.

There is a principal library and a Central Circulating Library and in addition there are six branch libraries in the City.

The combined libraries of the City contain about 165,000 books of which approximately 75,000 are in the Reference Library. The circulation of books from the Central library and branches during the past year was

about 560,000. The use of books in the Reference Library is about 200,000 per annum.

On the third floor of the Reference Library is situated the Art Museum where throughout the year there are exhibitions of the various Art Associations of the City. These are under the control of the Art Museum Association, to which the use of the rooms are given free of all charge. On Saturdays of each week the rooms are open to the public without charge.

All the branches are well supplied with daily papers and periodicals from all over the world.

For the information of the public a bulletin is issued every month giving in dictionary catalogue form a list of all the books received during the preceding month at the Central Circulating library and at the Reference Library. This may be purchased at any Library for two cents.

Library Statistics, 1910.

Value of libraries, including buildings and grounds	...	about	\$800,000
Books issued for home reading	...		410,119
Reference Books used	...	...	185,000
Juvenile Books used	...	...	79,003
Total number of books and pamphlets in the Libraries	...	...	187,452
Books added during the year	...		15,524

Population of Toronto as shown by Assessors.

1906	...	253,720
1907	...	272,600
1908	...	287,201
1909	...	325,302
1910	...	341,991

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT IN WESTERN CANADA GENERAL INTRODUCTION.

The eastern provinces of Canada being of greater age and denser population, and in closer proximity to European precedents, have a communal life very similar to that of England. Whereas the West, as befits a new country, thoroughly imbued with radical and democratic ideas, is experimenting on new lines which are simple, scientific, and extremely popular in character. Also the great influx of immigrants from foreign countries to the western provinces has necessitated the provision for these new settlers of a system which is elementary and easily understood by all without much reference to the past history of the national institutions of these different peoples. The West has also had the advantage of studying closely all the systems of Local Government now in vogue in the world and selecting the elements considered to be most fundamental.

Western Canada is a country of enormous dimensions with a sparse population. Settlement is proceeding gradually. The districts are at tremendous distances from each other. No wonder therefore that the Central Government finds it impossible to exercise close or direct supervision over the various localities and prefers to leave them in possession of a large amount of autonomy. Indeed, distances and difficulty of easy communication have produced in the 20th century some of those very effects which in the middle ages took on the shape of feudal particularism. To the majority of rural inhabitants Local Government is *the* Government, just as to the majority of people in India the village Government and the revenue department constitute the totality of the Raj.

In Manitoba, Saskatchewan, and Alberta, there are generally speaking, five grades of Municipal organisation:

the local improvement district, the rural municipality, the village, the town, and the city. Perhaps the Local Government district has no right to be included in this list, but still it marks a step in the evolution of Municipal organisation. Different provinces lay down different conditions of population, etc., as a condition for setting up these different entities, but even here, allowing for local variations, there is a good deal of similarity.

The whole province of Saskatchewan is divided into units, each of which consists of nine townships forming a square eighteen miles each way. The township here stands merely for a certain amount of area but does not mean the same thing as township in England. In the unorganised stage, that is to say, when the locality is administered as a local improvement district, the public works are administered by the department of the Central Government. Later when the population has increased, the people may petition to have the district raised into a rural municipality with powers to issue debentures on municipal securities.

The Rural Municipality—The Government of rural municipalities is conducted by Councils varying in membership from three to six and presided over by a Reeve.

The provincial department of Municipal affairs acts as guide, philosopher, and friend of the rural municipality. The Saskatchewan Government whose laws on this subject are regarded as a model of clearness and brevity has issued a book of skeleton bye-laws whereby the efforts of local politicians in the newly formed municipal centres may be directed towards useful and practical ends and measures.

In Manitoba, a village should have a population of 500 ; in Saskatchewan a population of 100 people is enough to constitute a village, and in Alberta twenty-five inhabited

houses to the square mile suffice. In Manitoba a town should have a population of 1,500 as against 500 and 700 respectively in Saskatchewan and Alberta, and a city of 10,000 as against 5,000 in Saskatchewan and in 3,000 in Alberta.

The part played by the railways in the development of the country—Communities seldom rise spontaneously. They are generally created by railways which are the most active and far-seeing agents in this respect. A railway company subdivides and sells or lets lands in its possession promising to open a railway station at that centre. When the railway station and the railway line come they bring also a hotel, a blacksmith's shop, a livery stable, and a general shop which form the nucleus of the future village. Soon advertisements fly about the land drawing attention to the extraordinary beauty of the scenery around, the fertility of the soil, and the general intelligence and industrial enterprise of the people. Some lies have the happy quality of justifying themselves, and the lies about this new place may be of this nature. If a place is applauded as very prosperous and densely propelled, people come to settle there in hopes of sharing in its material prosperity, and thus actually increase both the population and the prosperity of the locality. This way of booming a place to attract immigrants is vulgarly known as boosting; and in the art of boosting the Canadians and Americans, especially of the West, are born artists.

Methods of Boosting—Until recently, every variety of boosting was allowed. But now the State has stopped it in certain directions. One way of attracting people to settle was by bonusing industries, that is to say by giving such privileges as free sites, reduced taxation, exemption from taxes, bounties etc., to business men on condition of their

locating their factories or firms in the neighbourhood. This not only led to the starting of industries which could never thrive, but sometimes unscrupulous men took advantage of the competition between different villages to extract onerous terms. I even heard of some good people who, when a business failed in one place, migrated with the movable part of their factories to another place, thus getting a living more through the bonuses given than through the work turned out in their shops.

Towns and Cities—The Government of towns is, generally speaking, by a Mayor and Council elected annually. The Government of Cities depends on individual charters; but in most cases, it is by a Mayor and Aldermen elected from wards or districts into which a city is divided. Up till a few years ago, the general form of city government was one known as the Council system or the Bicameral system. The Mayor and the Aldermen formed the executive body; the legislature was formed by a council which met for purposes of legislation, criticism and general oversight. Now this form of Government which is the one with which we in India are familiar is no longer so popular as it once was in America, and is yielding ground to another system known as Commission Government.

The disadvantages of the old system are as follows:—

(a) The rate-payers elect a Commissioner or Councillor for their ward; generally the member thus elected is a resident of the ward. Thus the rate-payers very often elect fourth-rate men of local notoriety without much thought as to their fitness for the Government of the entire city.

(b) Divided responsibility. When things go wrong the executive is apt to blame the Council and the Council is only too ready to blame the executive.

COMMISSION GOVERNMENT.

The new system is designed to avoid these evils. Its chief features are as follows :—

(a) The city as a whole elects either three or five members who are to form a commission entrusted with the task of managing the affairs of the city or the municipality. These five are both executive and legislature. They prepare the budget, they collect the taxes, and they supervise the work of all the departments.

(b) The commissioners are generally full-time officials of the Municipality.

(c) Each one has certain departments under his control.

It is held that this system is more democratic inasmuch as it brings the city government into direct touch with the people, and undoubtedly it seems to be more efficient as well. Usually either trained business men or specialists in municipal affairs are elected by the people. As a safe-guard against possible abuses, many cities have also adopted initiative and referendum and recall, by the former of which they could on their own initiative pass any legislative measure they please, and by the latter recall or dismiss any of the commissioners who fail to give satisfaction. In one word, the commission government means the administration of a city on the same principles and plan as a gigantic joint-stock company is administered by means of Directors elected by the shareholders and responsible for them.

Compromise schemes are also in force. For instance, Toronto is governed by a Mayor, Council, and five Controllers, an arrangement which is reproduced also in Winnipeg. Though the adoption of the Commission system is

optional, about five of the cities in Saskatchewan and three out of the five in Alberta have adopted it. Calgary is governed by a Mayor, twelve Aldermen, and two commissioners. In some towns the Commissioners are chosen not directly by the people but by a Council elected by the people.

It must be noticed that though the city government is entrusted with all functions, the schools invariably are placed under the management of a separately elected body. It is felt that education is too important and too technical a subject to be left to a general body like a municipal council and so special school boards are elected to look after municipal schools.

MUNICIPAL BORROWING

Canada is a new country. Its riches are still in a potential condition and it is in a desperate hurry to get on. There is only one way by which she could develop her resources, and that is by borrowing. There is not an institution of any kind in Canada which does not freely borrow on debentures. Rural municipalities, villages, towns, cities, schools of all grades including even the most elementary raise money freely by the issue of debentures or stocks. They have none of that nervousness about getting into debt that we have. They are hopeful of the future; and they know that if they work they could meet all their liabilities and in addition effect considerable profits. If they borrow freely, they work hard, and the credit of Canada is exceedingly good in international markets. As is but expedient, certain restrictions are placed on municipal borrowing :—

(a) In towns and cities bye-laws creating debts must be ratified by a two-thirds majority of the rate-payers voting.

(b) Debentures for permanent improvements must not cover a period greater than the estimated life of the improvements.

(c) No debentures must be issued for works of a temporary nature.

(d) Extension of public works usually on the outskirts of a city from which the residents of a particular locality would benefit more than the town as a whole, must be met partly by a special levy on the inhabitants thus benefited. For instance, the cost of paving in portions analagous to our extensions must be met almost entirely by a special levy on the people living in the extensions. Because not only are they benefited by these improvements, but their property also goes up in value.

All the towns and cities in Western Canada are great believers in municipal ownership of public utilities and operate their own street cars, water and electric light services. The detailed accounts which are subjoined will convey a more realistic idea of the municipal life and system in Western Canada than a general, introductory disquisition of this kind.

RURAL MUNICIPALITIES IN SASKATCHEWAN.

(Extracted from a Government publication.)

The rural municipality is enabled to deal with the general welfare of the community, providing for its health, granting aid to the sick and the worthy indigent, assisting in the maintenance of hospitals, controlling cemeteries, providing for tree planting in public places, imposing fines for light weights and short measures, preventing cruelty to animals, restraining the running at large of dogs, the application of herd and pound laws, preventing prairie fires, licensing hawkers and pedlars, regulating speed on high-

ways, granting aid to agricultural societies, and many other duties which should be attended to locally. They are likewise in a position to erect municipal buildings when they feel able and have the consent of the ratepayers concerned. Their revenue is often greatly increased by fines resulting from the infraction of their bye-laws. They also have charge of the collection of school taxes in rural districts located within the municipality limits; thus one secretary-treasurer issues an assessment notice for all taxes within his organisation, and can give complete statements of arrears of taxes, so that these tax-matters which are really local in their nature, can be adjusted without reference to the central authority at Regina. Several powers in addition to those already outlined are given to them which concern matters for local management and can be arranged to better advantage by the people more directly concerned. One essential difference between the local Improvement District and the Rural Municipality consists in the fact that a rural municipality can borrow by debentures in order to perform permanent improvements, thus arranging that those who will enjoy the improvements in after years will help to pay for them and so far relieving the burden on the present pioneer public. The indebtedness may be spread over a period of twenty years.

It is conceded that debt under ordinary conditions is something to avoid, and that it is easier to assume a debt than it is to pay it, but the experience of many farmers in Saskatchewan will show the advisability of securing a loan on his property to order that he may wisely invest the proceeds of such loan, and to a certain extent the same is true of the borrowing by municipalities. However, public men are fully aware of the fact that in some provinces municipalities have burdened themselves for years to come owing to

the abuse of powers which were given them in regard to the borrowing of money. The Saskatchewan Act prevents any rash legislation on the part of the rural municipalities, for in this province the total of all debentures at any time outstanding cannot be more than \$3,000 per township, and the debenture cannot bear a greater rate of interest than eight per cent. Again, the loan cannot be made without the consent of the people, and a vote may be taken on the bye-law after it has secured its second reading in the council board, and due notice to the public of the intended proceedings must be given; and again, even if the people do endorse the proposition, the money cannot yet be secured until permission is granted by the Minister of Municipal Affairs. Thus they have circumscribed and limited the borrowing powers of rural municipalities to such an extent that rash or hasty action on their part in this connection is practically impossible.

The legislature occasionally votes grants to rural municipalities and other local organisation.

CITIES IN SASKATCHEWAN.

Provision is now made for either the ward system of representation or for selecting the Aldermen from the city at large. Commissioners too may be appointed for the general government of the city.

The assessment of the city is levied on: first, lands; second, businesses; third, incomes; fourth, special franchises; fifth, licenses. Land is assessed at its fair actual value and improvements at sixty per cent.

VILLAGES IN SASKATCHEWAN.

To the European or Asiatic this organisation would appear very strange; and the new-comer has some difficulty in understanding how the name village happened to be

applied to a few scattered residences, shops, and stores spread over a large number of acres. A large geographical area could be organised into a village when a population of not less than fifty is contained therein.

The present Village Act provides for an administration conducted by three Councillors elected by popular vote. The Councillors in turn, elect one of their number chairman, or "overseer." The secretary-treasurer, who must not be a Councillor, is appointed to perform the executive and clerical work. Regular bye-laws are passed, but these are not enforced until approved by the Minister of Municipal affairs.

For current expenditure a temporary loan may be made not to exceed sixty per cent of the taxes levied for the year. Provision is made for loans by debenture extending over fifteen years. As in towns, in rural municipalities the care of the sick is likewise to receive the attention of the village authorities.

Many of the villages have adopted the single tax system.

Bonusing is forbidden by the following provision :—

No Council of any municipality shall have power.

1. To grant a bonus or any other aid to any person, company, or corporation for the construction, establishment or operation of any manufactory, mill, railway or any other business or concern whatever either within or without the municipality.

2. To exempt from taxation any such manufactory, mill, railway or other business or concern.

3. To subscribe for stock in or to guarantee the bonds, debentures, or other securities of any such railway or other company.

The purposes for which a debenture loan may be raised are also enumerated :—

Purchasing or constructing any road, highway, bridge or ferry, purchasing or acquiring any land, gravel pit, right of way or easement for municipal purposes, draining any portion of the municipality, providing a supply of water for any portion of the municipality, constructing and furnishing any building for the use of the municipality, purchasing machinery, tools or implements for the use of the municipality.

It is not possible for an inhabitant of so slow a country like India to realise the extraordinarily rapid growth of towns in Canada and the fullness and richness of life in them. The following account of Saskatoon, extracted from one of the boosting publications, may serve to fill some of us with inspiration as well as wonder.

GROWTH OF SASKATOON.

Ten years ago there was practically nothing where Saskatoon now stands—a beautiful highly modern city of over 27,000 people.

“Saskatoon has :

One Impulse,—the City's best interests. No OLD INHABITANTS to hinder progress. An honest, far-sighted, progressive city Council. An earnest, active Board of Trade. The strongest Strategic Geographical Location in Western Canada—see any map. An exquisite Natural Charm. A magnificent, swift river of Purest Water. Four Bridges over the river, and a fifth in prospect. Three Trunk Railways and branches thereof, giving Saskatoon Ten different operating railway outlets (to which three others will be shortly added) and enabling her over TWO HUNDRED WHOLE-SALERS to control beyond competition, the Wholesale distributing business on 1,688 miles of operating lines (or, 263 miles greater than the distance from Winnipeg to Montreal

per C.P.R. radiating throughout over 45,000 square miles of Wholesale Distributing Territory, stretching far into Alberta, indeed to within 98 miles of Edmonton, and embracing over 200 thriving railroad points. Thus, having sole control of area so vast and important, it is not remarkable that SASKATOON NOW HAS THE SECOND LARGEST WHOLESALE DISTRIBUTING BUSINESS IN THE THREE PRAIRIE PROVINCES, same being exceeded by that of Winnipeg alone. Further Saskatoon has upwards of 70,000 square miles of Distributing Territory for goods manufactured locally,—such as flour etc., etc.,—within which no other Western city can compete. SASKATOON'S STRATEGIC CENTRAL ISOLATION, far removed from any other large point, explains the foregoing splendid facts which any of the railway companies will confirm. On the newer lines, Saskatoon is the only city between Portage la Prairie and Edmonton, a distance of 740 miles—see any map. Saskatoon has an industrial life well awakened and expanding rapidly. Thirty Passenger Trains daily arriving and departing at her Three Railway Stations. Twenty-seven mails each day received and despatched by Post Office. Highly modern Water and Sewer systems: 33.55 miles Water mains; 31.90 miles Sewers. The latest best fire Equipment procurable, including an 80 H.P., Combination Chemical Hose and Motor Waggon, and another of 60 H.P.,—also steamer etc. Three up-to-date Fire Halls and 372 Fire Hydrants. OWING TO HER UNLIMITED SUPPLY OF PURE WATER AND THE EXCELLENCE OF HER FIRE FIGHTING EQUIPMENT SASKATOON'S FIRE INSURANCE RATE IS THE LOWEST IN ALL SASKATCHEWAN. Municipal Light and Power Plants. Saskatoon's is now THE CHEAPEST STEAM GENERATED ELECTRIC POWER IN THE PRAIRIE PROVINCES. Forty-two miles Cement Side-walks. Three and a half miles Paved Streets lit by 420 Tugsten Electric

light standards, affording truly beautiful illumination. Twelve modern Hotels,—another under construction. Seventeen Places of Worship and other Seven new churches now being constructed at a total cost of \$ 137,000. Y.M.C.A., and Y.W.C.A.,—two splendid new buildings towards which the citizens of Saskatoon within two days contributed over \$137,000,—an-all he-world record of giving for the objects in question. SASKATCHEWAN PROVINCIAL UNIVERSITY, SASKATCHEWAN PROVINCIAL AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE, SASKATCHEWAN PROVINCIAL AGRICULTURAL FARM, absorbing in all 1,333 acres, and planned for the eventual accommodation of five thousand students. \$1,250,000 expended upon buildings during past two years. Emmanuel College—the first Anglician Theological College in Saskatchewan—\$100,000 expended upon buildings during the past two seasons. Provincial Normal School, for the training of first, second, third class and high school teachers—over 100 now or roll. One of the most imposing Collegiatic Institutes in Canada. Saskatoon has over 2,900 scholars attending her seven splendid schools. Four more schools under construction at a total cost of \$583,000. Twenty new school sites purchased and as yet unoccupied. Up-to-date Business College. Municipality owned and operated STREET CAR SYSTEM, about eleven miles now running. Municipality owned and operated CITY HOSPITAL,—the first in the West ; the second in the Dominion. New \$500,000 building to be erected in Spring. St. Paul's Hospital,—splendid new building now nearing completion. Fourteen City Parks embracing over 400 acres and including ten acres City Nursery. Sixteen Chartered Banks, representing a total actual capital of \$132,719,232. Four Trust Companies. Three high-class Daily Newspapers. Three High-class weeklies. Three Express Companies ; Three Telegraph Companies. Automatic

Telephone first installed in Canada. Long Distance Telephone—connections in all directions. City Market, Court House, Land Titles Office controlling magnificent district. Masonic Temple. I.O.O.F. Temple. Two Opera Houses. Twelve Amusement Halls. Three Departmental Stores—two of them the largest of their kind west of Winnipeg. R.N.W. Mounted Police Post. Headquarter of 105th Saskatoon Fusiliers—8 companies. Over twenty Fraternal Societies. City Club—one of the finest and best appointed in Western Canada. Country Club. A Home Re-union Association which advances passages from the British Isles to Saskatoon to wives and children of respectable old Country men who are already in the City. The Most Picturesque Fair Grounds in the West. The earliest, fastest race Track in Western Canada. Four good orchestras. Philharmonic Society—winner of the highest Provincial honours. Dramatic Society Amateur Operatic Society. Automobile Club—over six hundred Autos in the city. Gun Club, Rifle Club. Golf Club, etc., etc., SASKATOON HAS THE BRIGHTEST HAPPIEST SOCIAL LIFE TO BE FOUND ANYWHERE; SASKATOON FOR SOCIABILITY AND FOR CULTURED KIND HEARTED PEOPLE," in fact everything except an unwavering regard for that most unprofitable of commodities, literal truth.

Growth of the City.

1903	113
1906	3,011

Population.

1911	16,086
1912	27,527

Buildings put up.

1907	...	...	\$ 377,211
1908	...	...	115,625
1909	...	...	1,002,055
1910	...	...	2,817,771

1911	...	...	5,028,366
1912	...	...	7,640,530

City Assessment.

1906	...	...	\$2,517,145
1907	...	...	6,621,337
1908	...	...	7,450,135
1909	...	...	8,156,357
1910	...	...	10,748,639
1911	...	...	23,392,528
1912	...	...	39,867,335

Every man in the old world is requested by Saskatoon to put himself the following question: "Am I content with my progress in a worldly sense—or have I stagnated? If I continue here, what are my future prospects? What is my condition likely to be five, ten, or twenty years hence? Honestly am I satisfied or dissatisfied and discouraged, and if I am discouraged why should not I try Saskatoon;" or may be Sanatogen?

Saskatoon invites you because it is a beautiful city with boundless prospects. It is the city of prosperity. The city where you cannot fail even if you want to and just the city that would suit you and everybody. It has a bracing climate and a provincial University. Its natural resources are boundless and its Agricultural College is first class. Saskatoon favours municipal ownership as far as it is deemed practicable and controls its water, light, power, street car system, sewerage, and hospital. It is claimed that as there is no town above Saskatoon for over 500 miles, the water of the city could not be other than absolutely pure. The power plant is not run to earn a handsome dividend for a few shareholders; but solely with the object of giving the citizens a good service at the lowest rates. Similarly with other public utilities. Saskatoon has sixteen Banking establishments

representing a total actual capital of \$132,719,232. They are as follows :—

Canadian Bank of Commerce and two branches of same. Bank of Nova Scotia and branch of same. Union Bank of Canada, Northern Crown Bank, Dominion Bank, Quebec Bank, Royal Bank, Bank of Montreal, Bank of Hamilton, Trader's Bank, Imperial Bank, Bank of British North America, Merchants' Bank.

In keeping with her characteristic progressiveness, Saskatoon has four first-class daily newspapers and three weeklies of similar excellence. She has also an automatic telephone system. The boosting pamphlet goes on to claim that Saskatoon is very desirable also for those in search of a refined social atmosphere or an environment representative of culture; and one only hopes that all the statements of the Publicity Department of Saskatoon are not on a par with this.

The main Civic Improvements in 1912 were the following :—

Thirteen miles water mains and sewers...	\$180,000
Twenty-one miles cement sidewalks ...	150,000
Three and one-half miles street paving ...	400,000
Three and one-half miles Tungsten street lights, 420 standards ...	35,000
Completion of pumping plant, capacity 4,000,000 gallons per day ...	80,000
Additional 2,000 Kilowatt turbine to electric plant ...	175,000
Extension of lighting system ...	80,000
Installation of Police patrol and fire alarm systems ...	40,000
Board of trade building ...	8,000
Storm sewers ...	70,000

Subway C.N.R. tracks, 19th street	...	120,000
Re-modelling King Edward School for City		
Offices		15,000
Purchase of parks, boulevards, drives, etc.		100,000
Street railway		500,000
Intercepting trunk sewer, 1911-12	...	301,000
Additional fire equipment		16,000
Provincial 1912 expenditure on Saskatchewan		
Provincial University Buildings at Sas-		
katoon, (\$1,000,000 spent in 1911)	...	60,000
1912 Buildings		7,640,530

and as a final flourish reference is made to Saskatoon's solidity and sociability, whatever this may mean.

The city is undoubtedly in a state of vigorous and irrepressible growth. Everywhere are to be seen building operations, but the houses now under construction are small and there are extensive vacant spaces still to be built up. The University is situated about two miles or more from the city and it is expected that in ten years' time it will be right at the centre. Banks are numerous. But the most remarkable thing about life in the sparsely populated regions of Western Canada is that about 90 per cent of the farmers keep banking accounts. Saskatoon is situated in the Prairies which are absolutely level expanses spreading over thousands of square miles, and so before water could be supplied to the city, it has to be pumped up into tanks placed on the top of specially erected towers, and then drawn off. As a Canadian gentleman observed to me "it is no exaggeration to say that modern civilisation is bound up with running water." A good deal of the drudgery of an ordinary Indian household could be avoided if proper lavatories for washing up purposes could be put up in all houses. Saskatoon has two water towers.

Of the various departments of Municipal Government, what is known as the City Board of Trade requires special mention. Its purpose is partly to boost the city in newspapers, and partly to supply information, and find employment to applicants. All kinds of questions are addressed to this body, what the true value of real property is, whether it could send out an engineer, whether the city could bonus such and such a concern, if so and so is an honest business man; and the Board is supposed to send out reliable replies to all pertinent queries.

REGINA.

Regina is another of the younger and fast growing cities of Canada which recall to one the wonders of Aladdin's lamp.

The first settlers arrived in May 1882, and subsequently a canvas town sprang up near the Wascana Creek, which has now grown into a magnificent city.

Owing to its geographical situation in the heart of the grain growing districts of Western Canada, and unequalled railway facilities, Regina has become the largest distributing point for agricultural implements in the world, and practically every Canadian and American implement manufacturing firm of any importance has an agency here. The city has also twenty-seven manufacturing concerns and over 200 wholesale and commercial houses.

The value of goods shipped from Regina in 1912 was twenty million dollars for agricultural implements and approximately forty million dollars for wholesale distribution generally.

Regina is served by all the three great railway systems of Canada, the Canadian Pacific, the Canadian Northern and the Grand Trunk Pacific.

Regina is a firm believer in municipal ownership and owns its street railway, of which it has some sixteen miles constructed within the city limits ; (the programme for 1913 includes the construction of an additional fifteen miles) light and power plant supplying cheap light and power ; and water system, the water being obtained from springs situated at a distance of some eight miles. A municipality owned gas plant is also projected.

The present population of the city is only 45,000 and yet from the educational and social points of view the city has made striking progress. The following are the educational institutions:—The Regina College, The Anglican College, the Collegiate Institutes, the Provincial Normal School. The Presbyterians are preparing to open a big college at a cost of about one million dollars. There are also eight public and separate schools, two public hospitals and several business colleges or schools, and numerous societies for the advancement of art, music, literature and science, two daily morning papers, and two daily evening papers, and four weekly papers. As to amusements, the city has a theatre, six moving picture theatres, and two more large theatres are projected.

Local Improvements.

The assessment of the cost of the several improvements is spread over the following terms:—

	Years
Pavements	15
Sidewalks (concrete)	20
Sidewalks (plank)	5
Sewers ...	30
Water mains ...	30

When the owners of the property abutting on any street or place desire the construction of any of the following

local improvements, application should be made to the city clerk for a form of petition to the council for the work or improvement. Such petition must be signed by at least two-thirds of the registered or assessed owners of property abutting on the street or place where the work or improvement is required, and representing at least one-half in value of such property; and on receipt of such sufficiently signed petition the council may proceed with the work or improvement and assess the cost in whole or part against the property benefited.

If, in the opinion of the council, any such work or improvement is necessary and in the public interest, it may direct that it be proceeded with unless a petition against said work or improvement signed by a majority of the owners of the property affected and representing at least one-half in value thereof be received by the council within two weeks after the last publication of the intention of the council to undertake such work or improvement, which publication must be made once in each week for two successive weeks in some newspaper published in the city.

The term "Local Improvement" shall be taken to mean:—

(a) The opening, widening, straightening, extending, grading, levelling, macadamizing, paving, the planking of any street or public lane, alley, way or place; or

(b) The construction of any sidewalk, which shall include any street-crossing constructed in connection with a sidewalk, bridge, culvert, or embankment forming part of a highway; or

(c) The curbing, sodding, boulevarding or planting of any street or public lane, alley, square or other public place; or

(d) The making, deepening, enlarging or prolonging

of any common sewer or water main and sewer or water service connections ; or

(e) The constructing of any conduit for wires or pipes along any road way, street, lane, alley, square or other public place ; or

(f) The reconstructing (but not the mere repair and maintenance) of any of the said works during the originally estimated lifetime thereof ; or

(g) The repairs and maintenance thereof after the lapse of the originally estimated lifetime thereof ; or

(h) The erecting of ornamental street lighting standards ; or

(i) The installing of high pressure water mains specially constructed for the purposes of fire protection.

It has been the custom of the council to take advantage of the alternative provided by the City Act, and proceed by way of notice of intention, but such notice of intention has almost invariably originated with the reception of an insufficiently signed petition from adjacent property owners which petition, although insufficiently signed and therefore not entitling the council to proceed in accordance therewith, indicated a desire on the part of the property owners for the construction of such work or improvement.

The following are the Banks operating in Regina :—

Bank of Montreal ; Union Bank of Canada ; Imperial Bank of Canada ; Bank of Ottawa ; Canadian Bank of Commerce ; Northern Crown Bank ; Sterling Bank ; Dominion Bank ; Royal Bank ; Bank of Nova Scotia ; Merchant's Bank.

Regina has also a Board of trade with a present membership of 30 divided into the following committees :—

Advertising, New Industries, Shippers, Bankers and Capitalists, Retailers, Legislation, Fuel, Light and Power,

Architects and Engineers, Finance, Builders and Contractors, Implements.

The city has further, a public library, an Agricultural and Industrial Exhibition, and a society for the advancement of art, literature, and science.

CALGARY.

Calgary represents a combination of the council and commission systems of Municipal Government. The citizens elect the Council and also three Commissioners of whom the Mayor is one. The Calgary public library is administered by a Library Board of seven members, the Mayor being an ex-officio member and the remaining six being appointed by the City Council for two years. The City Council levies a special library rate. The library has three principal departments: the Reference department, the Adult Circulation department, and the Children's room. Any citizen of Calgary is entitled to a free membership on signing an application card proving his address and furnishing names of two friends as guarantee. Several study clubs meet regularly in the building. The well-equipped lecture room is constantly in use.

VANCOUVER.

In Vancouver there is an Exhibition Committee formed by the people for the people. It is a private institution under the auspices of which four big exhibitions have been held in recent years. The number of newspapers, and periodicals published in Vancouver is forty, and there are sixty Banks, including branches, twenty hotels, sixteen hospitals, and nine theatres. A University is in course of organisation.

One of the main objects of the Canadian Municipalities is to attract immigration and increase population—an object

which there is no need to pursue in India. In both countries, there is, speaking in a sense, dearth of labour; here through ignorance, immobility, and difficulty of adapting ourselves to the needs and conditions of modern life, there through sheer lack of human material. Boosting methods have a field here too, but chiefly for the purpose of inducing idle hands to be busy, and not for increasing their number. This fundamental difference in the social conformation of the East and the West would doubtless entail differences in methods of organising municipal life. The invention of machinery, for instance, has a peculiar value in America, as dispensing with the need for employing a large amount of labour, as, in fact, a substitute for population. In India, it is not substitution that is wanted, but the calling up of idle reserves to the front, the mobilising of a vast, inert mass of people.

CIVIC EDUCATION IN AMERICA.

As has been already remarked, Americans have to reckon with the ignorant vote and the selfish boss in the same manner as we are obliged to do in India; and so there is equal need in both countries for the municipal education of the people. The following represent some of the methods adopted in America for dispelling ignorance and rousing the civic conscience.

I. City Clubs.—The City Club is a peculiar institution of America. It is both a social centre and a rate-payer's association for keeping watch and ward on the conduct of the city authorities. The members are formed into different committees corresponding to the Municipal committees or boards, each to watch over one department. They interview officials, attend committee meetings, and place their views before the City Corporation, and prepare memoranda on all the important subjects both for enlightening the

government and the people. The origin of these clubs is traceable to two causes: (i) corrupt city government, and (ii) the failure of representative government. Though all the municipal officials are elected, they cannot be said to represent the feelings of the best part of the electorate. The executive cannot be turned out before the expiry of its legal period. The sense of public honor is low and bossism is high. Hence the better classes in a city organise a sort of informal government to keep an eye on the legal government. Nobody says that this is an ideal system. On the very face of it, it is a palliative or remedy pending the radical improvement of the general system of administration.

Bad City Government is attributable to—ignorant vote; apathy of the higher classes; lack of honorable traditions of public life; absence of a leisured class; The official habit of clinging to their posts till removed by force or death; corrupt bosses. These causes are not without a facile field of operation in India.

The movement for reform seems to have commenced in right earnest and is beginning to make itself felt. Americans are alive to their defects, and their very sensitiveness produces a trenchant zeal. At present the chief weapon employed is publicity or exposure; but by the progress of education they hope to evolve more honorable traditions and understandings. They believe that initiative and recall will make the democracy a direct power, and do away with middlemen like bosses, and with legislative corruption.

I was impressed by the enthusiasm and hopefulness of American reformers. Many earnest young men are devoting themselves to the cause of purity in public life. There is no such despondency as, one feels, prevails in India. The Americans talk freely about their projects, methods, and the tremendous success they are having or going to have.

Modesty and self-depreciation are not carried to such morbid lengths as with us; and a little boasting is often an incentive to exertion.

The Municipalities are not under administrative control of the State Government. The remedy is in law courts, and the process is further slow and expensive. I heard some people attack the principle of the division of powers on which their political system is based and which is so fundamental an article in the American political creed—and greed.

I saw a town planning exhibit in the City Club at Chicago. Dr. Whitehead, the Principal of the School of Civics and Philanthropy at Chicago objects to taxis, cabs, and other single-fare conveyances on the ground that they are uneconomical and block up the roads badly; whereas a train car keeps moving and can accommodate a large number of people.

II. The State Universities in America are beginning to organise through their Extension Departments agencies for giving direct expert advice and assistance on municipal betterment. The University of Wisconsin for instance, serves more persons at their homes than have joined the University as regular members, to say nothing of the help it gives to legislators in preparing laws. A simple request to the Dean of the Extension Department secures the advice of leading experts employed for this purpose. More than seventeen American Universities maintain a municipal section in their Extension Department. Work in aid of municipalities is carried on by the following methods:—

(1) Municipal Reference Bureau, from which small cities can derive all the available information on the rules, regulations, or policies they contemplate and the failure or success of other cities in respect to these.

(2) Public Service Correspondence Course.

(3) Instruction by extension lectures.

(4) Department of debating and public discussion. In this connection package libraries bearing on subjects like commission government, income tax, parcels post, municipal ownership, are sent out to various societies in the State.

(5) The Bureau of civic and social centre development : There is an expert who personally co-operates and advises with people of various communities concerning equipment, organisation, programmes, supervision, use of public buildings for recreation and entertainment, development of parks, organisation of clubs and associations, and other matters of civic interest.

(6) Civic institutes or occasional classes held in different localities for teaching the science of city government.

III. There are special civic schools for training people to municipal work.

IV. In America the method of teaching by exhibits is now in supreme favour, because the exhibits speak for themselves and even the unlettered could at a glance take in the meaning sought to be conveyed. There have been exhibits of child welfare, city planning, housing, health, safety appliances, and on every subject of social importance. Some time ago New York started a method of teaching the people the actual condition of City Government by budget exhibits. Most of the cities maintain what are called social museums, attached to which is generally also a reference library on matters municipal. Chicago has a social museum in which are collected sets of the city maps, civic statistics, pictures of model cities, exhibits on housing and child welfare. There is another social museum at Boston, and according to the report of the Director of the museum it is

formed on the assumption that the immediate need of students concerned with social questions is, not merely enthusiasm or sympathy or self-sacrifice or money, but wisdom, discretion, and the scientific interpretation and comparison of facts. The social museum is treated as a laboratory for training in civics. London has a museum of this kind, and Germany has some six museums, and Holland and Belgium, one each. All the leading countries in Europe except Russia have patronised such collections. Amongst the more important exhibits in America may be mentioned the following :—

- (1) The civic exhibition at Pittsburg.
- (2) New York budget exhibit.
- (3) Philadelphia city planning exhibit.
- (4) New York child welfare exhibit.
- (5) Chicago child welfare exhibit.

Private clubs organise temporary exhibits of the same kind. The following advertisement shows how this is done :

THE WOMEN'S CITY CLUB

PHOTOGRAPHIC CONTEST OF CIVIC PICTURES

CLOSING SATURDAY, MAY 25TH

EXHIBITION OF THE PICTURES ACCEPTED
BY THE JURY

ON JUNE 1ST, 10 A.M. TO 5 P.M.

*Attention all Young People under 20 years of
age having Cameras !*

A few suggested subjects in connection with the above photographic contest :

Parks and Playground.—Show with the camera what the parks and playgrounds are doing for the people. This

would take in sports, picnics, ball games, tennis, gym work; etc. Under this head show us congested spots that need playgrounds.

Public Buildings.—City and county buildings, schools, public libraries, art institutes, museums, etc. What are some of the things the schools are doing?

Can you show us children going for penny lunches?

Any open air schools?

The Parental school?

Show some school buildings you consider good or one out of date, etc.?

Streets and Alleys.—Does the city keep the streets clean? The Camera will answer.

Show us places that are in bad repair? Show us clean alleys? Is the garbage collected and taken away as it should be? The camera can tell that too.

How about garbage dumps? Show us conditions there. WE WANT CLEAN AIR IN CHICAGO: Show us a bright fresh day when the wind has swept Chicago clean, and, in contrast, show us the same picture with dense smoke pouring from some chimney.

Police and Fire Departments.—How about the traffic squad and what do they do? The camera will show.

American Traits.—No people on earth are more eager to learn than the Americans; and their eagerness does not stop with learning but extends to practice. America has been well described as the 'Paradise of Lecturers.' There is never any difficulty about getting an audience. Neither do the audience invariably disperse with their æsthetic sense gratified and their moral sense untouched. The Westerners act on the belief, well substantiated by their

life and history, that ideas naturally and inevitably discharge themselves into action, as though the intervention of the will is not required; for the will operates so smoothly, spontaneously, and universally as to escape notice almost like the atmosphere that surrounds us. It does not seem to meet with obstruction either from internal weakness or the attitude of external society which renders its working painful, unreliable, self-conscious. True to their democratic instinct, the Americans are great believers in sowing ideas broad-cast in the land. They are opposed to the doctrine that knowledge should be confined to the few or that different strata of society should be put on different varieties of intellectual diet. Their instinct is justified by the result, because there is no heart-breaking distance between thought and conduct amongst them; knowledge is efficient; and the progress of science and education has become synonymous with the progress of civilisation. Reason with them is not a pastime to be engaged in, while in the college, or at an examination, or on the platform, but a regulating factor of life, an organic element and influence without which integrity of character is impossible.

It is often said that the West is characterised by individualism; this is but half the truth, the other half being that its individualism is intimately associated with and operates through sociality. Movements gather quickly round the original ideas enunciated by the gifted few that can take advantage of the freedom to think and to act for themselves which Western civilisation so abundantly allows. Hence the speed with which clubs, exhibitions, societies, parties, professional associations, scientific bodies, and political and social agitations on a large scale are organised. Democracy rests, not on individuals, but on individuals capable of co-operating with each other undeterred by petty

personal feelings, and influenced only by a regard for principle and public interest, and a religious observance, from high and low alike, of mutual rights and duties, and the possession of a constitutional temperament.

The following is an Advertisement for a City Budget Exhibit :—



IS THIS ALL CHINESE TO YOU ?

SO WERE

BUDGET ESTIMATES

YOU HAD TO WORK

TO FIND OUT ANYTHING

BUT

THIS YEAR THEY ARE LIKE

A B C

YOU CAN SEE

SALARY INCREASES

ADDED EMPLOYEES

AND COST OF SUPPLIES FOR 1909

COMPARED WITH

3 PREVIOUS 6-MONTH PERIODS

GRAPHIC OFFICIAL REPORTS.

(A Sample.)

Comparison of Expenditures for Important Municipal Activities in four Leading American Cities.

[These data for year 1908 are from tabulations of
U. S. Census Bureau.]

Per Capita Expenditure.		Per cent more than for Health.	
CHICAGO—			
Police		1,220	
Fire	 ...	610	
Street clean- ing, garbage and sewage	 ...	555	
Health			
NEW YORK—			
Police	 ...	513	
Fire	 ...	242	
Street clean- ing, garbage and sewage	 ...	276	
Health			
PHILADELPHIA—			
Police	 ...	880	
Fire	 ...	276	
Street clean- ing, garbage and sewage	 ...	384	
Health			
BOSTON—			
Police	 ...	581	
Fire	 ...	419	
Street clean- ing, garbage and sewage	 ...	444	
Health			

The Budget exhibit at New York seems to have been extremely popular. The first two days of the exhibition attracted over 100,000 persons and the show was continued

for a whole month. For organising this exhibition the city spent \$25,000 with the purpose, as it was said, to show New York tax payers by actual 'kindergarten' demonstration just how the city officials were spending their 163 million dollars during the year.

If exhibits are prepared and collected, it is bad economy to keep them pent up in one place, and so in America most exhibits are taken round to different centres in the State. Travelling exhibits are part of the recognised educational system of the American Continent.

In organising exhibitions, care is taken to provide a comprehensive and interesting programme combining instruction with amusement. In connection with these expositions are held lectures, moving picture-performances, singing, folk-dancing, and other amusements.

Such is the demand for exhibits that certain firms are engaged in preparing them as a commercial proposition.

In some states of the West exhibits on wheels, or travelling railway car exhibits, have been adopted for spreading knowledge in the country side.

A few models may be mentioned by way of illustration:—

Mechanical Models. (1) "The Breathing Dolls."—A forceful demonstration of air conditions in ventilated and unventilated sleeping rooms. Sleeping dolls breathing mechanically, exhalations being made visible by use of smoke. Air in rooms having open windows keeps clear, in rooms with closed windows, it becomes very thick, smoky.

(2) "Baby Death Rate Model."—A mechanical device vividly demonstrating the awful loss of child life. As babies (dolls) pass before a figure representing "Death," one in every four is struck down.

Still Models.—(1) “The dangers of the Tubercular Cow.”—Demonstrating the dissemination of tuberculosis through milk and the remedy of home pasteurization.

(2) “Filthy habits of the Fly.”—A striking demonstration of the fly dangers by means of models of barns with manure piles, pig styes, privy vaults, dead animals, cases of contagious diseases, etc., connected with dining room tables, and baby’s crib, by strings of flies.

(3) 7,500 dolls mounted on cards, showing the number of deaths each year among babies of one year age from preventable diseases.

Demonstrations.—(1) Baby Care.—Dressing, bathing, sleeping, feeding, including home pasteurization and modification of milk.

(2) Test for Gross Dirt in Milk.—Special apparatus for filtering milk through cotton.

Cartoons, Maps, Diagrams, etc.—A series of 150 drawings for wall or screen display, most of which are coloured, covering every phase of public health work. (Sizes chiefly 22 × 26 in. others 4 × 5 ft.)

Health Grams.—A series of epigrammatic statements classified by subjects and arranged in poster form for hanging on walls. (Sizes chiefly 22 × 28.)

Photographs.—Enlargements for wall display covering : Food inspection, meat, milk, soda-waters, canned goods, markets, etc., contrasting good with bad conditions ; medical inspection of schools ; work among babies in summer ; sanitation, homes, bakeries, workshops, public baths, parks, playgrounds.

RESULTS OF SOME EXHIBITS.

At most of the exhibits in addition to the technical instruction given, there are held choruses, drills, band and orchestral music, athletic games, conferences, sermons,

addresses, moving picture shows, and such other enjoyable functions; and it is therefore no wonder that these exhibitions are well attended. At Chicago for the child welfare exhibit in 1911 which ran a fortnight, there were 2,000 volunteer workers; and the attendance was 30,000 school children, and 416,000 people; 20,000 hand books were distributed. In New York a similar exposition attracted an attendance of over 100,000.

The following is a sample list of lectures delivered at these exhibitions:—Social centres of civic co-operation; playgrounds and citizenship; social value of playgrounds; child welfare; school medical inspection; city planning; better homes for the people; civic progress in Europe; neglected neighbours; the public library as a social force; the child and the book; the poverty problem; housing; the labour struggle; woman in industry; the social conscience; the dispossessed or depressed classes; the conservation of children; tuberculosis; juvenile courts; business organisation; commission form of government; charity organisation; taxation; control of public utilities; railways and progress; city diseases; education and social efficiency; the school as the centre of local life; transportation problems; the saloon, the dance hall, the club, and other meeting places; municipal sanitation; defects of the municipal government.

The lectures are paid for on a generous scale. The business-like Americans are not in the habit of trying to build organisations, even those engaged in philanthropy, on sentiment and enthusiasm, which have a tendency, not only to fluctuate in degree and volume, but to deteriorate into hypocrisy and pretence. Exalted idealism has its place in life, but by its very nature it cannot serve as the foundation of institutions, which have to work on from day to day with the dispassionate regularity of a machine.

*A sample Programme at a City Welfare Exhibit.***PROGRAMME****At Chicago Park Field House.**

PREPARED BY THE WOMEN'S CITY CLUB AND ITS BRANCH
WARD COMMITTEES IN CONNECTION WITH
CITY WELFARE EXHIBIT.

*General Theme—Ward Conditions.***MORNING—**

10-00 "Making Gardens."

11-00 Moving Pictures : (With Address) Chicago Health
Department. Subjects :—
The Man who Learned.
Health side of the Food Problem.
The Fly.

AFTERNOON—*Chairman : Prominent Citizen.*

2-30	Chorus ...	... 8th Grade pupils.
2-38	Folk-Dancing	... Primary pupils.
2-48	Free Calisthenics	... Boys, 7th Grade.
3-4	<i>Ten minutes addresses with discussion.</i>	
	House Sanitation	... Chief Sanitary Inspector.
	The City's Waste and Want	... Settlement Director.
	Health Conditions	... A Former Commissioner of Health.
	Bathing Beaches	... Recreation Expert.

City Gardens ... President, Garden Association.

4-00 Glee Club ... Technical High School.

4-10 Gymnastic Dancing... Primary pupils.

4-20 Chorus ... 6th Grade pupils.

[Coffee served (adults).]

EVENING—

Chairman : Prominent Citizen.

7-30 Band Technical High School.

7-40 Glee Club ... Technical High School.

7-50 Irish Dance ... St. Dominic's School.

8-10 Ten minutes addresses with discussion.

Ward conditions,

Streets, Paving,

Lighting, Cleaning,

and Transportation.)

Two Aldermen and two
leading citizens.

10-00 Band Technical High School.

[Coffee served (adults).]

7-30 In Women's Gymnasium—For children only.

"Workhouse Ward" By Lady Gregory—A Play.

By the Normal School Motion Pictures.

THURSDAY "Government."

FRIDAY "Social and Educational."

SATURDAY Play Festival, on the play ground.

SUNDAY "The Ideal Sunday in the city."

Play Festivals include Drills, Games, Apparatus, Work, Relay Races, Folk and Gymnastic Dances by the Turngemeinde Choruses, etc.

Conference at Chicago Commons.

ALSO BY WOMEN'S CITY CLUB AT CITY WELFARE EXHIBIT.
ON THE PROBLEM OF ADOLESCENT GIRLS BETWEEN
14 AND 16 YEARS OF AGE.

MORNING—

- 10-15 Dangers of the Street.
- 10-45 Dance Hall Problems.
- 11-15 Chicago's possibilities for Wholesome recreation.
- 11-40 Value of Gymnastic training and Folk-Dancing.
- 11-50 Discussion.

[Luncheon at Chicago Commons at 12-30.]

AFTERNOON—

- 2-00 Physical Development of the Girl.
- 2-20 Physical preparations for Marriage.
- 2-40 Training the Girls for Home-makers.
- 2-55 Employment for Girls and How to Secure it.
- 3-10 Vocational Training.
- 3-25 Discussion.

Catalogues of motion films and lantern slides available could be procured easily in case they are wanted.

In Chicago there is a Civic Club which keeps watch and ward over the city administration. It works through a number of committees, some 23 in number. These committees take particular interest in the particular department allotted to them, collect all the necessary information, interview officials, organise deputations, and finally, in case they are dissatisfied, appeal to the public by means of reports and meetings. There is also a Women's City Club in Chicago; and quite recently a Worker's School of Civics has been started to give instruction to working people on two evenings a week in Municipal subjects. The methods

adopted for this educational work are:—Lectures generally with lantern slides; General reading of books and magazines; Investigations and reports of Standing Committees; Class discussion.

People trained in schools of civics or in other organisations that make a speciality of giving instruction in municipal administration can get employment in the following fields:—Neighbourhood work; civic organisations; social work in industry; government service; religious agencies; organised charity; child helping agencies; correctional work; institutional work.

Local Government in the Philippines.

The most advanced type of self-government in a dependency is represented by the system that has been established in the Philippines by the United States of America. It is a system which is obviously based on the sincere policy of educating the Filipinos up to the level of self-government, at the expense, if need be, of a certain amount of immediate efficiency which can be gained by bureaucratic centralisation and a large employment of Americans in the higher, more authoritative positions.

The Insular or General government is vested in a Commission of which the Governor-General ranks as a member enjoying precedence but not the power to veto.

The Provincial Government: The provinces or, as we should say, districts are, as a rule, much smaller than our districts and are organised, not on a bureaucratic, but a democratic basis. The chief officials in charge of the province are three—the Governor, the Treasurer and the Third Member (without portfolio). There is also a public prosecutor. The governor and the third member are elected every four years by the qualified voters of the district. The

treasurer and the public prosecutor are nominated by the Governor-General with the consent of the Commission (on which there is now a Filipino majority) and hold office during their pleasure. The Governor-General can suspend a provincial officer but cannot dismiss him without the consent of the Commission. The three members of the Provincial Board act as a Cabinet. The Governors are all Filipinos, but the majority of treasurers are Americans, because treasury work is of a technical character requiring special qualifications. But Filipinos are being appointed as soon as they can be trained. At present in more than six or seven provinces, the administration is entirely in the hands of the Filipinos.

In India, whether as regards the presidencies or the districts or the taluks, power is generally vested in a single individual. Even where there is a council to assist, the council, as a rule, is not of sufficient prestige to be a co-partner with the chief in administration. The Americans have after careful consideration adopted the board system of government as less likely to lead to despotism and other anti-democratic tendencies; and so they have constituted as the central governing body of a province a board composed of the governor, the treasurer, and the third member. It may be mentioned that the Hon'ble Mr. G. K. Gokhale some years ago advocated a system of this kind, the essential principle of which was the association of an elected individual with the Collector in District administration.

The legislative powers of the provincial Board are defined by Statute.

The duties of the board:—To provide suitable buildings for provincial uses, such as the court-house, jail, and district or provincial offices; construction, repairs, and maintenance of roads, bridges, and ferries within such

portions of the province as lie outside the municipalities; to adopt regulations for the suppression of locusts, agricultural pests, cattle diseases, etc.; to levy provincial taxes; to hold regular weekly public meetings for the transaction of business, and special meetings on the call of the governor.

Duties of the Governor:—To act as chairman of the provincial board; supervision of the provincial and municipal officers; visiting every municipality at least once in six months; listening to complaints against executive officers and inspecting their work; making an annual report to the Governor-General; executing the orders of the provincial court; the custody of prisoners. He is the commander-in-chief of the police force in the province. He could call out the quasi-military constabulary force in case of riot or sedition or seditious revolt. The governor is not entrusted with judicial functions of any kind. He can suspend any municipal officer except the treasurer.

Duties of the Third Member:—He shares with the other members the legislative power of the board but has no executive duties. But, when the Governor is for any reason unable to perform his duties, he may delegate them to the third member or to the treasurer.

Duties of the Treasurer:—Legislative duties as a member of the board and collection of taxes. He is the chief land officer of the province.

Residence: No provincial officer may leave the province without the previous sanction of the Governor-General.

Classification of Municipalities: There are four classes of municipalities, formed according to population. Manila enjoys a special constitution. Each municipality has a number of councillors proportioned to its size: first class municipalities have eighteen councillors, second class fourteen, third class ten, and fourth class eight councillors,

Municipalities are divided into barrios or wards.

The Municipal officers are the president, vice president, secretary, treasurer, and councillors. Higher qualifications are necessary to be a public officer than merely to be an elector or voter. *It should further be noted that a second election to municipal office, including membership of the council, is prohibited except after two years' absence from office; thus no officer serves for more than four consecutive years.* No municipal officer is permitted to have any financial interest in any contract work, public house or other business permitted or controlled by the municipality. Ecclesiastics, soldiers on active service, persons receiving pay from any branch of the Philippine Government, and contractors for public works are excluded from holding municipal office. Every municipal officer entrusted with funds must give a bond with two or more sureties to pay a certain sum of money in case he is faithless to his duties.

Duties of the President: He supervises the work of all the officers, issues orders to the police, takes special steps for the protection of the public in time of fire, flood, or any other disaster. He has power to appoint with the consent of the majority of the council the municipal secretary and all other non-elective officers and employees of the municipality. *The term of office of such officers and employees is during the remainder of the President's term of office.* The municipal treasurer and the members of his office are not appointed by the president but by the provincial treasurer, with the consent of the provincial board.

The president can suspend any of the appointive officers for a period of ten days but he cannot dismiss a municipal treasurer or the chief health officer of the municipality. He must send in an annual report.

The Municipal Council: The majority of the council constitute a quorum. The regular meetings must be public. The president cannot vote except in case of a tie; but he may veto. In this case the ordinance cannot become law until it is again passed by a two-thirds majority.

The Duty of the Councillors is to represent the needs of their wards. The lieutenant of a ward is an officer appointed by the councillor to represent him in the ward. When he is absent, a substitute lieutenant is also appointed by the councillor. Both these officers serve without pay, and get as it were, apprenticed to municipal work.

The Duties of the Council: To establish and fix the salaries of municipal officers except teachers. To make budget appropriation to erect all needful buildings, to prescribe the kind of buildings that shall be erected, to regulate the construction, care and use of streets, bridges, sidewalks, maintain all necessary sanitary regulations, to establish and regulate the police department, to provide against gambling and other vices, to arrest all disturbers of peace and vagrants, to punish cruelty to animals, to inspect weights and measures, to fix penalties for the violation of municipal ordinances, (but no penalties can exceed a fine of 200 pesos or imprisonment for six months) to establish and maintain municipal prisons, to establish and maintain primary schools subject to the approval of the education department, to establish and conduct a post office in connection with the Insular postal service, to license sale of intoxicating liquors, to levy such taxes as the law permits, to make provision for the care of the poor, the sick, and helpless, to provide for the erection of markets.

MUNICIPAL TAXATION.

The land tax is now enforced at the option of the provincial or district board. The maximum amount of

this tax is one-half of one per cent of the assessed valuation of the lands, buildings, and improvements thereon, of the municipality. The minimum tax is one-fourth of one per cent of the above valuation, *and at least this amount must be devoted to the support of free primary education.* The remainder of the tax more than one-fourth of one per cent levied, may be spent for any lawful municipal purpose. The council may also collect taxes on: public amusement enterprises such as theatres, restaurants, public vehicles, licenses on dogs, etc. Octroi duties are expressly forbidden.

The following passages from one of Mr. Jernegan's illuminating books is worth thinking over and laying to heart. "People usually cry out too soon against the burden of taxation. Often they object to taxes, not because these are really excessive, but because they are unwilling to be taxed for the benefit of all the people. They wish to pay only such taxes as are spent directly for their own benefit. This is not patriotism, and a government should give no heed to such complaints."

"On the other hand, experience shows that governments are often tempted to extravagance, that they attempt too many things, and attempt good enterprises too soon. The expenditure of a government should be carefully adjusted to the needs and the purse of the people. The government officials are not spending their private money, but the public money, so there is danger that they will enter too freely upon great expenditures."

"The ignorant often look on taxation as a means by which the government enriches itself at the expense of the people. They see high-salaried government officials and the great sums of money spent upon government undertakings. Many feel that this money is taken from them by taxation for the personal benefit of the rulers and not for

the good of the whole people. Now in some countries, where the control of the Government is in the hands of a few unscrupulous men, this abuse of taxation occurs. Such governments, however, are not true democracies; they are legalised bands of organised thieves. Most great governments, however, derive their real power from the will of the people, and could not exist without the consent of the majority of the people. In nearly all such governments it is true that taxation is simply the method by which the people use some of the money of some of the people for the benefit of all the people. The price of good government is high, but the benefits of good government are priceless."

Taxes: *The cedula tax.* The *poll* or *cedula* tax is a personal tax paid annually by every male inhabitant of the Philippines between eighteen and sixty years of age. The usual amount of the tax is one peso but it may be raised to two pesos, and when this is done the additional peso must be spent *wholly* for the construction, maintenance and repairs of the public highways and bridges. The poll tax serves also as a certificate of registration.

Property taxes: (a) Taxes on personal property and (b) on real property.

Land tax is the principal tax on real property, and the proceeds from this source are distributed thus:—two-sevenths to the provincial or district general fund. One-seventh to the provincial bridge and road fund; four-sevenths to the municipalities in accordance with the proportion which the assessed valuation of their real property bears to the assessed valuation of the taxable real property of the entire province of which the municipality is a part. The sum which finally falls to each municipality must be equally divided between the municipal general fund and

the municipal school fund. Note how educational interests are conserved in every way.

Each provincial board may determine whether or not the land tax shall be suspended in the province. Provinces in which land tax is not collected are generally backward and depend in large measure for their revenue upon the Central Treasury.

Import and Export Taxes.—Are the principal sources of revenue to the Central or Insular Government.

License Taxes : For certain kinds of business, theatres, vehicles, etc.

Internal Revenue Taxes : Such as taxes on alcohol, liquors, tobacco and other luxuries. Also taxes on matches, forest products, business, manufacture, occupation, stamp duties. Sometimes exemptions from these taxes are given in order to encourage agriculture, manufacture, and business.

Distribution of internal revenue taxes : taxes on theatres, cockpits, etc., are expended exclusively on the municipality where they are collected ; the other internal revenue receipts are divided between the central, provincial and municipal governments ; import duties go wholly to the central government. The share of each province and municipality in the internal revenue taxes is proportionate to its population. Usually ten per cent. of the total receipts is devoted to general provincial purposes. If a province has increased the cedula tax to two pesos, its due proportion of an additional ten per cent. of the internal revenue receipts is assigned to it to be spent wholly on roads and bridges. Twenty per cent. of the internal revenue receipts is devoted to the expenses of the municipalities, of which half must be devoted to the support of free public primary schools.

The government endeavours to induce the people to take up large blocks of public land and convert them into farms or homesteads by the outlay of the necessary capital and labor, and with this object in view, has adopted regulations very favorable to the 'Pioneers.' How well the Americans have thought out the underlying principles of political advancement may be learnt from the following passage : —

“There are many small landholders in the Philippines but their farms are so small that the owners have little wealth and small prospect of obtaining more. The benefits of advanced civilisation, such as higher education, better houses, clothes, and food and successful participation in popular government, depend largely on wealth. Wealth is the product of the land, industry, and thrift. In the Philippines most of the wealth comes out of the land, and as long as only a few own large farms, there will be few wealthy farmers and a few only will enjoy the full advantages of culture and political liberty. With a population on the verge of starvation, and farmers cultivating just enough to live upon, the many will always be the servants of the few. With multitudes of prosperous farmers in the Philippines many men will be able to devote a share of their time to public affairs, and will possess the ambition and sense of responsibility that accompany wealth.”

GENERAL OBSERVATIONS ON MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT.

In England, Canada, United States and the Philippines, where municipal government is highly developed, there is no bureaucratic system such as prevails in India. I doubt if local Self-Government really so called could flourish under the shadow of a bureaucracy like ours.

Municipal government needs as a condition of its growth a progressive atmosphere. In India neither the people nor the officials are men of sufficient knowledge and initiative. It is well known that the people do not desire change because they hardly know what change is, at any rate for the better, by experience. Our conservative eye looks on everything new as sinful. For the matter of that the official world is not much better than the popular. The average Indian graduate, who is the controlling figure in so many of our services, is by training and education a person of second hand ideas and narrow ideals. He may have read some books and notebooks for passing examinations, but it is doubtful whether he studied subjects. It is notorious that he does not keep up his reading after passing his university or competitive examination. Persons of this class doubtless become conversant through actual working with the details of the official machinery. But this can hardly constitute a claim to efficiency, a word which is too often used for nothing better than a kind of mechanical skill in maintaining the usual routine. To my mind efficiency should always have reference to one of these things: either getting more good results from existing arrangements, or devising better arrangements by which labour may be economised, or product increased, or both.

In most modern countries in the world the bureaucratic spirit is tempered and guided by the cabinet system which gives a good opportunity for men of general culture, large ideas, broad vision, and liberal sympathies to influence the course of administration. As has been remarked by more than one political thinker, the qualities required in the highest places in a state are not technical skill and a well-stored memory for precedents, rules, and regulations, but a sane judgment coupled with a keen response to new ideas.

It would be all for the good of the country if the bureaucratic system could be modified and rendered more capable of adaptation to modern needs by a due infusion of the more cultured elements in our society, as by the frequent inclusion of noted public men of national reputation.

The bureaucratic system could be modified both below and at the top. I am more than ever convinced of the soundness of the Hon'ble Mr. Gokhale's proposal to associate with the District Magistrate for purposes of administration one or two non-officials (or non-revenue men) appointed either by some system of election, or what is perhaps more feasible at the present time, by nomination. At the top too it would be better to let in some fresh air by breaking down the monopoly too long exercised by what are called the executive services. The British system in India is in this respect a good model since in the highest places there are always 'new' men like Viceroys, Governors, and also some members of the Executive councils to dilute the severity of the bureaucratic regime. Without some such reform as this, municipal government is apt to be a sickly plant in this climate.

The essential conditions of the success of municipal government seem to be the following :—

(1) Spread of general education by means of a fine net-work of schools and a well-organised extension system.

(2) The granting of specified financial powers to the Municipal or Local Government Centres. Under this head would be included the right to have a local revenue of its own either by the imposition of rates and taxes, or by a dedication for local purposes of a certain percentage of the revenues collected for the state. Every rate such as the rates for roads, education, cess, etc., should be rigorously

local in character, that is to say, each taluk or town should keep to itself the entire yield of the rate. The proceeds should not be merged in the general State Treasury to be afterwards drawn off by means of grants to local bodies. It must remain in the localities from the very beginning as a visible and incontestable sign of their ownership. Government would of course continue to help the poorer or the more needy tracts by means of special subventions.

(3) The spirit of local patriotism should thus be fostered by making them for certain purposes quasi-independent financial centres and also by training them to spend money in a manner that would promote local prosperity. One of the best methods in which a locality or Taluk could do good to itself and to the country is by giving industrial, agricultural, and medical scholarships to its own members or citizens *on condition that the scholars after finishing their course should set up business for a specified number of years within the limits of the locality on penalty that, if they chose to do otherwise, they would have to pay back the money spent on them at 12 per cent. interest.* A scholarship system of this kind, which is widely prevalent in the Philippines, will enrich local life and prevent an unhealthy influx of educated people into the cities.

Other purposes to which a taluk might direct its attention are:—(a) the maintenance of local itinerant lecturers from its own funds and (b) experimental farms.

If revenue officials could organise athletics and sports on a taluk basis, it would create the corporate feeling or local patriotism which would make taluks and districts something more than administrative divisions. Healthy competition between locality and locality in agriculture, manufacture, sports, education will give them a sociological worth, which they possess only in a very inferior degree now.

The crux of politics is how to associate liberty with responsibility, and Municipal Government under present circumstances would require fairly strong handling. Otherwise, the Commissioners may use their influence to achieve private ends at public expense. Doubtless all the rules adopted in Western countries for bringing a municipality to book will also be adopted here, and it would be also necessary to adopt the very drastic measure of holding Commissioners or Taluk and District Board Members personally responsible for financial mis-management involving culpable negligence or corruption of any kind.

In India there is also the other danger that under the form of democracy what would really flourish is oligarchy of a very objectionable kind. People do not take interest in public affairs. If proper statistics of municipal elections are collected, it would probably be found that the contested elections are not more than ten to twenty per cent. of the whole, and that in these contested elections not more than about twenty per cent. of the rate-payers ever vote. What really happens is, as we all know, a party of local patriarchs and busy bodies meet, probably in the street, as they go out for shopping, and settle who shall be the candidates. There is a very little healthy rivalry or honest emulation. If there is rivalry, hundred to one, it is sure to be based on personalities, and public emulation is, with us, rather apt to be confused with private enmity, low intrigue, and under-hand methods of circumventing. Perhaps, the measure adopted in the Philippines, of limiting the term of any commissioner or member to two consecutive periods, may be of some value in preventing bossism, and also giving a taste of, and a training for, public office to a larger number of men, thus paving the way for keener, and may be surer, competition in the near future.

No measure devised by the wit of man could by itself produce good results unless there is a fair amount of feeling in the country for reform and progress. The best forms of government may fail of their purpose and even become the agents of sly, smooth-faced, tyranny, if the people are ignorant and supine, and the officials and leaders, men of small ideas or meagre conscience. However it will never do to remain for ever in a state of critical passivity without venturing on new methods and experiments to better our condition.

A very large question sometimes suggests itself to the political thinker, *viz.*, whether our districts are not too large as units of administration. The old Moghul Subha or district was organised to keep the peace in a military sense, and to collect revenue, and the head of it was accordingly endowed with the powers necessary for the unimpeded execution of these duties. He was in fact made a Nabob on a small scale. The very name Collector, which still clings to that officer, is a reminder of the old fact that he was primarily a state bailiff. For the successful discharge of these functions, often in a manner which sacrificed other considerations to rapidity of execution, the size of the districts was perhaps not too large, but with the growth of peace, security, and enlightenment, there has arisen a new conception regarding the duties of Government and its agents. The state has come to be regarded as the guardian and tutor of the people, charged with the sacred duty of ministering to their wants, and promoting progress in order to bring about a richer, fuller, manlier life. The District Magistrate cannot in these days remain nothing more or better than policeman and bill collector combined without degrading himself, and the state which tolerates him, in public estimation. He must be a constructive statesman, or a

missionary of progress, eager to coax, scold, threaten, cajole, persuade, or even delude people into better habits and larger ideas. I wonder if from the point of view of these liberal activities, often entailing the need of much personal touch between magistrate and citizens, the districts are not too unwieldy and unmanageable. Were municipal life more highly developed and the people more alert and active, the magistrate would find it possible to give the necessary supervision; but for some time to come, he must not be content with supervising but actually put his hand to the plough. I notice that in the Philippines the provinces (or districts, as we should call them) are much smaller than they are here; and this is certainly an advantage in the administration of backward communities, when the administration undertakes the supreme task of nursing them into civilisation and political manhood.

One misconception must be guarded against. A democratic system of local self-government, or decentralisation coupled with a popular franchise, is *not* a necessary condition of progress. I can understand circumstances in which such liberty may end in nothing more than the oratorical smoke of council chambers. In India a section of the commercial and industrial community has always opposed Governmental intervention for the promotion of trade and industry on the very democratic ground that that would interfere with individual liberty and initiative, and has always advocated a policy of *laissez-faire*. As everyone knows the secret of this democratic fervour in the sphere of economical policy is its strong faith in the incapacity of our people to do anything by themselves and the well-grounded belief that under *laissez-faire* it would have a practical monopoly of the larger and newer enterprises. Germany and Japan are impressive examples of what could be achieved under

Government leadership and regulation. So a centralised bureaucracy is not as such a thing of evil, a name to be avoided. It all depends on the devotion, knowledge, spirit, benevolence, love of the people, and regard for their rights and prospects which animate its activities, and the habit of observing moral and constitutional restraints in the exercise of its legal power, whether it must be pronounced a curse or a blessing. In a country like India, quicker and larger harvests could be reaped, if the official sun knows how to shine without scorching. A little pressure, gentle but firm, and well applied, may be worth more than all the experiments in formal democracy, which are, after all, but cheap wares of the political market, easily bought, valued while they are novel, and thrown aside and neglected after a while as a child treats her toys. The democratic spirit is good; it is the best thing in politics, if it could be had, I won't say in its purest, but at any rate in an effective form. Pending the advent of this final evangel, much might still be accomplished by a dexterous and disinterested employment of the means now in vogue. Of course the highest wisdom would aim at developing democracy through a living system of local self-government, while endeavouring to produce at the same time a change of heart in the bureaucracy.

INTERVIEWS.

I cannot do better than conclude this report with a short summary of the interviews I had with some of the leading men I met. According to an eminent gentleman from Bombay, who holds the brightest record in India for enterprise and success in business, the chief cause of our failure as an Industrial nation is to be attributed to two circumstances:—(1) We do not employ experts but depend too much on empiricists, men of so-called local knowledge

and experience. The real thing to do is to get hold of the best and most up-to-date men, give them the fullest opportunity of investigating the subject, and then to allow them a free hand without indulging in our favourite weakness for meddlesome interference. (2) We do not start businesses on a large enough scale. We are too fond of experimenting in a small way which leads to nothing but failure and despair. In these days of large organisations, small firms have little chance of a long life. This last observation, by the way, is strikingly confirmed by the unanimous opinion of Canada, which holds that no new country could compete with older countries unless it manages to start, whether with its own or borrowed capital, industries on the largest possible scale. The gentleman above referred to was of opinion that the men who had been long in India were not, as a rule, reliable authorities, as they had a great tendency to become out of date.

A professor who is held in universal esteem at Cambridge for his high genius and character, and one moreover who has always been a friend of India and Indians, pointed out that India could never have a future, if the people continued to be so crazy about Government service and learned professions, and particularly deprecated our love of law. When a Chinaman or a Japanese comes to England, he wants to fit himself for some purpose that would be of national good and service. Most Indians do not look on the question of a career from a national point of view. The venerable professor, one of the most impressive personalities to be found anywhere in the world, took me aside to whisper these remarks, so that the rest of the company might not hear, and was full of apologies for the somewhat unfavorable comment he had to make on the youth of our philosophical country.

One of the most brilliant of the younger men at Cambridge spoke with pointed emphasis on some of the fallacies which are the stock in trade of Indian publicists out in search for popularity. One of the worst of these is statistical comparison with Western countries, which is really meaningless and misleading as the conditions are so different. For example, take education. A frequent way of appealing to Government is by a parade of percentages of literate to total population in the different countries, a method which ignores such essential facts as the peculiarly low position of women in India, the presence of the depressed classes to educate whom is considered a sin both by their betters and themselves. In a country where so-called religious and socio-religious factors are of such astounding influence, comparative statistics are only of limited use from the point of view of the secular administrator. Mortality figures are often no more illuminating. In estimating prosperity, publicists too often institute comparisons between rate of growth of population and mortality in different countries. Supposing a clerk getting Rs. 15 a month has his pay doubled, then the increase amounts to 100 per cent. Even in the most flourishing year, a millionaire's income may not come up to a 10 per cent. increase on his usual income, which is absolutely no reason why he should get into sack cloth and ashes on account of his *relatively* low rate of increase of income. A low per centage may mean a higher *absolute* quantity, and so percentages may easily mislead if the total quantities are neglected. Moreover, mere growth in number of people is no sign of prosperity. The growth of industry and commerce should be taken into consideration. In Europe it is legitimate enough to treat population • numbers as an index of prosperity for two reasons :—(a) Marriages, and in consequence population, are

influenced to a large extent by economic conditions. (b) The numbers are easily absorbed by the growing industries. Neither of which is true in the same degree of India. Amongst Indians marriages are determined by religion, by the absolute duty of having a son without the troublesome thought of how to feed him. Thus numbers, or rather births, are independent to some extent of economic factors. The comparison that would be of any value must have reference to *per capita income*. If a nation is not getting richer, it would be a blessing if fewer are born.

It may be said that though births may be independent of economic factors, survival cannot be. For, if in a poor country births increase, the death-rate also will increase; and religious sanction, however effective it may be in producing life is far behind economic factors in its capacity for preserving it. But then before the point of death is reached for some, the other members of the family would, through their sacrifices for the suffering, be reduced below their normal level of health and strength; and thus undue generation of births leads to the degeneration of a whole people, even if the adult population does not increase. A higher rate of mortality cannot convey any lesson unless the economic conditions of the people are taken into account. It may be Nature's remedy for man's mischievous propensity to overload the earth. When comparisons are instituted between England and India, simple figures dealing with this branch or that, will not do; we must consider the entire complex of national life; also, since religious influences are so strong in India, the power and responsibility of Government are both less, and remedies should come, in greater measure, from society itself. It is absurd to compare without introducing serious modifications, countries where matrimony is voluntary with those where it is a matter of conscription,

Neither must it be forgotten that the problem of population in India differs from that of the European countries in that the Indians have under existing political conditions little chance of survival outside their own country. All the new countries and virgin lands have been occupied by races who naturally are not likely to tolerate the presence of Indians except as temporary coolies. My friend's words seem to ring true if also painful.

I give in direct quotation the remarkable observations of one of the most distinguished publicists and economists in England, who knows by actual travel a good deal of India and the East generally.

“(1) Statesmen have been misled by the individualism of older Economists into believing that private enterprise is the only root of prosperity. I do not see why the state should not start and manage industries even as it is already doing Railways and Postal services. Moreover this is more in keeping with Hindu traditions than the Western methods of competition between individuals. Your countrymen have an innate capacity for becoming Government officials, and so I strongly advise you to start state factories. They need not be for supplying the general market, but, let them be started for supplying, at any rate, the materials needed for the various departments, and local bodies, public, and semi-public, like Municipalities and Co-operative Societies.

“(2) You say you have a Central Book Depot attached to the Education Office. In like manner each department should have its own stores. Dealers, merchants, and middle men do not deserve much sympathy, and there is nothing wrong in the state buying directly from the factory. I know the Anglo-Indian agitation that Government should buy in India, which very often means that Government should import, not directly, but through an Anglo-Indian

firm—an absurd thing which enriches a few without in any way advancing the interests of the country.

“(3) By all means buy from your own manufacturers even if the price is a trifle higher, provided the quality of the goods is excellent. To buy from a local manufacturer is good policy.

“(4) After the disastrous war with Germany, France raised a patriotic loan by special appeal to the people who brought in all their hoarded and idle wealth to help the mother-land at a time of supreme crisis. Is it not possible to do some such thing in India, especially in the Native States? It would be a bad day if for your public works and other big undertakings you have to contract foreign loans. Raise a patriotic debt. If the people bring in their gold, silver, and jewels, give them paper, *i.e.*, bonds to the full value, redeemable at par, say at a month's or three months' notice. Your security is good. As regards interest pay $\frac{1}{8}$ or $\frac{1}{4}$ per cent. higher than the market rate. In your country panics are not likely to occur, for business is not so intricate or delicately balanced as here. Occasions of expenditure being social chiefly, births, marriages, and deaths, they are not likely to afflict the whole community at the same time, and so the Government need not fear a sudden and nervous demand. You ought to try to do things with your own and not borrowed capital, as far as possible. Money thus borrowed should be spent on productive works.

“(5) A State Bank is better than a State-aided Bank, provided the management is efficient and honest. You can divide the functions into four classes.

“(a) Paying officers by means of checks, so as to prevent cash from stagnating in vaults. This can be undertaken without much difficulty and would do some good.

(b) Issue of Notes is a good policy, provided you

are careful and keep a very strong reserve, say 35 to 40 per cent. As a matter of caution, it would be well to separate the issue from the banking department.

“(c) And now we have the more difficult question what should we do with the funds deposited with us? (i) It may be used for public works and other productive projects. You may even start factories. (ii) For loans to public and semipublic bodies like Municipalities and Co-operative Societies. (iii) Part may be kept as reserve in the Presidency Banks. (iv) Loans may be given to private individuals, provided (a) the sums are small and (b) the individuals approach through their co-operative societies or guilds, if any. (v) Loans for business men, speculators, and big manufacturers *ought on no account to be given*, for there is danger here. (a) Such people are well able to take care of themselves and if their business is good, ordinary banks will help them. (b) Very often they would come to you again and again for supplementary loans as the only means of saving the original ones. (c) Official nepotism may become a grave factor, especially as it is the money of the public and as the final burden falls on the voiceless tax-payers—your ryots.

“It is all very well to talk of promoting industry by loans, but such loans will have to be advanced on credit, and not on solid securities, which, if a man had, he would get the money from other and more usual sources by selling or mortgaging them; and for a state to do this would spell disaster and bankruptcy.

“Even loans to smaller men may be bad, for in a small state like Mysore, depressing agencies like famine are apt to affect all the clients at the same time; and then you will not be able to recover anything for a long period. It would be different if the bank carried operations over an extended area. This is the chief reason why in England

most of the local banks have disappeared ; they were dependent on a small area, and hence could not stand a crisis. The big banks are like lakes with many feeders all of which are not likely to dry up simultaneously.

“(6) You can give bounties in a small way provided you strictly limit the period and are very particular about the conditions.

“(7) To encourage an young industry you can exempt it from certain taxes for a while. I am not sure that this is not the fairest method after all. The temptation to plunder the public treasury unscrupulously is great everywhere, but specially so in your country.

“(8) Learn from Japan how to double the yield of your land.

“It is well known how by the adoption of scientific agriculture Japan has within fifteen years almost doubled her output. This has also had a tremendous influence on the growth of her manufactures.

“(9) You must have plenty of Agricultural, Trade, and Technical Schools suited to the localities.

“In conclusion, I would say that rather than copy us you should proceed on your traditional lines and actively employ the State as a commercial and industrial agent.”
