THE BOOK WAS DRENCHED

EDUCATION, INDIA.



PROGRESS

OF

EDUCATION IN INDIA

1922-27

BY

R. LITTLEHAILES, C.I.E., M.A.,

Educational Commissioner with the Government of India.

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PREFACE.

This is the ninth Quinquennial Review on the Progress of Education in India and the third review published by the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India. It deals with British India only which covers an area of 1,091,333 square miles with a population of 247 millions; it excludes the Indian States which cover an area of 711,032 square miles with a population of 72 millions of people. It reviews the progress of education in British India during the five years' period from the 1st April 1922 to the 31st March 1927, and is mainly based on material and returns contained in provincial reports on public instruction and in reports received from universities and minor local administrations. It is not a finished production, but shows traces of the several hands engaged in its compilation. The task of producing it under conditions of stress of work and limited assistance has been arduous and several causes, which need not be enumerated, conspired to delay its publication. The analysis of the statistical tables is far from complete, but sooner than delay the report any longer it is issued in its present form—it being left to the statistical investigator or to the educational administrator to study these tables further and acquire from them the facts that are essential to right administration.

With slight modifications of the chapter arrangements, the plan of the review follows generally that of the previous issue. In Volume II, some additional appendices have been included, which it is hoped will make the report more complete. The compilation of the appendix relating to Mission institutions has entailed additional work on the provincial compilers to whom my gratitude is due.

The provincial reports, on which this review is mainly based, are the work of the following officers :—

Madras . . .	Mr. R. G. Grieve, M.A., F.R.G.S., I.E.S., (assisted by Mr. R. M. Statham, I.E.S.).
Bombay . . .	Mr. F. B. P. Lory, M.A., I.E.S.
Bengal . . .	Mr. K. Zachariah, M.A., I.E.S.

United Provinces . .	Mr. A. H. Mackenzie, M.A., B.Sc., C.I.E., I.E.S., (assisted by Mr. R. H. Moody, M.A., I.E.S.).
Punjab . . .	Sir George Anderson, M.A., C.I.E., Kt., I.E.S.
Burma . . .	Mr. C. A. Snow, M.A., I.E.S., (assisted by Mr. J. M. Symns, I.E.S.).
Bihar and Orissa . .	Mr. G. E. Fawcus, M.A., C.I.E., O.B.E., I.E.S.
Central Provinces and Berar.	Mr. R. H. Beckett, B.Sc., C.I.E., I.E.S., (assisted by Mr. F. P Tostevin, I.E.S.).
Assam . . .	Mr. S. C. Roy, M.A., I.E.S.
North-West Frontier Province.	Mr. J. H. Towle, M.A., I.E.S.
Coorg and Bangalore .	Mr. J. A. Yates, M.A., I.E.S.
Baluchistan . .	Compiled in the office of the Honourable the Agent to the Governor General and Chief Commissioner in Baluchistan on information supplied by the Superintendent of Education.

The report for Ajmer-Merwara was compiled by myself, as Superintendent of Education for that area, with the valuable assistance of Mr. P. B. Joshi, the Assistant Superintendent.

The special reports received from the sixteen universities in India and the Handbook of Indian Universities published under the auspices of the Inter-University Board, India, have been of some use to me in the compilation of the chapter on universities, and I take this opportunity to acknowledge my indebtedness to them. I have also to thank the various university authorities for their ungrudging assistance in the collection of additional information and statistics required for the review. In addition, my thanks are due to the compilers of the five special reports on the chiefs' colleges which were received from the local authorities concerned. The information contained in these reports has been utilised in the section on chiefs' colleges.

I am indebted to all Directors of Public Instruction and other educational officers for their help and co-operation in supplying me with supplementary information whenever required for this review. My

gratitude is also due to the Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India and the Director General of the Indian Medical Service for the sections on Agricultural and Veterinary and on Medical Education, and to the Military Training Directorate of the General Staff Branch, Army Headquarters, India, for the chapter on Education in the Army. My thanks are also due to Mr. R. M. Statham, I.E.S., who was placed on special duty to assist in the preparation of this review. Although he was working at high pressure and unable to assist in the completion of the work, his drafts have been most valuable. I am further deeply indebted to the special staff engaged mainly in statistical work connected with the review, in particular to Mr. F. E. Quraishi of the Department of Education, Health and Lands.

The General Educational Tables for the year 1926-27, which are included in Volume II of the review, were compiled as usual by the Department of Commercial Intelligence and Statistics, India. The printing was done at the Government of India Press, Calcutta.

R. LITTLEHAILES,

Educational Commissioner with the Government of India.

NEW DELHI,
The 19th March 1929.

FIG. 1.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS IN BRITISH INDIA.

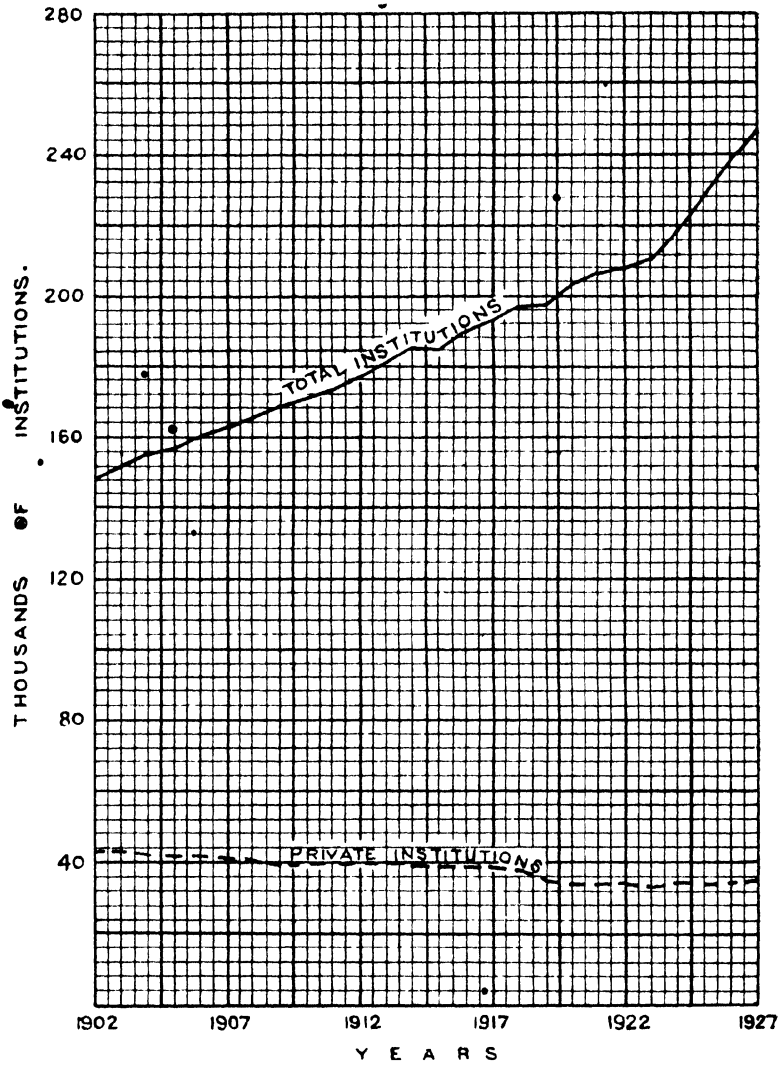


FIG. 2.

TOTAL NUMBER OF PUPILS UNDER INSTRUCTION IN INDIA

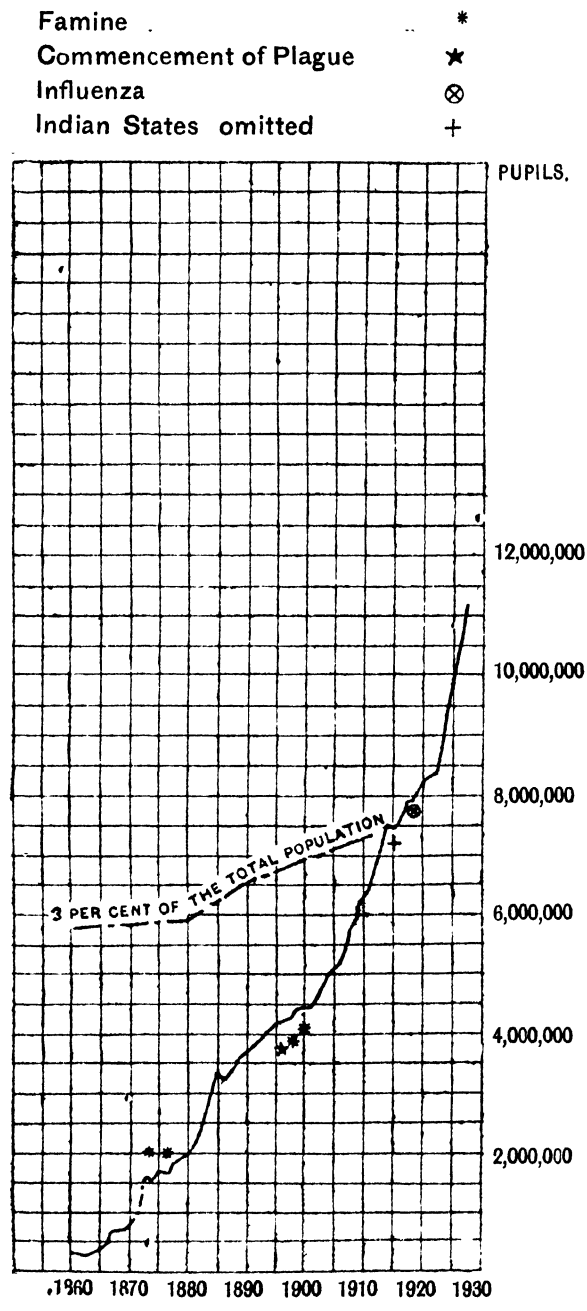
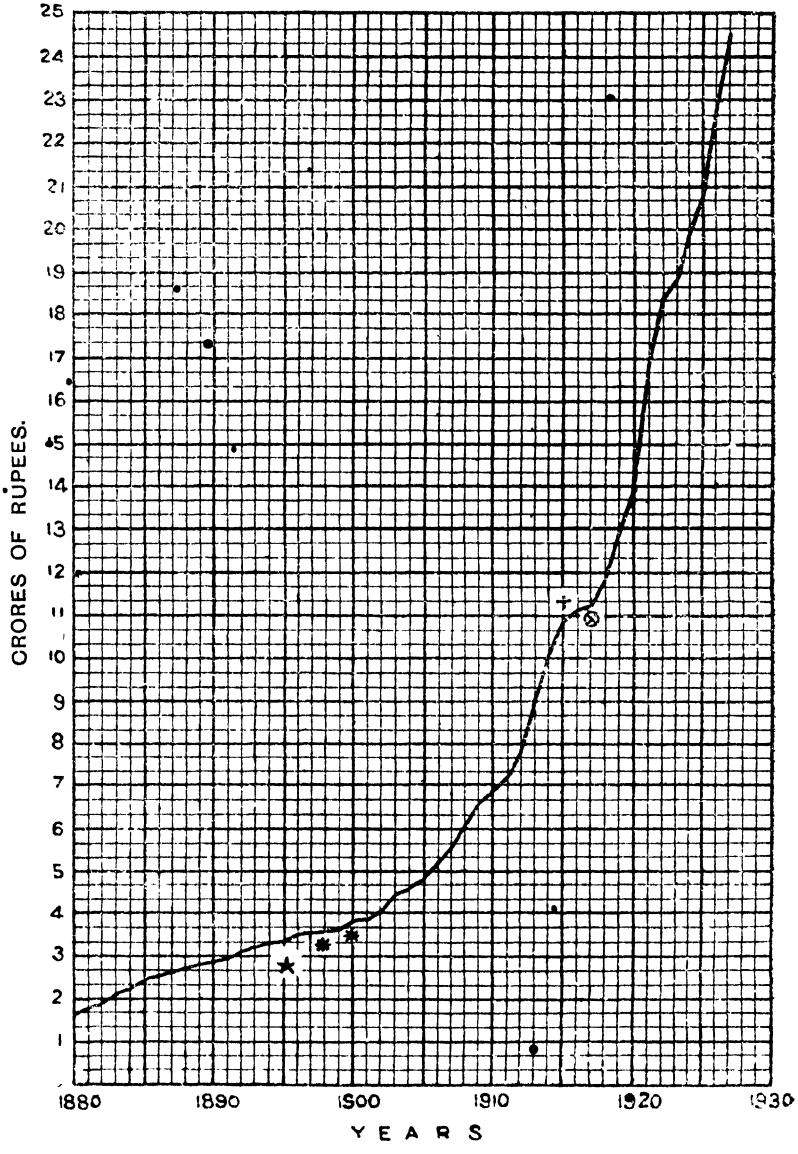


FIG. 3.

EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION IN INDIA.



PROGRESS

OF

EDUCATION IN INDIA

1922–27.

CHAPTER I.

INTRODUCTORY.

General.

The period under report has in many ways been one of exceptional interest. As a result of the introduction of the constitutional reforms in January 1921 radical changes were made in the control of education in British India, and though the last quinquennial review on education briefly surveyed the new conditions created by the Government of India Act it was written at too early a date in the history of the working of the reforms to throw much light on the results of the changes which have been made. The Reforms have, however, by the end of the period which this report surveys, been working for more than six years and it is now possible to survey the progress of education under the new control and to estimate how far that progress has been influenced by the constitutional changes in the country.

2. Apart from a change in the conditions due to the introduction of new controlling authorities with altered educational policies, the general conditions prevailing in the period under review have varied considerably from the conditions prevailing in the previous quinquennium. The post-war economic distress referred to in the last review has gradually disappeared and the consequent gradual financial improvement has been reflected in the accelerated rate of progress in the expansion of education. The non-co-operation movement also, which cast a shadow over the closing years of the last quinquennium, had become almost a spent force by the end of 1922 and much of the ground that had been lost between 1920 and 1922 was regained during the following year. A period which has witnessed great political changes, some economic improvement and the gradual cessation of non-co-operation activities has also witnessed an exceptionally large increase in the numbers of educational institutions and of scholars under instruction, the undertaking of many new educational ventures and the development and fruition of schemes initiated in the previous quinquennium.

Retrenchment.

3. It was stated in the last review that the progress of education in India was affected by the great economic distress which prevailed in the country as the after-math of the Great War. Financial stringency made the curtailment of the edu-

cational budget inevitable, and the retrenchment policy which it had been found necessary to adopt during the previous quinquennium was continued for the first few years of the period under review, and, until there were signs of a marked improvement in the economic conditions in the provinces, educational development and expansion continued to be seriously retarded. Central and provincial budgets had to be framed with a view to economy and not only were schemes involving new expenditure postponed but in many cases even the normal expenditure on education was considerably reduced. Retrenchment committees were set up by the Government of India as well as by several provincial Governments. Some of these committees, suggested drastic reductions in educational expenditure; some made startling recommendations regarding educational institutions and educational policy generally. But fortunately only a few of the most destructive suggestions were accepted or put into operation. A few of the suggestions made and action taken on them are enumerated below.

4. In Bombay a condition of straitened finances appears to have continued throughout the quinquennium and to have resulted in an inability to provide the requisite funds for the development and expansion of primary education and in the discontinuance of important schemes such as that for the medical inspection of school children.

In Bengal the retrenchment committee appointed to advise the Government made proposals for drastic cuts in educational expenditure including the abolition of the post of Director of Public Instruction, a large reduction in the number of inspecting officers, the handing over of all Government secondary schools to local bodies and the abolition of all institutions for the training of teachers. Even the recommendations which were accepted included a reduction in the number of teaching posts in Government colleges, in secondary schools and in training schools, the abolition of two Government middle schools and of a number of sub-inspectors' posts and the gradual abolition of a number of the posts of sub-inspectors and inspecting maulvis.

The Punjab Retrenchment Committee pointed out that communal rivalry was responsible for much expenditure that would otherwise be unnecessary. Its recommendations included the abolition of the Institute of Commerce, non-payment of grants to new colleges in Lahore and the exclusion of the cost of prizes in schools from the items held to be legitimate expenditure.

The Burma Retrenchment Committee did not suggest any drastic reductions in educational expenditure; on the other hand it expressed a hope that retrenchment under other heads less vital to the future development of the province might make it possible for the educational budget to undergo further expansion in the future, a noteworthy deviation from the recommendations made throughout India.

The retrenchment committee appointed in the Central Provinces recommended the abolition of the higher inspecting agency and the transfer of all inspection of primary schools to local bodies.

5. The retrenchment committee appointed by the Government of India, commonly known as the Inchcape Committee, made far-reaching recommendations most of which were unfortunately accepted. In particular it suggested very heavy reductions in the expenditure on education in the areas directly controlled by the Government of India: a very short-sighted recommendation since practically all of these areas are educationally backward. Unfortunately this recommendation was accepted, though with modifications. Further it recommended the closing of the Delhi University which had just been brought into being by an Act of the Legislature in 1921; this proposal was not accepted. The other recommendations of the committee which were accepted resulted in the amalgamation of the Department of Education and Health with that of Revenue and Agriculture, the abolition of the Bureau of Education and of the Central Advisory Board of Education. The Committee also advised the abolition of the post of Educational Commissioner with the Government of India; while Government did not actually abolish the post, they attached heavy and multifarious duties to it and kept in abeyance the separate post of Superintendent of Education for Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara. These changes have been dealt with at length in the chapter on Administration and Control, but speaking generally it may be asserted that the changes accepted, though they aimed at economy, really achieved little more than retarded development and less efficient administration.

Financial improvement

6. Considerable improvement, however, took place in the financial position of most provinces towards the close of the quinquennium and the results of this improvement were clearly seen in the new schemes for expansion which were adopted and the sudden rise in the total increase of expenditure each year on education. Of the total increase between 1922 and 1927 of approximately 621 lakhs, 47 lakhs were added in 1923, 106 in 1924, 96 in 1925, 191 in 1926 and 181 in 1927. It will thus be seen that in each of the last two years of the quinquennium the increases of the previous three years were doubled.

Programmes of expansion.

7. Important schemes of expansion and development have been forwarded or initiated in a number of provinces.

In Madras a primary education survey of the whole presidency was made and as a result of the survey a policy of expansion was adopted by Government which was intended to provide all school-less centres with a population of over 500 with schools, while schemes for compulsion under the Madras Elementary Education Act of 1920 were introduced in 24 areas.

In Bombay the passing of the Primary Education Act of 1923 paved the way for a wide development of compulsory primary education and many schemes of expansion and compulsion have been prepared under the Act, the majority of which have unfortunately not matured owing to the financial stringency prevailing in that province.

In Bengal, though local bodies have shown great reluctance to raise additional taxation for financing primary education, some progress has been made by putting into operation schemes of expansion proposed in a report submitted to Government by a Special Investigating Officer, the schemes being in operation at the end of the quinquennium in approximately 60 local board areas.

In the United Provinces, the policy which was adopted in 1918 of laying down a definite programme of expansion of primary education over a period of years was continued during the period under review and new programmes to be partly financed by Government under a contract system with district boards have been adopted. In 1926 the United Provinces District Boards Primary Education Act, which extended to district boards facilities for the introduction of compulsory education in rural areas similar to those granted to municipalities by the United Provinces Primary Education Act of 1919, was passed. A sum of Rs. 3 lakhs (recurring) was provided in the budget for 1927-28 for the expansion of vernacular education in accordance with the terms of the Act.

Similarly in the Punjab the policy previously adopted of laying down definite programmes of expansion has been continued and developed and schemes for compulsion under the Elementary Education Act have been so successfully worked that at the end of the quinquennium there were as many as 1,499 rural and 57 urban areas under compulsion.

In Bihar and Orissa definite programmes of expansion in primary education have been in operation throughout the quinquennium and Government subsidies to local bodies for financing schemes under these programmes have been largely increased.

In the North-West Frontier Province a five-year programme of expansion in all grades of education was under consideration at the end of the quinquennium but was adopted only after the close of the quinquennium; the programme has provided for increased grants to colleges and secondary schools, for the opening of new Government and district board secondary schools, for the creation of a girls' high school, for the opening of a large number of additional vernacular schools and for the appointment of four assistant district inspectors. This programme forms part of a general plan of educational expansion, spread over five years with effect from 1927-28, which has been approved during the quinquennium by the Government of India for the terri-

tories directly administered by them. It involves an additional expenditure of about Rs. 30 lakhs non-recurring and of about Rs. 4 lakhs recurring in the first year (1927-28), rising to about Rs. $10\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs recurring in the fifth (1931-32) year. A detailed account of this programme will be given in the next year's report to which it properly belongs.

Legislative Councils and Public opinion.

8. Two outstanding features of the period under review have been the influence exerted over educational policy by the provincial legislative councils and by non-official bodies and the devolution of control in education, mainly to local self governing bodies.

Every Government, both provincial and central, has, by bills, resolutions, budget discussions and questions in its Legislature paid constant attention to educational policies in India and there can be little doubt but that the manner in which educational policy has been kept in the public limelight has resulted in a greater measure of attention being focussed upon such problems as mass education, women's education, physical education and the educational needs of special communities.* The transfer of education to popular control and the criticism of an opposition has, except in cases where the policy of obstruction has been adopted, tended to accelerate progressive developments. The concentration of public opinion on educational matters through the Legislatures and through the Press, to an increasing extent, has created a demand for a forward movement in all branches of education —a demand which has naturally reacted on the educational policies adopted in the various provinces. That the criticisms of policies and of administration have not always been justified nor the demands always reasonable or practicable does not alter the fact that an active and interested non-official public opinion has materially affected progress throughout the period under review. Such being the case it is much to be regretted that in some provinces, such as Bengal and the Central Provinces, there were considerable periods during the quinquennium when popular control was withdrawn and constructive demands were negatived and criticism was not forthcoming by the absence of co-operation in the Councils. Yet through the working of both the reformed councils and local self governing bodies, a much larger number of non-official men and women have taken an active part in shaping educational policy and in handling educational administration than formerly. That the resultant progress should not always have been along the most suitable lines is a natural consequence of what is necessarily a transition period. In the exercise of new-found powers there has been a tendency towards interference in the detailed working of the executive. There has been a regrettable tendency in some provinces for those, who should assist in the shaping of policy, to attempt to influence the subordinate officials in the field of education who are entrusted with the task of seeing that the administrative machinery works easily and efficiently. It has not been

generally recognised that no man can serve two masters, that the executive officer cannot carry out his executive duties in accordance with the instructions pertaining to the machinery of which he forms a part and at the same time receive instruction from a member of a body formed for legislative or general administrative purposes. Attempts have been made to use teachers in schools under public management for purposes more political than educational.

The devolution of control.

9. As explained elsewhere in this report, the extent to which the control of education has been devolved upon local bodies and the manner of the devolution have varied very greatly as between province and province. But anybody surveying the field of education in India to-day cannot but be struck by the very great measure of devolution in control which has taken place in recent years. Not many years ago the power of granting recognition and aid to vernacular schools was almost everywhere vested in the executive Government, and the Government was responsible for the direct management of large classes of vernacular schools. But to-day in many provinces vernacular education has passed almost entirely to the control of local self-governing bodies, and recognition and grant-in-aid are now more directly the concern of local bodies than the concern of the executive Governments. Even in the sphere of secondary education, the creation in several provinces in recent years of Boards of High School Education, some of them with statutory powers, has relieved the officers of the education departments of some of their responsibility. In some provinces the powers of control in vernacular education have been devolved not directly on local bodies but on statutory *ad hoc* bodies such as district educational councils and school boards. The measure of devolution has been greater than these statements suggest since, simultaneously with the entrusting of new powers to local bodies, the non-official element in the constitution of local bodies has been largely increased and in several provinces local bodies have become entirely non-official in character.

10. In addition to the transfer of control in primary and secondary education, other steps have been taken to bring the public into more direct contact with some aspects of educational administration. In many provinces committees have been attached to different classes of institutions, mainly institutions managed directly by Government, while in some provinces these committees are not purely advisory in character but have definite powers, such as the committees of management for Government high schools in Bihar and Orissa and the admission committees attached to Government colleges in Madras. Advisory boards for various branches of education have been appointed in many provinces: they include boards for secondary education such as the district secondary education boards in Madras and the Secondary Schools Board in Burma; vernacular education boards such as the board in the United Provinces, university boards such

as the Advisory Committee for higher education in Bengal and special boards for such subjects as oriental studies, text-books and Muhammadan education.

Public interest.

11. These tendencies have, in some cases, resulted in an exaggeration of particular, such as communal, interests and in an undesirable and unnecessary interference in administrative detail. But, taken as a whole, they have awakened and widened public interest in all branches of education, and this in itself is possibly the most healthy feature of the period under review.

The education of women.

12. This awakening of public interest has been well-illustrated in the sphere of women's education. Women in India, through educational and other associations and through managing and advisory bodies, are now taking a very real part in the endeavour which is being made on all sides to bring the education of girls in India up to at least the level which has been reached in the education of boys. It is taking a long time to break down the barriers of prejudice, and of social custom but it is now happily being recognised that one of the greatest essentials for the future well-being of the country and of public life is the education of women of all communities. In order to establish this belief it has been necessary to educate public opinion and public opinion is most speedily and best educated through the example set by women themselves and by the propaganda work which has been done by corporate bodies of women all over India. Probably at no period in India's history have there been more hopeful signs for the future in regard to the education and position of women than at the present moment, when the public demand for the education of girls and of women is organised and vocal. This demand is being made not only by the women themselves but also by some of the enlightened men of the country who have realised that by educating a woman you are not merely educating an individual but producing the means of spreading the results of education through a whole family.

The work of associations.

13. In addition to the activities of women's associations the organisation and work of such associations as Anglo-Indian associations, Muhammadan Educational associations, Hindu and Christian missionary associations and backward and depressed classes associations have done much to assist the educational development of various communities during the period under review.

Educational statistics.

14. The General Educational Tables for 1926-27, which appear in Volume II of this review, have been compiled in a new form prepared by the late Central Advisory Board of Education. They were introduced with effect from 1922-23, being the first year of the present quinquennium. Many headings which were obsolete in the old tables have been excluded; the remaining material has been rearranged and in some of the tables, particularly Tables IV and V, much additional inform-

ation has been included. The arrangement of the revised tables does not correspond exactly to that of the old tables which had been in use up to 1921-22; it has consequently not been possible to give comparative figures for 1921-22 and 1926-27 in all cases. It has also been found necessary to make some changes in the forms of some of the supplemental tables included in Vol. II of the review. The new forms of educational statistics, are on the whole, more intelligible and comprehensive and have been generally appreciated.

15. The salient features of educational progress, recorded during the period under review, are well illustrated in the tables and paragraphs which follow on expenditure and on statistical progress.

Expenditure on Education, by sources.

Year.	Expenditure from				Total Expenditure.
	Government Funds.	Board Funds	Fees	Other Sources	
	Rs.	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs
1921-22 . . .	9,02,30,028	2,47,31,150	3,80,08,648	3,07,83,143	18,37,52,969
1926-27 . . .	11,93,32,854	3,65,91,114	5,21,27,191	3,77,96,413	24,58,47,572
Increase . .	+2,91,02,826	+1,18,59,964	+1,41,18,543	+70,13,270	+6,20,94,603

Expenditure on Education according to objects.

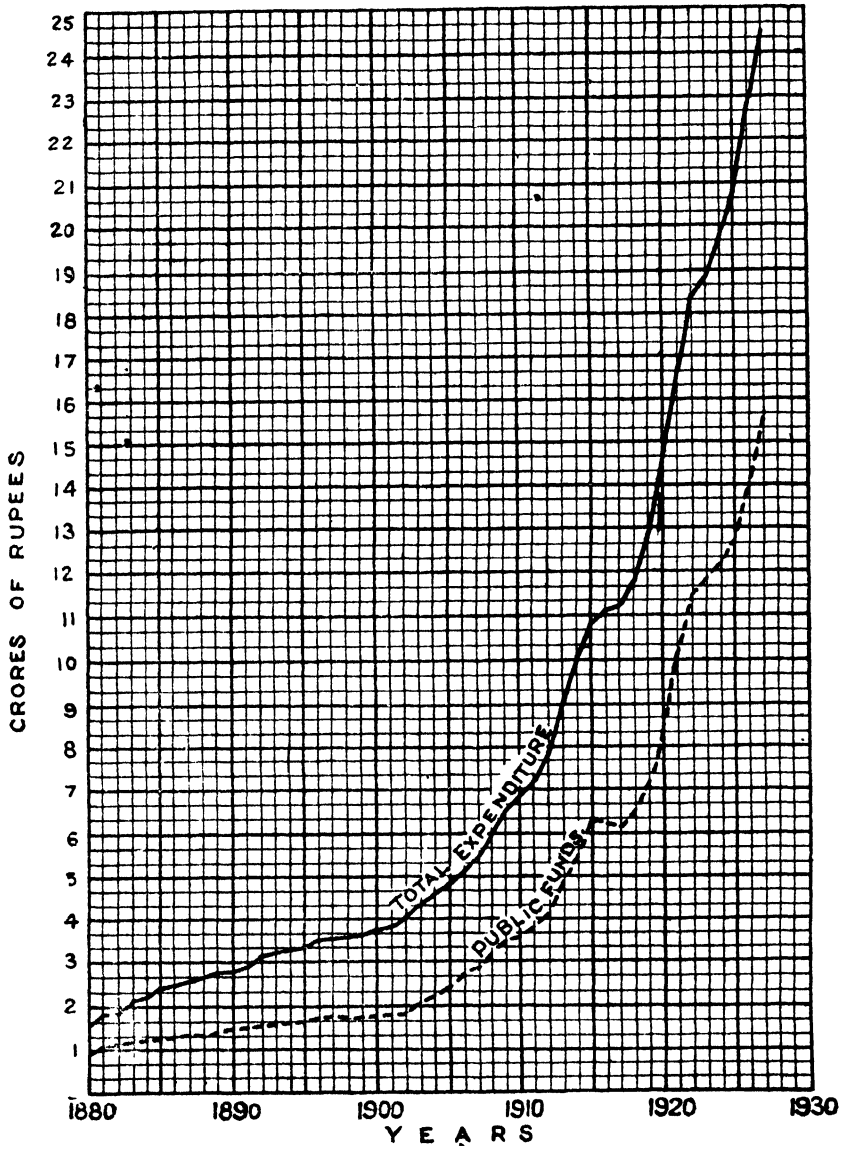
	1921-22			1926-27.		
	For Males.	For Females.	Total.	For Males.	For Females.	Total.
	Rs	Rs	Rs.	Rs	Rs	Rs.
Arts Colleges	1,07,08,923	3,33,415	1,10,42,338	1,40,00,253	5,84,665	1, 5,84,918
Professional Colleges.	57,59,995	2,17,519	59,77,514	73,98,426	2,39,366	76,35,792
Secondary Schools.	4,22,17,448	65,09,457	4,87,26,905	5,74,54,320	87,40,070	6,61,94,390
Primary Schools	4,33,47,444	75,60,663	5,09,08,107	5,92,20,326	1,03,01,370	6,95,21,696
Training Schools.	46,62,852	12,01,248	58,64,100	42,33,941	13,97,354	56,31,295
Other Special Schools.	73,51,609	4,86,485	78,37,494	1,09,31,947	7,29,290	1,16,61,237
University .			73,46,578		1,00,53,859	1,0 ,5 ,959
Direction .			13,99,110		15,55,351	15,55,351
Inspection .			79,36,408	80,73,425	7,43,281	87,46,706
Scholarships	5,33,96,511		31,76,089	(a)	(a)	(a)
Buildings, etc			1,97,60,544	2,51,65,091	25,60,086	2,77,25,177
Miscellaneous			1,37,83,782	1,80,69,710	44,67,411	2,25,37,151
Total .	11,40,47,671	1,63,08,787	18,37,52,969	20,44,75,439	2,97,62,923	24,58,47,57
	+5,33,96,511			+1,16,09,210		

(a) Separate figures not available.

NOTE.—The table shows an increase amounting to Rs. 6,20,94,603 during the quinquennium.

FIG. 4.

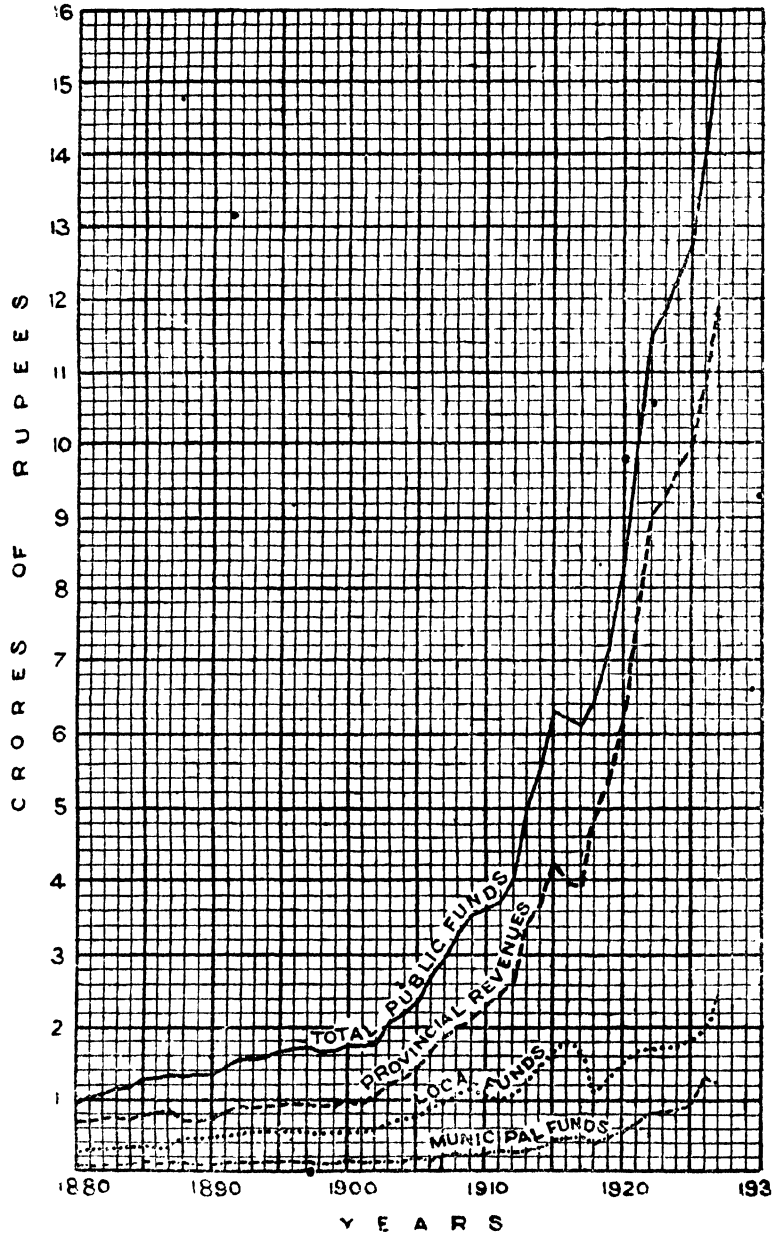
PUBLIC AND TOTAL EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION.



*

FIG. 5.

PUBLIC EXPENDITURE ON EDUCATION.



16. The most noteworthy feature of the figures for expenditure is the relatively large increase in the expenditure met from board funds and from fees. The expenditure from board funds has increased by over 118 lakhs against an increase of only 24 lakhs in the previous quinquennium and the expenditure from fees has increased by 141 lakhs as against an increase of 61 lakhs in the previous period. The increase from Government funds, namely, 291 lakhs of rupees, represents 47 per cent. of the total increased expenditure, but is considerably less than the corresponding increase in the previous quinquennium. The increases under Government funds and board funds between 1916-17 and 1921-22 are however liable to misinterpretation since in the previous quinquennium, in a number of provinces, the Government contributions to local boards for the maintenance of vernacular schools were classified as expenditure from board funds and when a reclassification was made during the period so as to show correctly the contributions made by Government to local boards under Government funds, it was natural that the total expenditure under Government funds should largely increase. The total expenditure on all grades of education has increased except expenditure on training schools which has slightly fallen, and it is perhaps noteworthy that in spite of the very great expansion in all directions the total expenditure on inspection and direction has increased by only Rs. 9·7 lakhs, whereas in the previous quinquennium, when a much smaller general advance was recorded, the total expenditure on direction and inspection increased by Rs. 34·8 lakhs. The other main objects of educational expenditure show the following large increases:— Expenditure.

	Lakhs.
Arts Colleges (including Intermediate Colleges) .	35
Professional Colleges	17
Secondary Schools	175
Primary Schools	186
Special Schools	38
Universities	27
Buildings, furniture and apparatus . .	80

The question of the relation between the expenditure on primary and on secondary education has been discussed elsewhere in this report. But it is perhaps significant that in spite of all the efforts which have been made to expand the system of primary education the increase in expenditure is still greater on higher institutions (arts colleges and secondary schools) than on primary schools.

Institutions and Scholars.

Type of Institution.	Institutions.			Scholars.		
	1922.	1927.	Increase (+) or decrease (−).	1922.	1927.	Increase (+) or decrease (−).
Universities	12	14	+2	(a)	7,053	+7,053
Art Colleges	167	232	+65	45,933	65,250	+19,317
Professional Colleges	64	77	+13	13,662	17,616	+3,954
Secondary Schools	8,987	11,338	+2,351	1,239,524	1,854,067	+614,543
Primary Schools	160,070	189,348	+29,278	6,310,400	8,256,760	+1,946,360
Special Schools	4,011	10,039	+6,028	132,706	328,604	+195,898
Unrecognised Institutions	34,807	35,216	+409	639,125	628,146	−10,979
Total	208,118	246,264	+38,146	8,381,350	11,157,496	+2,776,146

(a) Separate figures not available.

Scholars according to stages of instruction.

Stage.		1921-22.	1926-27.	Increase (+) or decrease (−).
Collegiate Stage	Arts and Science	45,175	70,428	+25,253
	Professional	13,662	17,951	+4,289
High Stage		218,606	277,970	+59,364
Middle Stage		434,810	713,939	+279,129
Primary Stage		6,897,233	9,120,458	+2,223,225
Special Schools		132,739	328,604	+195,865
Unrecognised Institutions		639,125	628,146	−10,979
Total		8,381,350	11,157,496	+2,776,146

Scholars according to race or creed.

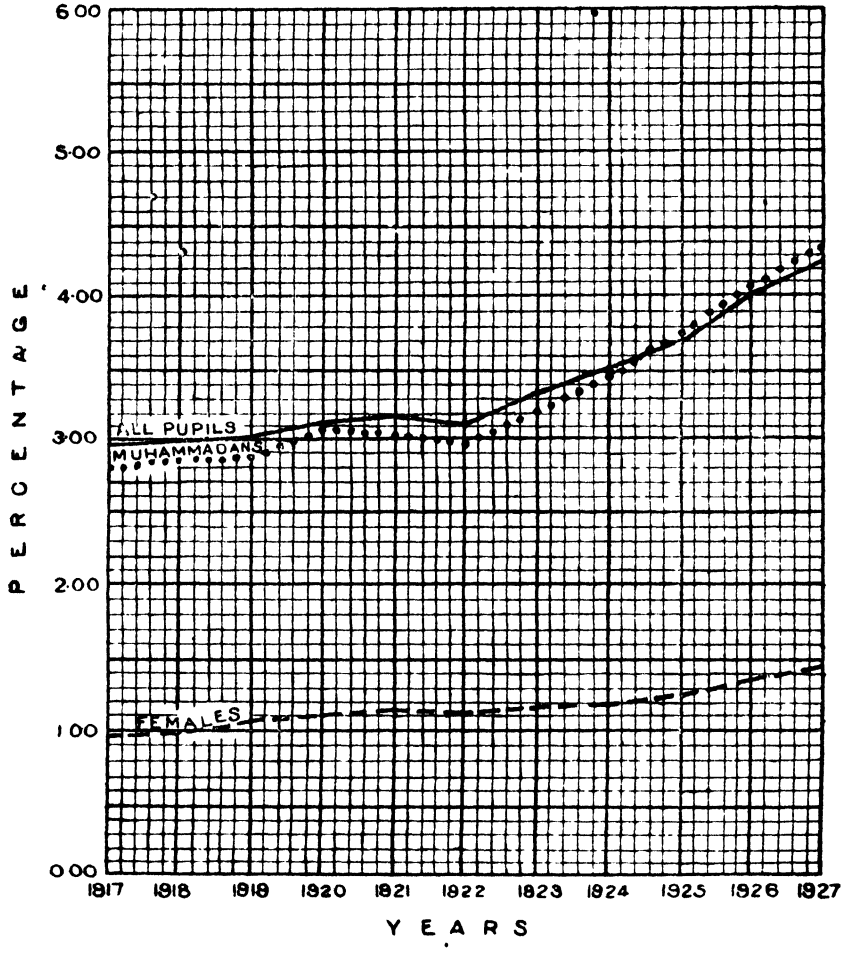
Community.	1921-22.	1926-27.	Increase (+) or decrease (−).
Europeans and Anglo-Indians	44,638	47,292	+2,654
Indian Christians	285,258	363,996	+78,738
Hindus	5,312,968	7,046,745	+1,733,777
Muhammadans	1,966,442	2,821,162	+854,720
Buddhists	510,597	575,276	+64,679
Parsis	17,070	19,529	+2,459
Sikhs	244,377	154,379	+38,306
Others		128,304	
Total	8,381,350	11,157,496*	+2,776,146

* Includes 813 scholars in Assam not shown by race or creed.

FIG. 6.

PERCENTAGES OF SCHOLARS TO POPULATION.

(RECOGNISED INSTITUTIONS.)



had been disproportionate to the increase in the number of institutions. But during the period under review, taking recognised institutions only, the increase in the number of scholars to the number of institutions has been in the proportion of 74 to 1 as against a proportion in the previous quinquennium of 29 to 1.

Enrolment by Communities.

20. The increases in enrolment by communities reveal equally remarkable progress. During the quinquennium, though the enrolment of Hindus has increased by over 1,700,000 and of Muhammadans by only about 850,000, the rate of increase has been 33 per cent. in the case of Hindus and 43 per cent. in the case of Muhammadans. In the previous quinquennium the enrolment of Hindus increased by only 5 per cent. and that of Muhammadans by only seven per cent. The enrolment of Indian Christians has increased by 78,000 as against an increase of only 53,000 in the previous quinquennium, but the enrolment of Europeans and Anglo-Indians has increased by under six per cent.

Indian Educational Service.

21. An outstanding feature of the period has been the cessation of recruitment to the Indian Educational Service since 1924, posts in which are being abolished as deaths and retirements occur in its ranks. From 1924 until the end of the quinquennium temporary arrangements were made in some provinces to recruit candidates to do the work formerly done by the members of the Indian Educational Service. It was, however, only at the end of the quinquennium that provincial Governments took in hand the reorganisation of the higher educational services and drew up schemes with a view to providing for the provincialisation of all educational posts. Discussion of these schemes comes more properly in the next report, but it may be mentioned here that the pay proposed in most provinces for that part of the provincial services which is to replace the Indian Educational Service is not sufficiently high to secure or retain men with high academical European qualifications.

Collegiate and Secondary Education.

22. Collegiate and secondary education have continued to expand rapidly and two new universities, 65 arts colleges, 13 professional colleges and 2,351 secondary schools have been added during the quinquennium. All these institutions have, in their own areas, met special needs and are to be welcomed in so far as they have helped to spread higher education in India. But no one fully acquainted with the conditions in India to-day can avoid the conclusion that, in spite of the obvious necessity of giving wide opportunities for higher education to all classes of the community, the openings in occupations suitable for the products of the present day higher education are not keeping pace with the increase in the products themselves.

Unemployment.

23. Unemployment amongst those who have passed through school or college courses is growing and in spite of the many attempts which have been made in the provinces to

find solutions for this pressing problem there are no signs that the position is improving. Although, under the new conditions and as the result of economic pressure, a large number of students are turning from clerical and professional employment to industrial and technical occupations, public opinion has not as yet been sufficiently educated to realise that higher education should not necessarily be merely a channel from hereditary occupations to clerical and professional occupations but should be a means of raising the standard of citizenship amongst all classes, whether in the villages or in the towns, whether on the land, or in business, or in trade or in professional employment. An outstanding example of the difficulties of the present position is to be found in the attitude of the great majority of young graduates from the universities or young students from the schools who, even when in possession of considerable landed property, almost invariably prefer to seek Government and other professional employment instead of returning to their estates to work them on modern and profitable lines and to take the place of their parents and relatives who, for generations, have pursued the honourable occupation of large-scale farmers. Every educationist is well aware of numbers of cases where land, which, in a previous generation, had successfully supported a large number of family members, has, in the present generation, been leased out at a very low rate of profit in order to enable the younger members of the family to seek precarious employment in urban areas. The fact that there is a far smaller variety of openings in India than in other countries where education is highly developed has aggravated a situation already grave and no one can doubt that one aspect of one of the most pressing problems facing the provinces to-day is that of adjusting the output of certain educational institutions to the economic development of India.

Mass Education.

24. At the end of the last quinquennium some important movements in connection with mass education had been set on foot and the period under review has witnessed in a varying degree the development or fruition of these schemes. Compulsory education has now been introduced into a sufficiently large number of urban and rural areas to have considerable effect on the total attendance at school. And, though the number of areas in which compulsion has been introduced is still very small and though strict compulsion cannot yet be enforced in most of these areas the experiments which have been undertaken have provided valuable experience which will undoubtedly enable a much larger measure of compulsion to be introduced in future years. In nearly all provinces a change has taken place in the general outlook on the position and functions of the primary school and notable endeavours have been made during the quinquennium to make the village school house a guiding force in the life of the village and its surroundings and to adapt the curricula in training schools and in primary schools to the special needs of the rural com-

The Village School.

munity. The revision of training courses and of primary school courses to this end has taken place and experiments in rural education have been made in a number of places. The more important have been referred to in other chapters in this report but one of the most fruitful experiments has been the opening of agricultural classes attached to middle vernacular schools. There was, for a long time, considerable difference of opinion as to the desirability of teaching any form of agriculture in schools for general education. But recent experiments have demonstrated that, provided the aim of the new schools is not to produce expert agriculturists but to improve the general education imparted, much good can result. Considerable success has also attended attempts which have been made in some provinces to recruit the teacher from the village itself and not as hitherto to send out into the villages teachers from urban areas who being often little acquainted or little interested in the life of the village are unable either to adapt the teaching imparted in the school so as to make the necessary appeal to the imagination of the village pupils or to join in the important work of uplifting the level of village life generally.

Agriculture in Rural Schools.

Villagers as Teachers.

Conclusion.

25. The progress of education during the five years' period under review has, on the whole, been very satisfactory and bids fair for the future. It is true that it has not been possible for the Ministries of Education to introduce radical reforms into the existing systems of education but there is no denying the fact that considerable constructive work has been done and many improvements have been effected. Advances have been limited by the exigencies of the times and by the financial assistance available, but the foundations of further advance under new conditions in the years to come have been laid. The most noticeable features of the period have been dealt with briefly in this chapter. The detailed accounts of the progress made in the various forms of education are given in the chapters which follow.

CHAPTER II.

ADMINISTRATION AND CONTROL.

Education under the "Reforms"

26. As stated in the last Quinquennial Review, the constitutional reforms in India were introduced in January 1921 so that the last review was able to treat of education under the Reforms only during the earlier portion of the reformed constitution, namely for one year and three months. During the present quinquennium, however, the Reforms have been in existence throughout the whole of the period and their working and effect upon education in all its aspects, including educational control, may be more thoroughly reviewed than was possible five years ago. Prior to the introduction of the Reforms, the Government of India exercised general supervision and control over education throughout the whole of India. Schemes involving legislation or large expenditure came up to this Government. Moreover the system of doles—including grants for education—was in force. When the Government of India had any surplus revenue and the demand for educational expenditure was insistent, or its need was obvious, subsidies were granted to provincial Governments for general or specific purposes, usually the latter. These doles helped much to further educational development in the provinces but they also caused a great deal of heartburning inasmuch as some provinces received considerably larger grants than others and the provinces which received the smaller amounts considered that they had been illiberally or inequitably treated by the Government of India.

27. Under the present constitution, education is with small exceptions a provincial and in the main a *transferred* subject in charge of a Minister, and since the Government of India are precluded from spending their own revenue upon any provincial object the system of doles is no longer in force so that it is not possible for the Government of India to influence the educational policy of local Governments by means of Imperial grants. The control which is exercised by the central Government over provincial Governments in the matter of education is practically negligible. In every province, through the responsibility is constitutionally that of the Governor of the province acting with his Minister, the Minister for Education, who is nominated by the Governor of the province from among the elected members of the local Legislative Council, is in practice held to be responsible for the educational policy of the province. The responsibility of the Minister is not to the Government of India but to the electorate of the province, the Governor of the province assisting and advising the Minister in the administration of his subject. He is assisted by a senior and experienced educational officer, a permanent official named the Director of Public Instruction, who tenders detailed professional advice on matters of educational policy and administration.

28. The exceptions to provincial control are that the Government of India are still ultimately responsible for education in the territories directly under the control of the central Government, namely, the North-West Frontier Province, Baluchistan, Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara, Bangalore, and other smaller or less important areas, this control being exercised through Chief Commissioners or Agents to the Governor General; in addition, the Government of India deal with the universities at Aligarh, Benares, and Delhi, the Chiefs' Colleges and certain other all-India or research institutions, *e.g.*, the Prince of Wales's Royal Indian Military College, Dehra Dun; the Agricultural Research Institute, Pusa; the Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad; the Forest Research Institute and College, Dehra Dun; and the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore.

29. It will thus be seen that while the administration and control of the Government of India over education in India is very limited yet the control of provincial Governments, exercised by and through their Ministers of Education is considerable, the control of each Minister being exercised only in his own province.

Complex nature of Educational Control.

30. While the legislative bodies in the country exercise legislative control over education, *e.g.*, by University Acts and Local Boards Acts, the administrative sides of Indian Governments exercise the necessary general administrative and executive control by executive orders. The principal non-governmental bodies which exercise some kind of control over education are universities, boards of education and local education authorities (district, taluk and municipal boards and district educational councils). Universities and local education authorities derive their authority from Acts of the legislature, boards of education derive their authority either from Acts of the legislature or from executive orders of government. But Government retain wide powers of supervision over schools and colleges largely through the power of the purse in the award of grants; they also themselves maintain a number of educational institutions, that number being large or small according as the policy adopted is mainly one of state-maintained or of state-assisted institutions. Each local Government has its own department of public instruction which exercises administrative and inspectorial functions for all educational institutions and in addition executive functions in regard to Government institutions. The authority of Government, in controlling the system of public instruction, is in part shared with and in part delegated to universities as regards higher education and to local bodies as regards elementary and vernacular education. In some provinces boards of secondary or of intermediate and secondary education have also been set up and have to some extent relieved the universities in those provinces of their responsibilities in connection with intermediate education and with entrance to a university course of studies. Apart from legislation, Governments control educa-

tion through codes of regulations and executive orders; it is only in a few cases that education is governed by legislation. The principal laws relating to education are University Acts, Primary Education Acts, Children Acts and Local Self Government Acts. The last-named Acts, which embody the powers of local bodies, lay upon them the obligation to provide facilities for primary education or permit them to make provision for this and for other forms of education. Institutions under private management are controlled by Government and by local bodies by recognition and by the payment of grants-in-aid with the assistance of the inspecting staffs employed by Government and in rarer cases by local bodies.

31. The " transfer " of Indian education to the charge of a Minister responsible to the provincial Legislative Council, of which he is himself an elected member, has brought the subject directly under popular control in the nine major provinces. European education, however, is a " reserved " subject under the control of a provincial Member of Council in all provinces except Burma where it is in charge of the Minister. Generally speaking, education, excluding European education, is not, however, in all provinces under the charge of a single Minister; certain forms of education have been transferred to the technical departments concerned (*e.g.*, industrial education to the industrial department) and come within the purview of the Ministers in charge of those departments.

32. In each province, the Director of Public Instruction is the administrative head of the Department of Education and as already stated acts as adviser to the Education Minister. He controls the inspecting staff and the teaching staff of Government institutions and is generally responsible for the right allotment of grants and for the enforcement of educational rules and regulations; in these matters he acts as the agent of the provincial Government and in all important affairs he has to secure the approval of the local Government. His proposals to the local Government are made through one of the secretaries to the Government, who is ordinarily a member of the Indian Civil Service. The exceptions are in the United Provinces, the Punjab and the Central Provinces where the Director of Public Instruction is attached to the Government Secretariat, being entrusted with secretariat duties and performing in great part the functions of an educational secretary. In the United Provinces, the Director is Deputy Secretary to Government; in the Punjab, he is Under Secretary; while in the Central Provinces he is Secretary to the local Government. In Bengal the experiment of attaching the Director of Public Instruction to the Government Secretariat was tried for a time and subsequently given up. It is clear—as was found in Bengal and as has been anticipated elsewhere—that the Director of Public Instruction of a province will not have sufficient time for touring and for keeping himself in direct touch with educational conditions throughout the province, if he is burdened with duties of a secretariat nature conducted

in an office attached to the secretariat of the local Government.

33. The organisation of the administrative and inspecting staffs is given elsewhere in this chapter, but the foregoing remarks indicate in a general manner how the existence of various authorities and the consequent division of control adds to the complexity of educational administration and control in India just as it does in other countries.

Effects of Retrenchment on the Central Government.

34. The acceptance of some of the recommendations in regard to education made by the Indian Retrenchment Committee, commonly known as the Inchcape Committee, appointed by the Government of India in 1921, seriously and adversely affected the spread of education in areas under the direct control of the Government of India; its control by the Government of India in these areas; the acquisition and dissemination throughout India of information on educational work, enquiries and researches; the mature consideration of all-India educational questions and the co-ordination of work in the educational field in different parts of India. Apart from the curtailment of educational activities outside the headquarters of the Government of India, which was considerable, at the headquarters itself the Bureau of Education and the Central Advisory Board of Education have been abolished and the Educational Commissioner was called upon to take up secretariat duties, some of them non-educational in character, and to act as Superintendent of Education in Delhi and in Ajmer-Merwara. Both the Bureau of Education, which was attached to the office of the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, and the Central Advisory Board of Education, which was established only in 1920, served a most useful purpose in that they formed a link with and between provincial Educational Departments, and their abolition has deprived the Government of India of the useful and necessary machinery for giving considered and expert advice to the various Governments in India. The Department of Education and Health at the headquarters of the Government of India has been amalgamated with the Department of Revenue and Agriculture and the combined Department, which is now known as the Department of Education, Health and Lands, has been placed in charge of a single Member of His Excellency the Viceroy's Executive Council. The strength of the Department has been considerably reduced, though the number of subjects dealt with in the Department is formidable. As its name implies, the new Department deals not only with education but also with other matters such as archæology and museums, municipalities, sanitation and public health agriculture and veterinary science, co-operation, famine, land revenue, emigration, zoological and botanical surveys, forestry, drugs manufacture, and records. In so far as education is concerned, though the Educational Commissioner is called upon to advise on every branch of education, yet the

Department of Education, Health and Lands is concerned only with general education, agricultural and veterinary education, medical education and forestry education. Legal, commercial, technical and industrial education are assigned to other Departments of the Government of India.

35. The position of the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India has been materially affected by these changes. Formerly, he was mainly an adviser to the Government of India in all important educational matters and controlled the activities of the Bureau of Education and of the Central Advisory Board of Education of which he was the Chairman. Now, in addition to his ordinary duties as educational adviser to all Departments of the Government of India, he is in charge of the Education Section of the Department of Education, Health and Lands, and has to deal with some subjects other than education. He has also to carry on, on a limited scale, the publication work of the late Bureau of Education. In addition, he holds collateral charge of the duties of the Superintendent of Education, Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara, since the post of a whole-time Superintendent of Education for these two provinces has been held in abeyance as a measure of economy. The duties of the Educational Commissioner are thus manifold and fall under the following four categories:—Adviser to the Government of India; Secretariat Officer; Superintendent of Education, Delhi; Superintendent of Education, Ajmer-Merwara. It is obvious that the arrangement under which a single officer is entrusted with so many duties of a diverse nature—specialist, advisory, secretariat and executive, must necessarily be very unsatisfactory, as has been pointed out in the following quotation taken from the Quinquennial Review on Education under Ajmer-Merwara: "The system (of educational control) suffers, however, from three vital defects. Is is controlled and supervised by an officer whose headquarters are for seven months of the year in Simla and for five months of the year in Delhi, an officer who can never be in constant and direct touch with the educational needs of the district. The Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, who combines the offices of Superintendent of Education in Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara with his other duties, has little time to do more than pay a flying visit to Ajmer in the course of the year. He has not time to visit even the larger centres outside Ajmer. This officer, in his capacity as Superintendent of Education, submits proposals to the local administration which, if approved by the local administration and submitted to the Government of India, have again to be examined by the same officer in his capacity of Educational Commissioner with the Government of India. A system with the above accumulation of defects is not, and clearly cannot be, in the interest of educational administration in Ajmer-Merwara." It would appear that the recommendations of the Inchcape Committee in respect of educational retrenchment need reconsideration.

Position of Educational Commissioner with the Government of India.

Need for Central Agency.

36. Although education was made a provincial transferred subject by the Government of India Act, its provincialisation has not removed the need for some form of co-ordinating, advisory and informatory central agency. Nor has it removed the necessity for the Education Department of the Government of India being kept in touch with the details of educational progress in the provinces. The last quinquennial review discussed these needs at length and stated that "it is probable that the need for such central agencies as the Central Advisory Board and the Bureau of Education able to collate for the benefit of the provinces educational experience derived from the whole of India will be more fully realized when the intense feeling of provincial independence which was engendered by the Reforms has abated". By the end of the quinquennium now under review, the Government of India had become almost completely isolated from educational activities in India, with the exception of those in certain directly administered areas. The isolation of the Government of India from provincial Governments and of provincial Governments from one another in the field of education is making its ill effects felt so that there are recently signs which indicate that opinion in favour of co-operation and mutual assistance is gaining ground.

37. Although the extent and quality of education are fundamental to national life, there is no co-ordinating agency which can give an all-India outlook to problems of all-India importance—such problems, for example, as free and compulsory primary education, the education of girls, the education of special classes or communities, the provision of trained teachers, the control and financing of mass education and the position of the educational services. All these problems which are being dealt with in divergent manners in the provinces present some common features and some common difficulties. Yet under the present system there is no all-India agency even to give information to the authorities in one part on what is being done in other parts of India, far less to advise on educational problems or to direct educational administration, notwithstanding the evident value to one province of the results of educational experiments and researches in another province. Even if the functions of a central agency were limited to those of an advisory character, such as were exercised by the Central Advisory Board, since abolished, much co-ordination in effort could be obtained which is now unfortunately absent. During its shortlived existence, the Central Advisory Board was able to consider from an all-India point of view such important subjects as the education of Europeans and Anglo-Indians, control of degrees, standardisation and equivalence of examinations, technical and vocational education, relations between universities and educational services, recruitment of university professors, national education, inspection and administration of municipal and board schools, organisation of education departments, teaching of English, mental intelligence tests

and revision of educational statistics, and the mere fact that heads of administrations were able to meet together from time to time, to discuss important educational problems and to compare notes proved invaluable to those who were in charge of the multifarious and growing schemes for education in the provinces.

38. How anomalous the present position has become is revealed by the debates which have been held during the quinquennium in the central Legislatures. These Legislatures have discussed the introduction of free and compulsory education, women's education, moral instruction, technical education, medical education, the education of the depressed classes and the education of Europeans and Anglo-Indians. The demand for improvements in the educational system in all its aspects has been repeatedly voiced in the central Legislatures; but the Government of India, with its Education Department, has been unable to give any lead to India as a whole in educational matters of all-India importance except by drawing the attention of provincial Governments to the debates which have been held in the central Legislatures and by the example of its control over the comparatively small areas under its direct control. Demands have even been made for the provision of funds by the Government of India for the purpose of helping forward the movement for mass education, but under the Government of India Act the central Government is prohibited from making contributions towards subjects which have been provincialised. That a very real need exists for some form of central agency and possibly also for some manner of central advice or control can scarcely be denied, and for many reasons the changes that have taken place during the quinquennium are much to be regretted.

39. The present absence of any exchange of inter-provincial ideas and the lack of knowledge on the part of one province of what is happening in another province have been well illustrated by the necessity which has arisen of sending educational experts or committees from one province to another in order to appreciate the methods which have been adopted in attacking particular problems, such, for example, as agricultural education in provinces where special experiments have been undertaken. Provincial Governments and the Government of India have to a growing extent felt the necessity of convening educational conferences for exchange of views between workers from distant parts of the country and for personal interchange of experiences gained under varying and not altogether dissimilar circumstances. The Conference of Indian Universities in 1924 was the first attempt at joint deliberation since the Reforms and it was followed by a conference of educational administrators in India in January 1927. Events have also shown that there is an actual danger that certain educational activities and experiments in the provinces will overlap to an unnecessary extent. This has been illustrated by the rapid movement towards the

opening of new types of universities during recent years. The Governor-General of India is the Visitor, with inspectorial rights, of a large number of universities in India, and yet the Government of India have no co-ordinating authority to consider the needs of university development in India. The Universities of Benares, Aligarh and Delhi are central subjects, dealt with by the Government of India, and yet they have many divergent features, there is no obvious co-ordination between them in either outlook or purpose while the two former universities, located as they are in the area comprising the United Provinces in which, in recent years, a network of universities, varying in type, has arisen, are influenced more by the educational policy of that area than by that of any other area or Government in India.

40. No one reading this report and other educational reports can fail to be struck by the outstanding feature of the present systems of education in India which is the extraordinary divergence of method and control as well as nomenclature which exists as between povince and province. It certainly seems right that under any measure of provincial autonomy provincial Governments should have a voice in the manner of the development of the various provincial activities, in relation to the peculiar needs of the people under their governance. But it is a matter for grave doubt whether the present system, whereby the provinces have attacked their educational problems in almost complete isolation and have developed the most varying schemes for financing and controlling education in all its grades, has resulted in that forward policy or series of policies which is the most beneficial to the nation as a whole. The problems of mass education and of the introduction of compulsion are not, in their main aspects, purely local problems; and yet, in almost all provinces, the extent and manner of providing for and financing mass education and the method of controlling primary education vary considerably. Most provinces have introduced schemes of compulsion, some with comparative success, others with little success; while one province has not yet even passed an Elementary Education Act. Some, having passed an Act, have not found the means to work it successfully. In some provinces primary education has passed into the almost complete control of local boards and local authorities, while in other provinces, the executive Government has retained considerable hold over the development of this stage of education. Some provinces have more or less successfully raised local taxation for the purpose of forwarding primary education, while in other provinces proposals for increase in taxation have been met with strong opposition. In some provinces primary education is largely financed direct by Government, while in other provinces local boards and local authorities assisted by provincial subsidies, control the financing of primary schools. The scale of Government subsidies and grants-in-aid varies largely from province to

province, and even the extent to which primary schools are supervised and inspected by departmental or local board agencies varies. Even in the sphere of higher education, considerable divergence exists in regard to the recognition and aid of schools and to the relation of secondary schools to universities, to the Educational Departments, and to the various provincial Boards of Intermediate and High School Education. The abolition of the Bureau of Education and its staff and the change made in the duties of the Educational Commissioner made it impossible for the Government of India to have at any moment accurate information regarding the many-sided educational activities in the provinces. These latter facts alone, apart from any question of the co-ordination of provincial activities, have considerably curtailed the possibility of the Government of India being in a position satisfactorily to survey the needs of India as a whole in regard to the vital educational problems already referred to. An "Indian" educational policy can scarcely be said to exist to-day. The Education Department of the Government of India cannot under present arrangements keep in touch with educational movements all over India; but there is every indication that, in spite of the provincialisation of education, provincial Governments would welcome information and considered opinion emanating from a central co-ordinating agency

Education in Provincial Legislatures.

41. During the quinquennium all provincial Legislatures have shown increasing interest in the educational problems of their provinces; the state and progress of education has been exhaustively discussed during the passage of Bills, during budget debates and during the debates on educational resolutions while a fairly large number of questions asked at question time pertained to education. The greater publicity which has of late years been given to the details of educational policy and administration and the non-official opinions expressed through the activities of the local Legislatures have had considerable effect on the shaping of educational policy during the period under review.

In Madras, the Legislative Council has debated such subjects as mass education and compulsion, the state of Muhammadan education and the education of the depressed classes, the need for new colleges and for more universities, an increase in scholarships and in fee remissions, the pay and status of teachers and departmental educational officers.

In Bengal, the interest and activities of the Legislative Council in educational matters were considerably curtailed owing to the fact that for more than half the period under review there were no Ministers in the Bengal Government. The frequent withdrawal of the Opposition from the Council Chamber and the abrupt endings to budget debates rendered it impossible for the Legislature to influence educational policy and administration to the same extent as has been done

in other provinces. But during the quinquennium the Legislative Council showed a lively interest in the affairs of the Calcutta and Dacca Universities, in the state and progress of primary education, and in the question of compulsory physical training for college and school students. Questions regarding education asked in the Council continued to increase and ranged round a variety of subjects, including the educational facilities provided for special communities, the suitability of text-books, the provision of provident funds, and communal representation in educational posts.

The Legislative Council of the United Provinces adopted a specially vigilant attitude towards educational policy throughout the quinquennium, and the resolutions which it accepted included recommendations regarding the status and pay of subordinate officers of the Education Department and of teachers generally, technical education, the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction and the improvement of physical training in schools. The fact that about 2,000 questions regarding education were asked in this Council during the quinquennium is evidence of the extent of the interest taken by members of the Legislative Council in the state and progress of education in the province.

In the Punjab, though educational affairs formed a large part of the discussions of the Legislative Council, that Council never refused a demand for educational purposes. It has in fact repeatedly drawn attention to the need for increased allotments for educational expansion.

In the Bihar and Orissa Legislative Council although only one Bill affecting education was introduced during the five years under review, 17 resolutions concerning educational matters were discussed, 64 motions for reduction in the education budget were moved and a very large number of questions on educational matters were tabled.

In Assam as many as 71 resolutions relating to education were moved in the local Council during the quinquennium, a number which far exceeded the resolutions relating to all other Departments of Government put together. Twenty-four of these resolutions were carried, 31 withdrawn and 16 lost. Although the resolutions mainly related to important questions like the Primary Education Act, the reform of secondary education, reorganisation of the Services and an increase in grant-in-aid, they also included resolutions to abolish training schools and middle English schools, to de-provincialise all Government high schools and to abolish the Earle Law College and the post of Director of Public Instruction.

Education in the Central Legislatures.

42. Some reference has already been made to the nature of the debates held in the central Legislatures on educational matters (*vide* paragraph 38). A more detailed account of the activities of the Legislative Assembly and the Council of State is given in the following paragraphs.

43. Education being a transferred provincial subject, the questions on education in the central Legislatures were mainly confined to the universities in receipt of grants from central funds and to developments in areas directly administered by the Government of India though some questions of a more general nature were also asked. The majority of questions put were asked in the Legislative Assembly, though a few were asked in the Council of State. They included such subjects as the need for a university in Rajputana; the grants paid to the Aligarh Muslim, Benares Hindu and Delhi Universities; students and non-co-operation; extent and cost of education in the directly administered areas; expenditure by Railways on education; the instruction given in Chiefs' Colleges; the teaching of wireless science; nautical instruction; the Inter-University Board; depressed classes; the Boy Scout movement; University Training Corps; religious and moral instruction; agricultural and commercial colleges in India; recruitment of Indian ladies to the Indian Educational Service; Muhammadan education; state scholarships for study abroad; and the Prince of Wales's Royal Indian Military College, Dehra Dun. This list shows how varied has been the interest taken by the central Legislatures in the sphere of education.

44. In addition to questions, a number of resolutions were moved. Great importance was attached to the military training of Indian youths with a view to their obtaining King's Commissions in the Army and several resolutions were moved and adopted by the Legislative Assembly from time to time with this object in view. Of the other resolutions moved in the Assembly one relates to the institution of research scholarships for Indians of great promise, while another concerned the formulation of a scheme of sholarships and prizes for Indian art students engaged in painting, sculpture, architecture and artistic crafts.

45. The bills relating to educational matters, which were moved in the central Legislatures during the quinquennium, were comparatively few. A Bill to amend the Indian Medical Degrees Act of 1916 was introduced in the Legislative Assembly in February 1925 but was withdrawn in February 1926 owing to non-official opposition. At the same time, a non-official Bill, called the Indian Medical Education Bill, was introduced in the Assembly with the object of creating an all-India Medical Council and providing for the establishment of a recognised qualification in *Unani* & *Ayurvedic* methods of medical treatment. The Bill was not, however, proceeded with. A similar non-official Bill was introduced in the Council of State but, after having been circulated for opinion, was also dropped. In February 1927, a Bill further to amend the Provident Funds Act of 1925 was introduced in the Council of State with a view to extending the benefits of provident funds, which formerly applied only to teachers, to all classes of educational employees, holding non-pensionable

posts, whether serving as teachers or as other servants in educational institutions or employed under educational administrative bodies. The legislation, being non-controversial, was passed by both the Assembly and the Council.

Boards of Secondary and Intermediate Education.

46. An important development in the sphere of educational control has been the establishment of boards for secondary or for secondary and intermediate education. Some of these boards are formed by executive orders of Government, while others are constituted under legislative enactments; some are of a purely advisory nature, while others prescribe courses of study and conduct examinations at the end of the high school stage or the intermediate stage. Boards of this latter type, wherever they exist, have undertaken some of the functions hitherto performed by the universities or the departments of public instruction. The recommendation of the Calcutta University Commission relating to the separation of the intermediate classes from the university have for very good reasons been rejected throughout the greater part of India, though some of the boards which have recently come into existence are indirectly the outcome of the recommendations of that Commission. It seems advisable to give here a brief description of the constitution and functions and other special features of the boards which have up to the present been established in the different provinces.

Madras.

47. In Madras, there is a Secondary School-Leaving Certificate Board which consists of the Director of Public Instruction as *ex-officio* President, six officers of the Government Educational Service and seven non-official members. Both the Madras and Andhra Universities are represented on this board. Its members are appointed for a period of three years but are eligible for reappointment. The Secretary to the Commissioner for Government Examinations acts as Secretary to the Board. The Board conducts a public examination for pupils at the end of their secondary school course and awards school-leaving certificates in accordance with a scheme approved by Government. The examination covers a wider range of studies than the University Matriculation Examination and the school record forms an important item of the scheme. It is designed chiefly to record the attainment of pupils at the end of their secondary school course, no matter what that course has been; it also serves as a test for admission to the public service, and since under certain conditions it also admits candidates to the University it has practically ousted the University Matriculation Examination. The examination has been in existence since March 1911, some years before the appointment of the Calcutta University Commission.

48. Besides this Board, District Secondary Education Boards have been established, with effect from 1923, in all districts of the Madras Presidency excluding the hill district of the Nilgiris and the Agency Tracts. The boards contain representatives elected by local bodies which maintain secondary

schools, representatives elected by the managements and staffs of schools under private management, and nominated members. In each case, the President of the District Board is *ex-officio* the President of the Secondary Education Board. The boards are purely advisory in character and have not exercised much influence on the development of secondary education but their opinion is sought on almost all matters concerning secondary education, including grants-in-aid, recognition, vocational training, medical inspection, and moral instruction.

Bombay.

49. Prior to 1924, there was a Joint Examination Board in Bombay on which both the University and Government were represented and which conducted the School Final Examination. In 1924, it was decided to leave the examination entirely to the University and a School-Leaving Examination Board was accordingly instituted by the University, consisting of twelve members, nine of whom are elected by the Senate while three are co-opted. Of the twelve members, two must be professors (one a professor of science), two must be heads of registered high schools, one a head of a registered girls' high school, one an Educational Inspector, and one a member of the staff of a college affiliated to the University for the purpose of the B. T. degree. The course for the School-Leaving Examination includes various practical subjects. Both the School-Leaving Examination certificate and the Matriculation certificate are now accepted by the Government as qualifying for Government service. Through the agency of the School-Leaving Examination Board, the Bombay University affiliates schools for the School-Leaving Examination; but before doing so, it satisfies itself from the reports of a special Inspection Committee (composed of its own members) that the school is up to the required standard. The Board is also supplied with copies of the reports of the Government Inspecting Officers.

Bengal.

50. For Bengal as a whole there is no board but a Board of Secondary and Intermediate Education was established by the Government of Bengal in 1921 for the small Dacca University area. Besides the Chairman, the Board consists of 22 members. There is also a Secretary who is not a member of the Board. The Chairman and Secretary are whole-time salaried officers, while all the members are honorary. In 1926-27, the constitution of the Board was as follows:—

(*a*) The Chairman.

(*b*) Four representatives of the Dacca University.

(*c*) Two representatives of the Calcutta University.

(*d*) Three representatives of Intermediate Colleges in Dacca.

(*e*) Four representatives of High English Schools in Dacca.

(*f*) Four representatives of the non-Muhammadan community at Dacca.

(*g*) Four representatives of the Muhammadan community at Dacca.

(*h*) Principal, Teachers' Training College, Dacca.

Originally, the Dacca Board was established as a provisional measure as it was intended to create a provincial board for Secondary Education for the whole of Bengal. The scheme for the institution of such a general provincial board, however, has not yet materialised and the consequent delay has led to the prolongation of the life of the Dacca Board from year to year. The jurisdiction of the Board extends over the area which has been assigned to the Dacca University and is restricted to intermediate colleges and classes, senior madrasas and high English schools within that area. Subject to the general supervision of Government, the principal functions of the Board are the distribution of monetary grants to non-Government institutions in accordance with prescribed rules, the inspection of all educational institutions under its control, the definition of curricula and prescription and conduct of examinations and the granting of recognition. The Board also advises Government on matters affecting secondary or intermediate education within the area under its jurisdiction and conducts the special Islamic Matriculation & Intermediate Examinations.

United Provinces.

51. In the United Provinces, a Board of High School and Intermediate Education has been established under the Intermediate Education Act of 1921. The Board consists of:—

(*a*) the Director of Public Instruction (*ex-officio* Chairman),

(*b*) two Principals of Government Intermediate Colleges,

(*c*) four Principals of non-Government Intermediate Colleges,

(*d*) one headmaster of a Government high school,

(*e*) two headmasters of non-Government high schools,

(*f*) one representative of each of the following:—(*i*) Engineering, (*ii*) Agriculture, (*iii*) the Medical profession, (*iv*) the staff of teachers' training colleges, (*v*) Industries, and (*vi*) Women's Education,

(*g*) representatives elected by the United Provinces Universities, in number as nearly as possible one-third of the total number of the other members of the board,

(*h*) three representatives elected by the non-official members of the Legislative Council,

(*i*) one member each appointed by (1) the Upper India Chamber of Commerce, (2) the United Provinces Chamber of Commerce, (3) the British Indian Association and (4) the Agra Landholders' Association.

The chief committees of the Board are the Recognition Committee, the Examination Committee, the Finance Committee, the Curriculum Committee, and the Committee of Courses. For the purpose of inspection of intermediate colleges, the Director of Public Instruction may associate with the divisional inspector of schools one or more persons chosen from a list of persons nominated by the Board who are actually engaged on the work of teaching in the United Provinces. An officer of the Indian Educational Service has been acting as Secretary to the Board, which conducts examinations, prescribes courses of study and recognises institutions from which candidates may appear for its examinations. The examinations held by the Board are the High School Examination, the Intermediate Examination, and the Commercial and Agricultural Diploma Examinations. The High School Examination has replaced the departmental School-Leaving Certificate Examination and the Allahabad University Matriculation Examination, while the Intermediate Examination is held in place of the Intermediate Examination of that University. The jurisdiction of the Board extends over the United Provinces and, temporarily, over Central India, Rajputana and Ajmer-Merwara, which were included within the territorial limits of the Allahabad University before its re-organisation.

52. Under the provisions of the Aligarh Muslim University Act, an Intermediate Examination Board has been formed for the University which consists of the Pro-Vice-Chancellor and seven other members—six appointed by the Academic Council and one by the Executive Council. The ordinances of the University lay down that at least one of the members of the Board shall be the Principal of an Intermediate College maintained or admitted to privileges by the University, and one other shall be a person not engaged in teaching in the University or in any maintained or privileged institution. The main function of the Board is to conduct the Intermediate Examination of the University, but it may also conduct examinations in schools and intermediate colleges maintained or admitted to privileges by the University under the Act.

Punjab.

53. A School Board has been established for the Matriculation and School-Leaving Certificate Examination of the Punjab. The Board consists of the Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, as *ex-officio* Chairman; four members elected by the Arts Faculty of the Punjab University from among the members of that Faculty; two members elected by the Science Faculty from among the members of that Faculty; two members elected by the Faculty of Oriental Learning from among the members of that Faculty; and three members nominated by Government from among the members of any Faculty. Ordinarily a new Board is appointed for each year. Its duties are to consider all questions relating to the Matriculation and School-Leaving Certificate Examination and to report thereon to the University Syndicate. The Board also recommends

courses of study and reading to be followed by the candidates for examination.

Burma.

54. There were two boards in Burma in the beginning of the quinquennium, *viz.*, the Anglo-Vernacular Secondary Schools Board and the European Schools Board, with 12 members for the former and 10 for the latter. Each of these boards had four representatives of the Rangoon University on it. In 1923, the number of members of the Anglo-Vernacular Schools Board was raised to 15 and in the following year to 18, a total which included three representatives of the Council of National Education who subsequently resigned. In 1925, the two boards were amalgamated under the name of the Secondary Schools Board, which now consists of 20 members (12 non-officials, 4 officials and 4 University representatives). The functions of this board are to control the English and Anglo-vernacular School and Middle School Examinations and to advise the Director of Public Instruction on matters connected with secondary education.

Bihar and Orissa.

55. In Bihar and Orissa, a Board of Secondary Education was constituted during the year 1922-23. The constitution was revised in 1925-26 and is now as follows:—

The Director of Public Instruction, Chairman, *ex-officio.*

Three members elected by the Senate of the Patna University.

Five members elected by the non-official members of the Legislative Council, one from each division.

The Principals of the Diamond Jubilee and Nalanda Colleges and the headmaster of the Ranchi Zilla School, *ex-officio.*

A representative of female education.

Four representatives of any community which in the opinion of Government is not adequately represented (nominated by Government).

An Inspector of Schools (nominated by Government).

Four headmasters of schools (nominated by Government).

The Registrar of Examinations acts as Secretary of the Board but he is not a member.

The Board has taken over the Director's powers in the matter of recognising, subject to the concurrence of the Syndicate of the Patna University, the fitness of schools to present candidates at the Matriculation examination, and it submits to Government a budget of the sum required for grants to the institutions under its control and distributes in due course the sum received. It has the right to initiate and be consulted upon general questions of policy connected with the institutions under its control and to inspect those institutions either by small boards appointed by itself or through the agency of the Government staff. Both the Matriculation and School-Leaving Certificate Examinations for high schools are now conducted by the Patna University and the

examinations are controlled by an examination delegacy for secondary schools constituted by the University.

56. A High School Education Board was brought into operation in the Central Provinces in 1923 in pursuance of the High School Education Act of 1922. The Director of Public Instruction is *ex-officio* Chairman, and the Deputy Director has been appointed by the local Government as Secretary. The Board includes also an Inspector of Schools, six headmasters, and representatives of the Nagpur University, of the Training College, of Women's Education, of Medicine, Commerce, Engineering, Agriculture, the Legislative Council, Local Bodies, and Minorities with two co-opted members. Considerable powers (including the power of recognition of high schools and the prescription of courses of study and text-books for high and middle schools) have been vested in the Board and the maintenance of an efficient standard of high school education now lies mainly in its hands. The Board conducts the High School Certificate Examination which is recognised as equivalent to the Matriculation Examination of an Indian University. *Central Provinces.*

57. A Board of Secondary Education has been created for the Delhi Province with effect from 1926. The Board is constituted as follows:— *Delhi.*

(*a*) Superintendent of Education, Delhi, *ex-officio* Chairman.

(*b*) The Rector of the Delhi University.

(*c*) The Senior Medical Officer, Delhi.

(*d*) The Assistant Superintendent for Boys' Education, Delhi.

(*e*) Two Principals of Intermediate Colleges (including Degree colleges with Intermediate classes, if any), elected by the Principals of recognised Intermediate Colleges in the Delhi Province.

(*f*) Two headmasters of high schools, elected by the headmasters of recognised high schools in the Delhi Province.

(*g*) Six representatives of the Delhi University (three elected by the Court and three elected by the Academic Council).

(*h*) Two representatives of the Delhi Municipal Committee (elected by that body).

(*i*) Four persons nominated by the Chief Commissioner of Delhi (to secure adequate representation of all interests).

Ordinarily members hold office for three years. The main function of the Board is to regulate and supervise secondary education in Delhi and the powers assigned to it include the conduct of the High School Examination, recognition of institutions for the purpose of its examinations, inspection of institutions, prescription of courses of instruction for high

school classes, supervision of the residence, health and discipline of the students and arrangements for promoting their general welfare.

Administrative staffs.

58. The staffs of the head offices controlling the activities of the Education Departments in the provinces vary considerably in type and in strength. This, is largely due to the differences in the size of the provinces and in their individual needs, though the variations are not by any means only in proportion to total population or to the size of the area controlled.

As already stated, the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India, whose advice is available to every Department of the Government of India on educational matters, also holds as a measure of economy collateral charge of the duties of Superintendent of Education in Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara. There are Directors of Public Instruction in all provinces, including the North-West Frontier Province. In the United Provinces the Director of Public Instruction is also Deputy Education Secretary to Government. In the Punjab the Director of Public Instruction is Educational Under Secretary to Government and in the Central Provinces the Director of Public Instruction is also the Education Secretary to Government. In Madras, the headquarters gazetted staff consists of a Deputy Director, an Additional Deputy Director, a Deputy Directress for Women's Education and a Personal Assistant. In Bombay there is one Deputy Director and one Assistant Director. In Bengal there are two Assistant Directors, one of whom is an Assistant Director for Muhammadan Education, and there is also an Additional Assistant Director and a Personal Assistant. In the United Provinces there are a Deputy Director, three Assistant Directors—one of whom is an Accounts Officer—and a Personal Assistant. In the headquarters office in the United Provinces there is also a Registrar of Departmental Examinations. In the Punjab there are an Assistant Director and a Deputy Directress. The staff of the headquarters office also consists of a Registrar of Departmental Examinations, an Inspector of Vernacular Education and an Inspector of Training Schools. In Burma there is one Assistant Director and there is a Personal Assistant. There is also a Chief Education Officer for the Federated States. In Bihar & Orissa there are a Deputy Director and a Deputy Directress. In the Central Provinces there is only one Deputy Director. In Assam the only Assistant in the headquarters office is an Assistant Director for Muhammadan Education. In the North-West Frontier Province there are one Personal Assistant and an Inspector of Vernacular Education attached to the office of the Director of Public Instruction. In Delhi, besides the Superintendent of Education, there are a part-time Assistant Superintendent for Boys' Schools who is headmaster of the Government High School and a Superintendent for Girls' Schools. Similarly, in Ajmer-Merwara there is an Assistant Superintendent of Education.

In Coorg and Bangalore the Inspector of Schools is head of the Educational Department. In Baluchistan there is a Superintendent of Education.

Provincial changes and developments in Administrative staffs.

59. The post of Deputy Directress in Madras in the Indian Educational Service was held in abeyance from February 1924 to August 1926, and for a portion of this period an officer of the Provincial Educational Service acted as Deputy Directress.

Between 1921 and 1922 the Director of Public Instruction in Bengal was also Deputy Educational Secretary to Government, but this arrangement was found to be unworkable. In 1923 the Legislative Council of Bengal passed a resolution recommending that the post of Director of Public Instruction be not filled. The Government, however, were unable to accept the recommendation. In 1926 the post of an Additional Assistant Director of Public Instruction was created on a temporary basis.

In Bombay up till March 1926 the headquarters office staff consisted of only the Director of Public Instruction and one Deputy Director. But in 1926 an Assistant Director's post was created temporarily to cope with the very large increase in the work of the Department.

In the United Provinces the post of Personal Assistant to the Director of Public Instruction was created in 1922 and the post of Additional Assistant Director of Public Instruction was created in 1925. A special post of Assistant Director of Public Instruction (Accounts) was created in 1924 and was for a time held by an officer of the Education Department, but since 1925 the post has been filled by officers of the Pay and Accounts Department.

In the Punjab the posts of Inspector of Training Schools, Inspector of Vernacular Education and Registrar of Departmental Examinations were created just before the quinquennium commenced and the Assistant Director of Public Instruction has continued to function as Inspector of European Schools in addition to his other duties.

In Bihar & Orissa the post of Registrar of Examinations has been abolished and in 1926 the post of Deputy Directress for Women's Education was created.

In the Central Provinces the important change of combining the posts of Education Secretary to Government and Director of Public Instruction took place in August 1922. In 1923 the Deputy Director of Public Instruction was appointed Secretary to the High School Education Board in addition to his own duties and he was also entrusted with the duties of Inspector of European Schools.

The only change in the headquarters office of the Director of Public Instruction, North-West Frontier Province, has been the locating of the office of the Inspector of Vernacular Education in the office of the Director of Public Instruction.

A whole-time Superintendent of Education was appointed for Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara in 1921. But with a view to retrenchment the post was held in abeyance in 1923 and the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India was entrusted with the superintendence of education in Delhi and in Ajmer-Merwara, in addition to his other duties. It was not long however before this system of control was found to be unworkable, and in 1925 the post of an Assistant Superintendent of Education was created for Ajmer-Merwara but even this change has been found to give inadequate relief to the officer in charge of Education in Delhi and Ajmer-Merwara and insufficient control over educational administration and inspection in these areas.

In 1923 education in Bangalore and Coorg, which had formerly been under the Director of Public Instruction, Madras, was placed under the direct control of the Resident in Bangalore and the Chief Commissioner of Coorg, with the Inspector of Schools, Bangalore and Coorg, as head of the Department in each case.

Inspecting staffs.

60. The following tables show the strength of the inspecting staff, both men and women, in the provinces, during the year 1926-27. The figures in them relating to the different provinces are not strictly comparable, even those in the same columns, since the organization for inspecting is not the same throughout all India. In most provinces there are divisional inspectors with jurisdiction over several districts while in one province there are no divisional inspectors, but district inspectors—one in charge of each district. Again, the officer in charge of a division or a district, is an Indian Educational Service officer in some provinces, while in other provinces Provincial Educational Service officers are placed in charge of some districts.

Inspecting Staff (Men)—1926-27.

Province.	Inspectors.	Assistant Inspectors	Deputy or District Inspectors	Sub-Inspectors or junior Deputy Inspectors	Special Inspectors and supervisors.	Total.
Madras . .	26		255	71	11	363
Bombay . .	8		35	138	..	181
Bengal . .	15	5†	89	262§		371
United Provinces .	14	10	57	195	...	276
Punjab .	8	5	29	149	1	192
Burma .	9	7	88	54		158
Bihar and Orissa	6		59	249	29	343
Central Provinces and Berar	4	8	74			86
Assam .	2	3	21	42		68
North-West Frontier Province	1		5	6		12
Baluchistan .	1*		1	1		3
Delhi .	1*(*a*)	1‡(*a*)	1	2		3+2 (*a*)
Ajmer-Merwara (*b*)		1‡	1	1	...	3 + 1(*a*)
Coorg	1		...	1	2	3 + 1
Bangalore				1	.	1
Totals	96	40	715	1,172	43	2,064(*c*)

* Superintendent of Education.
† Assistant Inspectors for Muhammadan Education.
‡ Assistant Superintendent of Education.
§ Includes Inspecting Maulvis

(*a*) Part time officers.
(*b*) In Ajmer-Merwara there is also a part time Superintendent of European Education, who is not included in the above table.
(*c*) Excluding two part time officers.

N.B.—The terminology and grades of the Inspecting Staff vary in the different provinces, and the areas of control of officers in each column are not the same but the headings adopted above are those which are generally applicable to the majority of the provinces, even though the figures even in the same column are not strictly comparable as between province and province.

Inspecting Staff (Women)—1926-27.

Province	Inspectresses.	Assistant Inspectresses.	Total.
Madras	5	27*	32
Bombay	4		4
Bengal	2	12	14
United Provinces	11	1	12
Punjab	4	10	14
Burma	1	3†	4
Bihar and Orissa		11‡	11
Central Provinces	2	4	6
Assam		1	1
North-West Frontier Province	1	1	2
Delhi	1		1
Total	31	70	101

* Includes Sub-Assistant Inspectresses.
† Deputy Inspectresses
‡ Includes two Lady Superintendents of *Atus* (Muhammadan Lady Teachers.)

Different grades of Inspectors.

61. In Bombay, Bengal, the United Provinces and the Punjab there are Divisional Inspectors of Schools with District Inspectors under them. In Madras there are District Educational Officers, formerly called Inspectors, one in each district with Deputy or Junior Deputy Inspectors under them. In Burma and in the Central Provinces the Inspectors of Schools are assisted both by Assistant Inspectors and Deputy Inspectors, while in Bihar & Orissa there are no Assistant Inspectors but only Deputy Inspectors and Sub-Inspectors. In several provinces there are special Inspectors for special communities, such as the Agency Educational Officer and the Assistant Inspector for Moplah education in Madras, the Assistant Inspectors for Muhammadan education and the Maulvi Sub-Inspectors in Bengal, the Agency Inspector, the Superintendent of Sanskrit and Islamic studies and the Maulvi Sub-Inspectors in Bihar & Orissa and the Assistant Inspector for Muhammadan education in Assam. The women's inspecting agency has been discussed in the chapter on the education of Indian girls and women.

Changes in the inspecting agency.

62. In Madras the inspecting agency was completely reorganised at the beginning of the quinquennium and the existing Circle Inspectors and Assistant Inspectors were replaced by District Educational Officers, each in charge of a district—some in the Indian Educational Service, others in the Provincial Educational Service. The Sub-Assistant Inspectors and the Supervisors of Schools were also replaced by a

new cadre of Deputy Inspectors. Owing to the large increase in the number of elementary schools during the period under review the inspecting agency was further strengthened in 1926 by the creation of a new cadre of 71 Junior Deputy Inspectors. The needs of Moplah education were specially provided for by the appointment in March 1926 of a Special Assistant to the District Educational Officer, Malabar.

63. In Bombay the Director of Public Instruction reports that the transfer of control of primary education to local authorities has greatly disorganised the services and appointments to the posts of Deputy Educational Inspectors have now ceased to be made except in those districts in which the control of primary education has not been taken over by local boards. A large number of officers who formerly held the posts of Deputy Educational Inspectors have been lent for service under local authorities.

64. In Bengal the 14 Inspectors of Schools, excluding one Inspector of European Schools, include Chief Inspectors and Second Inspectors, the Chief Inspector being the controlling educational officer of a division. The Chief Inspector and the Second Inspector control education generally and are responsible for the inspection of high schools. There are 28 District Inspectors who control educational work in the districts and supervise the work of Sub-divisional Inspectors. There are 61 Sub-Divisional Inspectors, who inspect middle English schools, junior madrasahs and guru-training schools and supervise the work of Sub-Inspectors. There are 243 Sub-Inspectors whose main work is to inspect primary schools and maktabs. There are also 19 Assistant Sub-Inspectors and Inspecting Maulvis who inspect vernacular schools.

65. In the United Provinces, there are ten Divisional Inspectorships and four Inspectorships, one of European Schools, another of Muhammadan Schools, third of Arabic Madrasas and a fourth of Sanskrit Pathshalas. In accordance with the recommendations of the " Economy " Committee of the United Provinces, two divisions were amalgamated in 1923 and two more in 1925 and each of the combined divisions was placed in the charge of a single Inspector. Control of anglo-vernacular education in the Kumaun Division was transferred in 1923 to the Assistant Inspector of the division and the duties of the Inspector of Muhammadan Schools were entrusted with effect from 1924 to the Inspector of Arabic Madrasas in addition to his own work. There were thus four posts of Inspectors vacant at the close of the quinquennium. But the Director remarks that ' it is not possible without serious detriment to the cause of advancing education to continue the work of inspection and administration with the present depleted numbers " and points out that the transfer of intermediate education from the Universities, the starting of agricultural middle schools, the introduction of compulsory primary education in urban as well as in the rural areas and

various other schemes have added considerably to the burden of the inspecting staff. The number of Assistant Inspectors has, however, remained at ten. During the quinquennium the four special Inspectorships of Drawing and Manual Training, of Science, of Arabic and Persian, and of Sanskrit were abolished.

66. In the Punjab, excluding the three special Inspectors of European Schools, of Vernacular Education and of Training Institutions, five Divisional Inspectors are responsible for education in the five revenue divisions of the province, and they are assisted by 29 Inspectors who are in charge of each district and who have under them 149 Assistant District Inspectors. During the quinquennium the posts of eleven Assistant Inspectors were replaced by five Deputy Inspectors.

67. In Burma there has been no improvement in the strength of the inspecting agency and the number of Assistant Inspectors has been reduced from eight in 1922-23 to seven in 1926-27 and the number of Sub-Inspectors from 66 to 54, while the number of Deputy Inspectors has only increased by three to 88.

68. In Bihar and Orissa a large number of new posts of Deputy Inspectors have been created, but in each sub-division where a Deputy Inspector has been appointed the post of Sub-Inspector has been abolished.

69. In the Central Provinces the post of Inspector of European Schools was amalgamated in 1923 with that of the Deputy Director of Public Instruction, and in the same year the inspecting circles were reorganised and their number reduced to four. One post of Inspector of Schools and one post of Additional Inspector of Schools have been held in abeyance since the year 1922. The number of Deputy Inspectors has been increased from 68 to 74.

The Educational Services.

Indian Educational Service.

70. The radical changes which have taken place in regard to the position of the educational services in India were described in detail in the last quinquennial review. But even more far-reaching changes have taken place during the period now under review. The Indian Educational Service first came into existence as a result of the recommendations made by the Public Services Commission of 1886, and in 1896 the Superior Educational Service in India was constituted with two divisions—the Indian Educational Service staffed by persons recruited in England and the Provincial Educational Service staffed by persons recruited in India. The commission of 1886 recommended that recruitment should be made in England only for principals of colleges, for professors in those branches of knowledge in which the European standard of advancement had not been attained in India and for a small number of inspectors, and that all other educational appoint-

ments should be filled up by recruitment in India. These two divisions were originally considered to be collateral and equal in status though the pay of the European recruit was higher by approximately 50 per cent. than the pay of the Indian recruit. Gradually however status came to be considered identical with pay and the Provincial Educational Service came to be considered of inferior status to the Indian Educational Service. Later, as a result of the recommendations of the Islington Commission of 1912-16, the Indian Educational Service was formed into a superior educational service and all posts were thrown open to Indian recruitment. The Provincial Educational Service was simultaneously reorganised. The number of posts in the Indian Educational Service was at the same time increased by one-third, the equivalent number of posts in the Provincial Educational Service and outside it, generally with their Indian incumbents, being transferred to the superior service. This reorganisation resulted in a considerable Indianisation of the superior educational services in India. It was further decided that in future 50 per cent. of the total strength of the Indian Educational Service except in Burma should be filled by the recruitment of Indians. In 1924 all recruitment to the Indian Educational Service was stopped as a result of the recommendations of the Royal Commission on the Superior Civil Services in India. The Royal Commission recommended that " for the purposes of local Governments no further recruitment should be made to the all-India services which operate in transferred fields. The personnel required for these branches of administration should in future be recruited by local Governments." The Royal Commission further recommended in regard to the question of the future recruitment of Europeans that " it will rest entirely with the local Governments to determine the number of Europeans who may in future be recruited. In this matter the discretion of local Governments must be unfettered but we express the hope that Ministers on the one hand will still seek to obtain the co-operation of Europeans in these technical departments and that qualified Europeans on the other hand may be no less willing to take services under local Governments than they were in the past to take services under the Secretary of State." As a result of the acceptance of these recommendations the Indian Educational Service is being abolished and with the gradual retirement of its existing members, the history of the service will be brought to an end. The Provincial Educational Services which are in course of reorganisation will eventually function under provincial control as the senior educational services in the provinces.

Indian Educational Service.

Province	1921-22.								1926-27.							
	No. of posts held by				No. of vacant posts		Total No. of posts.		No of posts held by				No. of vacant posts.		Total No. of posts.	
	Europeans.		Indians						Europeans.		Indians.					
	Men	Women	Men.	Women.	Men	Women.	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women	Men.	Women.	Men.	Women	Men.	Women
Madras	23	8	20	1	10	4	53	13	16	7	18	1	19	5	53	13
Bombay	27	3	23	1	7	1	57	5	16	4	26	1	14	1	56	6
Bengal	30	3	27	.	10	1	67	4	21	3	22	1	24		67	4
United Provinces	32	3	11	..	6	1	49	4	17	1	12	...	13	1	42	2
Punjab	18	3	12		4		34	3	14	2	12	.	8	1	34	3
Burma	25	2	2		9	1	36	3	26	2	4		11		41	2
Bihar and Orissa	31	4	14		4	1	39	5	18	2	10	.	4	2	32	4
Central Provinces	16	3	7		3		26	3	13	2	8	.	12		33	2
Assam	7	1	2	.			9	1	5		2	..	2	1	9	1
North-West Frontier Province	1	1	2	..			3	1	1	1	1		1	..	3	1
India	200	31	120	2	53	9	373	42	147	24	115	3	103	11	370	38

71. The above table summarizes the position of the Indian Educational Service in each province in the years 1922 and 1927. The stoppage of recruitment to it really dated considerably before the year 1924, since in all provinces a considerable number of posts were vacant as suitable recruits were not, on account of the prevailing post-war and other conditions, available, so that by January 1925 only 322 posts out of a sanctioned cadre of 420 were filled. In consequence, the stoppage of recruitment in 1924 had even more serious consequences than at first sight appears. The table shows that in the year 1921-22, 200 Europeans held posts in the Indian Educational Service. But by the year 1926-27 this number was reduced to 147. During the same period the number of posts held by Indian men fell slightly, from 120 to 115. In the earlier year 53 posts for men were vacant while in the latter year 108 posts were vacant. When the services are reorganised these vacant posts in the Indian Educational Service will be filled by recruitment made by povincial authorities.

Provincial and Subordinate Educational Services.

72. The existing Provincial and Subordinate Educational Services in the provinces have been affected, more in some provinces than in others, by the changes which have taken place since 1919. Communal interests have influenced recruitment, and in some places they have influenced pomotions also, in a direction which has not always tended towards service contentment. While the scheme of Indianisation adopted in 1919 is associated with the altered constitution in India, wherein education was with slight exceptions made a provincial transferred subject under the control of a Minister appointed from among those elected to the Legislative Councils by those residents exercising the franchise of the province, the complete abolition of the Indian Educational Service and the devolution of powers of recruitment to provincial authorities have resulted, and must necessarily result in the future, in changes which could hardly have been properly appreciated when the proposals for Indianisation were first under consideration, for unrestricted provincialisation of a service brings in its train Indianisation of that service. Though the English Professor has certain qualities of character and outlook which are not inherent in the training of the Indian and which form an essential feature of a European recruited service yet the replacement of Europeans in the Indian Educational Service by Indians with similar status and similar pay added a certain stability to the service. But the appointment of provincial service officers to officiate in posts formerly filled by Indian Educational Service officers and the replacement of the Indian Educational Service by Provincial Educational Services, staffed by persons recruited provincially, has naturally tended and will continue to affect the efficiency of the Education Departments in the provinces.

Salaries of Officers.

73. The scale of pay for the Men's Branch of the Indian Educational Service is Rs. 400—50—1,250; no increment being allowed between the 5th and 6th or between the 14th and 15th

year of service. There are also two selection grades; the lower selection grade, carrying a pay of Rs. 1,250—50—1,500; and the higher selection grade, with a pay of Rs. 1,550—100—1,750. The rates of overseas pay, which is paid in addition to the ordinary pay to certain class of officers, vary from Rs. 150 to Rs. 300 or from £15 to £30 when drawn in sterling. The pay of the Women's Branch of the Indian Educational Service ranges from Rs. 400 to Rs. 850, with a selection grade carrying a pay of Rs. 900—1,050. The overseas pay admissible to the members of this branch is Rs. 100 to Rs. 150 a month. Provincial Governments had not at the end of the quinquennium yet fixed the rates of pay proposed for their new provincial services which would gradually replace the Indian Educational Service.

74. As regards the Provincial and Subordinate Educational Services, the rates of pay and generally the conditions of service vary considerably from province to province, and it is not possible, nor does it appear necessary, to give a detailed survey of them in these pages. The succeeding paragraphs, however, deal with some features of these services during the period under review.

75. In the United Provinces revised scales of pay were sanctioned for Deputy Inspectors and Sub-Deputy Inspectors in the Subordinate Educational Service in April 1925. Prior to this date the Deputy Inspectors were on fixed pay in different grades, commencing with Rs. 150 per mensem and ending in the highest grade at Rs 250 per mensem. Similarly the Sub-Deputy Inspectors were in grades with fixed pay commencing with Rs. 100 per mensem and rising to Rs. 140 per mensem in the highest grade. The new scale for Deputy Inspectors is now Rs. 170—10—320 per mensem with an efficiency bar at Rs. 270. And the scale for Sub-Deputy Inspectors is Rs. 70—5—120—10—160 with an efficiency bar at Rs. 120.

76. In Bihar and Orissa a special scale of pay was sanctioned in 1923 for recruits to the Provincial Educational Service who possessed distinguished European qualifications. The new scale is Rs. 350—50/2—450, thereafter merging into the ordinary scale of the provincial service. In the Subordinate Educational Service the pay of graduates and holders of the L. T. diploma in the lower division was raised in 1924 from Rs. 60—6/2—120 to Rs. 75—5/2—125. Holders of the M. A. or M.Sc. degrees were given a special scale of Rs. 90—5—95—5—100—5/2—125. For vernacular teachers in the Subordinate Educational Service new scales of pay were introduced in 1923. These scales are: for trained Matriculates, Rs. 35—1—50 with a selection grade on Rs. 54—2—60 for 15 per cent of the cadre and for others Rs. 30—1—50 with two selection grades on Rs. 55 and Rs. 60 respectively for 10 per cent. and 5 per cent. of the cadre. A new scale for trained women Matriculates of Rs. 45—3—75 was sanctioned in 1926-27.

77. In Assam a new lecturers' grade was created in the Assam Provincial Educational Service with a new scale of pay of Rs. 175—25/2—325—10—425. In September 1922 the Assam Legislative Council passed a resolution recommending the revision of the pay of all grades of the Subordinate Educational Service. But the only revision actually effected was that in July 1925 of class 1 of the Subordinate Educational Service, which was reorganised on a scale of Rs. 75—5—100 (efficiency bar)—5—125—(efficiency bar)—1—175.

78. The average salary of officers in the Madras Educational Service was Rs. 462·8 for men and Rs. 342·7 for women. The corresponding figures for the Subordinate Educational Service were Rs. 109·7 and 121·6. The pay of the temporary appointment of Woman Specialist in Physical Education, which was formerly fixed at Rs. 400 per mensem, was converted during the quinquennium into a scale of Rs. 400—25—450. In Bombay, the average pay of the Provincial Educational Service amounted to Rs. 486; while that of the Subordinate Educational Service was Rs. 114 per mensem. In the Central Provinces the average pay of an officer in the Provincial Educational Service was Rs. 400 per month; the corresponding pay of the Subordinate Educational Service was Rs. 107.

79. The scales of pay for the various Educational Services in the Punjab are as follows:—

(*a*) *Provincial Educational Service.*—Ordinary time-scale Rs. 250—25—500/25—600. Selection grade—Rs. 650—30—800.

(*b*) *Subordinate Educational Service.*—This service is divided into two sections; the anglo-vernacular section and the classical and vernacular section. The former is composed of five separate grades of pay, the lowest being Rs. 55—3—70 and the highest Rs. 200—10—250. The latter section consists similarly of five grades, the pay of the lowest grade being Rs. 35—3—50 and of the highest Rs. 140—10—190.

The pay of the Provincial Educational Service in the North-West Frontier Province is the same as that in the Punjab. The Subordinate Educational Service, however, is divided into six distinct groups. The pay of the highest group is Rs. 180—12—240, while that of the lowest is Rs. 30—2/2—40. The intermediate grades are Rs. 40—60, 70—100, 80—100 and 120—160.

Educational Institutions.

Government Institutions

80. The number of institutions directly managed by Government increased by over 1,000 during the quinquennium, the increase being mainly under arts colleges, special schools and primary schools. The increase in the number of arts colleges was mainly due to the increase in the number of colleges for women, in the number of colleges for special communities and in the number of intermediate colleges in

the Punjab. The increase in the number of primary schools was due not to any extension of direct management by Government in the sphere of primary education but to the opening of a number of primary schools for special, particularly backward, communities. For instance, in Madras the large rise of over 1,000 in the number of Government elementary schools was almost entirely due to the increase in the number of schools maintained by the Labour Department for depressed classes. The increase in the number of special schools is represented by the opening of additional Government technical and industrial schools. The small increase in the number of secondary schools was almost entirely confined to the Punjab where an extensive system of provincialisation has taken place. In the main, however, the policy of most Governments not to increase the number of institutions managed directly by themselves but to encourage privately managed institutions by inspection, recognition and grants has been continued during the quinquennium. And with the exception of the provision made in professional colleges, in technical schools and in training schools and in a limited number of model colleges and secondary schools, the expansion of education has continued to take place most largely through institutions under private management and under municipal and district boards. During the period under review while institutions under board management have increased by 16,676 those under private management have increased by over 20,000.

Institutions classified according to management.

Type of Institution.	1921-22.					1926-27.				
	Publicly-managed Institutions.		Privately-managed Institutions.		Total of Institutions	Publicly-managed Institutions		Privately managed Institutions.		Total of Institutions.
	Government.	Board	Aided.	Unaided.		Government.	Board.	Aided	Unaided	
Recognised Institutions.										
Universities .	...	...	12		12	...	..	14	.	14
Arts Colleges .	44	3	97	23	167	60	2	142	28	232
Professional Colleges .	47		8	9	64	45	1	22	9	77
Secondary Schools . .	542	2,392	4,711	1.342	8,987	599	4,225	5.246	1,268	11,338
Primary Schools .	1,789	50,314	93 587	14,380	160,070	2,692	62,436	109,253	14,967	189,348
Training Schools .	433	483	151	5	1,072	401	96	193	5	695
Special Schools .	167	60	2,114	598	2,939	260	3,168	4,258	1,658	9,344
Total	3,022	53 252	100.680	16,357	173,311	4,057	69,928	119,128	17,935	211,048
Unrecognised Institutions	...			..	34,807	...	..		..	35.216
GRAND TOTAL	...	.	.	.	208 118		...	.	...	2,46,264

Government control over Secondary Education.

81. The extent to which and the manner in which Government exercises control over the institutions not directly under its management vary considerably as between province and province and many alterations in the matter of control have taken place during the quinquennium.

In Madras all secondary schools are recognised by the Director of Public Instruction and nearly all recognised schools receive subsidies or grants-in-aid from Government. No change took place in the system during the quinquennium but in 1923 District Secondary Education Boards were established throughout the Presidency. These boards are described elsewhere in this chapter.

The system of control in regard to secondary education in Bombay is similar to that in Madras.

In Bengal there is a complicated and triple control over secondary schools. The intermediate colleges and secondary schools in the Dacca area are recognised and controlled by the Dacca Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education. Other high schools in Bengal are recognised by the Calcutta University for the purpose of the admission of pupils to the Calcutta Matriculation Examination and are recognised by Government for the purposes of grant-in-aid. The Calcutta University, however, makes use of the inspecting staff of the Government Education Department, having no inspecting agency of its own. But although the direct control of the University is limited to its powers of recognition, in practice it extends further since it lays down conditions for the management of schools and prescribes the curricula to be used in schools.

In the United Provinces the Board of High School and Intermediate Education, which was established under the Intermediate Education Act of 1921, recognises secondary schools for the purpose of its examinations and prescribes courses of study, while the Education Department is responsible for inspection and grant-in-aid.

In the Punjab secondary schools are recognised and financed as in Madras and Bombay, and during the quinquennium no important changes were introduced. As distinct from other provinces, however, there is a very large number of secondary schools directly under Government management.

In Burma secondary schools are recognised and financed in the same manner as in Madras and Bombay but there is a Secondary Schools Board which controls the English and Anglo-Vernacular School and Middle School Examinations and which advises the Director of Public Instruction on all matters connected with secondary education.

In Bihar and Orissa secondary schools other than high schools are recognised by the Director of Public Instruction and aided by Government. There is also a Board of Secondary Education which recognises high schools subject

to the concurrence of the Syndicate of the University for the purpose of presenting candidates for the Matriculation Examination, and which submits to Government recommendations for the amount of grant-in-aid required by institutions under its control and distributes the grant-in-aid sanctioned.

In the Central Provinces, all secondary schools other than high schools are recognised by the Director of Public Instruction and are aided by Government. In 1923 the High School Education Act instituted a High School Education Board which conducts the High School Certificate Examinations, recognises high schools and prescribes courses of study and text books for high and middle schools. All secondary schools are inspected by the staff of the Education Department.

In Assam, high schools come within the jurisdiction of the Calcutta University, but all secondary schools are recognised for purposes of grant-in-aid and inspected by the officers of the Educational Department.

Control of Primary Education.

82. In all the provinces local boards have a large measure of control over primary education. But the type of local board and the extent of the control vary very greatly as between province and province. Similarly the controlling agencies for financing primary education vary very largely.

In Madras, District Educational Councils were created under the Madras Elementary Education Act of 1920. The principal functions of these councils are: (*a*) to propose schemes for the extension of elementary education with a view to its ultimately becoming universal, (*b*) to elicit and direct the co-operation of all agencies, whether public or private, in the opening of additional schools and for the expansion of existing schools, (*c*) to regulate the recognition of all elementary schools and to assess and disburse all grants-in-aid from provincial funds to private elementary schools and (*d*) to advise the department on all matters connected with elementary education. Taluk boards maintain large numbers of elementary schools and are subsidised direct by Government. In recent years a new managing agency has been created by the opening of schools under Village Panchayats. These schools are subsidised direct by Government. All primary schools are inspected by the officers of the Educational Department. There are also some schools under the Labour Department, the Jail Department, the Fisheries Department, the Police Department, the Salt Department and the Forest Department of Government.

In Bombay the control of primary education has been radically changed by the passing of the Bombay Primary Education Act of 1923. Under the Act each district board and each municipality appoints a school board which is responsible for the administration of primary education and for the management of all local board schools. The school boards consist of members elected by the local authorities, representatives of minority communities, educational

experts, women and persons nominated by Government. A municipal school board consists of not less than seven and not more than nine members elected by the municipality. The district school board consists of not less than nine and not more than 16 members elected by the district local board. In each case Government nominations may not exceed four in number. Each school board appoints its own administrative officer with the approval of Government and the administrative officer is the chief executive officer of the school board and is responsible to the board and not to Government. Each board also appoints a staff of supervisors who inspect the local board schools, though all the schools are also open to inspection by the Inspecting Officers of the Education Department. The boards and the schools maintained by them are financed partly by subsidies from Government and partly out of local board revenues. Privately managed primary schools are recognised and aided by the Education Department.

In Bengal 92 per cent. of the primary schools are under private management and all primary schools are recognised by the Education Department. Local boards are subsidised by Government for the maintenance of the schools managed directly by them and privately managed schools are aided by the Education Department and in some cases by local boards.

In contrast to Bengal 76 per cent. of the primary schools in the United Provinces are under local board management and the local boards are primarily responsible for the administration of primary education in the province. Government subsidies are paid to local boards towards the cost of primary education under a contract system. A minimum amount of expenditure under each head is prescribed for each board and towards the total expenditure a lump grant is given. Privately managed primary schools receive aid from the local boards, but all schools are inspected by the officers of the Educational Department.

In the Punjab, primary education is controlled by district boards and by municipalities. The district boards and municipalities appoint Education Committees, but they are not statutory bodies. The local boards are subsidised by Government for the maintenance of local board schools and for the payment of grant-in-aid to privately managed primary schools. There is no separate act of recognising a primary school but schools are placed on a grant-in-aid list in accordance with the recommendations of the inspecting staff of the Educational Department. All schools are inspected by the officers of the Educational Department, but in a few municipalities local board supervisors have been appointed.

In Burma the beginning of the quinquennium saw considerable changes in the manner of control of primary education and there are now three local education authorities for primary education—Municipal Committees, District School Boards and, in areas which have been excluded from the Rural Self-Government Act, Deputy Commissioners. The munici-

pal committees and district school boards are subsidised by Government, they manage board schools and give grant-in-aid to privately managed schools. In one district there is a joint school board, consisting of persons appointed by the district council and by municipal committees, which endeavours to co-ordinate rural and urban education. All schools are inspected by the inspecting officers of the Educational Department.

In Bihar & Orissa all primary schools are recognised by the Education Department. Local boards are subsidised by Government for the maintenance of their own schools and privately managed schools are aided by the Education Department and may, at the same time, receive grants from local boards. All primary schools are inspected by the inspecting staff of the Educational Department.

In the Central Provinces district boards and municipalities are entrusted under the Local Self-Government Act with the control of primary education and all primary schools are maintained or aided by the local boards, the total cost of primary education being met partly from Government subsidies and partly from local board revenues. All primary schools are open to inspection by the inspecting officers of the Educational Department, but in some districts local boards have appointed supervisors and at the end of the quinquennium the departmental Deputy Inspectors in four districts had been transferred to the service of the local boards as an experimental measure.

In Assam all primary schools are recognised by the Educational Department; local board schools are subsidised by Government and privately managed schools are aided by the Educational Department.

Council of National Education Burma.

83. The survey of educational administration and control in India would be incomplete without some mention of the system of *National Schools* in Burma. It was stated in the last review that, as a result of the " Non-co-operation " movement, many schools in India were nationalised: that they repudiated Government grants and recognition. This venture was watched with interest by educationalists in India, but the nationalisation of schools did little or nothing in the way of founding a new educational system adapted to the needs of the country and proved an utter failure. The number of the so-called national schools gradually dwindled down without achieving any positive results and most of these schools have again been recognised and admitted to the recognised public system of education. The trend of events in Burma has, however, been different and a noticeable feature of the quinquennium has been the recognition of national schools as an alternative system of education. These schools are controlled by the Council of National Education, Burma. In 1923 an agreement was effected whereby it was arranged that the Council should secure independence of control and freedom to choose its own

curriculum and text-books. As yet the Council has not been able to fulfil the hopes cherished by its well-wishers, and except for greater emphasis on Burmese and the inclusion of Civics, there is little difference between the National and the Departmental curricula. But, as the Burma Director remarks, the Council is still new to the work and is profiting by experience. The Education Department of Burma is taking a keen interest in this new educational experiment and there is no lack of sympathy on its part towards the Council and it is hoped that the national schools will eventually make good as a few of them have already done. As a result of a careful inspection of these schools, proposals are under consideration for improving their management and giving them more effective help.*

* The classification of the national schools in Burma is explained in the footnotes to the diagram showing the scheme of school classes facing Chapter V—Secondary Education (Boys).

CHAPTER III.

UNIVERSITIES AND ARTS COLLEGES.

A.—Universities.

Statistics of Universities.

University.	Type.	Original date of foundation.	Faculties (*a*).	Number of Teaching Staff *		Number of Students.		Number of Students who graduated in Arts and Science.	
				1921-22	1926-27	1921-22	1926-27	1921-22	1926-27
1 Calcutta	Affiliating and Teaching	1857	A, Sc, L, M, Eng (*b*)	1,227	1,453	23,044	30,202	2,356	1,764
2 Bombay	Affiliating and Teaching	1857	A, Sc, L, M (*c*)	460	665	8,493	11,411	742	1,126
3 Madras	Affiliating and Teaching	1857	A, Sc, Ed, Ag, L, Eng, M, Com	961	1,242	12,653	16,922	1,457	1,868
4 Punjab	Affiliating and Teaching	1882	A, Sc, O, Ag, Com, L, M	504	880	7,372	11,416	732	741
5 Allahabad (*d*)	Affiliating and Teaching	1887	A, Sc, Com, L	512	343	6,445	3,244	423	630
6 Benares Hindu	Unitary	1916	A, Sc, Th, L, O (*e*)	103	143	1,469	1,936	152	157
7 Mysore (*f*)	Teaching	1916	A, Sc, Eng, M	92	133	1,050	1,749	122	253
8 Patna	Affiliating	1917	A, Sc, L, Ed, Eng, M	198	284	2,417	4,817	233	363
9 Osmania (*g*)	Unitary	1918	A, Th, L, M (*h*)	80	100	345	798		80
10. Aligarh Muslim	Unitary	1920	A, Sc, L, Th (*i*)	53	58	702	959	76	232
11 Rangoon	Affiliating and Teaching	1920	A, Sc, Ed, L, Eng, M, F (*j*)	64	122	507	1,479	52	83
12. Lucknow	Unitary	1920	A, Sc, M, L, Com	55	105	632	1,448	143	158
13 Dacca	Unitary	1921	A, Sc, L	86	106	(*k*)1,030	(*l*) 1,339	211	172
14 Delhi	Teaching	1922	A., Sc, L	48	93	706	1,310	..	106
15. Nagpur	Affiliating	1923	A, Sc, L, Ed, Ag	..	117	..	1,575	..	142
16. Andhra	Affiliating	1926	A, Sc., O., M., Ed	..	302	..	3,136	..	175
			TOTAL	4,393	6,146	66,865	93,741	6,699	8,250

(*a*) The abbreviations used are as follows :—
A = *Arts*. Ag. = *Agriculture*. Com = *Commerce*. Ed = *Education*. Eng = *Engineering*. F. = *Forestry* L. = *Law*. M. = *Medicine*. O. = *Oriental Learning*. Sc = *Science* Th. = *Theology*

(*b*) Faculty of Arts includes Commerce (*c*) Faculty of Arts includes Commerce and Teaching and Faculty of Science includes Agriculture and Engineering. (*d*) Converted into a unitary university after the close of the quinquennium, the affiliating side having been transferred to the newly constituted *Agra* University. (*e*) Faculty of Science includes Pure and Applied Science (Engineering) (*f*) Outside British India, and incorporated by legislation in an Indian State. (*g*) Outside British India, and incorporated by a *Firman* (order) of H. E. H. the Nizam of Hyderabad. (*h*) Faculty of Arts includes Science (*i*) There are no Faculties but there are Departments of Studies in various subjects (*j*) There are no Faculties but Boards of Studies in various subjects. (*k*) Includes 154 students of the Dacca Medical School who took their Science Courses at the University. (*l*) Includes 130 students of the Dacca Medical School who took their Science Courses at the University.

* The figures in this column include members of the staffs of affiliated colleges.

General.

84. During the quinquennium the number of universities has increased from 14 to 16, the increase being due to the founding of the Nagpur and Andhra Universities in the Central Provinces and in the Madras Presidency respectively. Prior to the founding of these universities the University of Allahabad affiliated colleges in the Central Provinces while the University of Madras affiliated colleges in the area (mainly Telugu-speaking) now controlled by the Andhra University. Two of the universities in India, namely, the Mysore University in Mysore State and the Osmania University in Hyderabad State, are located in Indian States. The former was incorporated by a legal enactment, the latter by a *Firman* (order) of the ruler of the State. All the universities in British India are incorporated by Acts of the Legislatures.

Early University Acts.

85. The Indian Universities Acts of 1857 founding the first of the universities in India in modern times, namely, those of Calcutta, Bombay and Madras, stated in their preambles that it has been determined to establish the university for the purpose of ascertaining by means of examination the persons who have acquired proficiency in different branches of Literature, Science and Art, and of rewarding them by academical degrees as evidence of their respective attainments. The Acts went on to state that except by special orders of the Senate no person shall be admitted as a candidate for a degree unless he shall present to the university a certificate from an institution authorised in that behalf by the Governor General or Governor in Council to the effect that he has completed the course of instruction prescribed by the university in the bye-laws to be made by them under the power in that behalf given by the Acts. It is observed from the text of these Acts that the universities in India were constituted on the general plan of the University of London, that they were purely examining bodies and that institutions affiliated to them were only such as were approved by the Governor General in Council in the case of the Calcutta University or by the Governor in Council in the case of the Universities of Bombay and Madras. The power of affiliating colleges to a university vested not in the universities themselves but in Government. The Acts of 1882 and 1887 constituting the Universities of the Punjab and Allahabad respectively followed the lines of the Acts of 1857 in making provision for the university being only an examining corporation, the power of affiliating colleges vesting in Government.

Later developments.

86. As experience was gained it was found in India, as in other parts of the world, that a purely examining and affiliating university with a large number of students and affiliated institutions extending over a wide territorial area was not an organisation which could adequately control and supervise the standards of university life and tuition. Until the year 1902, mainly owing to the recommendations of the Commission on Education of 1882, the tendency was to open more and more privately managed colleges over whose teaching departments

the universities had comparatively little control. The Universities Commission of 1902 recognised the dangers involved in this tendency and in consequence of its recommendations all the universities then in India—namely, the Universities of Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Punjab and Allahabad—were reconstituted by the Indian Universities Act of 1904. Under this Act the universities in India were deemed to have been incorporated for the purpose of making provision for the instruction of students, with power to appoint university teachers and to maintain university libraries, laboratories and museums and to make regulations relating to the residence and conduct of students. The functions of the Indian universities were thus extended and a change in their type was made possible. While they retained their examining functions and remained affiliating and federal in type yet they were enabled to become partly teaching in character—though direct teaching functions were not assumed to any large extent except by the University of Calcutta—and to ensure that their students should be subjected to discipline and reside in places approved by the authorities of the affiliated colleges under general instructions issued by the university. Briefly speaking, this Act gave the universities wider powers of control, inspection and affiliation of colleges and enabled them to undertake teaching and research. It was not, however, until the Benares Hindu University Act received the assent of the Governor General on the 1st October 1915 that effect was able to be given to the view already expressed in the Resolution of 1913 of the Government of India on Indian Educational Policy that it was considered expedient to establish and incorporate a teaching and residential university in India. At the beginning of the previous quinquennium the network of affiliated colleges had become so widely spread that there were as many as 185 affiliated colleges with a total enrolment of nearly 62,000 students. It was natural therefore that even prior to this date the need for the establishment of some local teaching and residential universities should have been recognised. The Benares Hindu University, which grew from the Central Hindu College, Benares—a college formerly affiliated to the Allahabad University—, was given power under this Act of incorporation to found and maintain other colleges and institutions in Benares and to admit, subject to certain conditions, colleges and institutions in Benares to such privileges of the university as it thought fit. It was founded as a purely localised university, its sphere of activity not extending beyond Benares. Although the provisions of its Act enable it to associate with itself other colleges in Benares it remains unitary in character and consists of seven constituent colleges of the university. Following close on the wake of the establishment of this university came in 1917 the Calcutta University Commission which in its report published in 1919 strongly advocated the founding of the unitary type of university in India The acceptance in India of this view of the needs of higher education in India resulted in the founding between 1920 and

1922 of the Aligarh, the Rangoon, the Lucknow, the Dacca and the Delhi Universities, all of which were different from the older universities aiming every one of them at the unitary type.

Definition of terms.

87. Since the terms ' examining ', ' affiliating ', ' residential ', ' teaching ' and ' unitary ' are often used rather vaguely, it is probably desirable to set forth here the essential features of each of these types of university. An ' examining ' university is one the main function of which is to examine candidates for degrees. It does not concern itself with the teaching which the students have received prior to examination, nor with their residence and discipline. An ' affiliating ' university, as the term is used in this country, is a university which affiliates to itself or associates with itself in a *quasi* subordinate capacity such colleges—not necessarily all in the same place—as make provision for the instruction of students, the general course and quality of the instruction given as well as other conditions, for instance of residence and discipline, being usually laid down in the bye-laws or regulations of the university. In this type of university each college is in itself an embryo university, except that considerable external control, especially over courses and standards of instruction, exists and is vested in the university to which the college is affiliated, the extent and degree of this control being laid down in the university Act, its statutes, ordinances and regulations. The internal control vests entirely in the college authorities. An ' affiliating ' university may be looked upon as a university of federal colleges, each college being subordinate to and subject to the rules of the federation. A ' residential ' university is one in which an essential condition for membership of the university is residence at the centre or centres of the university while a ' teaching ' university is one in which some or all of the teaching is not only controlled but also conducted by persons appointed by the university. A ' unitary ' university is one, usually localised in a single centre, in which the whole of the teaching is conducted by university teachers appointed by the university authorities. It is always a teaching university, though every teaching university is not a unitary university.

Present conditions.

88. In the recent history of university thought in India we started seventy years ago, London University in 1857 being our model, with a purely examining and affiliating type of university; about a quarter of a century ago in 1904 we modified our universities to enable them to become residential and in part teaching; while about a dozen years ago (1916) we aimed at the localised residential and unitary type. The two universities which have been founded during the quinquennium under review (Nagpur and Andhra) have, however, reverted to the affiliating type with teaching functions, the reversion being due to considerations of finance and vested interests and to the exercise of public opinion upon academic matters. The Rangoon University founded in 1920

has also assumed affiliating functions. The universities in India are thus not solely of a single type. Their place in a classification of affiliating, teaching or unitary universities is the result of two main factors: the first, the views prevailing at the time of their foundation in academic circles as modified by political opinion (all university Acts in British India have had to run the gauntlet of criticism and amendment in the legislatures which gave them birth); the second, the degree to which universities, founded at the time when one school of academic thought prevailed, have adapted themselves to the change in academic thought, as modified by political exigencies, which later years have brought. The most complete change in type has been effected in the Allahabad University which was founded in 1887 as an examining and affiliating university; it had no teaching staff except that of the School of Law till 1914; in 1922 it was reorganised so as to have two sides, an internal side functioning locally at Allahabad as a teaching and residential university and an external side functioning throughout the rest of the United Provinces as an affiliating university; while from the end of the quinquennium under review it is functioning as a purely unitary (teaching and residential) university, its external side having been taken over by a newly created affiliating university whose headquarters are at Agra. The table at the head of this chapter classifies the Indian universities as affiliating universities, as teaching universities or as unitary universities, but as might be anticipated from a consideration of the history of the development of universities in India more of our universities belong to the affiliating and teaching type than to the essentially affiliating or to the purely unitary type. The only universities in British India during the last year of the quinquennium of a purely unitary type were the Benares Hindu University, the Aligarh Muslim University and the Lucknow University. The Dacca University which is often referred to as of the purely unitary type is not wholly so; it has a Teachers' College associated with it which is controlled not by the University but by the Government of Bengal. The staff is appointed by Government, though recognised by the University for university teaching.

Financial difficulties.

89. The main difficulty in India in founding new universities on a unitary basis is one of finance. It has been estimated that the capital cost of founding a university on a unitary basis is not less than Rs. 40 lakhs, while the recurring cost is at least Rs. 5 lakhs. The maintenance of a university is costly, the funds for its maintenance cannot be met wholly from Government revenues and the spirit which moves the altruist to set aside a goodly portion of his wordly wealth in order to enable a university to come into being does not pervade the public mind, nor is the public mind permeated with that spirit of co-operation which might enable a unitary university to be started through the joint efforts of several wealthy benefactors.

Need for protecting vested interests.

90. The chief difficulty in adapting existing universities to the unitary ideal is in protecting existing interests and rights and in securing the co-operation of privately managed institutions. Colleges under non-government control contribute largely both in actual funds and in the services of their staffs to higher education in India, and no Government can afford to ignore the possibility of the educational debacle that would result from the withdrawal of the assistance rendered by private agencies to higher educational effort in India, and such a withdrawal would be threatened if an educational policy—sound enough in itself from the purely academic standpoint but not the only sound policy—were imposed upon the country. These difficulties have recently come into particular prominence in connection with the Delhi and Andhra Universities, the former of which aims at the unitary ideal but in actual fact falls far short of the ideal, while the latter is frankly affiliating. It is, however, a matter of note that in recent years many of the universities in India have tended more and more not only to concentrate the provision for higher studies in certain institutions and centres but also to develop the organisation of teaching through the universities themselves and not only through the component colleges. In many cases the university teaching, thus organised, has merely supplemented similar teaching in individual colleges. But in other cases, the university teaching has been separate and distinct from any teaching imparted in the colleges.

University courses.

91. Before passing on to the developments that have taken place in the individual universities it is perhaps not out of place to call to mind that the course in most Indian universities is one of four years' duration from the School Leaving or Matriculation standard, two years being devoted to intermediate education with an 'Intermediate examination' at the end of this two years' course, while the next two years are devoted to degree studies proper culminating in the B.A. or B.Sc. degree examination.

Length of B.A. and B.Sc. Honours Courses.

92. In some universities, courses of study leading up to the grant of B.A. or B.Sc. degree with Honours extend over two years after the passing of the Intermediate examination, while in others the period of study required is three years. A result is that the degrees of different universities represent different standards of training and education. An Honours degree should indicate that its holder is well trained and proficient in the branch of arts or science which he has studied and considerable doubt has been entertained in some quarters whether the required proficiency can be acquired in less than three years' study after the intermediate stage.

Nagpur University.

93. Treating the newly created universities first we find that the Nagpur University was brought into existence on the 4th of August 1923, but as far back as the year 1914 the Government of the Central Provinces had appointed a Committee to consider the question of the establishment of a provincial university. The type of university to be founded,

however, had already been indicated in the instructions issued to the Committee which was asked to frame a scheme " which shall provide for a university of the teaching type at Nagpur or in its immediate neighbourhood and for the affiliation to this central institution of all colleges situated in other places in the Central Provinces and Berar." The Committee reported in January 1915 and the proposals made in the report were considered both by the local Government and by the Government of India. But in 1917, it was decided to postpone further consideration of the scheme until after the Calcutta University Commission had submitted its report. In 1919 the local Government placed an officer on special duty to examine the proposals of the 1914 Committee in the light of the recommendations made by the Calcutta University Commission. The work of the Special Officer was subsequently examined and reported on by a special Committeee of officials and non-officials and the final conclusions arrived at were incorporated in a draft Bill which was introduced in the Provincial Legislative Council in August 1922. It had been originally intended that the new university should take the form of a compromise between a teaching and an affiliating university. But the University Act as finally passed into law provided for the establishment of an affiliating type of university. It was, however, so framed that the University might subsequently and without amending legislation develop the teaching side of the University.

94. The constitution of the University consists in the main of a Court—the supreme governing body of the University—, an Executive Council—the executive body of the University—, an Academic Council—the academic body of the University—, a Committee of Reference to deal with items of new expenditure, and the several faculties. The Vice-Chancellor is elected by the Court from among persons recommended by the Executive Council and his election is subject to confirmation by the Chancellor who is the Governor of the Central Provinces.

95. The nucleus of the new university consisted of the Morris Government College, the Victoria Government College of Science, the Hislop Mission College at Nagpur, the Robertson Government College and the Spence Government Training College at Jubbulpur and the King Edward Government College at Amraoti. Since the founding of the University a University College of Law under the direct management of the University has been opened at Nagpur and the Government Agricultural College at Nagpur has been affiliated to the University. Since its inception the University has remained purely affiliating in character and, except in the department of Law, it has not made itself responsible for any direct teaching. The University now has faculties in Arts, Science, Law, Education and Agriculture and prepares students for the B.A., B.Sc., M.A., M.Sc., LL.B., L.T. and B.Ag. degrees.

University buildings consisting of offices, convocation hall, lecture rooms and libraries have been constructed at a total cost of over Rs. 3 lakhs, one lakh of which was subscribed by Messrs. Tata & Sons. New buildings for the Victoria College of Science are under construction and are estimated to cost Rs. 11 lakhs. The University has been recognised by all other universities in India and by the British Universities of London, Durham, Leeds, Belfast and St. Andrews.

During the quinquennium it organised university extension lectures at Nagpur, established a University Union Debating Society and promoted university inter-collegiate athletic tournaments. In 1926 it established a Students' Information Bureau which took over the work and functions of the previously existing Students' Advisory Committee.

Andhra University.

96. For more than a decade prior to 1926 the people of the Telugu districts of the Madras Presidency continued to make repeated representations to the Government of Madras, urging the claims of the Andhra area to a university of its own, and as far back as the year 1920, the Senate of the Madras University, influenced no doubt by the findings of the Calcutta University Commission, resolved "that the Senate is of opinion that the time has come when the increasing demands for liberal education in this Presidency should be met by the establishment of more universities and by the redistribution of the territorial areas of the existing university so as to provide, as far as practicable, at least one university for each principal linguistic area within the Presidency; and that the establishment of a university for the Andhras should be taken in hand without further delay".

97. In 1921, the Government appointed a Committee to consider the proposal for the establishment of a separate Andhra University and this Committee submitted a report to Government in the following year. It recommended the establishment of a unitary and residential university with special facilities for higher technical education, but unfortunately, as subsequent events have proved, the Committee was not able to come to any agreement as to the location of the university. In April 1925 an officer of the Educational Department was placed on special duty to prepare a scheme for the establishment of the new university and to draft the Andhra University Bill. The Bill was introduced in the local Legislative Council in the autumn of 1925 and was passed into law in January 1926. During its passage through the Council the Bill, as originally drafted, was radically altered after a prolonged and at times acrimonious debates in which local patriotism and interests appear to have triumphed over educational principles and ideals. In the numerous Legislative Council debates in Madras in which the new Andhra University was discussed frequent references were made to the necessity of founding a university, as far as possible, of the unitary

type as distinct from the wide affiliating type, like the Madras University, but, in effect, the new Andhra University Act has merely created a number of teaching centres in which the organisation of the colleges and the teaching imparted is controlled not by the University but by the individual separately managed colleges. The Bill, as originally drafted, provided for the concentration of all Honours and first grade colleges preparing for degree courses at three centres only in the Telegu country but did not specify where the headquarters of the University would be located. The Select Committee chose Rajahmundry but the Act, as finally passed in 1926, located the headquarters of the University at Bezwada, where no college existed, and provided for the concentration of first grade and Honours colleges at three other centres, namely, Vizagapatam, Rajahmundry and Anantapur, but permitted for a period of five years the raising of second grade colleges to first-grade colleges at other centres. The Act came into force in April 1926 and the University was given jurisdiction over the districts of Ganjam, Vizagapatam, West Godavari, East Godavari, Kistna, Guntur, Nellore, Bellary, Anantapur, Cuddapah, Kurnool and Chittoor. Since its foundation a large number of amending Bills have been introduced in the local Legislative Council with the object both of restricting the jurisdiction of the University and of altering the headquarters and the centres of concentration of teaching. No definite decision on the question of amending the Act appears to have been arrived at but agitation continues on these points with the result that the progress of the University has been considerably hampered on both the financial and administrative sides. It is considered unwise to spend money and to mature schemes under the provisions of an Act which may shortly be altered.

98. The constitution of the new university consists of a Senate—the supreme governing body of the University, an Academic Council which controls the academic life of the University and a Syndicate which is the executive body of the University. The first Vice-Chancellor of the University was nominated by Government, but subsequent Vice-Chancellors will be elected by the Senate of the University. A prominent feature of the new Act is the provision for the ultimate use of the vernaculars as the media of instruction and examination and His Highness the late Maharajah of Bobbili—the first Pro-Chancellor of the University—made a donation of Rs. 1 lakh to the University for the encouragement of Telugu and Sanskrit learning.

Calcutta University.

99. It is remarkable that the university which appears to have been least affected by the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission is the Calcutta Universtiy itself; in spite of many discussions and proposals by both University and Government the organisation of this university has remained unaffected. The post-graduate departments have not

been remodelled, nor has the control of secondary or intermediate education been removed from the University. The only radical change made in the provision for higher education in Bengal was the founding of the Dacca University. The post-graduate department of the Calcutta University which had been so widely developed in the previous quinquennium, passed through a difficult period during the present quinquennium. Financial equilibrium was difficult to secure. The numbers of students largely declined, the staff had to be reduced and departments of study closed. But in August 1925 the Legislative Council of Bengal sanctioned a recurring grant of Rs. 3 lakhs for the post-graduate department of the University and, in consequence the finances of the University have been placed on a more stable basis. The death of Sir Ashutosh Mukherji about four years ago removed a great personality from the sphere of university work; his name has been commemorated by the erection of the new Ashutosh buildings of the University and by the creation of an Ashutosh Mukherji chair of Sanskrit and an Ashutosh Mukherji chair of Islamic culture. As in other universities the Calcutta University has now taken over the functions of the Provincial Advisory Committee for students and has instituted a Students' Information Bureau.

Bombay University.

100. Prior to 1922 post-graduate teaching in the Bombay University was almost entirely in the hands of the individual colleges though the University instituted post-graduate lectures on the basis of the needs of the M.A. students so far back as 1914. With a view to bringing the University into closer touch with the post-graduate work in colleges and to enabling it to initiate and direct such studies the scheme of post-graduate studies was entirely revised in the year 1924-25 as a result of the recommendations of a committee appointed in 1922 to revise the scheme of post-graduate studies in the light of the experience gained of its working since its inauguration. Under the revised scheme the M.A. degree was thrown open to research and all post-graduate training, including the University School of Economics and Sociology, was placed under the control of a Board of Management consisting of nine members nominated by the Syndicate of the University. The subjects of post-graduate studies by research were restricted to Economics, Sociology, Sanskrit, Indian History and Mathematics. Experience showed, however, that the new system of control was not working satisfactorily and in 1926 the Syndicate appointed a Committee to consider the problem of post-graduate study and to draw up a new scheme. The report of this Committee is at present under the consideration of the Senate.

101. The most noteworthy event in the history of the University during the quinquennium was the appointment of a Committee in 1924 to examine the position of the Bombay University in all its aspects; the Committee presented its report to Government in 1925. The University Senate considered

the recommendations of the Committee and reported in 1926 to Government that the following proposals for re-organisation should be taken in hand immediately:—

(1) the elaboration of the University administrative machinery;

(2) the reform of the Senate;

(3) the expansion of post-graduate instruction and research;

(4) the establishment of a college of technology;

(5) the establishment of a University provident fund;

(6) the organisation of the physical and military training of students;

(7) the provision of a recurring statutory grant from Government to the University.

Final decisions have not been arrived at on many of these recommendations, but a Bill to amend the University Act of 1904 and to incorporate the main constitutional changes proposed by the Senate was introduced in the Bombay Legislative Council after the end of the period of the quinquennium and passed into law.

102. The University Boards of Studies have been increased from 19 to 29 as the result of the formation of a separate board for each vernacular, the splitting up of the Board in Biology into three boards, and the creation of separate boards necessitated by the institution of the M. Com. degree and the revision of the agricultural and medical courses. In the last year of the quinquennium a Foreign Universities Information Bureau was opened by the University; it replaced the old Provincial Advisory Committee which was under the control of Government. During the period under review new buildings were provided for the University at a total cost of over Rs. 8 lakhs.

Madras University.

103. The organisation of the Madras University was radically altered during the period under review by the passing of the Madras University Act of 1923. In June 1922 the Government of Madras framed a draft Bill and forwarded it to the University for opinion, and at a special meeting of the Senate held in August 1922 the following resolution was adopted; "That there should be established a teaching and residential university at Madras with constituent colleges within the limits of that university, as soon as arrangements have been made for the simultaneous establishment of similar teaching and residential universities at other educational centres within the sphere of the University of Madras as constituted prior to the commencement of the Act." The main features of the new Act were the enlargement of the University Senate, with an elective majority, the creation of an Academic Council and a Council of Affiliated Colleges, and the appointment of a whole-time Vice-Chancellor. The Academic Council is a professional body dealing only with academic matters and

the Council of Affiliated Colleges is a representative body intended to safeguard the interests of the affiliated colleges located outside the city of Madras. During the quinquennium it was decided to hold the Intermediate, B.A., B.A. (Hons.) Preliminary and L.T. degree examinations twice each year; M.A. degrees in Research and Ph.D. and D.Sc. degrees in Philosophy and Science have been instituted. At the close of the quinquennium a scheme was sanctioned by Government for the establishment of a Science Research Institute under the University providing for advanced study and research in Botany, Zoology and Bio-Chemistry and a Government grant of Rs. 1·8 lakhs has been sanctioned for the erection of new laboratories. Just before the close of the quinquennium sanction was also given for the institution of a department for higher teaching and research in Indian Philosophy, for a department of higher studies and research in Mathematics, for the establishment of a School of Indian History and for the establishment of a University Institute of advanced Sanskritic, Dravidian and Islamic studies and research.

Punjab University.

104. The teaching side of the Punjab University has been developed by the institution of Honours courses in Chemistry, Sanskrit, Arabic and Persian and by the opening of a combined Honours arts course in English, History, Economics and Philosophy. The accommodation and equipment for the teaching of Astronomy have been increased and a reader in Astronomy has been appointed. A Committee was appointed to make recommendations regarding the further development of research work in the university and one result of the recommendations of this Committee has been the provision of scholarships to send selected college teachers overseas for study and research. Very large additions have been made to the University buildings, including a new University chemical laboratory at a cost of over Rs. 3 lakhs, the University Law College at a cost of over Rs. 1 lakh, the University Oriental College at a cost of approximately Rs. 1 lakh, the Malcolm Hailey University Hall at a cost of Rs. 1·25 lakhs and the Maynard Hall at a cost of approximately Rs. 1 lakh. An Advisory Bureau has been set up by the University; it has taken the place of the old Government Students' Advisory Committee.

Allahabad University.

105. The Allahabad University Act which was passed at the close of the previous quinquennium transformed the Allahabad University into a teaching and residential university at Allahabad with an external side consisting of associated colleges situated outside Allahabad. All the intermediate classes in the colleges were transferred from University control, intermediate education in the United Provinces having been placed under the control of the newly formed and statutorily constituted Board of High School and Intermediate Education. Though the Agra University did not actually come into existence during the period under review, the Agra

University Act was passed in August 1926 and in consequence of this Act all the associated colleges of the Allahabad University have been affiliated to the new Agra University with the result that immediately after the close of the quinquennium the Allahabad University commenced to function as a purely teaching and residential university. Many additions were made to the buildings of the University during the period under review. The Indian Press buildings were reconstructed at a cost of approximately Rs. 1 lakh. Extensions were added to the physical and chemical laboratories at a cost of Rs. 40,000. A central dispensary was opened and a new botanical laboratory erected at a cost of over Rs. 1 lakh. Additional land and buildings have been acquired for the University at a cost of nearly Rs. 1·5 lakhs and a new hostel to accommodate 125 students is under construction at an estimated cost of Rs. 2·5 lakhs. The University Library has been largely extended and over Rs. 70,000 have been spent on the purchase of books during the quinquennium. The number of students under instruction at the University headquarters has nearly doubled, the post-intermediate classes increasing from 794 to 1,284.

Benares Hindu University.

106. The Benares Hindu University has continued to add to its faculties and colleges, a Law College being established in 1923 and an Ayurvedic College in 1925. A special department of Mining and Metallurgy was also opened in 1923. The enrolment of the University had increased from 1,469 to 1,936, of which 952 were reading Science. The new courses opened during the quinquennium included Music, Domestic Science and Painting as optional subjects for women, and, for all, courses in Hindi, Civics, Politics and Ancient Indian History and Culture, diploma courses in mechanical and Electrical Engineering, degree courses in Mining and Metallurgy, and in Industrial Chemistry. Additional buildings costing over Rs. 4 lakhs including a hospital building and a women's hostel to accommodate 100 residents were completed during the period under review. It is to be regretted that in spite of the very large initial collections made for the founding of this University and in spite of large endowments its financial condition has become steadily worse during the quinquennium and the University authorities are now faced with a very large capital debt. There seems little doubt but that the idealism of the University authorities, taking little account of the practical side of University administration, is the dominating factor in the executive action of the Benares Hindu University which does not cut its coat according to its cloth.

Patna University.

107. The period has been one of steady progress in the Patna University, there being expansion in all directions and improvement in the quality and quantity of the work done. The provision of facilities for instruction in the faculties of Engineering and Medicine has made the province of Bihar and Orissa, in which the University is situated, educationally

self-contained and the finances of the University are in a satisfactory condition. Its constitution remains unaltered, it continues to be an examining body, federal in character. One of the main objects with which the University was started in 1917, namely, the establishment at Patna of a central university for post-graduate and other teaching has not been realised—the hope that post-graduate and scientific teaching would gradually come under the control of the University was expressed when the University was founded,—but there is dissatisfaction with the present constitution and a considerable volume of opinion has been demanding an immediate change in its character from a purely federal type to the partly teaching and partly federal type. Its constitution was, therefore, at the end of the period under review, under the consideration of the University authorities and of Government. During the quinquennium faculties of Engineering and Medicine have been created and the Bihar College of Engineering and the Prince of Wales Medical College have been affiliated up to the degree standard. The University has undertaken practically no teaching work but readerships in Natural Science and in Hindi have been created. In 1926 the control and management of the Students' Information Bureau was transferred by Government to the University and an annual grant is made by Government for its maintenance.

Aligarh Muslim University.

108. The most important event during the quinquennium was the celebration of the jubilee of the Muslim University, or rather of the Mohammedan Anglo Oriental College, Aligarh, which was started in 1875 and converted into the Muslim University in 1920. About 5,000 guests from all parts of India came to the celebration and nearly all of the Indian universities and some British universities sent their representatives. During the jubilee celebrations a sum of over Rs. 3,00,000 was collected for the needs of the University. The finances of the University are sound but the authorities report that unless they receive a substantial grant from Government or handsome donations from the public it will not be possible to carry out some of the most urgent improvements required in the University. Three new departments were opened during the quinquennium, namely, the department of Education, the department of Geography and the department of Islamic studies. The teaching staff has increased from 53 to 58 and the number of students from 702 to 959. A number of new buildings for the University have been erected including the Osmania hostel to accommodate 100 students, a Hindu hostel to accommodate 40 students, four new hostels for the Intermediate College, residential bungalows for the staff, five lecture rooms and a biological laboratory.

Rangoon University.

109. In spite of the boycott movement in the early years of the quinquennium, the enrolment of the Rangoon University has largely increased, and many important developments have

taken place during the period under review. In 1924 the Rangoon University Amending Bill was passed by the local Legislative Council. The Act enlarged the Council of the University and increased its powers. *Inter alia* it gave power to the University to affiliate colleges outside Rangoon, thus transforming it from a unitary university located at Rangoon and so successfully brought into existence at the end of the previous quinquennium, into a teaching and affiliating university exercising affiliating functions throughout Burma. There is now an affiliated Government Intermediate College in distant Mandalay. This transformation of a unitary university, soon after its birth, into a teaching and affiliating university, is symptomatic of the influence of conservatism on academic and political thought. For more than half a century India has associated the term university with affiliated colleges.

110. In 1925-26 the Rangoon University Building Trust Act was passed by the local Legislative Council. This Act provides for the establishment of a Trust whose function is indicated by its name, and grants to the Trust total sums, distributed over a period of seven years, amounting to approximately Rs. 1,20 lakhs. The Board of Trustees consists of a chairman appointed by Government, four trustees appointed by the University, seven trustees elected by the non-official members of the Burma Legislative Council and three trustees appointed by the local Government. In 1922 a biological department of the University was opened, a B.Sc. course was instituted and an Education diploma class was opened in the University College. In 1923 courses were opened in Forestry, Engineering, Geography and Geology and three new professorships in Geology and Geography, in Economics and in Anatomy and Physiology were created. In 1926 six additional professorships were created for the new medical courses and university extension lectures were organised in Mathematics, Chemistry, English and Geography. During the quinquennium new buildings were erected for the Forestry and Engineering departments while university hostels with three wardens' residences were completed at a total cost of over Rs. 7·7 lakhs.

111. During the quinquennium the Lucknow University has developed into a purely teaching university, the Reid Christian College having abolished its degree classes and the Canning College having been transferred to the University by the Canning College Act of 1922. The Isabella Thoburn College for Women has remained as an affiliated institution but its teaching is controlled by the authorities of the University. A new Zoology laboratory has been built for the Canning College and the Botany laboratory extended. A new Chemistry laboratory for this college is under construction. The Physiology laboratory of the Medical College has been extended and a clinical theatre is under construction. The number of students enrolled in the University has

Lucknow University.

largely increased, namely, from 632 to 1,448. During the period under review Honours courses in Arts and Science leading to the M.A. and M.Sc. degrees over a three years' course have been opened.

Dacca University.

112. The Dacca University which was established at the end of the last quinquennium has made satisfactory progress and has gone far successfully to carry out the ideals of a unitary university laid before it in the Dacca University Act. Additions have been made to the chemical laboratories, a new Science library has been opened, the Muslim Hall has been considerably enlarged and a small hostel has been provided for women. The main library of the University has been greatly strengthened and now contains nearly 46,000 volumes. One feature of the quinquennium has been the organisation by the University of educational tours whereby students of History visited places of historic interest, students of Economics and Commerce studied local industries first-hand, and students of Chemistry visited important laboratories and workshops. Another feature is the increase in the number of Muslims who are beginning to take advantage of the facilities afforded to them for higher education in this university, founded in a centre of Muslim population and largely at their demand and to meet their needs. But possibly the most important feature is the stabilisation of its financial position. The Bengal Legislative Council passed an Act in 1925 guaranteeing to the University a statutory recurring grant of Rs. 5½ lakhs per annum from provincial revenues. This measure has established the finances of the University on a firm basis and enables it to make contracts ahead with safety.

Delhi University.

113. The Delhi University was established and incorporated by an Act of March 1922. The original idea was the establishment and incorporation of a unitary teaching residential university at Delhi. It was intended to provide for a local university on the model recommended in the case of Dacca by the Calcutta University Commission, but the University of Delhi, as it functioned at the end of the quinquennium and still continues to function, cannot be called unitary inasmuch as it contains several constituent colleges, three of the first grade offering instruction up to the degree standard and three of the second grade offering instruction only up to the intermediate standard, all under private management. Instruction is provided in these colleges under conditions prescribed in the ordinances of the University, provision being made therein regulating the residence of students. The University has appointed very few teachers of its own. It has not in fact assumed such adequate control over the university

teaching as is contemplated in the Act; it has allowed colleges to organise the teaching on a system of co-operation independently of the Board of Co-ordination—a board prescribed by the University statutes—whose function it is to co-ordinate the teaching work of the University. In the Arts faculty the University has appointed a whole-time reader in Economics and a part-time reader in Philosophy. In the Science faculty it has appointed a whole-time reader in Physics and a whole-time reader in Chemistry with assistants. In the Law faculty it has appointed two whole-time lecturers and one part-time lecturer in Law. In addition, it has appointed one honorary professor and several honorary readers and has " recognised " some of the teachers employed by the colleges recognised by the University. All teachers of the University have, however, to be appointed or recognised by the Executive Council on the recommendation of a committee of selection, the constitution of which is prescribed by statutes. The number of enrolled students of the University has increased from 706 to 1,310. It was originally intended that new buildings for the University should be provided in New Delhi, but the proposal has been abandoned and the University has continued to be located in portions of the old Secretariat buildings of the Government of India and in private rented bungalows. The Council Chamber in the old Secretariat is used as its convocation hall. The scattered nature of the accommodation for the University and the absence of university control over teaching have naturally impaired the growth of the University along the lines originally contemplated and still prescribed.

Bengal Advisory Committee.

114. In 1924 the Government of Bengal appointed a permanent Advisory Committee consisting of seventeen members to advise the Government and the two universities in Bengal (Calcutta and Dacca) on all questions connected with higher education. The main functions of the Committee are to co-ordinate the work of the two universities, to see that there is no unnecessary duplication in their work and that they are not unequally treated in matters of finance.

United Provinces Students' Advisory Committee.

115. The United Provinces Students' Advisory Committee consists of a president, ten members nominated by Government, one correspondent nominated by each of the four universities (Allahabad, Benares Hindu, Aligarh Muslim and Lucknow Universities) and five members co-opted annually by the Committee. It has a part-time Secretary with headquarters at Allahabad. The number of enquiries dealt with by the Secretary has been large. They related to all branches of education.

Expenditure on Universities in British India, by Provinces, 1926-27.

Province.	Number of Universities.	Expenditure from				Total Expenditure.
		Govt. funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
		Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras . .	2	4,15,470	..	3,56,502	80,995	8,52,967
Bombay . . .	1	67,772		5,71,700	68,500	7,07,972
Bengal . .	2	11,32,128	.	15,03,183	4,12,386	30,47,697
United Provinces	1	13,71,041	200	5,25,624	2,85,001	21,81,866
Punjab . .	1	2,04,210	.	8,44,676	63,576	11,12,462
Burma . .	1	12,99,862	...	2,06,493	1,67,312	16,73,667
Bihar and Orissa	1	22 500		1,93,500	...	2,16,000
Central Provinces and Berar .	1	50,000		49,994	..	99,994
Assam . .	...		.	...	..	...
North-West Frontier Province . .	.	..	.	...	...	.
Coorg . .			..	...	..	...
Delhi . .	1	85,000	..	17,486	58,748	1,61,234
Ajmer-Merwara .	...	...	..	..	..	..
Baluchistan .		...		...	...	...
Bangalore . .		..	...		..	.
Other Administered Areas .		...	...	...	...	.
India { 1926-27 .	14	46,47,983	200	42,69,158	11,36,518	1,00,53,859
India { 1921-22 .	12	22 28,253	75	25,08,346	28,67,904	76,04,578

Expenditure on Universities.

116. The above table indicates the expenditure on universities; it does not, however, indicate the total expenditure on higher education since it excludes expenditure on colleges affiliated to or recognised by universities. The figures of such expenditure are given in a later table in this chapter. From the above table, however, it is observed that Government funds met 46 per cent., that fees met 43 per cent. and that other sources, namely, endowments and subscriptions, met 11 per cent. of the total expenditure.

117. Leaving aside the minor Administered Areas, which are in general educationally backward, it will be seen that the provinces of Assam, the North-West Frontier, Coorg, Ajmer-Merwara and Baluchistan have no universities of their own. The needs of Assam are met by the Calcutta University,

while the needs of Baluchistan and of the North-West Frontier Province are served by the University of the Punjab situated at Lahore. Ajmer-Merwara, in so far as post-intermediate education is concerned, was under the jurisdiction of the Allahabad University up to the end of the period under review when it came under the control of the Agra University. The Civil & Military Station of Bangalore depends upon the Madras University for its higher education. On the other hand, there are three provinces, namely, Madras, Bengal and the United Provinces, which have more than one university. The expenditure on these universities is entered collectively against these provinces in the foregoing table. The subjoined table shows the expenditure from Government funds on each of these universities separately:—

1926-27.

Province.	University.	Expenditure from Provincial Funds.	Expenditure from Central Funds.	Total of All Government Funds.
		Rs	Rs	Rs
United Provinces	Allahabad	7,03,000	..	7,03,000
	Lucknow	9 91,798	..	9,91 798
	Benares Hindu	.	3,25,000	3 25,000
	Aligarh Muslim	44,400	3,25,000	3,69,400
	Total	17,39 198	6,50 000	23,89,198(*a*)
Madras	Madras	3,15 470	..	3,15,470
	Andhra	1,00,000	.	1,00,000
	Total	4,15,470	...	4,15,470
Bengal	Calcutta	5,69,128	13,000	5,82,128
	Dacca	9,00,000		9,00,000
	Total	14,69,128	13,000	14 82,128(*b*)

(*a*) In the main table on p 68 *ante*, which has been compiled from the provincial educational tables, the Government expenditure on *Universities* in the United Provinces is given as Rs 13,71,041 only while in the above table the expenditure is stated to be Rs 23,89,198. This discrepancy is due to the fact that the balance of Rs. 10,18.157 is entered against the head "*Miscellaneous*" in the United Provinces, tables. The apportionment of this sum among the four Universities was as follows:—

	Rs.
1. Allahabad University	2,29,693
2. Lucknow ,,	3,88,464
3. Benares ,,	2,00,000
4 Aligarh Muslim ,,	2,00,000
Total	10,18,157

(*b*) This sum includes a non-recurring grant of Rs. 3,50,000 to the *Dacca University* which is not taken into account in the table on p, 68 *ante*.

Inter University Board.

118. The need for co-ordination of the work of universities in India was expressed by the Calcutta University Commission in their report and in 1921, acting on a resolution passed by the Congress of the Universities of the Empire, the Indian Delegates to the Congress passed a resolution recommending to the universities of India that an association of representatives of the several Indian universities be formed with the object of dealing with questions affecting their mutual interest. It was suggested, that such an association, if formed, should go into the question of certain difficulties which might arise owing to the conditions of admission of students to courses and examinations of the universities of the United Kingdom not being suited to the qualifications which students from Indian universities usually possess The Lytton Committee on Indian students in England also hoped that the Indian university authorities would take steps at an early date to establish an Inter-University Board for the purpose of co-ordinating the courses of study in India and of securing uniformity in their recognition abroad. In May 1924 the first All-India Conference of Indian Universities was held at Simla; it was attended by representatives of all the fifteen universities of India. Fifty-one representatives attended it and it was opened by His Excellency the Viceroy. The Conference discussed many important questions relative to university education in India, including the recognition of Indian degrees by English universities, the position of Indian students in England, the equivalence of Indian university examinations, university training corps, university libraries and the appointment and conditions of service of university teachers. The most important result of the Conference, however, was the decision to set up a permanent Inter-University Board so constituted that each university in India will have a representative on the Board. The functions of the new Board were declared to be:—

(1) to act as an inter-university organisation and Bureau of Information;
(2) to facilitate the exchange of professors;
(3) to serve as an authorised channel of communication and facilitate the co-ordination of university work;
(4) to assist Indian universities in obtaining recognition for their degrees, diplomas and examinations in other countries;
(5) to appoint or recommend where necessary a common representative or representatives of India at Imperial or International Conferences on higher education;
(6) to act as an Appointments Bureau for Indian universities; and
(7) to fulfil such other duties as may be assigned to it from time to time by the Indian universities.

By the establishment of this Board an important step forward has been taken towards the co-ordination of university activities and discussion of university questions. It holds annual meetings in February or March at different university centres, the first in 1925 being held in Bombay, the second in 1926 in Delhi and the third in 1927 in Benares.

University Training Corps.

119. The University Training Corps form a subsidiary but important feature of Indian university life. Their origin dates back to 1917 when the Universities of Bombay and Calcutta raised University Companies in connection with the Indian Defence Force. The passing of the Indian Territorial Force Act in 1920 enabled the establishment of the University Training Corps on a permanent basis and these Corps have now been set up in most universities. The following table shows the number and strength of the various units of the University Training Corps:—

University.	Unit	When constituted	Sanctioned strength (All Ranks)	Actual strength in 1926-27.
Bombay	1st (Bombay) Battalion.	1921	664	592
Calcutta	2nd (Calcutta) Battalion.	1921	664	630
Allahabad, Benares, Aligarh, Lucknow	3rd (United Provinces) Battalion	1921	664	614
Punjab	4th (Lahore) Battalion	1921	664	637
Madras	5th (Madras) Battalion	1921	664	585
Rangoon	6th (Burma) Battalion	1921	664	494
Patna	7th (Patna) Company	1922	165	153
Delhi	9th (Delhi) Company	1924	165	165

The reports on the work of the Corps during the quinquennium show that they have considerably helped in fostering freedom from caste prejudices, and in developing a sense of discipline, pride in athletic prowess and physical well being and the qualities of leadership.

At present the Nagpur, Dacca and Andhra Universities do not possess any University Training Corps. Consequent on the recommendations of the Auxiliary and Territorial Forces Committee, whose report was published in 1925, it is proposed to raise additional units of these Corps (including units for Nagpur and Dacca) and also to expand some of the existing units. The question was under consideration during the quinquennium. There is no doubt that the expansion of the University Training Corps will be a step in the right direction. The following passage from the Report of the Auxiliary and Territorial Forces Committee will serve to illustrate the value of these Corps:—

> "By means of the University Training Corps, if properly organised, it is possible to educate and in-

fluence over a number of years that large body of young men who should become the leaders of thought and the teachers of the next generation. Their training in the principles and practice of military service will not be limited to themselves for, when they go out into the world, they will, if their military training has been adequate, take with them the pride of patriotism, the sense of discipline and the improved physique which will be their legacy from the University Training Corps."

It is interesting to note that Military Science has been introduced as an optional subject in the intermediate and degree courses of the Punjab University for the benefit of the members of the Corps.

The Madras University contributed Rs. 1,000 in 1922-23 towards the regimental funds of the Madras University Training Corps. This sum was raised to Rs. 2,000 in 1925-26. Similarly, the Bombay University sanctioned an annual recurring grant of Rs. 1,000 in 1925 for their Corps and increased it to Rs. 2,000 in 1926. A further sum of Rs. 1,000 was also contributed in the same year towards the non-recurring cost.

The reports relating to the Rangoon and Patna University Training Corps are not so encouraging as the other reports; but it is gratifying to note that efforts are being made to improve the efficiency and discipline of the Corps.

Boxing has been introduced at the Allahabad University Training Corps and promises to be a popular sport.

H. E. Lord Irwin's essay medals.

120. His Excellency Lord Irwin, Viceroy and Governor General of India, has instituted a gold medal for competition annually among the students of Indian universities and a silver medal to the best candidate appearing from each province which has not secured the gold medal. The competition takes the form of an essay on some problems of the day and is confined to under-graduates. Its object is to stimulate reading and thought among college students in their leisure hours on subjects of practical importance to India and the world. For this reason the general subject is announced some time before hand, but to prevent the reproduction of memorised essays the particular aspect of the subject to be dealt with in the essay is announced about the time of the competition. Students are free to consult any authorities and to obtain advice during the period of preparation but the essays themselves must be the unaided work of the candidates at the time of the competition. The first competition was held in January 1927, the general subject being "Indian Agriculture" and the particular subject as follows:—"The importance of cattle-breeding and dairying in Indian Agriculture with suggestions for the development and improvement of these branches of husbandry." It has since been decided that the competition should be held in November every year.

B.—Arts Colleges.

Institutions and Scholars, 1926-27.

Province	—	Government.	Board.	Aided.	Unaided.	Total.
Madras	Institutions	10	2	51	2	65
	Scholars	2,934	149	9,508	25	12,616
Bombay	Institutions	5	.	7	2	14
	Scholars	2,022	.	4,503	502	7,027
Bengal	Institutions	11		21	13	45
	Scholars	3,636		11,891	8,607	24,134
United Provinces	Institutions	9		34	2	45
	Scholars	1,308	.	7,929	409	9,646
Punjab	Institutions	10		12	8	30
	Scholars	2,075		4,125	2,701	8,901
Burma	Institutions	1	..			1
	Scholars	60		(a)1,194	.	1,254
Bihar and Orissa	Institutions	6		5	...	11
	Scholars	1,764	.	1,710		3,474
Central Provinces and Berar.	Institutions	4		1		5
	Scholars	1,137		273		1,410
Assam	Institutions	3				3
	Scholars	1,040				1,040
North-West Frontier Province.	Institutions			3		3
	Scholars			408	..	408
Coorg	Institutions				...	
	Scholars	.				...
Delhi	Institutions			6		6
	Scholars			1,148	..	1,148
Ajmer-Merwara	Institutions	1				1
	Scholars	125	.			125
Baluchistan	Institutions		.	..	.	
	Scholars				..	...
Bangalore	Institutions	.		2	.	2
	Scholars			479	.	479
Other Administered Areas.	Institutions	.	.		1	1
	Scholars				306	306
India 1926-27	Institutions	60	2	142	28	232
	Scholars	16,101	119	43,168	12,550	71,968
India 1921-22	Institutions	42	2	85	23	152
	Scholars	10,784	226	23,737	10,477	45,224

(a) University students.

N.B.—This table includes students reading in Universities as well as pupils reading in lower classes attached to certain colleges but not under University control.

Statistics.

121. As against a small fall in the previous quinquennium the number of students reading in arts colleges has risen by nearly 27,000 and the number of institutions has increased by 80. A considerable portion of the increase in the number of scholars is no doubt due to the opening of new universities, but the phenomenal rise in the number of pupils proceeding to courses of instruction in arts colleges appears to prove that, in spite of all that has been said and written in favour of an attempt to divert students into professions not requiring high academical qualifications, the tendency of those who come through the high school course to proceed, at all costs, to college education, is as strong as ever. A satisfactory feature of the increase has been the much higher enrolment of Muhammadans, who are relatively backward in higher education, the number of Muhammadans having increased by over 3,000 as against an increase of only 500 in the previous quinquennium.

The following table shows the classification of students according to race or creed:—

Race or Creed of Arts and Science Students.

Community.	1921-22 *	1926-27.	Increase (+) or Decrease (—) in 1926-27.
Europeans and Anglo-Indians	299	409	+110
Indian Christians	1,802	2,354	+552
Hindus	35,454	51,635	+16,181
Muhammadans	5,355	8,456	+3,101
Buddhists	274	823	+549
Parsis	560	722	+162
Sikhs	(a)	1,401	+757
Others	755	111	
Total	44,499	65,911	+21,412

* The figures given here for 1921-22 differ from those given in the quinquennial review for 1921-22, as the corresponding figures given in the last-mentioned review include some scholars reading in school departments of colleges in Bangalore, while the figures given here exclude them.

(a) Separate figures not available.

The number of Government colleges has increased from 42 to 60 and the number of aided colleges from 85 to 142. The largest increase in the number of colleges occurred in Madras and the largest increase in the number of pupils in Bengal.

122. The new colleges opened in Madras include the Loyola College at Madras under the Jesuit Mission, the St. John's College, Tinnevelly, under the Church Missionary Society, the National College, Adyar, under the Theosophical Society and the Holy Cross College for Women, Trichinopoly. Many new buildings have been erected and over nine lakhs of rupees were sanctioned by Government for building grants to aided colleges. A new Science block was erected for the Government College, Anantapur. New laboratories and class rooms were added to the Government Muhammadan College, Madras, and a new Physics laboratory was built for the Government College, Kumbakonam. New building were acquired for the Queen Mary's College, Madras, and a new Science block for the College is under construction. The Sri Minakshi College, Chidambaram, which it is now proposed to develop into a university, built new Arts, Science and hostel blocks with the aid of large Government grants, and new Science buildings were erected at the Women's Christian College, Madras, and at the St. Aloysius College, Mangalore. New buildings were also constructed for the St. Francis Xavier's College, Palamcottah, and the Loyola College, Madras. Madras

123. Eighteen arts colleges are affiliated to the Bombay University but of these four are situated in Indian States, the most important of which is the Maharaja's College at Baroda. Three new arts colleges were opened during the quinquennium, namely, the Sind National College, Hyderabad, the Gokhale Education Society's Hansraj Pragji Thackersey Arts College, Nasik, and the Royal Institute of Science which was separated from the Elphinstone College, Bombay, and affiliated as an independent Science College in 1926. New and extensive buildings have been erected for the New Poona College at a cost of 4½ lakhs of which Government contributed two lakhs. A new Science block has been added to the St. Xavier's College. Bombay.

124. In Bengal the number of arts colleges has increased from 36 to 45. Of the increase of nine, seven were newly established Intermediate Colleges and two were new Degree colleges. Of the seven new Intermediate Colleges four are under the Dacca Intermediate Board and the other three comprise the Nursing Dutt College, Howrah, the Saadat College, Karatia, and the Probhat Kumar College, Contai, which are affiliated to the Calcutta University. Bengal.

125. No new arts colleges have been opened in the United Provinces but many improvements and developments have taken place in the existing colleges. At the St. John's College, Agra, sanction has been given for the erection of a new Physics block and for the opening of a new hostel. College buildings at a cost of over two lakhs of rupees have been erected for the Dayanand Anglo-Vedic College, Cawnpore. And for the same college a hostel building accommodating nearly 200 students has been built at a cost of Rs. 1·35 lakhs. A new large lecture hall and a new Hindu hostel have been United Provinces.

erected for the Meerut College, and a Chemistry block has been built for the Bareilly College. The Isabella Thoburn College for Women, Lucknow, has been provided with new buildings at a cost of Rs. 12½ lakhs, almost all of which was contributed from America.

Punjab. 126. In the Punjab the number of arts colleges has been largely increased by the opening of intermediate colleges for men at Campbellpur, Gujrat, Lyallpur, Jhang, Dharamsala, Hoshiarpur and Rohtak and by the opening of the Lahore College for Women. New buildings for the Intermediate College at Ludhiana were under construction at the end of the quinquennium.

Burma. 127. In Burma a new Intermediate College at Mandalay was opened by Government in 1925 but it is managed on behalf of the Rangoon University by a governing body of nominated and elected members.

Bihar and Orissa. 128. The arts colleges in Bihar and Orissa showed considerable development, although their number remained stationary save for the addition of intermediate classes to the Ranchi Zila School. The most notable events at the Patna College were (*i*) the separation of the work in arts from that in science and (*ii*) the extensive building operations necessitated by the separation. Additional buildings have been sanctioned for the Bihar National College at a total cost of Rs. 5 lakhs, while the Greer Bhumihar Brahman College, Muzaffarpur, has been provided with additional accommodation for certain new classes. The Ravenshaw College, Cuttack, has been fortunate in its benefactors who have created endowments for its post-graduate work, electric supply and library.

Central Provinces. 129. In the Central Provinces a new Government Arts College was opened at Amraoti in 1923. Extensive new buildings have been provided for it including residential bungalows for the professorial, medical, clerical and menial staff, a hospital and a dispensary.

Assam. 130. The number of arts colleges in Assam has increased to three by the recognition up to the intermediate standard of the St. Edmund's College, Shillong. New buildings for the Murari Chand College at Sylhet were completed in 1925 at a total cost of nearly Rs. 9 lakhs. The capital expenditure included the cost of a library hall, a main block of arts classes, an administration block, science buildings, hostels, residential quarters, a games pavilion and the cost of sanitation, water-supply, drainage, and playing-fields. Plans and estimates were also sanctioned for new buildings for the Cotton College, Gauhati, but they were held in abeyance until the completion of the building programme for the Murari Chand College at Sylhet.

North-West Frontier Province. 131. There is no Government college for Indians in the North-West Frontier Province and collegiate education is imparted to them by three privately managed institutions, *viz.*, the Islamia College, Peshawar, the Edwardes' College,

Peshawar, and the Vedic Bharatri College, Dera Ismail Khan. They all receive Government aid. The chief event during the quinquennium was the munificence of Khan Sahib Ghulam Qadir Khan, Rais of Tangi, Peshawar, who gave the Islamia College 400 acres of irrigated land, the full income from which is expected to be Rs. 8,000 per annum.

132. The Government College, Ajmer, has considerably increased in strength from 69 in 1921-22 to 125 in 1926-27. It would appear therefore that the doubts which have been expressed about the need for the college were unjustified, since even competition with colleges at Jaipur, Jodhpur, and Udaipur, in which education is much cheaper, has not prevented a satisfactory growth of the Ajmer College. Ajmer-Merwara.

Expenditure on Arts Colleges in British India, 1926-27.

Province.	Expenditure from				Total.
	Government Funds.	Board Funds.	Fees	Other Sources.	
	Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs	Rs.
Madras	8,10,626	3,738	12,01,075	4,32,634	24,48,073
Bombay	5,75,289	21,875	9,01,398	4,19,355	19,17,917
Bengal	12,52,277	4,200	19,64,228	2,96,139	35,16,844
United Provinces	12 07,043	19,975	7,23,3.5	5,35,341	24,85,674
Punjab	6,10,773	2,416	8,17,542	3,27,640	17.58,371
Burma	50,256		5,787	...	56,043
Bihar and Orissa	6,75,728	...	2,73,060	31,763	9,80,551
Central Provinces and Berar	3,56,276		1,12,008	20,617	4,88,901
Assam	2,79,389	.	75,095	..	3.54,484
North-West Frontier Province	1,00,734	. .	34,619	27,753	1,63,106
Coorg	...	..	...	.	...
Delhi	87,010	13,742	99,946	56,992	2.57,690
Ajmer-Merwara	39,590	4,015	10,160		53,765
Baluchistan	...	...	.		...
Bangalore	19,468	..	27,523	12,508	59,499
Other Administered Areas	..	.	17,641	26,359	44,000
India 1926-27	60,64,459	69,961	62,63,397	21,87,10	1.45 84 918
India 1921-22	49,26,666	47,158	37,79,970	22,88,544	1.10,42.338

* For both *males* and *females* and including *intermediate* colleges.

Expenditure on Universities and Arts Colleges, 1926-27.

Province.	Expenditure from				Total
	Govt. funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs.
Madras . .	12 26,096	3,738	15,57,577	5,13,629	33,01,040
Bombay . .	6,43,061	21,875	14,73,998	4,87,855	26,25,889
Bengal . .	23,84,405	4,200	34,67,411	7,08,525	65,64,541
United Provinces	25,78,084	20,175	12,48,939	8,20,342	46,67,540
Punjab . .	8,14,983	2,416	16,62 218	3,91,216	28,70,833
Burma . .	13,50,118	.	2,12,280	1,67,312	17,29,710
Bihar and Orissa .	6,98,228		4,66,560	31,763	11,96,551
Central Provinces and Berar.	4,06,276	...	1,62,002	20 617	5,88,895
Assam .	2,79,389		75,095		3 54,484
North-West Frontier Province.	1,00 734	...	34,619	27,753	1,63,106
Coorg . .	..			..	...
Delhi . .	1,72,010	13,742	1,17 432	1,15,710	4,18,924
Ajmer-Merwara .	39,590	4,015	10,160	..	53,765
Baluchistan . .		.			...
Bangalore . .	19,468	...	27,523	12,508	59,499
Other Administered Areas.			17,641	26 359	44 000
India { 1926-27 .	1,07,12,442	70,161	1,05,32,555	33,23,619	2,46,38,777
India { 1921-22 .	71,54,919	47,233	62,88,316	51,56,448	1 86,46,916

* For both *males* and *females* and including *intermediate* colleges !

Finance.

133. The former of these two tables gives the expenditure in the year 1926-27 on arts colleges in British India while the latter gives the expenditure on universities and arts colleges combined. This latter table is therefore the truer index of the cost to India and her people of her higher educational systems. It is instructive; it shows that the total expenditure has increased by more than 30 per cent. to nearly two and a half crores of rupees, fees have increased (not the fee per head but the total fee collections) by about 70 per cent., Government contributions have increased by about 50 per cent., while private subscriptions and endowments have decreased to about 65 per cent. of what they were five years ago. This decrease is disquieting especially when we observe that private benevolence met only between 13 and 14 per cent. of the total cost of higher education in the country. The uneasiness,

caused by a perusal of these figures is, however, somewhat diminished when it is borne in mind that the figures of five years ago were swelled by the inclusion in them of large subscriptions made towards the initial cost of the Benares and Lucknow Universities. Fees and public funds between them, the latter slightly more than the former, met by far the greater part of the cost of higher education in India.

Average annual cost per scholar, in an Arts College, 1926-27.

Province	In Arts Colleges for Males					In Arts Colleges for Females.				
	Govt funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources	Total	Govt funds	Board funds	Fees	Other sources.	Total.
	Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs	Rs	Rs	Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	49		81	25	155	248		70	158	476
Bombay	83	3	129	60	275		..	.	. .	.
Bengal	52	...	88	13	153	363	..	91	16	470
United Provinces	108	6	76	22	212	222	...	75	340	637
Punjab	64		92	35	191	584	...	102	279	965
Burma	838		96	...	934	..		...	.	
Bihar and Orissa	193	...	79	9	281	719	...	41	...	760
Central Provinces and Berar	253	. .	79	15	347	.	...		...	...
Assam	269		72	.	341	.	...	...	...	...
North-West Frontier Province.	234	.	80	64	378		...			
Coorg	. .	...	...	.	—	.	...	.	...	...
Delhi	71	10	89	39	209	191	62	41	320	614
Ajmer Merwara	317	32	81	.	430	..	..		..	...
Baluchistan		. .	.	...	...	.	...	..		
Bangalore	57	..	88	21	166	31	.	40	29	100
Other Administered Areas.	...	..	58	86	144	.	.		...	..
India	81	1	87	29	198	270	2	71	123	466

Cost of education in an Arts College.

134. The foregoing table gives the average annual cost of educating a scholar in arts colleges, for males and for females separately. It does not contain figures of cost of students under the direct control of university authorities, for example, of students attending unitary universities or students attending university departments of teaching universities. The

table is instructive; it shows at a glance that the cost of educating a woman is very high in all provinces. This is to be expected since the educational facilities provided for girls and women, especially for their higher education, are not taken advantage of to their fullest extent, so that the cost per woman must necessarily be high. As regards arts colleges for males, it is interesting to note that the total cost per scholar is lowest in the presidencies of Madras and Bengal. In these provinces English influence has had a footing for a longer period than it has elsewhere, and aided effort has long been in the educational field. In Madras there are fifty-one aided arts colleges as against ten Government arts colleges. Aided education is not so costly as education under direct Government control; hence aided colleges impart higher education cheaper than do Government colleges. In those provinces in which higher education is given mainly through the agency of Government colleges, the cost is proportionately high. This is particularly noticeable in the Central Provinces where there are four Government colleges out of a total of five and in Assam and Ajmer-Merwara where there are no aided colleges. The highest cost per scholar is recorded in Burma, where there is only one Intermediate Government College with just sixty students, the maintenance cost of the institution being disproportionately large owing to the small number of students reading there.

Generally speaking, private funds other than fees do not contribute a large portion of the cost of collegiate education for males. The only provinces and administrations in which "private funds" meet a fair fraction of the cost are Madras, Bombay, the Punjab, the North-West Frontier Province and Delhi. It is further interesting to note that while the total cost per student is nearly the same in Madras as it is in Bengal, private sources in Madras contribute almost double the amount contributed from similar sources in Bengal.

Cost to parents.

135. The cost met from fees does not show much variation in the different provinces except in Bombay where it is somewhat higher than elsewhere. The average annual fees paid by the students range normally from Rs. 70 to Rs. 90. The fees paid represent, however, only about one-fourth of the cost of collegiate education actually borne by the parents of students, for to the fees must be added the cost of books and stationery and of board and lodging which roughly amount in all to Rs. 25 per mensem. The total cost of collegiate education to parents is thus about Rs. 300 to Rs. 400 per annum. For a country where the parents of the majority of the students, who do not belong to the higher or upper middle classes, are far from wealthy this would seem to be fairly high, but the cost does not deter students from resorting to arts colleges in ever increasing numbers year by year. This is no doubt partly accounted for by the fact that for the Indian student degrees possess not only a glamour but also an economic value in that certain public services are open only to university graduates.

136. Indian students still proceed to foreign countries, mainly, to Great Britain, America, Japan and Germany, to complete or supplement their education. It is difficult to estimate their number accurately. But it would appear that there were in 1926-27 at least 1,644 students in Great Britain alone distributed as follows:— Indian Students abroad.

Institution.	*Number of students.*
1. Oxford University	54
2. Cambridge University	113
3. London University	501
4. Other English Universities and Welsh Universities	231
5. Scottish Universities	261
6. Belfast University	15
7. Inns of Court	469
TOTAL	1,644

A report published by the Institute of International Education in December 1926 shows that during 1925-26 there were 170 Indians at various universities and colleges in the United States of America. No information is however, available regarding the number of Indian students in Japan or Germany.

Various causes are assigned for the presence of Indians in foreign countries. The more important of them are briefly as follows:—

(*a*) an Indian student educated abroad has a better chance of securing employment in India, especially in the Indian Public Services, than one who obtains the whole of his education in India;

(*b*) educational facilities in India, both for undergraduate and higher study, are inferior to those available in certain foreign countries;

(*c*) it is necessary to go to England to be called to the Bar; and

(*d*) for certain special branches of study there are no facilities in India at all.

These reasons are sound and make it clear that Indian students will continue to proceed abroad for further education so long as the methods or conditions of recruitment to the public services in India give preference to applicants who have studied outside India and so long as fuller facilities for education are not provided in this country.

The Report on the work of the Education Department of the High Commissioner, London, for the year 1926-27 makes the following general observations regarding the position of Indian students:—

"The number of Indian students coming to this country to complete or supplement their education shows

> no signs of diminishing. But though it is no longer absolutely necessary to come here in order to take such an important examination as that for the Indian Civil Service or in order to qualify for appointment to other services, such as Agriculture, Education, Engineering or Forestry, it is to be remembered that the prestige of a Western education still ranks very high, and will probably always continue to encourage Indians to proceed abroad for further study or training. Moreover, despite the recent marked improvement in the standards of the Indian Universities generally, they are not as yet in a position to provide sufficient and satisfactory facilities for their graduates, especially as regards higher and advanced work and research in the various branches of Science and Technology. Whilst, therefore, there may probably be a slow but marked reduction in the number of those whose purpose was merely to gain a degree or to secure qualifications entitling them to consideration for various service appointments formerly made in this country, it is to be anticipated that there will be a definite increase in the number of those who, having graduated in India, wish to specialise in some branch of study or training, especially in Science and Technology."

An increasing number of both Government scholars and private students are now going to Great Britain for training in the theory and practice of education. This is a hopeful sign for the future of Indian education. Many Indian students have distinguished themselves at British universities in different subjects and it is specially notable that post-graduate and research students have been successful in securing high degrees. The High Commissioner has however pointed out with some concern the increasing number of Indian students who are seeking a training in civil engineering in British universities, for whom it is very difficult to obtain the necessary facilities for practical training. An excellent training in Civil Engineering is available in India. He has also observed that the number of Indians at the Inns of Court shows definite signs of increase and has advised that Indians would derive much greater benefit from a training in England if they have already taken a law degree in India and practised for some time in the Indian Courts.

Need of general knowledge among students.

137. The evil of subordinating teaching to examination was mentioned in the last Quinquennial Review. It is still rare to find in any candidate, however proficient he may be in the subjects which he offers for examination, any evidence of that background of wider interest which can only be acquired by means of general reading and observation outside his prescribed course of study. This is illustrated by the following re-

marks made by the Director of Public Instruction, Bihar and Orissa :—

> " Last year I had occasion to set to 55 of our graduates a simple paper on general knowledge and the results certainly surprised me. A question as to the population of the province produced only four answers correct within two millions. The others ranged from 'nearly 45 thousand ' and ' about a lakh ' to ' 300 millions '. The date on which the province came into being was given variously from 1894 to 1917. One-fourth of the candidates were wrong by more than a year. Of the candidates who attempted to give the meaning of prohibition 19 were entirely wrong, many confusing it with protection and one discussing the question of inter-caste marriage. No less than 15 candidates recommended charms and incantations as a cure for snake-bite. One of them wrote—" In villages some people know *mantras* by which a man is easily cured, but in towns the only course left to a man is to seek shelter in hospital". A question as to the principal industries of the province, other than agriculture, produced the pessimistic statement that ' besides the agriculture industry there is no notable industry for the province of Bihar and Orissa', and of those who attempted the question 24 made no mention of coal-mining. The date on which the great war began was wrongly given by six candidates and that of the cessation of hostilities by 19."

I would suggest for the consideration of all universities the desirability of some curtailment, if necessary under proper safeguards, of the hours devoted to compulsory lectures and of the inculcation among students of the habit of wider reading. A more suitable " background " can only be acquired by students having interests to which they devote adequate time and energy outside their prescribed courses of study.

Knowledge of Geography.

138. The Public Service Commission is of opinion that comparatively few graduates of Indian universities possess more than the most rudimentary knowledge of the geography of their own country, and that still fewer have any knowledge whatsoever of the world outside India and that this ignorance leaves a gap in the education of the Indian student which must handicap him severely in any career which he may adopt. The Commission considers that it is desirable therefore that geography should be a compulsory subject for the Matriculation or High School Examination so that every Indian student may acquire familiarity with the elementary facts of geography which is assumed in any educated man. Generally speaking, Geography is an optional subject in high schools, although its study is compulsory in some high school classes. It is seldom

a subject of examination at the end of the high school course. Experience has shown that, if a subject is prescribed for study without examination in it at the end of the period of study, the study is largely perfunctory.

C.—Institutions for Scientific Research.

139. Apart from the universities, the most notable institutions devoted to scientific research in India are the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, and the Bose Research Institute, Calcutta.

Indian Institute of Science.

140. At the end of the quinquennium the number of students in attendance at the Indian Institute of Science, Bangalore, was 106, of whom 50 held Institute scholarships, while the following local Governments and Indian States maintained scholars at the Institute during the period under reviews:—Madras, Bombay, Bengal, Central Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, and Mysore. In February 1926 the constitution for the administration and management of the properties and funds of the Institute was revised and under the new constitution four nominees of Indian universities, two nominees of the Government of India, two nominees of the Government of His Highness the Maharaja of Mysore and one nominee of the Indian Legislative Assembly have obtained representation on the Council of the Institute. In the year 1926-27 the total income of the Institute was approximately Rs. 4·73 lakhs towards which the Bombay properties contributed Re. 0·2 lakhs, the Treasurer of Charitable Endowments Rs. 1·86 lakhs, being interest transferred by the Board of Management on investments, the Government of India Rs. 1·5 lakhs, the Government of Mysore Re. 0·5 lakhs and the Government of Hyderabad Re. 0·1 lakh.

Bose Research Institute, Calcutta.

141. The Bose Research Institute, Calcutta, was founded by Sir J. C. Bose in 1917, with the following objects:—

(*a*) To advance knowledge by means of research;

(*b*) To diffuse knowledge by organising discourses, demonstrations and lectures to be given by original workers and thinkers; and

(*c*) To do all such things as are incidental or conducive to the attainment of the above objects.

The Institute has a well-fitted lecture hall, very good research rooms and a workshop. It is devoted to pure research and its achievements have secured a wide reputation. The Government of India sanctioned for it towards the close of the quinquennium an additional grant of Rs. 3,000 per annum, thereby raising their annual subvention to Rs. 1,03,000.

CHAPTER IV.

INTERMEDIATE EDUCATION.

General.

142. Higher education in India consists in general of a four years' course, two years of intermediate study and two years of final study, the latter leading up to a university degree. Prior to the date of the Calcutta University Commission, intermediate education formed and was held to form an essential part of university education and was controlled by universities throughout the whole of India. In 1919, however, the separation of the intermediate classes from the university was advocated by the Calcutta University Commission, which considered that the right development of university work demanded a reorganisation of higher secondary education and that for this purpose it was necessary that the work done in the intermediate classes of arts colleges should be transferred to institutions of a new type to be called 'intermediate colleges'. It was vainly anticipated in some quarters that this pronouncement would revolutionise the system of university, intermediate and secondary education in India. But as a matter of fact it has exercised little influence on educational authorities, although some universities and Governments have shown a readiness to adopt the proposed separation; some of the university Acts, passed after the publication of the Commission's Report, provide for either an immediate or an ultimate separation of the intermediate classes from the degree classes.

Present conditions.

143. The Dacca University Act, which came into force in 1921, dissociated intermediate education from the Dacca University; within the territorial limits of that University a non-university board created under the authority of the Government of Bengal controls intermediate and secondary education.

144. Similarly the university Acts of three of the universities of the United Provinces (Allahabad, Aligarh Muslim and Lucknow) confine the activities of these universities to post-intermediate education, intermediate and secondary education in the United Provinces being controlled by two boards, one operating within the jurisdiction of the Allahabad and Lucknow Universities, the other within the territorial limits of the Aligarh Muslim University. Although intermediate and post-intermediate education is under separate control, yet the intermediate classes under the former board are still housed in general in the same buildings as the degree classes of the Allahabad University. The existing intermediate colleges in the United Provinces comprise generally ten classes including school classes and are difficult to manage, though there are some colleges with only six, and some with only four classes. It is proposed to take the opportunity, where possible, to organise the lower classes as separate junior schools. The experiment has not yet been stabilised into a satisfactory system. The intermediate college of the Aligarh Muslim University has already given a lead in this

direction. It has only four classes corresponding to the two highest of the ordinary high school classes and the two intermediate classes.

145. The Delhi University Act also restricts the control of that University over intermediate education to a period of five years from the foundation of the University and to such further periods as the Governor General in Council may direct. The original period of five years terminated in 1927 but it is being extended from year to year after the end of the quinquennium as the Delhi University has not yet found it practicable nor does it consider it educationally sound under present conditions to divest itself of the control of the intermediate classes.

146. The Madras University Act of 1923 lays down that students shall not be eligible for admission to a course of study for a degree unless they have passed the intermediate education in arts and science of Madras and that if the local Government is satisfied that other adequate arrangements have been made for the supervision and control of institutions preparing candidates for the entrance examination to the university, the local Government may by notification direct that the Madras University shall cease to exercise any control over the recognition of such institutions. There is, however, no indication as yet that any measures have been initiated with the object of separating intermediate classes in Madras from university control. In fact the opposite course is now favoured in South India for the Andhra University Act, passed through the Madras Legislative Council so recently as 1926, makes no provision for the separation of intermediate classes from university control. They are to form an integral part of the university course.

147. Nor has it been found possible to legislate in Bengal in order to provide for the separation of intermediate education from post-intermediate instruction on the basis of the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission. The scheme for the creation of a provincial board of intermediate and secondary education for the whole of Bengal has, therefore, not materialised and the Board of Intermediate and Secondary Education, Dacca, continues to perform its functions within the limited area placed under its control. That Board has added Elementary Economics and optional Botany to the intermediate course and has instituted an oral test in English, and during its brief existence of about six years it has been able to carry out many improvements in the course of study as well as in the methods of instruction.

148. Intermediate education in the Punjab, though still continuing to form a part of university instruction, is gradually being separated from post-intermediate classes, partly to relieve the congestion of students at Lahore. Efforts have been made to establish intermediate colleges consisting of four classes (two intermediate classes and two high school classes) at various centres. These institutions are reported to be doing

good work, though there is a tendency on the part of the students to delay application for admission to them until they have passed the Matriculation examination; they thus lose the benefit of the full course of these special institutions.

149. The Calcutta, Bombay, Madras, Punjab, Benares Hindu, Patna, Rangoon, Delhi, Nagpur and Andhra Universities, that is to say, all the universities in India except the Dacca University in Bengal and three out of the four universities in the United Provinces still control intermediate education.

Change in outlook.

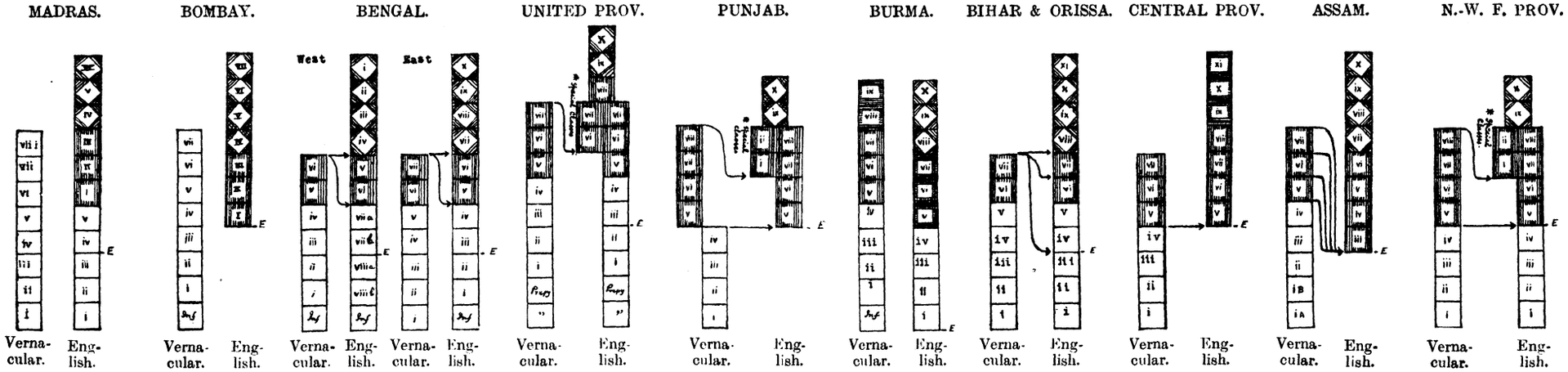
150. The preceding paragraphs indicate the little that has been accomplished in the provinces and universities in the direction of the establishment of intermediate colleges of the type suggested by the Calcutta University Commission. The record is very meagre and, though interspersed with success achieved here and there, the experiments made are, on the whole, not very hopeful. Even in the United Provinces, which were foremost in adopting the recommendations of the Calcutta University Commission, there has been a partial reaction against the views of the Commission and the Agra University Act, which was passed towards the close of the period under review, provides for the maintenance of the intermediate classes in colleges affiliated to that university, though these classes will be under non-university control. Similarly, the Andhra University Act, passed in 1926 by the Madras Legislative Council, definitely allows this university to retain control over intermediate classes. It has already been stated above that the Madras and Delhi Universities have not yet excluded intermediate education from their control notwithstanding the provision made in the relevant Acts for exercising such exclusion. This question was considered at some length by the Inter-University Board in consultation with the universities and the conclusion reached at a meeting held in February 1926 in Delhi was that the intermediate colleges of the type recommended by the Calcutta University Commission had not justified the expectations formed of them and that the real solution of the problem of intermediate education lay in the raising of the standard of education imparted in high schools. Evidence clearly shows that there are unmistakable signs of a change in the trend of thought, opinion hardening against this recommendation of the Calcutta University Commission. Good intermediate colleges are not likely to flourish long since the reasons operating against them are very strong, being based on both financial and academic grounds. The intermediate classes are a source of income to the degree colleges while the employment of a combined staff for the B.A. and intermediate classes proves economical. Moreover, the intermediate students derive the benefit of the lectures of the more highly qualified teachers who are normally employed for instruction in the degree classes. The net cost of a separate intermediate college, staffed and equipped on the lines indicated by the Calcutta University Commission, would

entail the expenditure of a considerable sum of money which few institutions can afford. In the next place, this recommendation of the Commission was part of a scheme an essential feature of which was the extension of the university course to three years. The Commission was definitely of opinion that a generous and well-balanced scheme of university training could not be well-fitted into a shorter period than three years. The pass course for the B.A. degree has, however, continued to be in most universities of only two years' duration and it is obvious that, unless the intermediate classes form part of the university course students will normally be under the influence of the university for only two years which is too short a period for university life. The extension of the B.A. course from two to three years would add one more year to the total number of years of a students' formal education, throwing the expense of an additional year's maintenance on his parents and making him one year older before he sets forth on the wage earning career to which both he and his parents look forward. The immediate economic loss—even though it may mean an ultimate economic gain to the country—of raising the average age of graduation of university students by one year will not be faced by the people of India. The problem may thus be summarised by stating that while on general grounds it may be academically sound to separate the intermediate classes from university control yet such separation is not academically sound unless the B.A. course is extended from two to three years' duration and that such extension is economically unacceptable if not impossible. The question is however controversial and cannot be settled apart from a consideration of local conditions, so that it would be irrationally optimistic to expect a unanimous verdict of the universities and the Governments in India on it. The future of the intermediate classes in the degree colleges is still under consideration but it seems probable that the financial will outweigh other considerations and that it will not be possible for some years to come, if ever, to relieve degree colleges of these classes.

Conclusion.

151. If we are to interpret the views of Governments in India by the Acts of their Legislatures and by the orders issued by the executive parts of their Governments we are led to the conclusion that the only provincial Government in India which is prepared in general to accept the proposal to separate intermediate classes from their universities is the Government of the United Provinces. Other provincial Governments have nibbled at the proposal but have found it either unpalatable or indigestible so that we should be doing an injustice to that school of thought that is of opinion that this recommendation of the Calcutta University Commission is not at the present time acceptable and suitable to people and conditions in India if we brushed their opinion aside, whether that opinion is based on a belief in the inertia of oriental thought or on a knowledge that the existing system is the more sound being founded on the experience of half a century.

SCHEME OF SCHOOL CLASSES.



Primary Stage . . . . . .

Middle Stage—

Vernacular as medium of instruction . . . . . .

English as medium of instruction in some subjects . . . . .

High Stage—

English as medium of instruction . . . . . .

English as medium of instruction in some subjects only . . . .

Vernacular as medium of instruction . . . . . .

English teaching begins . . . . . —E

Passage to English schools . . . . . →

EXPLANATORY NOTES.

Madras.—A pupil can join any class or form of a secondary school for which he is found fit. There is no restriction whatever in passing from an elementary (vernacular) school to a secondary (English) school. There is no departmental rule determining the class in which a pupil may begin the study of English. In Secondary schools, it is usual to begin English in Class IV and officers of the Department discourage an earlier commencement of English. In some elementary schools, English is taught in Standard IV and higher standards if a teacher qualified to teach English is available.

Bengal.—In West Bengal, pupils who have read English as an optional subject in a vernacular school may pass from Standard VI to Class IV, others must pass to Class VI. In East Bengal, vernacular pupils with knowledge of English may pass into Class VII, others must pass to Class V.

United Provinces.—In the United Provinces, the bottom four classes have been detached from Government High Schools and form a distinct class of schools known as "preparatory schools".

Punjab.—In the Punjab, the present tendency is to detach from each Government High School the first four classes. In the High Classes, English is normally used as a medium of instruction in all subjects except in Oriental and Vernacular languages, but candidates for the Matriculation and School Leaving Certificate Examination have the option of writing answers to questions in History and Geography in English, Urdu, Hindi or Punjabi, with the result that in some cases the vernacular is used in teaching these subjects.

Burma.—In Burma, a pupil desiring to join an English school from a Vernacular may be admitted to any class in the latter in which he is found fit. There is no hard and fast rule as to the medium of instruction in Anglo-Vernacular schools, but instructions have been issued that the use of English should be introduced gradually. There are also National Anglo-vernacular schools which are classified as Preparatory (Forms I—VII) and High (Forms VIII—XI). Pupils from Form VII of these schools prepare for the Government Anglo-vernacular Middle School Examination and those from Form XI for the Anglo-Vernacular High School Examination. Promotions in National Schools are made half-yearly.

Bihar and Orissa.—In Bihar and Orissa, those who have not read English ordinarily pass into Class IV, but in some schools they pass into a class (below Class VIII) in which special instruction in English is given to such boys. Those who have read English may pass into Classes VIII, VII, VI, or V, according to the progress they have made in that language.

Assam.—In Assam, no High school or Middle English school has primary classes attached to it. In some schools, *e.g.*, those using Direct Method, English is used as medium of instruction in English lessons in the Middle stage. English Notation is used in teaching Mathematics in the Middle stage.

* *Special Classes.*—In the *United Provinces*, *Punjab* and the *North-West Frontier Province*, there are two Special Classes attached to certain Anglo-Vernacular schools. Boys who have passed the final examination from the Vernacular schools and desire to enter an Anglo-Vernacular school are required to spend two years in these classes, mainly in the study of English, before proceeding to Class VIII in the *United Provinces*, and Class IX in the *Punjab* and the *North-West Frontier Province*. In the *North-West Frontier Province*, boys from a lower middle school may join Special Class I and after studying English for one year may be admitted to the ordinary Class VII. In the *Punjab*, Pupils in Vernacular middle schools who have passed in optional English in the Vernacular Final Examination can proceed straight to Class IX.

CHAPTER V.

SECONDARY EDUCATION (BOYS).

Schools and Scholars.

Year.	High Schools.		Middle English Schools.		Middle Vernacular Schools.		All Secondary Schools.	
	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.	Schools.	Scholars.
1921-22 . .	2,040	559,258	2,864	264,158	3,249	315,072	8,153	1,138,488
1926-27 . .	2,444	744,444	3,201	349,233	4,728	621,984	10,373	1,715,661
Increase (+) or Decrease (−)	+404	+185,186	+337	+85,075	+1,479	+306,912	+2,220	+577,173

Statistics.

152. Although the figures for the increase in the number of scholars shown in the above table are partially vitiated because they include a large number of pupils, particularly in the Punjab, reading in middle vernacular schools which are really only converted primary schools, the progress made has been eminently satisfactory. The total number of secondary schools has increased by 2,220 as against an increase of 1,149 in the previous quinquennium, and the total number of scholars has increased by over 577,000, as against an increase of only 31,000 in the previous quinquennium. The losses which occurred during the non-co-operation period have been fully recovered and an increased rate of progress achieved. One of the most satisfactory features of the figures is that while the number of scholars in high schools during the previous quinquennium increased by only 11,689, or by two per cent., the number during the present quinquennium increased by over 185,000, or by 33 per cent. It is satisfactory also to observe that not only was there a large increase in the total number of scholars but the average number of scholars per school improved from 139 to 165.

High Schools.

153. It will be observed from a perusal of Table 26 of the Supplementary Tables in Vol. II of this review that there is an increase in the number of high schools in all provinces except the United Provices, the increase being the largest in Bengal, the Punjab, Burma and Madras. The fall in the number of high schools in the United Provinces is, however, negligible since the reduction is mainly due to four high schools for Europeans and seventeen high schools for Indians being transformed during the period under review into intermediate colleges. The number of scholars in high schools

and in the high school classes of intermediate colleges increased most largely in the Punjab and in Bengal, the increase in the former being 39,000 and in the latter 45,000. Although there was a negligible decrease in the number of high schools in the United Provinces yet the number of scholars in high schools and in high school classes of intermediate colleges in that province increased by over 13,000. In the North-West Frontier Province only five additional high schools were opened but the number of scholars increased by over 3,000.

Middle English Schools.

154. The number of middle English schools increased in all provinces except Madras, the increase being largest in Bengal. Similarly the number of scholars reading in Middle English schools increased in all provinces except Madras, the increase being as high as 32,000 in Bengal and 10,000 in the Central Provinces.

155. It was pointed out in the last review that a mere increase in the number of secondary English schools is not altogether a healthy sign: it may mean the lowering of the standard required for recognition by the universities; it may also mean a diffusion of effort with a consequent loss of efficiency, two small and inferior schools being maintained at a cost and with attendance sufficient to support only a single good school. In this connection, the following extracts from the provincial reports will be of interest.

The Director of Public Instruction, Madras, writes:—"The report on a survey of secondary education revealed the fact that there was a large number of secondary schools (particularly local board schools) in which attendance was so small as scarcely to justify the existence of the schools at all or the high cost involved. Endeavours have therefore been made to close unnecessary schools and to make large and economic schools serve particular areas. Except where geographical conditions and distances render a separate small school essential a large school is in every way preferable to a number of small schools practically in competition with one another"

The Director of Public Instruction, Burma, writes:—"During the last five years a large number of new anglo-vernacular schools have been recognized the staffs of which can only be classed as inefficient: these smaller schools, relying entirely on school fees and the Government grant, find it difficult to resist parental pressure in the matter of promotions, and boys are promoted almost as a matter of course at the end of the school year, whether they are fit for the higher standard or not. But it is not merely a question of lowering the standard of work in these schools: owing to transfers of parents and other causes boys move from these schools to others and are placed in the standards to which their transfer certificates give them entrance; and already we are hearing a chorus of complaints from the managers of more efficient

schools who are finding their standard of work declining from year to year. The question is a very important one and the solution lies with school managers ".

The Assam Quinquennial Review contains the following remarks on the same subject:—" The demand for high schools is steadily on the increase in the divisions. Multiplication of high schools without adequate resources to meet the requirements of the University regulations threatens to imperil the enrolment in more efficient high schools as the doors of the new high schools are always open to receive the rejected candidates and plucked students of the old schools. The demand for high schols, where it is reasonable and where the people are armed with the sinews of war, is worth encouraging, but the Department is bound to cry halt when the tactics employed by organisers of new high schools are calculated to injure the interests of the neighbouring high or middle schools of old standing. The writer is inclined to doubt the wisdom of establishing new high schools in areas which have an efficient Government high school with a numerous staff, containing double or treble sections in the various classes and therefore capable of accommodating far larger number of pupils than the present enrolment ".

Middle Vernacular Schools.

156. The number of middle vernacular schools increased by nearly 1,500 out of which over 1,400 appear under the Punjab, the number of middle vernacular schools having decreased in Bengal by 143. The policy in the Punjab of converting primary schools into middle vernacular schools and the stimulus which has been given to secondary education has resulted in the remarkable increase in that province of over 230,000 pupils reading in middle vernacular schools representing 75 per cent. of the total increase in middle vernacular schools in India.

Progress by communities.

157. Owing to an alteration in the form of the statistical tables furnished by provinces, it is not possible accurately to compare the progress of education by communities during the period under review with the progress made during the previous quinquennium. But in Bombay the percentage of boys reading in anglo-vernacular schools to the total male population in 1926-27 was:—

Indian Christians	1·1
Advanced Hindus	4·4
Backward Hindus	0·07
Muhammadans	0·3
Parsis	10·8

In Bengal the percentage of Muhammadan scholars reading at the high stage to the total number of scholars decreased from 17·1 to 15·5 while the percentage of Muhammadan scholars reading at the middle stage decreased from 20·9 to

19·3. It is evident, therefore, that in secondary education the Muhammadan community in Bengal is not keeping peace with the general progress of other communities.

In the Punjab during the quinquennium the number of Muhammadans reading at the secondary stage increased by 29,467, the number of Hindus by 23,818 and the number of Sikhs by 10,052, the percentages of pupils reading at the secondary stage to the total number of pupils under instruction in recognised institutions being:—

Muhammadans	12·5
Hindus	19·7
Sikhs	21·6

In the Lahore Division alone the percentage of increase for Muhammadan boys reading in anglo-vernacular schools was 48 as against 19 for Hindus and Sikhs combined. In the Jullunder Division, the number of Muhammadans reading in anglo-vernacular secondary schools increased by 62 per cent., as against an increase of 50 per cent. for Hindus.

In Bihar & Orissa the percentage of Muhammadan pupils at the high stage to the total number of pupils decreased from 12·6 to 11·9 and the percentage of pupils at the middle stage decreased from 8·1 to 7·3. It is clear, therefore, that the Muhammadan community in Bihar and Orissa is not retaining its position in the high and middle stages of education although the percentage of Muhammadan scholars to the total Muhammadan population is still above the percentage of scholars of all classes to the total population.

In the Sylhet District of Assam the increase in enrolment in high as well as middle English schools was higher in the case of Hindus than in the case of Muhammadans in all subdivisions except one.

Only in Burma and in the North West Frontier Province was the number of Muhammadans reading at the secondary stage larger than the number of Hindus. But by the end of the quinquennium there were only 10,000 more Hindus than Muhammadans reading in the secondary stage in the Punjab.

Schools by Management.

158. Except in the Punjab, Burma and the Central Provinces which show increases of 42, 4 and 3 respectively and in the United Provinces which show a decrease of 6, the number of Government secondary schools has remained practically stationary, the total increase throughout India being 41. The number of board secondary schools has increased in all provinces except in Bengal, where there was a decrease of 19, the increase, namely, from 761 to 2,234, being particularly large in the Punjab. The total increase was about 1,800. Aided secondary schools increased in all provinces except in the United Provinces and the Central Provinces in which there

was a slight fall. The largest increase was in Bengal from 1,444 to 1,684, the total increase throughout India being 464. The number of unaided secondary schools in British India decreased from 1,320 to 1,233, the largest decrease being in Bengal; in that province several unaided schools were transferred into aided schools. The percentage of pupils reading in secondary schools under public management increased from 35 to 44 and the percentage of pupils reading in schools under private management decreased from 65 to 56. The percentage of pupils reading in schools under public management increased in Madras, the Punjab, Burma, Bihar & Orissa and the North West Frontier Province and decreased in the other provinces, the largest increase being in the Punjab. In Bengal and in Burma 94·5 per cent. and 88·2 per cent. respectively of the pupils under instruction are reading in schools under private management, while in the Central Provinces and in the Punjab only 11·3 and 19·9 per cent. respectively are reading in this class of school. These large differences have a historic origin, but they also indicate the large differences that exist in educational policy between province and province.

Expenditure on Secondary Schools for Boys.

—	Expenditure from				Total
	Government Funds.	Board Funds.	Fees	Other sources.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs	Rs
1921-22 .	1,39,54,026	38,87,479	1,77,34,627	66,41.316	4,22,17,448
1926-27 .	1,93,38 209	57,25,549	2,48,04,498	80,86,064	5,74,54,320
Increase .	53,84,183	18,38,070	65,69,871	14,44,748	1,52,36,872

159. The figures in the above table show that there has been an increased expenditure of over a crore and a half on secondary schools representing an increase of about 10 lakhs more than the increase in the previous quinquennium. Though the expenditure from all sources has increased largely the increase in expenditure from Government funds is 30 lakhs less than the corresponding increase in the previous quinquennium. The corresponding figures for the increase in expenditure from other sources as compared with the previous quinquennium are board funds: increase of 7 lakhs; fees: increase of 45 lakhs; and all other sources: decrease of 13 lakhs. Expenditure.

The most remarkable feature of the figures for expenditure is that, whereas between 1917 and 1922 the total increase in the number of pupils reading in secondary schools caused an increased expenditure at the rate of Rs. 456 per head,

the very large increase in the number of pupils between 1922 and 1927 was financed at a cost of Rs. 26 per head, the small cost indicating that additional staff was not required, the classes having sufficient room to accommodate the additional pupils. It is not always recognised that the staff required for a school with classes only 10 or 15 strong is no less than the staff required for classes 20 or 30 strong, the most expensive item in the maintenance of a school being the pay of the staff. The average cost of educating a pupil in an anglo-vernacular school has decreased in British India from Rs. 45·9 to Rs. 44·7. The provinces, however, have varied in their decrease or increase in the total annual cost per scholar. The cost in Bombay and Bengal has remained stationary, the cost in Madras has increased while the cost in all the other provinces has decreased. The actual cost varies from Rs. 30, Rs. 33 and Rs. 36 in Bengal, Assam and Bihar and Orissa respectively to Rs. 69 in Bombay and in the United Provinces and to a maximum of Rs. 87 in Burma. The cost of educating a scholar in a vernacular secondary school has decreased in British India from Rs. 16·7 to Rs. 13·8, the decrease being evident everywhere, except in Burma where there is a slight increase. Taking all secondary schools into account the percentage of expenditure met by Government funds, by board funds and by fees has increased while the percentage of expenditure met from other sources has decreased, an indication that the expansion of secondary education owes more to fees and public funds than it does to private effort. It is just possible that we are for the time being nearing the limit of private effort in some directions.

The pay of the staff.

160. An appreciable portion of the increased expenditure on secondary schools in the provinces has been spent on improving the pay of teachers. In Madras the pay of the teachers in a large number of local board secondary schools was increased and a special teaching grant of Re. 1 lakh for the improvement of the pay of teachers was given to aided secondary schools throughout the quinquennium. In Bombay while the pay of teachers in Government and local board secondary schools has been improved, little has been done for the teachers in private schools, and the Director of Public Instruction in Bombay has repeatedly drawn attention to the wide disparity between the average pay of a teacher in a public school and the average pay of a teacher in a private school. In Bengal an important step forward was taken in the year 1925-26 when a recurring grant of Rs. 3 lakhs was sanctioned for the improvement of the pay of teachers in aided secondary schools. The grant was conditional on the provision of a provident fund for teachers in all schools aided from the grant. In the Punjab an appreciable increase occurred in the scales of salaries paid in most local board secondary schools; the Director of Public Instruction has drawn attention both to the inequality of pay in local board

schools between division and division and the greater inequality of pay between board schools and privately managed schools. In Burma the pay of teachers in vernacular secondary schools was greatly improved by the introduction of new scales of salaries in the year 1925. In Bihar & Orissa the pay and prospects of teachers in aided secondary schools were improved by the revision of the rules for grant-in-aid in 1923-24 and again in 1925-26. In Assam, consequent on a resolution of the Legislative Council, an annual special grant of Rs. 20,000 increasing each year by Rs. 5,000 to a total of Rs. 45,000 was made in 1925 in order to improve the pay of teachers in aided high schools. The figures given in the Assam quinquennial review also show that the average monthly pay of a teacher in all classes of secondary schools has considerably improved.

Provident Funds.

161. In Madras in 1923 a provident fund scheme was introduced in all recognised secondary and elementary schools for all certificated teachers, pandits, instructors, clerks and librarians whose pay is not less than Rs. 20 per mensem. Later, in the same year, the scheme was applied to members of the staffs of colleges also. In Bengal, as already stated, special grant-in-aid has been paid to aided institutions in which provident funds have been started. And at the end of the quinquennium a general provident fund scheme for the whole province was sanctioned. In the United Provinces, the Director of Public Instruction reports that the Government provident fund scheme is universally taken advantage of in recognised institutions, only a few institutions retaining their own schemes. In the Punjab provident funds have been made compulsory for all recognised aided schools, and all schools which administer a provident fund in accordance with the standard rules are eligible for a provident fund grant. In Burma, during the quinquennium, a provident fund scheme was instituted for all aided secondary schools. But not all the schools have as yet adopted it. In Bihar and Orissa, consequent on the revision of the system of grant-in-aid, a provident fund scheme was introduced for all recognised aided secondary schools. In Assam, there is at present no general provident fund scheme for teachers in aided schools. But during the period under review there was a large extension of the use of the provident fund system in schools under local bodies.

Grants-in-Aid.

162. The average annual grant to an aided secondary school in British India has risen from Rs. 1,761 to Rs. 2,128 and in all the provinces the average annual grant has increased, though the increase is small in Assam and the Central Provinces. In the United Provinces, the average grant is over Rs. 7,000; in Bengal it is under 900. In the Delhi Province the average grant is about Rs 8,700 and in Bangalore about Rs. 7,800.

In Madras the grant-in-aid code has been revised so as to include rules for the award of boarding grants to Indian orphanages similar to the rules governing the award of boarding grants to European orphanages and so as to include rules for the payment of grants towards the medical inspection of pupils in secondary schools. In Bengal new grant-in-aid rules were framed for the payment of the special recurring grant of Rs. 3 lakhs to aided secondary schools. The rules included insistence on the maintenance of a provident fund scheme, the levy of a minimum scale of fees and the payment of a minimum scale of pay to teachers. In Bihar and Orissa the rules for grant-in-aid to high schools were twice revised during the quinquennium. In 1923-24 the grants were revised so as to include the sum necessary to cover the cost of annual repairs and of the newly created provident fund scheme. In 1925-26, the rules were revised so as to assess the grant to a high school at an amount equal to the standard cost *minus* the fee income, subject to a maximum of half the standard cost and a minimum of Rs. 75 per mensem.

Accommodation.

163. The provinces vary very greatly in the standard of accommodation provided for secondary schools. But from the reports received it would appear that, generally speaking, accommodation has improved during the period under review. In Madras marked improvement is reported in certain districts of the Presidency, while in other districts the complaint is made that in the majority of cases school buildings are merely ordinary dwelling houses ineffectively adapted for the purpose of class rooms, etc. In the United Provices a large number of new buildings were constructed for high schools and the Director of Public Instruction reports that very few high schools are now without buildings of their own. The accommodation of middle schools, however, is by no means so satisfactory and many of them are reported to be housed in unsuitable rented buildings, located in congested and insanitary areas. In the Punjab much progress has been made in the provision of suitable buildings for secondary schools. Large sums of money were set aside by Government for building programmes and over 30 Government high schools were provided either with new buildings or with extensions and many local bodies and aided managements were given liberal grants by Government for new buildings or extensions. In Bihar & Orissa the Government provided each year during the period under review large grants to aided schools for the improvement of their buildings and many new buildings for Government institutions were erected. In the Central Provinces there has been great activity in buildings for secondary schools. Ten Government high schools have been provided with extensions and four new buildings have been erected for Government anglo-vernacular middle schools. In addition, grants totalling nearly 4 lakhs of rupees have been sanctioned for aided school buildings. Most of the money, however, has

been spent on anglo-vernacular schools and the condition of the accommodation in middle vernacular schools still remains unsatisfactory in many parts of the province. In Assam a definite programme of building for Government and aided schools has been adopted and it is estimated that the programme will provide for a total expenditure of not less than Rs. 10 lakhs. In the North-West Frontier Province, owing to a large increase in enrolment, the accommodation provided has proved insufficient over almost all the province. But three high schools have been provided with new buildings and extensions and improvements have been made in many other secondary schools.

Equipment.

164. Largely owing to better financial conditions the equipment of secondary schools, especially scientific equipment, and the provision of libraries, has improved in almost all the provinces. In Madras, where a two-thirds grant for scientific equipment is given by Government to aided schools, laboratory equipment has greatly improved. During the quinquennium over Rs. 78 lakhs were paid as grant-in-aid and subsidies to aided managements and local bodies for equipping high and middle schools in that province. In the Punjab there has been a great extension of the movement to provide village libraries attached to middle vernacular schools. Senior vernacular teachers are appointed as librarians and given small allowances. It is reported that there are now some 1,500 such libraries in the province.

Qualifications of Teachers.

165. The staffing of secondary schools and the qualifications of teachers have considerably improved during the quinquennium. In 1926-27, 50 per cent. of the teachers in secondary schools for boys in India were trained as against 43 per cent. in 1921-22. The number of male teachers possessing degrees has also largely increased and is now over 14,000 or about 18 per cent. of the total number of teachers. In ten provinces and administrations, the percentage of trained teachers is higher than the average for all India, being as high as 86·8 in Coorg, 78·3 in Madras, 71·7 in Delhi, 70·0 in Bangalore, 69·9 in the Punjab and 68·9 in the North-West Frontier Province. In the remaining five provinces and administrations, where the percentage is lower than or equal to the general average, the actual figures are 49·9 per cent. for Bihar and Orissa, 44·0 for Assam, 26·9 for Ajmer-Merwara, 19·7 for Bombay and 18·7 for Bengal. The number of untrained teachers is thus still very high in Bengal where out of a total of 22,000 men teachers over 18,000 are untrained. On the other hand, in Madras out of approximately 9,000 men teachers 7,000 are trained. These figures are remarkable. Secondary education in Bengal is comparatively cheap, the average annual cost of educating a scholar in an anglo-vernacular school for boys in Bengal being only Rs. 30, whereas in Madras it is about Rs. 46. The general average for all India is about Rs. 45. It is questionable whether

a high level of instruction can be maintained unless a large portion of the teachers employed are trained.

The percentage of teachers possessing a degree is highest in Coorg (39·8) and Bombay (37·7) and is lowest in Burma (3·8 only). It is lower than the general average for all India (about 18 per cent.) in eight provinces and administrations out of a total of fifteen. It is apparent that graduates are not usually employed in secondary schools except in the very highest classes—a regrettable state of affairs, especially when the number of available graduates is so large and unemployment among them so prevalent.

Proportion of Teachers and Pupils.

166. The average number of teachers in secondary schools of all kinds has increased from 8 in 1921-22 to 9 in 1926-27, and the average number of pupils per teacher from 18 to 19. The highest number of teachers per school is found in Madras and Coorg (16) and the lowest in Burma (5). These figures, however, are not of much value from a comparative standpoint since the number of classes in each school is not specified. The average number of pupils per teacher is lowest in the four provinces and administrations of Bengal, the United Provinces, Ajmer-Merwara and Bangalore where it is 17. It is highest in the Punjab (27) and Burma (26) followed by Assam and the North-West Frontier Province (24) and Bombay (22). The fact that in these latter provinces and administrations the classes are fuller than elsewhere may indicate that greater advantage is taken of the educational facilities provided in these areas than elsewhere, or that a policy of locating secondary schools in sparsely populated areas has been avoided.

Curriculum.

167. The most noteworthy features in the alterations in curricula during the quinquennium have been the extended adoption of vocational and manual instruction in secondary schools and the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction.

Vocational and Manual Instruction.

168. In Madras, the Director of Public Instruction states that "it may certainly be claimed that the experiment of introducing practical work into secondary schools has, on the whole, been successful. The general education of the pupils has not suffered but has rather been assisted by developing to the full all the faculties of the pupils. The aim of practical instruction as being educational and not vocational has been steadily kept in view and the various forms of handicraft have helped to develop accurate observation and the power of concentration in pupils, to create æsthetic taste and to arouse an interest in manual work in arts and crafts among the rising generation during their most receptive period." At the beginning of the quinquennium there were, in Madras, 17 institutions or centres providing instruction in wood-work and weaving for secondary school pupils. At the end of the quinquennium 68 schools or centres, with an attendance of nearly

12,000 pupils, were providing instruction in some kind of manual work including wood-work, carpentry, metal work, agriculture, tailoring, engraving, rattan work, spinning, book-binding, dyeing, sericulture, market-gardening, horticulture, mica work, smithy, coir work and printing.

In Bengal the Conference of Educational Officers held in 1925 recommended that " while vocational training might more properly be given in special institutions after the school course, some subjects which train the hand and the eye and give scope for the creative joy of the artist should be introduced into the schools." No widespread system of vocational training has been introduced in Bengal and only 22 schools give manual instruction of various kinds.

In the United Provinces the whole position regarding vocational instruction in schools for general education was reviewed by a Committee and it was decided that the demand for vocational instruction could best be met by the institution of special schools. The Committee, however, recommended the development of manual instruction in secondary schools on account of its general educative value. In 1925 wood-work was introduced as a compulsory manual training subject in middle vernacular schools, and by the end of the quinquennium classes had been started and special manual training blocks constructed to provide the necessary accommodation in 15 district board schools. In 1922 a Special Committee was appointed to consider the question of the establishment of vernacular agricultural middle schools, and the Committee recommended the introduction of agriculture as a compulsory subject in selected middle vernacular schools. In 1924, ten district boards deputed one teacher each for training at the Government Agricultural School, Bulandshahr. In 1925, on the return of these teachers from training, nine agricultural classes were started. The agricultural course is a three years' one for classes V, VI and VII and its object is reported to be not to produce expert agriculturists, but to stimulate and strengthen the interests of the boys in nature and the life and labour of the field and to create in them a sense of the dignity of their hereditary profession and of the need of education and skill in its successful practice. The Director of Public Instruction for the United Provinces naturally reports that it is as yet too early to judge of the success of the scheme.

In the Punjab, manual training centres have been established in connection with a number of Government high schools and special training classes were held towards the close of the quinquennium for the training of manual training instructors. With regard to the agricultural classes and farms which were attached to certain high schools in the previous quinquennium, the Director of Public Instruction reports that progress has not been satisfactory, mainly owing to the high cost of purchasing land in urban areas and to

the training being of too academic a character. On the other hand, the scheme of agricultural training in middle vernacular schools started in 1920 has met with remarkable success. At the end of the quinquennium there were 50 schools possessing farms and 52 with garden plots; and in 100 out of these 102 schools there were trained teachers who had undergone instruction in a special training course in agriculture. The outstanding feature of this scheme has been that no attempt has been made to produce expert agriculturists. The object has been, to use agriculture as a means of mental discipline and training and as an accessory to the general subjects taught in the schools. These experiments in the Punjab have been followed with interest by other provinces and the Bengal Government sent a Committee to study the problem of rural agricultural schools. The Punjab, with its splendidly developed irrigation systems, is much more advantageously placed than most other provinces for developing a system of suitable agricultural training.

In Bihar & Orissa a Committee was appointed by Government in the year 1922 to report on the problem of vocational education and orders were passed on the Committee's recommendations in 1925. It recommended the introduction of vocational subjects in middle schools and an experiment has been started with five agricultural classes, five carpentry classes, two weaving classes and seven classes in tailoring. The Committee also recommended manual instruction in high schools and manual instruction is now being given in 11 high schools.

In the Central Provinces a Committee was appointed by the Local Government in 1922 to consider the question of vocational training and the orders of Government were passed on the recommendations of the Committee in 1924. They were, however, mainly concerned with the instruction to be imparted in technical and special institutions. The High School Education Board has constantly recommended the introduction of manual instruction in secondary schools, and there are now 17 manual-training centres in the provinces. In 1925 a special two years' training course for manual training instructors was opened in the Government Training College, Jubbulpore.

In Assam regular manual training classes have been provided in only three Government high schools, but handwork of some kind is taught in the lower classes of all the secondary schools in the province.

The Vernacular as the Medium of Instruction.

169. In Madras in the year 1925 the Government issued orders permitting the use of the vernaculars as the media of instruction and examination in all non-language subjects in the three highest forms (IV, V and VI) of secondary schools. Arrangements have since been made for the examination through the vernacular of all candidates who have received

instruction entirely in the vernacular during their school course in forms IV to VI. Very few pupils have however taken advantage of this permission.

In Bombay, in 1926, revised regulations for the school-leaving certificate examination were issued which permitted candidates to answer the question papers in history and in classical Indian languages in the vernacular. It is early yet to give an opinion on the result of the revised regulations, but the number of candidates availing themselves of the option has been fairly large. In the examination for the year 1926, 20·8 per cent. of the candidates answered the history paper in the vernacular, the percentage being 32·1 in 1927. In the 1927 examination 1,611 candidates out of a total of 4,250 answered the paper on an Indian classical language in the vernacular. The majority of the schools, however, still use English as the medium of instruction.

In Bengal it has been decided that the vernacular should be used as the medium of instruction in all non-language subjects, beginning from the year 1930.

In the United Provinces, the vernacular has long been used as the sole medium of instruction for classes up to and including the middle stage of anglo-vernacular schools. But so far the difficulties connected with vernacular text books, the multiplicity of languages and the unpreparedness of teachers have prevented an extension of the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction in the high school classes.

In Bihar & Orissa, consequent on the recommendations of the Education Committee of 1923, that the vernacular should be the medium of instruction in the four highest classes, the regulations of the Patna University were altered so as to permit of the vernacular being used as the medium of examination, after the year 1928, for subjects other than English and mathematics. In the year 1925 Government decided that in those Government high schools in which the four highest classes were duplicated an experiment should be made by using the vernacular as the medium of instruction in one of the sections, English remaining the medium in the other section. Privately managed high schools have also been encouraged to introduce the vernacular as the medium of instruction in the four highest classes. No comment can now be made on the result of the innovation, since the first examination under the new regulations will not be held until the year 1929.

In the Central Provinces,, in the year 1922-23, the use of the vernacular as the medium of instruction was made compulsory in Government high schools, its use being left optional in the case of aided institutions. By the year 1926-27, 17 Government schools and 8 aided schools had adopted the vernacular medium; 15 aided schools were using the English

medium while eight Government schools and one aided school had both vernacular and English sections. In the last quinquennial review on the progress of education in the Central Provinces, the Director of Public Instruction has discussed the difficulties which have arisen consequent on the introduction of vernacular as the medium of instruction. Briefly stated they have been that apart from Urdu, which is used as the medium of instruction in Muhammadan schools, there are two main vernaculars in the province—Marathi and Hindi. Owing to the large expense involved in the duplication of staff and buildings, it has been necessary to prescribe only one vernacular in each school; it has not been possible to provide for instruction both through Marathi and through Hindi even in schools where both languages are the common languages of the pupils. The result has been that in many areas the language of the minority—whether it be Urdu, Marathi, Hindi, Gujarati or Bengali—has been sacrificed, and owing to this difficulty, English has necessarily had to be retained in certain places as the medium of instruction. The conduct of the high school leaving certificate examination has also been greatly complicated by the necessity of examining candidates in at least four languages. The fact that the majority of aided schools have retained English as the medium of instruction lends point to the difficulties referred to by the Director of Public Instruction.

The Position of English in Secondary Schools.

170. In Bombay the practice of teaching English in the three highest standards of primary schools (Standards V—VII) is reported to be growing; there were 44 classes of this kind, most of them attached to board schools, attended by about 1,650 scholars. These are treated as Secondary for purposes of expenditure. The growth in the number of these classes is one sign of the ever-increasing demand for English. The Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, remarks in this connection:—" How far there is a real demand for English knowing men is not easy to determine. Whatever the demand, however, the supply keeps increasing fed by the general desire, common to most countries, to better oneself in the social scale and to secure a certain income for life, with perhaps the chance of a pension."

In the United Provinces, the number of middle vernacular schools teaching English as a second language and receiving Government aid increased from 7 in 1921-22 to 74 in 1926-27. Government gave aid at the uniform rate of Rs. 30 per mensem after satisfying themselves that the conditions they had prescribed about qualifications and pay of teachers and fees were satisfied. The number of candidates offering English in the vernacular final examination increased from 81 in 1923 to 553 in 1927. That there is a great demand for English is evident from the fact that many boards have opened English classes in their schools and are maintaining them at their own expense. The difficulties which

prevent a more rapid expansion of this type of school seem to be mainly lack of qualified teachers.

There is a great demand for English teaching in vernacular schools in Burma, but it has not been possible on account of lack of funds to develop it on a large scale. Those schools which introduced it are reported not to be working well, due to lack of qualified teachers; these are not prepared to serve on the present rates of pay; the remedy seems to be an increase of pay, and the Government has such a proposal under consideration.

The number of middle vernacular schools teaching optional English, for which there seems to be a great demand among the rural population of the Central Provinces, increased from 46 in 1924-25 when it was first introduced to 94 in 1926-27, attended by about 4,700 pupils, the majority of these being situated in Berar, and controlled by district councils. But this expansion has brought many troubles in its wake. Boys who were refused admission to Anglo-Vernacular schools began to seek entrance into middle-vernacular schools offering optional English. A spirit of competition thus grew up between the two types of schools, with disastrous results. Some privately-managed aided middle schools were forced to close as they could not successfully compete with public middle schools. This policy, namely, of allowing middle vernacular schools to teach English, is not without danger. It may mean a lowering of the standard, since scholars from middle vernacular schools may demand admission into corresponding classes of Anglo-Vernacular schools, and the teaching in middle vernacular schools is by no means satisfactory or efficient. It may also make District Boards increase their expenditure on middle vernacular education, which is more popular, at the expense of primary education. But the system has one good point. It will induce members of the agricultural classes to keep their children at school beyond the primary stage. Realizing the seriousness of the question, the Government of Central Provinces and Berar appointed a committee in 1926, to "examine and report on the working and effects of the system under which instruction in English is imparted in vernacular middle schools maintained by local bodies in Berar, and to make recommendations in regard thereto, regard being had to the declared policy of Government that districts councils are debarred from spending their own funds on instruction in English." The report of the committee had not been received by the end of the quinquennium.

The other provinces make no special reference to the position of English in secondary schools, but we may say that in general there is a uniform demand for instruction in English and that the conflicting claims of instruction in English and in other subjects are found difficult to reconcile.

Methods of Teaching.

171. It is reported from Madras that due to the more intensive methods of inspection and to the increase in the number of trained teachers much improvement was shown in the teaching methods of almost all subjects, particularly English, mathematics and science (the improvement in the latter being due largely to improvement in equipment). No improvement is reported, however, in the teaching of geography or the vernaculars. It is further reported that " the newly-trained graduates have appreciably improved methods of teaching, but the older teachers in charge of the lower classes would obviously greatly benefit by being put in touch with up-to-date methods. Generally speaking the staff libraries of schools are very poor and refresher courses would at least bring modern educational literature within reach of the older teachers."

The Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, writes:— " During the year many teachers from other schools took advantage of the opportunities given them to visit the Secondary Training College and watch the work going on. One of the main functions of the college is to experiment with new methods of teaching and to investigate educational problems in a scientific manner. During the quinquennium certain important experiments were carried out, notably in the teaching of English, Sanskrit, and mathematics, and in mental testing."

In Bengal it is reported that the teaching methods are so inefficient and the system of cramming is so much in vogue that the practice of private coaching is resorted to by almost everybody. The Dalton plan has been tried in various schools in Bengal but the experiments have not been attended with the same measure of success in every case. Other methods were also experimented with, and, as remarked by the author of the Bengal Quinquennial Review, the significant thing is " that schools in Bengal, so long content to walk along the broad and easy way that leads nowhere, are now striking off, by ones or twos, on paths of their own to explore the possibilities of a more fruitful education ". The Government Training College at Dacca continued with considerable success educational researches.

Two methods are prevalent in the United Provinces for the teaching of English, namely, the translation and the direct. The latter method is reported to have yielded better results than the former, in which the scholar is forced to translate word for word instead of being permitted to give a free translation. But it is emphasized by the Director of Public Instruction that even the " direct method " is not likely to be successful when employed by the average untrained teacher. Teaching methods in mathematics, science, nature study, drawing and commerce, are reported to have improved, while history and geography and the vernacular

languages continue to be not well taught, cramming in these being encouraged by the teachers. One intermediate college in the United Provinces introduced the Dalton plan successfully into some of its high school classes, but the initial enthusiasm soon died down. Other high schools, however, are trying to experiment in new methods. The teaching in vernacular middle schools of the province is reported to be better than that given in anglo-vernacular institutions.

It is reported that in one or two divisions of the Punjab, handwriting is receiving some attention with the result that it has improved considerably. The inspector of another division observes "Teachers of science still adhere to the old methods of dictating notes to the pupils and very seldom allow the boys to learn by handling the apparatus and by performing experiments themselves."

The Director of Public Instruction, Central Provinces, points out that training and the supply of equipment do not always guarantee correct methods of instruction and quotes the following interesting example from the report of the Inspector of the Nerbudda Circle:—'Hoping to make the school course more practical, the Department supplied to each school science apparatus including a raingauge. The schools locked the raingauge in almirahs. Some schools drew water from the well for purposes of illustration. A normal school fixed the lessons for the dry weather, and drew a picture on the blackboard, leaving the raingauge in the almirah. Such is the work of trained teachers.'

In Assam the direct method of teaching English was experimented with in many high schools, and was attended with great success. During the quinquennium, the modified Dalton plan was also introduced into many schools, and is reported to have worked successfully. The method of silent reading, was tried in one or two high schools, but it did not yield good results. One Government high school experimented with a co-operative method* and reported good results.

The Director of Public Instruction, North-West Frontier Province, reports:—"The proportion of trained teachers has increased with the result that schools are more efficient. The tightening of the supervision exercised by the department has also assisted towards this end. All masters are required to keep 'work books' showing their plans for the arrangement of their work over a given period and the amount of progress made towards the accomplishment of the proposed work. This system has been applied to both anglo-vernacular and vernacular schools. It has proved to be of

* The method is described as follows "Four or five boys sitting on the same bench form one unit and help each other in learning lessons and doing tasks, and compete with other units in the class, marks being assigned not to the work of each individual boy, but collectively to the whole group."

great use to three people concerned, *viz.*, to the master himself, to the headmaster and to the inspecting officer, while the labour involved in writing up the book is not great. The improvement in the condition of the schools is not yet nearly sufficient. * * * Until the average teacher can get away from the notion that the contents of the text-book are the one thing that he must stuff into his pupils' heads and that then his task is done, secondary education will not be fully efficient. There is far too much memorizing and far too little teaching."

On the whole, reports regarding methods of instruction do not indicate in any fulness the results of experiments and one is lead to the conclusion from a careful perusal of the provincial reports that conditions have not been favourable to extensive experimentation in educational research.

The domination of the examination.

172. In 1925, in Madras the system of moderating a candidate's marks by taking into account the individual mark gained by him for the last year at school in each subject was discontinued. The result is; " what will pay in the examination hall is the sole consideration alike of pupil and teacher; cramming is resorted to and notes and annotations are cared for more than the text-books themselves." Also " the staff, the parents and the public are not infrequently gauging the merits of a high school by the extent of its success at the public examination. Consequently the whole atmosphere of a high school is one of preparation for the University. There is very little scope for individual development."

The Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, writes:—" With every increase in the numbers of those taking Secondary Education, there is a fall in the standard of efficiency, owing chiefly to the fact that lower and lower strata are being tapped, and the majority of those who pass the School-leaving examination are altogether unfit for higher studies. It can be easily understood how the general weakness of the candidates helps to lower the standard of the examination, since examiners are only human and it is inevitable that in fixing their test they should to a certain extent be influenced, insensibly, by the general quality of the work. The usual percentage in England for a pass in such an examination is 50 per cent. as against 40 per cent. in English and 35 per cent. in each subject in Bombay; but only 4,121 were able to pass the test in the Bombay University in 1927 out of 9,708 that appeared in the School-leaving examination. Over and above this, it is calculated that there were some 1,650 pupils in the VII standard of the 303 schools recognized by the University who were not considered fit even to appear for the examination." The Director goes on to say that the problem of the unfitness of the students who join the colleges from the schools has been discussed repeatedly by Committees and Commissions, who have usually thrown the blame on the

schools and have demonstrated how the work in the schools is to be improved. But it cannot be emphasized too strongly that the dominating factor is the School-leaving examination, that being the test whether a boy or girl is fit to take higher studies. It must however, be admitted that the schools are greatly to blame; no doubt inefficient teaching is largely responsible but the fact would appear to be that many of the pupils promoted to the higher standards have not the mental capacity for such higher studies and should more properly have been weeded out of the secondary school at an early stage for a form of study or an occupation suited to their capacity. But experience has shown that the majority hanker after the School-leaving examination, passing in which gives the certificate for public service, while even to have studied in the VII standard carries with it a certain commercial value. The remedly lies with the schoolmaster to refuse promotion to all except those who are clearly fit for the higher classes. A variety of causes, however, tends to make them give promotions leniently, the chief being the prospect of losing fees, if promotions are not readily given, and the importunity of parents. Promotion is often decided on the results of an examination of a mechanical nature, the test for passing in each subject being 33 per cent. of the total, but even with this low requirement liberal concessions are as a rule allowed.

The author of the Quinquennial Review for Bengal writes:—"One great obstacle in the way of radical experiments is the dominance of the Matriculation Examination over the school course. Every pupil is anxious to pass this examination; every school is judged by its Matriculation results. And the standard of the examination was so low, the percentage of passes so high, that the test was no true indication of educational efficiency and schools were induced by success into an attitude of inert self-complacency. One records, therefore, with satisfaction any attempt to improve the examination. The Senate (of the University) has passed a draft Regulation to revise the character of the Matriculation which is now under the consideration of Government; and during the quinquennium the percentage of passes has steadily fallen (from 78·4 in 1921-22 to 52·7 in 1926-27) * * *. This will not only prevent the admission into colleges of a number of those unfitted for higher education, but probably also lead to an increase of efficiency in shools."

173. The above extracts indicate the views of the authorities in the three presidencies regarding the domination of the Matriculation or School-leaving examination over the educational systems of India. The faults are common throughout all India. They indicate *inter alia* the need of a body of headmasters of character sufficiently strong to withstand the pressure of parents and managements to promote pupils who are not fully fit for promotion and possibly also of the

need for the educational examinations in India not being accepted as the only avenue for Government and board service.

Matriculation or School Final Examination results.

174. In 1926-27 some 73,000 candidates appeared at the Matriculation and School Final Examinations, of whom nearly 35,000 were successful. It is interesting to note that of these successful scholars about 20,000 joined the first year class of arts colleges.

Matriculation and School Final or Leaving Certificate Examinations, 1926-27.

Province.	Number of candidates.	Number of passes.	Percentage of passes.
Madras	15,277	6,534*	42·8
Bombay	10,152	4,090	40·3
Bengal	14,821	7,922	53·4
United Provinces	8,685	4,739	54·6
Punjab	13,889	7,117	51·2
Burma	2,004	621	31·0
Bihar and Orissa	3,782	1,603	42·4
Central Provinces and Berar	1,553	556	35·8
Assam	1,083	618	57·1
North-West Frontier Province	759	474	62·5
Coorg	64	30	46·9
Delhi	776	467	60·2
Ajmer-Merwara	130	97	74·6
Baluchistan	97	71	73·2
Bangalore	84	49	58·3
Other Administered Areas	247	149	60·3
India	73,403	35,137	47·9

* There is no declaration of pass or failure in the case of the *Madras Secondary School Leaving Certificate Examination*

The figure 6,534 represents the number of *Secondary School Leaving Certificate* holders who have been declared to be eligible for admission to the Intermediate classes of the *Madras* and *Andhra* Universities (4,646 being accepted by the Madras University and 1,888 by the Andhra University).

Physical Training.

175. All over India increased attention has been paid to physical culture amongst students during the period under review, and the attitude of several Universities which have discussed the necessity for the introduction of compulsory physical training has naturally affected the problem in secondary schools.

In Madras there is now a part-time Adviser to Government on Physical Education and a whole-time Assistant Director of Physical Education. The Adviser to Government has given instruction at the School of Physical Training, Madras, which admits candidates—preferably University graduates—from all over India, he has supervised the public play-grounds in the city of Madras, he has conducted all physical training examinations and he has organised athletics generally. The Assistant Physical Director has toured extensively throughout the Presidency and held a large number of demonstrations.

In Bombay, the importance of physical training was recognised by the appointment in 1925 of a Director of Physical Education and at the close of the quinquennium a Committee was appointed by Government to consider the question of physical instruction in primary and secondary schools. Between 1925 and 1927 the Director of Physical Education conducted courses of physical training and mass drill in Bombay City and in a number of mufussil centres. He has also drawn up a course of physical exercises which has been introduced into the majority of secondary schools.

In Bengal, the problem of physical training has been discussed both by the University, by the Government and by the Legislative Council. The Committee appointed by the Senate of the University in 1924 recommended that some form of drill or games should form part of the curriculum of every school. The Legislative Council also carried a resolution in 1926 that physical culture should be compulsory for all boys between the ages of 12 and 18 in all schools affiliated to the University and in 1927 the Physical Education Committee of the University recommended that some sort of physical training for at least one year should be a necessary qualification for every matriculation candidate unless medically exempted. In actual practice drill is already compulsory in a large number of secondary schools in Bengal. During the quinquennium a temporary post of Physical Adviser to the Government in the Bengal Education Service was created and the Physical Adviser has, since 1924, been holding special training classes for teachers coming from all types of secondary schools.

In the United Provinces, Government emphasised the importance of physical training by awarding two foreign scholarships in the year 1927 to students for undergoing a special course of training as physical training instructors in Great Britain.

In Bihar and Orissa, for the first two years of the quinquennium, a part-time Director of Physical Education from the Young Men's Christian Association was in charge of physical instruction in the province, but his services were not available after the year 1925. Subsequently, two inspectors of physical education, who had been trained at the Physical Training School, Madras, were appointed. These inspectors have inspected all Government high schools and secondary training schools and have held special courses for drill masters coming from other schools.

In the Central Provinces, in the year 1925, a Physical and Military Training Committee was appointed by Government to enquire into the nature and extent of the physical training and drill to be given in schools and colleges and at the close of the quinquennium the appointment of a Superintendent of Physical Training was sanctioned. Many schools in the province have replaced the old-fashioned drill instructors by members of the school staffs who have been specially

trained at a short course of instruction at the Government Training College.

Boy Scouts.

176. The quinquennium has witnessed a remarkable advance in the Boy Scout movement and there are now over 100,000 Boy Scouts in British India. This figure, contains many scouts who are not attached to troops belonging to educational institutions and the reports from the provinces show that there is still a very large number of secondary schools in which no scout training of any kind is given. The following table shows the number of troops and the number of officers, scouts, rovers and cubs in each province:—

Statistics of Boy Scouts.

Province	Boy Scouts.§	
	No of Troops and Packs.	No. of Scouts and Cubs (all ranks).
Madras	450	10,197
Bombay	867	21,946
Bengal	262	6,458
United Provinces‡	253	6,876
Punjab*	1,029	30,055
Burma	156	4,362
Bihar and Orissa	366	9,006
Central Provinces and Berar	358	7,875
Assam	97	2,392
N.-W Frontier Province	43	1,468
Coorg	..	..
Delhi	21	397
Ajmer-Merwara	29	601
Baluchistan	15	400
Bangalore	32	696
Other Administered Areas	42	1,110
Total	4,026	103,839

* Includes figures for certain Indian States.
‡ Excluding *Seva Samiti* Scouts (560 Troops and 15,700 scouts)
§ Compiled from the Boy Scout census for 1927 which was taken after the close of the quinquennium.

The increase in numbers has been phenomenal as in 1922 there were only about 15,000 scouts in the whole of India. It is clear from the figures given in the above table that scouting has come to be recognised as a valuable asset in the formation of sound citizenship among scholars. The appeal of social service is reported to have met with great success so far as it affected elder boys. Scouts have rendered valuable assistance to the public especially at the time of big *melas* (fairs) such as the Kumbh Mela at Hardwar, Allahabad, and at other places and functions. It may also be mentioned that 14 medals for gallantry, *i.e.*, for saving life from drowning or burning, were presented to scouts in 1927, and with the exception of one or two all the scouts belonged to their respective school troops.

177. A special feature of the development of scouting in Madras has been the starting of Sea Scout troops, of criminal tribe troops, of troops in reformatory schools and of a troop in the Leper Asylum, Chingleput. In Bombay, as the result of grants made by Government, of the generous subscriptions to the Boy Scouts' Associations by the public and of the training of ten officers in England, the scout movement has prospered remarkably, the number of scouts enrolled during the quinquennium increasing by about 20,000. In Bengal, the movement has spread but not rapidly and the total number of scouts represents only a minute proportion of the secondary school going population. In the United Provinces the Boy Scout movement, though still divided under the dual control of the Baden Powell Boy Scouts' Association and the *Seva Samiti* Boy Scouts' Association, has made very rapid progress. In 1922 there were only 1,450 Baden Powell Scouts and 2,500 *Seva Samiti* Scouts. By the year 1926-27 the total number of scouts in both Associations numbered approximately 23,000. Both associations have held regular training camps. In Burma difficulties have been experienced in providing the requisite number of Scout Masters. But in spite of this the number of scouts has increased from just over 1,000 in 1924 to nearly 4,500. In Bihar & Orissa, although the Provincial Scout Association was only formed in 1921 and began with 6 troops and only 221 scouts, there are now 366 troops with approximately 9,000 scouts.

178. The attempts which have been made to improve the physical culture of students in secondary schools have been considerably assisted by the steps which have been taken during the quinquennium to make the medical inspection of pupils general and effective. In Madras the scheme for financing medical inspection in aided and public schools which was adopted in the previous quiquennium was held in abeyance between 1922 and 1925. But at the beginning of the year 1925 the scheme was revived and medical inspection of all boys in secondary schools is now compulsory. No comprehensive system of medical inspection has as yet been introduced in Bengal and the medical inspection recently undertaken by the Calcutta University has revealed the great need for a comprehensive system. In the United Provinces a new scheme for medical inspection was introduced in 10 large centres in the year 1926, one medical officer being appointed to be in charge of each centre. The medical officers are responsible for the inspection of training colleges, normal schools, intermediate colleges and recognised anglo-vernacular secondary schools in their centres and for the examination of the pupils in these institutions. Medical records of all boys are maintained and, when necessary, arrangements are made for giving treatment subsequent to inspection. It is hoped that this new scheme when extended will be a great improvement on the old system of school inspection by sub-

Medical Inspection.

assistant surgeons. In the Punjab, the system of medical inspection has been much improved by the introduction of arrangements for the treatment of pupils subsequent to medical inspection while the provision of dispensaries in a large number of schools, particularly in rural areas, has increased the facilities for local treatment. In Burma a big step forward was taken in the year 1922 when, under a scheme drawn up by the Director of Public Health, every English and Anglo-vernacular school was forced to employ a qualified medical officer to inspect all pupils on admission and to maintain a medical record for each pupil. A yearly report is submitted by each medical officer to the Director of Public Instruction and to the Director of Public Health. The total cost of medical inspection in Government schools and half the cost in the case of aided schools is borne by Government. Actually, though medical inspection has been made compulsory, only 122 out of 285 schools on the list in the year 1925-26 were in charge of medical officers. At the close of the quinquennium a proposal was under consideration to appoint a special Assistant Director of Public Health to be in charge of the health of pupils in secondary schools. In Bihar & Orissa the Director of Public Instruction reports that the system of medical inspection of schools introduced in the year 1920-21 did not prove very successful mainly owing to the constant transfers of the medical officers appointed to be in charge of high schools and training schools in each division. In the year 1926, however, five posts of School Medical Officers were made permanent and the posts of five additional Assistant School Medical Officers were created. It is now anticipated that the medical inspection will be more thorough and effective than formerly.

Unemployment.

179. While the large increase in the number of pupils reading in high schools is to be viewed with satisfaction from the point of view of the spread of higher education, several provinces are finding that the rapidly increasing output of scholars, at the end of the high school stage, has not coincided with a proportionate increase in the avenues of suitable employment. Some provinces have set on foot special enquiries into the unemployment existing amongst the middle classes and the results have revealed very real distress amongst a large number of students who have completed a collegiate or high school education. Doubt is in consequence being expressed whether the large increases in the literary educated students—for most high school students take a literary rather than a scientific, technical or commercial course—is as satisfactory for the province as the statistics of educational progress would appear to suggest.

180. In Madras, the Director of Public Instruction states that " it appears necessary to emphasise the fact that in any country there is a limit to the number of pupils that can reasonably be expected to be reading in secondary schools.

In England, for example, where the openings for boys who have received a good secondary education are much larger than the corresponding openings in this Presidency, the proportion of secondary pupils to the total population is not very much higher than the similar figure in Madras. This would appear to indicate that we are approaching a stage in this Presidency when a further expansion of the present type of secondary education would not adequately meet the needs of the country".

181. In Bengal the author of the quinquennial review has discussed in detail the various problems which lie ahead of the development of secondary education and he states that " there is the problem of waste, or misdirected effort, of a training that fits a boy for college and almost unfits him for everything else, that takes boys away from the normal and natural occupations of the country and leaves them hopeless and helpless at the end. The first question that the educationalist must ask is 'what should and does it all lead to?' and this is the question which, in Bengal, is constantly shirked or to which, at any rate, no answer has yet been found. The existing system refuses to recognise that it has had its day and must cease to be, at any rate, as a general system for the whole province; there must be changes or alternatives."

182. In the Punjab, the Director of Public Instruction writing of the aims of the educational system states that " in its very inception, it was moulded with a special object of preparing boys for external examinations, the passing of which is, for many, only a snare and a delusion, and with the object of training boys for clerical vocations which are now proclaimed to be overstocked and which offer insufficient avenues for employment to the large throngs of applicants. It is, therefore, the bent and aim of schools which require a revision; and not the institution of separate vocational schools for young boys, whose real need is a suitable general education."

183. In the mass of recommendations which have appeared in the numerous reports on unemployment recently published in British India and in the Indian States, it is difficult to find any specific recommendations which offer adequate solutions for the problem. But two needs appear to stand out clearly. One is the necessity, which exists outside the educational field, of stimulating the commerce and industries of the country so as to increase the avenues of employment and the other is the desirability of so training public opinion that a much larger number of boys emerging from education at various stages will be diverted into occupations other than clerical and professional, such as agriculture, trade and industry.

CHAPTER VI.

PRIMARY AND ADULT EDUCATION.

(a) *Primary Education (Boys).*

Schools and Scholars.

Year.	Primary Schools for Boys.	Pupils in Primary Schools for Boys.	Boys in Primary Schools for Boys.	Boys in Primary Schools for Girls.	Total No. of Boys in all Primary Schools.
1921-22 . .	1,37,437	5,543,437	5,081,557	30,344	5,111,901
1926-27 . .	1,62,666	7,290,546	6,676,347	31,132	6,707,479
Increase .	25,229	1,747,109	1,594,790	788	1,595,578

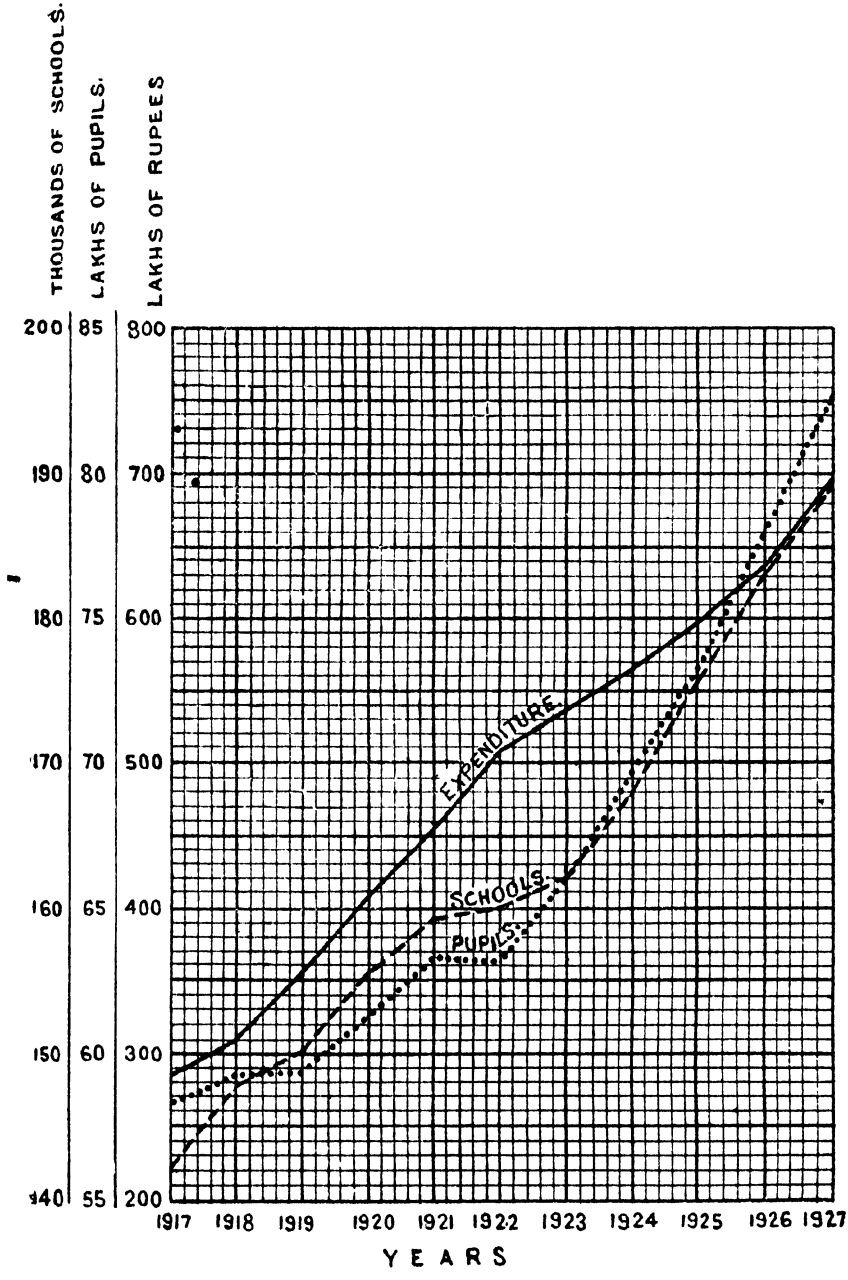
Statistics.

184. The figures in the above table thow that there has been, during the quinquennium under review, a most remarkable increase in the enrolment in primary schools for boys. The total number of boys under instruction in all recognised primary schools increased by over a million and a half or by 31·2 per cent. The total number of pupils (both boys and girls) in boys' primary schools increased from five and a half millions to more than seven and a quarter millions, that is by practically one million and three-quarters, or by 31·5 per cent. The corresponding increase in the previous quinquennium was only 355,000, or an increase of 6·8 per cent. The figures given in the above table are sufficient in themselves to prove that there has been very great progress, but they do not, in reality, indicate the full extent of the progress, because a survey of the extent to which primary education has spread must necessarily include the figures for the number of boys reading in the primary classes of secondary schools. More than six lakhs of girls, that is, more than eight per cent. of the total enrolment, are reading in primary schools for boys; in addition over 31,000 boys are reading in primary schools for girls, indicating the extent of co-education in Indian primary schools. In 1926-27 the number of pupils reading in the first five standards of both primary and secondary schools for boys numbered nearly 8,200,000. This total includes a large number of girls reading in boys' schools. But it indicates sufficiently well that an even greater expansion of primary education for boys has taken place than the figures in the table indicate.

185. The number of primary schools for boys has increased by over 25,000 as against an increase of a little over 13,000 in the previous quinquennium. Of this increase nearly 14,000 are represented by aided schools and nearly 11,000 my local

FIG. 7.

PRIMARY EDUCATION.



board schools. By far the largest increase in the number of schools occurred in Madras, nearly 13,000 additional schools being opened, of which approximately 7,000 were aided schools and 5,000 local board schools. The schools in Bihar and Orissa increased by 5,000 of which 4,000 were aided schools and the remainder local board schools. In the United Provinces there was an increase of over 3,000 schools, 1,800 being aided and 1,500 local board schools. In the Punjab the increase was under 300. This low figure, however, is accounted for by the fact, which has been mentioned elsewhere, that large numbers of primary schools have been converted into middle vernacular schools. In Burma, the number of schools decreased by nearly 500 and in the North-West Frontier Province there was also a small decrease in the number of schools. The decrease in Burma is reported to be due to the policy of district boards and municipalities in the direction of concentration and economy while that in the North-West Frontier Province was due to the adoption by the Government of India at the beginning of the quinquennium of the policy of retrenchment recommended by the Inchcape Committee. In Bengal the schools increased by 2,500 and in Bombay by 1,100. In the former province the increase mainly consisted of aided schools and in the latter province of local board schools.

186. Although the percentage of increase in the number of schools in British India was nearly double the corresponding increase in the previous quinquennium, the percentages of increase in the provinces were all with the exception of Madras, Bihar and Orissa and Assam, lower than the corresponding percentages in the previous quinquennium. This fact, however, does not indicate any lessening in the rate of progress since the percentage of increase in the number of pupils reading in boys' primary schools has increased in every province. Efforts appear to have been made during the period under review to obtain a greater measure of concentration and to reduce the number of small and uneconomic schools—a matter of considerable satisfaction. The average number of pupils in a primary school for boys has increased in all provinces and it is significant that in the Punjab, which had the lowest percentage of increase in the number of schools, the average number of pupils per school increased from 48 to 67. In Burma where there was an actual decrease in the number of schools the average number on the rolls increased from 39 to 53, while in Madras and Bihar and Orissa, which showed the largest increases in the number of schools the average increased from only 41 to 43 in Madras and from 28 to 32 in Bihar and Orissa.

187. The causes for this accelerated expansion are not far to seek. Economic conditions have improved, the finances of the provinces have expanded, post-war difficulties have largely disappeared, public interest has been directed towards primary and mass education, programmes of educational expansion have been undertaken both under and outside of the Elemen-

tary Education Acts in the various provinces, a large number of new schools have been opened, unrecognised schools have been recognised, and the number of areas in which compulsion has been introduced has increased.

Schemes for the expansion of primary education. *Madras.*

188. In May 1923, the Government of Madras convened a conference to discuss the expansion and improvement of primary education. The more important recommendations of this conference were as follows:—

(1) With a view to the gradual expansion of elementary education in rural areas, each village with a population of 500 inhabitants or more shall be provided with a school.

(2) Indigenous schools should be developed and made eligible for aid, and the new schools to be started should ordinarily be aided schools, but, when it is not possible to start an aided school in a village, local bodies shall take steps to start school of their own in such places.

In December of the same year, an educational survey of all the taluks was recommended. Maps and consolidated registers of statistics were accordingly prepared for each taluk and the survey records were completed and published in 1925. The survey showed that there were 4,037 school-less centres or groups of centres with a population of 500 or more unprovided with schools and during the quinquennium Government formulated a definite programme for the gradual provision of schools in all the school-less centres referred to above. As a result of the action taken by Government 4,385 new schools were provided in areas hitherto not served by schools, 2,874 of these being under board management, 1,211 aided and 300 under panchayat management, Government having subsidized and aided their opening. The following table shows the improvement effected—

Population of Villages.	Percentage of Villages unprovided with schools to Total No. of Villages.	
	1921-22.	1926-27.
	Per cent.	Per cent.
Less than 200	91	83
200—500	85	77
500—1,000	38	20
1,000—2,000	17	7

In 1927 the number of villages with a population of over 2,000 which were unprovided with schools was 51 as against 195 in 1922.

189. In Bengal, during the quinquennium, two schemes for the extension of primary education were in operation, one new and the other taken over from the previous quinquennium. The new one was proposed by Mr. Biss in a report based on special enquiry and approved by Government; the old one was the Panchayati Union scheme. *Bengal.*

190. The plan of the Panchayati Union scheme is simple; each union is to be provided with a cheap school, the expenses being wholly borne by Government, the sum allotted for a building being Rs. 1,000. In spite of numerous difficulties and obstacles, *viz.*, low pay of teachers, non-adaptability to the full five year course of the new curriculum, unpopularity of the control of district boards to which some schools are transferred and inability to choose a central site for a school on account of inadequate funds, the scheme has made appreciable progress. Funds to the extent of Rs. 5 lakhs were allotted for the construction of 467 boys' schools and 51 girls' schools; the total number of schools of this type being 3,584, rather unequally distributed throughout the Presidency. The general conclusion which can be drawn with regard to the scheme is that " The Panchayati Union school scheme as a contribution towards the solution of the problem of the spread of literacy has solid merits, but it also possesses defects, most of them fortunately remediable with increased funds."

191. The aim of Mr. Biss's scheme is the creation of a network of primary schools all over Bengal, the unit school area being roughly a circle with a half-mile radius. Each municipality or union board area is eventually to have one central school and as many ancillary schools as are needed. The schools are to be controlled by these local bodies and the cost is to be shared equally by Government and the local authority, the latter having the option of levying an education cess under the Bengal Primary Education Act of 1919. But progress under the scheme has been slow, the chief hindrance being the reluctance of local bodies to meet their share of the cost or to levy a cess; there is " apathy if not antipathy "; in many districts union boards have not yet come into existence or begun to function; in some places the Biss schools have been abandoned. Some progress has, however, been made; Government gives nearly a lakh of rupees to further the scheme; sixty municipalities and union boards have taken it up and some union boards have even levied a cess. The total number of schools sanctioned under the scheme was 223 during the quinquennium.

192. Yet another scheme was drawn up by the Bengal Government in 1926, but it has not yet been adopted anywhere. The scheme is to set up a District School Board in each district " essentially a non-official body with an official element " which would first survey the educational needs of the district and prepare a scheme for providing the necessary schools and teachers; then power is to be given to the Board to impose

and collect a special cess of about 5 pice in the rupee on the annual value of lands and net profits of mines, and the non-agricultural classes would also be assessed. The Board would dispose of the proceeds as well as the sums spent at present by Government or other public bodies on primary education. When effect has been given to the scheme compulsion would be introduced and enforced.

United Provinces.

193. In order to enable the district boards to utilize available funds to the full extent for the expansion of primary education, a new three years' contract scheme was introduced in the United Provinces with effect from 1924-25 replacing all old schemes. Some of the main features of the new scheme are as follows:—

(1) Government prescribes for each board the minimum amount which it is bound to provide in its budget under each of the following five heads, namely, middle vernacular schools, ordinary primary schools (including training classes), Islamia schools and maktabs, education of depressed classes and education of females.

(2) Government gives a lump general grant towards the total expenditure by the boards under these five heads.

(3) Each board has to provide in its budget an amount under each head not less than the minimum prescribed for each head. If any savings accrue under any head, these are to be credited to an education fund, which can be used only for new buildings, equipment and other non-recurring items of expenditure under the head in which there has been saving.

(4) The minimum must be strictly adhered to under all circumstances.

The contract system worked satisfactorily in practice, though some boards were apt to spend lavishly on certain heads favoured by the majority of their members. During the three years of the original contract the Government contribution was Rs. 65 lakhs towards a total minimum expenditure by boards of Rs. 95 lakhs. It has been estimated that the corresponding figures for 1927-28 will be about Rs. 68 lakhs and Rs. 102 lakhs respectively.

Burma.

194. During the present quinquennium, the salaries of vernacular teachers in Burma were raised, and in order to meet the increased liabilities caused by such an increase, the boards were forced to adopt a policy of concentration and economy and to close inefficient schools. The Government recognizing the needs of poorer districts have sanctioned a scheme, whereby 1,250 new schools are being opened gradually at the rate of 250 a year with a grant of Rs. 800 for each new school. The scheme is however confronted with the difficulty that there is little demand from the public for schools in

these districts and even where there is a demand qualified teachers are not available.

195. The year 1923-24 having been financially a good year for Bihar and Orissa, grants were liberally disbursed to district boards for the purposes of primary education, on the basis of rich and poor boards: this necessitated a revision of programmes. In August 1925 a representative conference was convened to consider and examine programmes submitted and also to discuss various questions connected with primary education. These programmes were designed to furnish estimates of the cost of providing elementary education for *eighty per cent.* of the boys of such ages as would normally attend the infant and lower classes, as well as of providing facilities to enable a certain proportion of them to proceed to the upper primary and middle vernacular stages. Separate orders were passed on each individual programme but the general purport is shown in the following extracts: — *Bihar and Orissa.*

(1) Each district board should maintain up-to-date maps showing all information of educational interest.

(2) The Government have accepted a ratio of 20 boys to one teacher in sparsely populated districts and 25 boys to one teacher in thickly populated districts.

(3) They have also accepted as a cardinal feature of their policy the provision of two teachers in every lower primary school

(4) Where sufficient numbers offer themselves denominational schools should be opened.

(5) Special schools should be opened for depressed classes wherever possible, and their progress ought to be reported every three years.

(6) Government cannot agree to any further extension of free education, except where boards are prepared to meet the cost from their own resources.

(7) Time is not yet ripe for a universal scheme of compulsion in rural areas: but Government are prepared to consider individual cases for application of compulsion in limited rural areas.

196. A scheme of expansion of vernacular education was called for during the quinquennium from the local bodies in Assam. The proposals received from the various boards came to Rs. 3,43,852 recurring and Rs. 5,05,003 non-recurring. *Assam.*

197. A five year programme for the expansion of education in territories directly administered by the Government of India was sanctioned towards the close of the quinquennium. The total expenditure involved, during the next quinquennium, will be— *Other areas.*

(*a*) Rs. 29,71,981 non-recurring (Rs. 2,12, 600 non-voted, Rs. 27,59,381 voted) of which Rs. 7,46,547 voted and Rs. 46,700 non-voted will fall in 1927-28, and

(*b*) Rs. 4,01,309 recurring (Rs. 29,067 non-voted and Rs. 3,72,242 voted) in 1927-28 rising to Rs. 10,60,091 recurring (Rs. 71,723 non-voted and Rs. 9,88,368 voted) in 1931-32.

It includes provision for the expansion and improvement of elementary education in the North-West Frontier Province, Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara, Baluchistan and other administered areas under the control of the central Government.

Total provision required.

198. In spite of the very satisfactory increase in the number of pupils reading in primary schools, the figures for the number of pupils of school-going age still to be provided for are distressingly large, and the problem of mass education is complicated by the necessity of providing schools for thousands of isolated villages which cannot, owing to the low density of the population, be satisfactorily served by central or common schools. The total approximate number of boys of school-going age in British India is 17,790,000 (14 per cent. of the total male population)* while the total number of male scholars in educational institutions of all kinds in 1926-27 was approximately 8,778,000, the percentage of male scholars to the total number of males of school-going age thus being only 49·4. Low as this percentage is in relation to the total number of scholars still to be provided for, it represents a great improvement when compared with the figures for the previous quinquenniums. In 1922 the percentage was 36·0 and in 1917 34·6. The percentage of the number of pupils in boys' primary schools to the total male population has improved from 4·2 in 1917 to 4·4 in 1922 and 5·7 in 1927. There is at present, on the average, one primary school for every 109 boys of school-going age, but, owing to the larger provision of schools in urban areas than in rural areas and owing to the distribution of the population there is, on the average, only one boys' school for every 3·1 towns or villages. This figure, however, is a great improvement on the figure for 15 years ago which was one school for every 5·3 towns or villages. There are approximately 500,000 towns and villages in British India, while there are at present only 162,666 primary schools for boys. Even assuming that a large number of small villages can be served by a single school, the additional number of schools required to make education available for the whole of the school-going male population runs into hundreds of thousands. The provinces, however, vary very largely in the extent of the provision which has to be made for boys of school-going age. The percentage of the total number of male scholars under instruction of any kind in recognised institutions to the total number of males of school-going age is as low as 29·3 in Burma, 34·9 in the United Provinces, 35·9 in the Central Provinces, 40·5 in Bihar and Orissa, and 42·5 in Assam and as high as 55·4 in Bengal, 63·0 in the Punjab, 63·1 in Bombay and 65·5 in Madras.

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* *Vide* section (*b*) of this chapter.

199. The extraordinarily low figure for Burma is reflected in the percentage of male scholars to the total population in Burma which is only 4·1 and the lowest of any province in India. It is remarkable that while the percentage of female scholars in Burma to the total population is the highest in India, the education of boys in Burma should be so backward. In his report for 1925-26 the Director of Public Instruction for Burma states "It does not appear that those provinces in which compulsory elementary education Acts were passed prospered more than elsewhere and probably we are fortunate to have escaped the Act." But this view is hardly supported by actual statistics. A comparison of the percentage of male scholars to total male population in Burma and in the provinces which have been foremost in the field of compulsory primary education—namely, Madras, Bombay, the United Provinces and the Punjab—is made in the sub-joined table:— Exceptional position of Burma.

Percentages of Male Scholars to total Male Population.

	In Recognised Institutions.		In all Institutions	
	1921-22.	1926-27.	1921-22	1926-27
Burma . . .	3·4	4 1	6 5	7·0
Madras	6 6	9 2	7·0	9·5
Bombay . . .	7·1	8 9	7·3	9 1
United Provinces . . .	3·7	4·9	4·0	5 1
Punjab . .	4·3	8 8	4 8	9·3

It will be observed from these figures that while the percentages for Burma have increased during the last quinquennium by only 0·7 in the case of recognised institutions and 0·5 in the case of all institutions, the corresponding increases have been respectively 2·6 and 2·5 for Madras, 1·8 and 1·5 for Bombay, 1·2 and 1·1 for the United Provinces, and 4·5 and 4·5 in the Punjab. It would appear that the adoption in Burma of a feature which is common to the policies adopted in different degrees in Madras, Bombay, the United Provinces and the Punjab, namely, the application of compulsion and the acceptance of a programme of expansion in the number and quality of primary schools, would bring primary education among boys in that province more up to the level it has attained elsewhere. The problem of primary education in Burma bristles, however, with difficulties owing to the peculiar conditions prevailing in that province, especially to the existence of a large number of monastic schools, to the recognition of which lay Burmese opinion as indicated by the policy of Local Education Authorities is distinctly opposed, fearing that recognition would be

considered to be an insidious attack on religion. The number of recognised monastic schools is rapidly decreasing. In 1921-22, their number stood at 1,890 with 80,900 scholars; by 1926-27, it declined to 1,124 with 72,794 pupils. There are, however, over 18,000 private monastic schools with nearly 200,000 pupils. And no scheme of compulsory education or of expansion of facilities on a non-compulsory basis for the province can afford to ignore the existing system of monastic education which, in spite of its inefficiency, enjoys the respect and confidence of the people.

Attendance.

200. The total figures showing the number of primary schools and the number of scholars enrolled do not give, however, an accurate picture of the extent of primary education. The irregular attendance of pupils attending schools, their great concentration in the lowest classes and the long time that large numbers of pupils remain in a class without becoming fit for promotion have considerably limited the value of the educational provision made and render an interpretation of the statistics of little value without a knowledge of the local conditions prevailing in different parts of the country. The percentage of average attendance to the total of scholars enrolled in boys' primary schools in British India is 77·8—the percentage being as low as 66·0 in Assam and 70·1 in the Central Provinces. In spite of the introduction of compulsion in a limited number of areas, of the improvement in the staffing of schools and of better supervision, attendance at school does not appear to have improved very much, since the percentage of average attendance to total enrolment was 77·8 in 1917 and 76·1 in 1922.

Distribution of pupils by ages.

201. It may be pointed out here that a considerable number of the pupils reading in primary schools are over the normal age for primary education and are not ordinarily expected to be undergoing instruction in such schools. This is illustrated by the figures given in the following table, which is compiled from General Educational Table IX in Volume II, which shows the enrolment of pupils according to ages in the first four classes of the primary schools or of the primary departments of middle or secondary schools:—

Ages of pupils.	Number of pupils reading in				Total number of pupils in
	Class I	Class II.	Class III	Class IV.	Classes I—IV.
Under 10 . .	4,672,846	1,144,584	548.005	201 498	6,566,933
10—20 . .	590,416	482,240	576,242	562,119	2,211,017
Over 20 . .	16,737	11,154	6,544	3,967	38,402
Total .	5,279,999	1,637,978	1,130,791	767,584	8,816,352

It will be observed that, of the 8·8 million pupils reading in the first four classes, 2·2 millions or one-fourth of the total are of the ages of 10-20 years; some are even over 20 years of age. The number of pupils under ten years of age, for whom the first four primary classes are really meant, is only 6·6 millions. In Class I alone, which is the lowest rung of the educational ladder, there are about 0·6 million pupils whose ages range between 10-20 years and over out of a total of 5·3 millions. A few of these older youths attend special classes for grown-ups but the majority attend the ordinary schools. The presence of so many older boys in the most elementary classes of schools, boys who normally should have been reading in middle or secondary school classes or who should have left school, is in itself an important cause of the retardation of the progress of primary education. It is obvious that where boys of 20 years of age and over are to be found reading in the lowest primary classes alongside of boys of 6 or 7 years of age the teacher has a very difficult task and the condition of primary classes must be far from satisfactory. For the purposes of primary education, the school-going age is roughly taken to be from 6 to 11 years [*vide* section (*b*) of this chapter]. A perusal of the detailed figures given in General Table IX shows that the median age for Class I (which in some provinces is divided into two sections A. & B.) is 6-8 years; for Class II, 8-9 years; for Class III, 9-10 years and for Class IV, 10-11 years. One excuse for the presence of over-age pupils in these classes is the inadequacy of the existing facilities for adult education and, so long as literacy is not wide-spread and special schools and classes for adults are rare, so long will there be a large proportion of adult pupils reading in the elementary classes of ordinary schools.

Duration of school life; illiteracy; wastage and stagnation.

202. In writing the review on education in India for the year 1923-24, I discussed briefly the duration of school life and the wastage in educational effort that takes place in India. I propose here to treat the same subject from the statistics of the quinquennium under review and of the educational policies which have been adopted in India. In any country the Government of which is based or is proposed to be based as soon as possible on a democratic constitution the first essential is to break down the illiteracy of the masses. An illiterate democracy is a danger not only to itself but to the world, the higher the degree of literacy that is attained by the people the greater is the possibility of government by the people being conducted on foundations of right, justice and truth. The essential force therefore of educational effort in India should be directed towards the breaking down of the illiteracy of the masses.

203. It is generally accepted that a child can never become permanently literate unless he reads at least up to a standard which is obtained by means of instruction given for four consecutive years. This corresponds to a pupil reading for four years, when one year is spent in each of the four primary stand-

ards. It is of course possible for a pupil to reach this standard in a period less than four years and it is also of frequent occurrence for a child to require more than four years to reach it. But taking it all in all we may consider that four consecutive years of instruction wherein the pupil reads for one year in each of the four primary classes is essential before a pupil attains a stage of instruction which may enable him to be termed *quasi*-permanently, if not permanently, literate. This is the minimum period required for the average boy. Put in another form no boy can become permanently literate unless he qualifies for promotion from the fourth standard to a higher standard. One means therefore of testing the achievement of education in India in the direction of breaking down illiteracy is to see how many pupils have spent a year in the fourth standard of a school. All of these boys would not in the ordinary course of events be considered fit for promotion but in any sound system of instruction we may take it that not more than five per cent. of them would be kept back as requiring to repeat the course of the fourth standard for another year. The following table assists us:—

Year.	Pupils in Class IV in schools for boys.
1922-23	593,301
1923-24	619,760
1924-25	615,823
1925-26	655,101
1926-27	709,867
	3,193,852

The above figures show that in 1922-23 about 5·9 lakhs of pupils completed the fourth year primary course. Assuming that about five per cent. of these were unfit for promotion, and hence cannot be considered to have become permanently literate, it is clear that by the end of the year 1922-23 some 5·6 lakhs of scholars had been added to the roll of existing permanent literates; the corresponding figures for the succeeding years of the quinquennium are 5·9 lakhs for 1923-24, 5·9 lakhs for 1924-25, 6·2 lakhs for 1925-26, and 6·7 lakhs for the year 1926-27. In other words a total of about 30 lakhs of boys and girls were rendered literate during the quinquennium.

204. It is interesting to discover what progress was made during the period 1911-1921. The census for 1911 shows the number of literates for that year as about 154 lakhs, while the similar figure for 1921 is 187 lakhs; thus the number of literates increased by about 33 lakhs in ten years, or at an average rate of 3·3 lakhs per year. To check this figure, let us take the middle year of the decade under consideration, namely 1916-17; it is found that some 4·1 lakhs of pupils completed their 4th year primary course; allowing a margin of 0·2 lakhs for failure to complete the course with such satisfaction as to render them literate, it is clear that about 3·9 lakhs may be

considered to have become permanently literate, a figure which agrees sufficiently accurately with the figure 3·3 lakhs mentioned above to allow us to presume that literacy is attained only after about four years' effective schooling.

205. The addition of 30 lakhs of literates during the quinquennium has been no small achievement; but the question that is on the tip of one's tongue is whether the result is commensurate with the energy put forth and with the money spent. Let us take some figures; in 1926-27 the total expenditure on primary schools for boys was about Rs. 592 lakhs (excluding primary departments of middle vernacular schools, middle English schools and high schools) of which the Government share came to Rs. 304 lakhs. The number of scholars rendered literate was about 6·7 lakhs; this means that the cost of every scholar rendered literate was Rs. 90, of which Government bore about Rs. 46. If the cost of literacy were to remain at Rs. 90 per scholar, then taking the male and female population that should become annually literate at 3·4 and 3·1 millions respectively, (and these figures represent approximately the number of children of the age of ten at which age a child may be presumed to complete four years' primary education) it would require about Rs. 30 crores and Rs. 28 crores respectively to achieve permanent literacy for all British India, that is, Rs. 58 crores in all annually, a not inconsiderable sum.

206. We may, however, look at the question of primary education not only from the standpoint of the breaking down of illiteracy but from the point of view that it is all to the advantage of the State for a child to receive some education, no matter how little that education is, that it is better for him to have read for four years than for three years, for three years than for two years, for two years than for one year, and for one year than not at all. Some thing may be carried away by the boy from the school if he leaves before reaching the fourth class and that some thing will diminish the time which he may have to spend in a night school or in a continuation school, if he sets out to achieve literacy after the end of his day school career. We have no figures of the number of pupils promoted from year to year, or of the number of pupils who are transferred from one school to another, or of the number of pupils who remain in the same class for more than a year. We do not, however, need these figures if we analyse our statistics in bulk and if we recognise that in the ordinary course of events a boy reading in the first class in one year should be reading in the second class in the following year, in the third class in the year after that, and in the fourth class in the year after that, again, and so on, that is to say, if we recognise that a boy should ordinarily receive promotion to the next higher class at the end of each year. We know that little is done in breaking down the widespread illiteracy of the country if a boy remains for two, three or four consecutive years in one and the same class. We are now able to expound a method of calculating the educational efficiency of any policy which may have been

adopted. To do so we shall have to define the effective duration of school life. The effective duration of a school period is that portion of the period during which the pupil receives instruction sufficient to enable him to secure promotion to a higher class at the end of that period of instruction. The effective duration of school life will therefore be the total period which a boy spends in school which enables him to become fit for promotion at the end of each individual period of instruction. Let us take an example. A boy may spend three consecutive years in class II before he becomes fit for promotion to class III. His actual duration of school life is three years; his effective duration is, however, only one year. If a boy remains at school for four years spending his whole time in the same class, the actual duration of school life is four years but the effective duration is one year, while if he spends one year only in each of the four classes the effective duration of his school life is four years. One measure of the educational efficiency of a policy, namely, that viewed from the standpoint of breaking down illiteracy, is as indicated in a former paragraph nothing more or less than the measure of the number of pupils who successfully complete the fourth primary class. Another measure of the educational efficiency of a policy is however obtained by a comparison of the number of pupils in any class in any year with the number of pupils in the next lower class in the immediately preceding year. We are concerned in this method not with the actual number of years pupils spend at school but with the number of years that have been spent fruitfully or effectively so as to enable promotions to be earned. We are considering in other words the effective duration of school life—and a comparison of the number of pupils in one year with the number of pupils in the next year in the next higher class deals with the effective duration of school life upon which we decide whether a policy is educationally efficient or inefficient. This is treated under wastage in the next paragraph. The stagnation which occurs, on which we have no reliable figures in India but upon which all Directors of Public Instruction remark, is an evil which is inherent in the present educational policies in this country. The Director of Public Instruction, Bihar and Orissa, however, gives some figures in his report for the year 1925-26, which throw some light on this subject; he remarks that, in one division of the province in 1925-26, of the total number of pupils reading in Class I, 9 per cent. were promoted after having read for one year, 11 per cent. were promoted after having read for more than one year, and 8 per cent. were promoted after having read for more than two years, 72 per cent. of the class not being promoted at all. These figures may not be typical, but they make not only the lay man but also the experienced educationist stand aghast at the nature of the conditions prevailing in some schools in India and of the consequent waste of educational effort.

207. A measure of the wastage—consisting chiefly of non-promoted pupils and of pupils who leave school—the immense

wastage I might say—in educational effort in this country is obtained by comparing the number of pupils reading in any standard with the number of pupils reading in the immediately junior standard in the previous year. A perusal of the following table is instructive.

	1922-23.	1923-24.	1924-25.	1925-26	1926-27.
Number of Pupils in Primary Schools for Boys:—					
In Class I . . .	3,453,046	3,685,792	4,045,684	4,322,070	4,573,560
,, Class II .	1,184,318	1,218 758	1,252,507	1,379 357	1 471.337
,, Class III . . .	833,303	874,760	897,512	972 168	1,034,146
,, Class IV . . .	593,301	619,760	615,823	655,101	709,867
,, Class V . . .	298,403	333,702	538,205	364 835	393,465

	1923-24.	1924-25.	1925-26	1926-27.
Wastage in the number of pupils.—				
Between Classes I and II .	2,244 288	2,433,285	2,666,327	2,850,733
,, ,, II and III .	309,558	321,246	280,339	345,211
,, ,, III and IV	213,543	258,937	242,411	262,301
,, ,, IV and V	259,599	281,555	250,988	261,636

Firstly, they show the stages of educational progress in this country. Of the 34·5 lakhs of scholars, who completed their first year primary course in 1922-23 (and we do not know how many joined at the beginning of the year and left off during the course of the year) only about 12·2 lakhs spent another year at school in a higher class; of these only about 9·0 lakhs spent still another year at school in Class III in 1924-25; of these, 6·6 lakhs or about one-fifth of those reading in 1922-23 completed their fourth year primary course, and finally in 1926-27, 3·9 lakhs or one-eighth of the enrolment at the beginning of the course in 1922-23 studied for one complete year in Class V.

Secondly, the figures give us an idea of the wastage and stagnation which occur from class to class. For example, the enrolment in Class I in 1923-24 was 3,685,792; the number of pupils in Class II in 1924-25 was 1,252,507; therefore the wastage between the first two rungs of the educational ladder in 1924-25 was 2,433,285 (the difference between the above numbers) or about 60 per cent., and similar wastage will be observed for all the other years of the quinquennium; Class II

never represents more than 40 per cent. of Class I. Similarly the wastage between Class II and III is about 25 per cent., and hence Class III represents only 75 per cent. of Class II. Similarly Class IV represents only 75 per cent. of Class III. The wastage, however, between the other two classes, namely IV and V is much greater (40 per cent.), but not as great as that between Classes I and II; Class V represents only 60 per cent. of Class IV. The wastage at this stage of instruction is natural since Class IV is held to be the end of primary education in many provinces.

Thirdly, these tables show that the wastage does not follow any general direction except between Classes I and II, where it continually increases as is to be expected with increased enrolment without corresponding steps to decrease wastage.

Causes of wastage.

208. The causes of wastage are many and it is difficult to say which are the most important. It is evident, however, that irregular attendance of both pupils and staff, inefficiency of the education imparted, lack of qualified teachers, who are in most cases ill-paid, unsuitability of the hours of instruction, absence of compulsion, and abundance of single teacher schools are all to some extent responsible. In the single teacher school the dull child has very little chance of receiving any special attention; he remains year after year in the same class, learning practically nothing, and receiving less and less attention from his teacher. Generally speaking, the wastage figures for Bombay are very much smaller than those for other provinces; and it cannot be a coincidence that Bombay has a high percentage of trained teachers in primary schools, that that province spends a high proportion of its expenditure on primary education and that it pays its primary school teacher at much higher rates than all other provinces.

209. But, apart from a consideration of teaching staff and of educational policy, economic and social causes combine to retard the progress of literacy especially among the backward and agricultural classes of the people. They cannot afford to keep their children long at school as they are required to assist their parents in household work at home or in outdoor work in the fields or in factories, while education especially higher education was—and still is—in places, considered either by custom or by tradition to be the monopoly of certain sections of the community. One of the remedies for this state of affairs is to educate the parent, and make him appreciate the benefits conferred by education; unfortunately, a feeling has of late gained ground that educated people should not take up their hereditary occupations, but should try to obtain employment of a clerical nature under Government or under some other public body failing which under some private firm, and this is slowly but surely depopulating the countryside of some of the best intellects that it has helped to produce and is leaving the rural parts to take care of themselves.

210. But the figures now given together with the figures previously given for wastage and stagnation show approxi-

mately to what extent primary instruction is contributing towards the removal of literacy. And it is perfectly clear that the problem of mass education is not so much a problem of getting children into school as the problem of retaining them there once they have been started on their educational course. Speaking generally, the possibility of retaining pupils in school for the requisite period of years depends in the absence of compulsion mainly on public opinion, the attitude of parents, the efficiency of schools, the qualifications, status and pay of teachers, and the hours of instruction.

Compulsion.

211. It is becoming increasingly clear that whatever success has been attained by voluntary methods of persuasion, no rapid progress can be achieved without the application of compulsion. Even with a widespread application of compulsion further steps have to be taken to improve the efficiency of teaching in schools in order to prevent the stagnation just referred to. During the period under review only one additional Primary Education Act providing for the introduction of compulsion was passed, namely, the Assam Act of 1926. In addition, legislation was also undertaken in Bombay and the United Provinces for the extension of compulsory primary education to rural and other areas. These Acts have been described elsewhere. But the Acts passed in other provinces prior to 1922 have worked, as far as compulsion is concerned, with varying degrees of success and failure. The following table shows the urban and rural areas in which compulsion had been introduced by the year 1926-27:—

Province.	Date of Act.	Areas under "Compulsion."	
		Municipalities and Urban Areas	District Board and Rural Areas.
Madras	1920	21	3
Bombay	1918	5	...
	1920*	1	...
	1923	...	
Bengal	1919		
United Provinces	1919	25	...
	1926		...
Punjab	1919	57	1,499†
Burma	..		
Bihar and Orissa	1919	1	3
Central Provinces and Berar	1920	3	66
Assam	1926		
Delhi		1	
Total	...	114	1,571

N.B.—The Municipality of Delhi has introduced compulsion in accordance with the provisions of the Punjab Primary Education Act of 1919, with effect from the year 1925.

* For Bombay City only.

† Individual School Areas.

It is obvious that some progress has been made, but with the absence of any compulsion in Bengal, Burma and Assam and with its almost complete absence in rural areas everywhere except in the Punjab and the Central Provinces progress has necessarily been slow. Though progress in the Punjab has certainly been remarkable and satisfactory, it has to be remembered, when comparing the figures for the Punjab with the figures for other provinces, that a rural area in the Punjab is very often only a single village or a small group of villages so that the total number of areas shown as under compulsion in the Punjab appears to exaggerate the extent of its introduction. The application of compulsion in the provinces has, in most cases, been so recent that it is difficult to estimate the result on the duration of school life or on the percentage of pupils reading in school. But reports from Madras show that the percentage of pupils under instruction in the divisions of the city of Madras in which compulsion has been introduced has appreciably increased and the remarkable rise in the percentage of boys under instruction in the Punjab from 4·77 in 1922 to 9·32 in 1927 must be, in part, due to the methods of compulsion adopted in the Punjab.

212. The Director of Public Instruction for Bombay, in his report for the year 1925-26 has given interesting figures to show the increased enrolment of pupils in schools in the city of Bombay and five other municipalities in which compulsion has been introduced. In one year after the introduction of compulsion, the number of pupils in Bombay city increased by over 6,000. The increases in the five other municipalities were as follows:—

Municipality	Year of introduction of compulsion.	No. of pupils previous to introduction.	No. of pupils in 1926	Increase in pupils	
				Actual.	Annual average.
1. Bandra . . .	1920	1,268	2,617	1,349	225
2. Satara City .	1921	1,724	2,882	1,158	232
3 Dhulia . .	1923	2,280	3,532	1,252	417
4. Surat . . .	1919	8,384	12,826	4,442	634
5. Byadgi . . .	1920	519	824	305	51

These figures are significant. The Director remarks that there is a widespread desire for the rapid expansion of primary schools and that, if the Bombay Government were in a position to give large additional grants for primary education, there would be a rapid increase in the number of pupils under instruction. The passage of the Primary Education Act in 1923, however, coincided with the beginning of a period of financial depression in Bombay and it is becoming more and more difficult for the Government to provide even the funds required towards the schemes prepared by the local authorities.

213. The Director of Public Instruction in the United Provinces reports that although compulsion has been introduced in 25 municipalities during the quinquennium the schemes of compulsion have not worked so successfully as had been hoped. The main reasons for this lack of success appear to be that in many cases compulsion has only been introduced into a limited number of divisions in the municipalities, that sufficient experience has not yet been gained of the working of the scheme, that some municipalities which started the scheme with enthusiasm have not in the subsequent years been able to achieve the same degree of success that was achieved in the first year, and that there has been a tendency for boys to migrate from the municipal divisions into which compulsion has been introduced. There are, however, a few municipalities in which progress under the schemes for compulsion has been more satisfactory, this being particularly the case in the Agra Division, where, at the end of the quinquennium, the total number of boys of school-going age in attendance under the compulsory schemes has exceeded the estimated numbers and where a much larger number of boys over eleven years of age have continued to read in schools.

214. The United Provinces District Boards Primary Education Act which extended to district boards facilities for the introduction of compulsory primary education, similar to those granted to municipalities having been passed in 1926, the Government of the United Provinces placed an officer on special duty in connection with this new Act. The proposals of this officer are under consideration by Government which propose to pay at least two-thirds of the recurring cost of compulsory schemes introduced by boards under the Act.

215. The Director of Public Instruction in the Punjab reports that the difficulties of enforcing attendance in compulsion areas are by no means as great as were originally anticipated and that it is comparatively easy to ensure the attendance of 80 per cent. of the boys who should be at school. The difficulty apparently lies in taking suitable action against the remaining 20 per cent. In 1925-26 out of 130 notices issued against defaulters in the Lahore Division only 73 prosecutions were successful, largely owing to the delay which took place in the prosecutions and which in several cases resulted in the boys having left the division or having become over-age. The figures for the large increases in the strength of vernacular schools in the Punjab have already been quoted, and they clearly indicate that the schemes for compulsion introduced in the Punjab have appreciably contributed to the increase in the number of pupils at school.

216. In Bihar and Orissa compulsion has only been introduced into one municipality, but the figures for the year 1926-27 undoubtedly show that the scheme of compulsion has worked successfully. Out of a total of 2,200 boys of school-going age as many as 2,139 are in school. As elsewhere, it is reported that owing to the delays which took place in pro-

secutions much of the effectiveness of the legal powers under the Act was lost in the early years of the working of the scheme; but in 1926-27 out of 635 cases which came before the courts 623 were rapidly disposed of. The Director of Public Instruction in Bihar and Orissa states that the experience gained by the working of the scheme in the Ranchi Municipality has been of great value for the future of other schemes elsewhere. In one rural area in which compulsion has been introduced it is reported that the number of pupils on the rolls of the schools has increased from 297 to 629, and the number of cases which had to be brought before the courts in 1926-27 was only 36.

217. In the Central Provinces the success or otherwise of compulsion appears to have varied very largely as between district and district in which compulsory areas existed. In a number of areas the attendance at school is reported to have risen rapidly while in some other areas very little alteration has taken place in the attendance at schools chiefly owing to the absence of prosecutions under the Act. The Director of Public Instruction in the Central Provinces attributes the failures, where there have been failures, to the newness of the idea of compulsion amongst the rural population and to the reluctance of local bodies to make use of the law to compel students to attend school.

Other methods for expansion of primary education.

218. Various suggestions have been made from time to time as to the method which should be adopted to increase attendance in primary schools and to secure a continuity of attendance in areas in which compulsion has not been introduced. As already indicated, much could be done even without compulsion if public opinion could be educated so as to influence parents to send their children to school and keep them at school. In this direction considerable work has been done in the Punjab by the formation of Parents' Societies, the members of which pledged themselves to leave their children in school for a stated period or to pay a fine in case of default. In the Punjab also the propaganda work carried on by revenue officials, educational officials and the members of co-operative societies has done much to popularize education in rural areas. The formation of attendance committees even in non-compulsory areas is one means by which more students could be brought under instruction. In areas in which the rural or urban population have, mainly for economic reasons, difficulties in attending school during the regular school hours, the school hours might be adjusted so that instruction could be given in the morning or in the evening or both in the morning and in the evening so as to suit the convenience of children who at other times of the day are employed or are assisting their parents. One form of modified compulsion has been suggested, which might at least help to prevent the great wastage and stagnation which is occurring. It has been suggested that in areas in which it is not practical, for whatever reason, to compel all children of school-going age to remain in school it might be possible to have a form of modi-

fied compulsion which by legal enactment would prevent a parent from removing his child from school until after four years' study if once admitted to a school. That is to say, it would be compulsion applied to pupils once admitted to school and not to children who had not hitherto attended any school. Improvement in the standard of efficiency of primary schools by means of better teachers and better accommodation and equipment is also an effective means of removing wastage and stagnation. Events have shown clearly that an efficient school with a well trained teacher is much more easily able to retain its pupils and to secure their successive promotions than an inefficient and ill-equipped school.

Single teacher schools.

219. In the same way one of the major causes of wastage and stagnation is the extremely large number of schools, particularly in rural areas, which have only one teacher in charge not merely of a large number of classes but of a large number of pupils in each class.

The Punjab has in recent years led the way in reducing the number of single teacher schools as a primary measure of the improvement of mass education. In 1922 the total number of single teacher schools in the Punjab was 2,754, but during the quinquennium that number was reduced to under 500, but had increased again to nearly 1,000 in 1926-27.

The Director of Public Instruction in Madras has pointed out in his latest quinquennial review that not only is the number of single teacher schools extremely large but that since 1924 the majority of the board and privately managed schools opened under Government sanction with special subsidies or grant-in-aid have been single teacher schools, and he states that " a very large number of single teacher schools with more than three standards now exists in this Presidency and it appears desirable to concentrate on increasing the efficiency and effectiveness of existing schools before a further programme of expansion is adopted."

In Bombay out of the total 9,608 district local board primary schools as many as 5,368, or 55·9 per cent., are single teacher schools and, as in Madras, the Director of Public Instruction has pointed out that the need for proper additional assistance in undermanned schools is greater than the need for adding to the number of existing schools. In some districts in Bombay experiments have been made with the double shift system by which infants attend school at one session of $2\frac{1}{2}$ hours and the rest of the pupils at another session of three hours. It is however reported that the experiment has not been successful both the parents and the teachers having opposed it, the former because the children are not sufficiently long at school and the latter because it means extra work.

In Bihar and Orissa it was decided at a conference which was held in August 1925 that in the programmes of expansion which were being drafted for local board schools every upper primary school was to have at least three teachers, two of

whom must be trained, and every lower primary school at least two teachers, one of whom must be trained. But after the experience of one year in working the programmes Government finally was forced to decide that they would not immediately insist on the conversion of all one teacher lower primary schools into two teacher schools and that in the new schools to be opened one teacher would suffice for the first year of the new school's existence.

In the North-West Frontier Province out of 547 primary boys' schools over 400 are single teacher schools, and in Baluchistan out of 71 schools 63 are single teacher schools.

The teaching staff.

220. Very considerable improvement has taken place in the staffing of primary schools, but the percentage of trained teachers to the total number of teachers is still under 50 per cent.

In Madras, the percentage of trained teachers to the total number of teachers has improved during the quinquennium from 39 per cent. to 47 per cent., the percentage being highest in the city of Madras, namely, 68 per cent. In 1922 the scales of pay of teachers in Government elementary schools were revised so as to give a starting pay of Rs. 20 to a lower elementary trained teacher and a starting pay of Rs. 25 per mensem to a higher elementary trained teacher while untrained lower elementary teachers were paid Rs. 15 and untrained higher elementary teachers Rs. 20. All local bodies were advised by Government to revise the scales of pay of their teachers on similar lines; but in actual practice some local boards have revised their scales while some have not, and some local boards have time-scales of pay while some local boards have only fixed rates of pay. In 1925 the rates of teaching grants paid to aided schools were raised for higher elementary trained teachers from Rs. 96 to Rs. 120, for higher elementary untrained teachers from Rs. 72 to Rs. 84 and for lower elementary untrained teachers from Rs. 48 to Rs. 60.

In Bombay the percentage of trained teachers to the total number of teachers was 48·9 at the end of the quinquennium, but the percentage of trained teachers in institutions under public management was as high as 59·1. In 1920 revised scales of pay were adopted for all primary school teachers and in 1921 all trained teachers were given the minimum pay of their scale, namely, first year trained Rs. 30, second year trained Rs. 35, third year trained Rs. 40. The maximum pay sanctioned in 1920 was Rs. 50 for first year trained teachers, Rs. 65 for second year trained teachers and Rs. 80 for third year trained teachers, with selection grades of Rs. 55, Rs. 75 and Rs. 100, respectively. It was, however, very soon found that funds were completely inadequate to bring the scheme into full effect, and in 1924 new scales with the same minimum pay were sanctioned, but the maximum pay was limited to Rs. 40 for first year trained teachers, Rs. 50 for second year trained teachers and Rs. 60 for third year trained teachers, the teachers in Sind receiving an additional Rs. 5.

In Bengal, the percentage of trained teachers to the total number of teachers has remained very low, but during the quinquennium it increased from 24·0 to 26·9. It is not, however, surprising that in Bengal the qualifications of the teachers in primary schools should be low seeing that the average pay of a primary school teacher in Bengal is almost incredibly low. In 1926-27 the average pay of a teacher in an unaided school in the Chittagong Division was only Rs. 3·3, and the average pay of a teacher in an aided school was only Rs. 6. Towards the close of the quinquennium endeavours were made by Government to provide additional grant-in-aid so as to give a grant of at least Rs. 6 per mensem to each trained teacher and of Rs. 2 per mensem to each untrained teacher, and Rs. 2·81 lakhs were provided in 1926-27. This sum, however, was totally inadequate to achieve the result aimed at.

In the United Provinces the percentage of trained teachers to the total number of teachers has improved from 57·1 to 66·5; but it is to be regretted that the high percentage of 69·2 reached in 1924-25 has not been retained. The minimum pay of trained teachers in local board primary schools has been raised from Rs. 15 to Rs. 17, and untrained teachers are paid a minimum pay of Rs. 12.

The percentage of trained teachers to the total number of teachers in primary schools in the Punjab fell from 54·9 in 1921-22 to 50·1 in 1926-27. The pay of teachers in local board primary schools has been considerably improved during the quinquennium and the minimum pay of a trained teacher of the lowest grade is now approximately Rs. 20 a month, though the pay of the teachers varies considerably as between board and board.

In Burma, the percentage of trained teachers to the total number of teachers has increased by approximately two to 45, and greatly improved scales of pay have been introduced in all primary schools under local authorities, the minimum pay of even the lowest grade untrained teacher having been fixed at Rs. 25.

In Bihar and Orissa, the percentage of trained teachers to the total number of teachers has remained very low and at the end of the quinquennium was still only approximately 37. The average pay of teachers in primary schools has greatly improved—from Rs. 13·8 to 18·0 in municipal schools and from Rs. 8·5 to Rs. 9·9 in privately managed schools; but the average of a teacher in a board school has slightly declined from Rs. 13·0 to Rs. 12·8.

In the Central Provinces the proportion of trained teachers to the total number of teachers rose from 35·8 in 1922-23 to 46·3 in 1926-27. Owing to a revision in the rates of pay for primary school teachers the average salaries of teachers of all classes under all classes of management have considerably increased. The average salaries in district council schools have

risen from Rs. 18·3 to Rs. 20, in municipal schools from Rs. 23·5 to Rs. 27·2 and in privately managed schools from Rs. 15·3 to Rs. 20·2. In Government primary schools the average pay is now Rs. 32.

The percentage of trained teachers to the total number of teachers in Assam has fallen from approximately 42 to 36, but the minimum pay of a primary school teacher which had been fixed at Rs. 8 in the previous quinquennium has now been fixed at Rs. 12.

Emoluments in addition to pay.

221. It will be observed from the foregoing paragraphs that considerable improvement has been effected during the quinquennium in the pay of primary school teachers. In certain cases, however, the pay is still inadequate and the prospects of teachers are far from satisfactory. Some village teachers, however, manage to eke out their livelihood by taking up extra work such as private tuition or postal work. Private tuition is not very common amongst the primary teachers and must be regarded as exceptional. It is mainly the Postal and Co-operative Credit Departments which make use of the services of the village teachers to any appreciable extent. In Madras, the total number of teachers serving as branch postmasters was 177 in 1926-27 and the allowances paid to them for this work ranged from Rs. 6 to Rs. 16 per mensem. In Bombay, primary teachers worked mainly in the Postal and Co-operative Departments and earned allowances varying from Rs. 2 to Rs. 12 a month; some of them conducted night schools and received additional allowances of Rs. 5 or so a month, while some others were employed for medical relief in villages after undergoing a special course for this purpose in Poona. The number of primary teachers serving as postmasters in Bengal was 246 in 1926-27 and their incomes ranged from Rs. 4 to Rs. 16 per mensem. In one district of the Punjab, 41 teachers were employed as postmasters and drew allowances of the value of Rs. 7 to Rs. 12 a month, while 17 teachers received Rs. 5 per mensem for being in charge of cattle-pounds. The number of school post offices in Bihar and Orissa rose by 7 during the quinquennium to 195. The remuneration paid by the post office ranged from Rs. 6 to Rs. 15 a month.

Expenditure on Primary Schools for Boys.

Year.	Expenditure from				Total.
	Government funds.	Board funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
	Rs	Rs	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1921-22 . .	2,33,98,645	1,14,68,604	46,31,758	38,48,437	4,83,47,444
1926-27 . .	3,04,69,306	1,81,25,265	49,89,370	56,86,385	5,92,20,326
Increase . .	+70,70,661	+66,56,661	+3,57,612	+17,87,948	+1,58,72,882

NOTE.—Expenditure on primary schools exceeds that on secondary schools by Rs. 17,66,006.

222. Compared with the increases in expenditure recorded in the previous quinquennium, the above table shows that the total increase is considerably less than the increase between 1917 and 1922, that the increase under Government funds has been less than half the previous increase and that the increase under board funds has been very large as compared with an actual decrease in the previous quinquennium. As has been explained elsewhere, however, the differences in increases in expenditure from Government funds and board funds as between the period under review and the previous quinquennium are mainly due to a reclassification at the beginning of the previous quinquennium when Government contributions to local boards for primary education ceased to be classified under board funds. It is, however, noteworthy that in spite of the very great expansion which has taken place in primary education the total increased expenditure on primary schools for boys should have been less than the increased expenditure during the previous quinquennium. In view of the special attention which has been paid during the period under review to the needs of mass education, it is also noteworthy that the total expenditure on primary schools for boys should be only 18 lakhs more than the total expenditure on secondary schools for boys. Expenditure.

223. One of the most puzzling features of the present position in regard to primary education is the extraordinary divergence which exists as between province and province in the proportion of educational expenditure spent on primary and on secondary education. In view of the importance of mass education it might be expected that the percentage of expenditure on primary education to the total educational expenditure in British India would be larger than the percentage of expenditure on any other class of education, but actually the percentages for expenditure on primary and secondary education are at present almost exactly equal, each being approximately 28 per cent. Even taking into account the much higher cost of education in secondary schools it cannot be regarded as satisfactory that almost an equal percentage of the total educational expenditure should be spent on educating 8·26 millions scholars in primary schools as on educating 1·85 millions scholars in secondary schools. If the figures for all India are unsatisfactory, the figures for certain provinces are much more so. In Bengal, Burma and in the Punjab actually more money is spent on secondary education than on primary education, and the percentage of expenditure on primary education to total expenditure in these provinces is as low as 17·0, 10·3 and 14·7, respectively. In Madras, Bombay, Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces the percentage of expenditure on primary education to total expenditure is in excess of the percentage spent on secondary education, the excess being particularly large in Bombay which spends approximately 52 per cent. of its total expenditure on primary education and only 20 per cent. on secondary. At the opposite extreme to Bombay is Burma which spends over 40 per cent. of its total

expenditure on secondary education and under 11 per cent. on primary education. These great variations are again reflected in the figures for the average annual expenditure on primary schools for boys by provinces and for the average annual cost of educating a pupil in a primary school for boys by provinces (*vide* paragraphs 225 and 226). In connection with the figures for the Punjab, however, it has to be remembered that the low percentage of expenditure on primary education is largely to be accounted for by the system of classification in the Punjab which includes all vernacular middle schools under secondary schools, although the vernacular middle schools are more a part of the primary course than of the secondary course.

Expenditure by sources.

224. An investigation of the amounts contributed in the various provinces towards the cost of primary education from Government funds, board funds, fees and other sources reveal equally extraordinary variations. In 1926-27, out of the total expenditure on primary schools for boys in the provinces, fees contributed:—

	Lakhs of Rupees.
Madras	7·96
Bombay	4·48
Bengal	22·84
United Provinces	2·14
Punjab	0·78
Burma	0·46
Bihar and Orissa	10·19
Central Provinces	0·69
Assam	0·02
Government funds contributed:—	
Madras	73·8
Bombay	105·3
Bengal	18·1
United Provinces	55·9
Punjab	22·5
Burma	0·6
Bihar and Orissa	1·2
Central Provinces	16·0
Assam	6·2
Local Board Funds contributed:—	
Madras	38·6
Bombay	43·3
Bengal	9·8
United Provinces	18·5
Punjab	9·9
Burma	13·4
Bihar and Orissa	31·7
Central Provinces	10·4
Assam	2·5

	Lakhs of Rupees.
Other sources contributed:—	
Madras	22·5
Bombay	11·4
Bengal	5·8
United Provinces	1·9
Punjab	1·7
Burma	0·6
Bihar and Orissa	7·9
Central Provinces	1·9
Assam	1·5

Even allowing for the variations in population, etc., the differences in the extent of the contributions in the provinces from Government funds, from local board funds and from fees are remarkable and reveal the extent of the variation in policy already referred to elsewhere in this report. The figures speak for themselves and no detailed comparison need be made. But it is significant that in Bengal with a male population of over 24 millions the Government expenditure on primary schools should only be 18·1 lakhs while in Bombay with a total male population of about 10 millions the Government expenditure on primary schools should be 105·3 lakhs.

The cost of Primary Education.

225. The average annual expenditure on a primary school in India has risen from Rs. 315 in 1921-22 to Rs. 364 in 1926-27. The detailed figures relating to the different provinces are given in Supplemental Table 48. They show that the cost of a primary school is highest in Bombay, Delhi and Bangalore being Rs. 1,328, Rs. 1,179 and Rs. 1,731, respectively. The cost is lowest in Bengal (Rs. 148) and Bihar and Orissa (Rs. 186). In six of the remaining provinces and administrations, the cost is above Rs. 500 per school and ranges from Rs. 591 to Rs. 888. The variations in cost in the different provinces are, to a great extent, due to the local conditions prevailing in each province. For instance, the average annual cost of a primary school is bound to be low in a province in which one-teacher schools preponderate or where the salaries paid to primary teachers are small. Again, the annual expenditure on a primary school with five or more classes will naturally be greater than that on a school with fewer classes and hence the average cost per school will be high or low in direct proportion as schools of many or of few classes predominate. Similarly, the cost of schools in urban areas is always greater than those located in rural areas, and the general average will be affected by the number of urban or rural schools which may prevail in a province. It will thus be observed that in Bombay, where the conditions of primary education are peculiar, and in Delhi, which consists mainly of urban areas, the average annual cost per school is as high as Rs. 1,328 and Rs. 1,179, respectively. On the other hand, in Bengal, which has some 38,000 primary schools, where teachers are poorly paid and where the number of classes in most schools is small, the cost is as low as Rs. 148 per school. In Madras, which has about 46,000 schools, the

average annual cost per school stands at Rs. 308. It is also noteworthy that in Assam and the Central Provinces, which have almost an equal number of primary schools (about 4,000), the average annual cost per school varies considerably and is Rs. 233 and Rs. 695 respectively. In the Punjab and the North-West Frontier Province, where primary schools for boys have only four classes, the cost is almost the same, being Rs. 592 and Rs. 591 respectively.

226. The average annual cost of educating a pupil in a primary school is Rs. 8·1 as compared with Rs. 8·2 in the previous quinquennium. The lowest cost is recorded in Bengal (Rs. 4·0) and the highest in Baluchistan (Rs. 34·4). Among the major provinces, the highest cost per pupil is incurred in Bombay (Rs. 19·2), but it should be remembered that in this province all vernacular schools which are classed as secondary in other provinces are regarded as primary schools. The detailed figures will be found in the Supplemental Tables (Table 50).

227. The average annual fee paid by a pupil in a primary school is about eleven annas for the whole of British India. This figure, however, is misleading as it does not take into account the number of free studentships and is further vitiated by the fact that in some provinces primary and vernacular education has been made wholly free. The question of free education is however dealt with separately. A survey of the provincial figures as given in Supplemental Tables 51 and 53 shows that the highest fee is paid in Bengal (Rs. 1-10-1) followed closely by Ajmer-Merwara (Rs. 1-9-0). It is lowest in the Punjab (Re. 0-3-2), the United Provinces (Re. 0-3-4) and Burma (Re. 0-3-7).

Fees and Free Education.

228. Girls and depressed classes are admitted into schools in Bombay without being charged any fee. With the passing of the Primary Education Act, local authorities have been given a free hand in the matter of remission of fees, and 55 municipalities had abolished fees by the end of the quinquennium. "It is undesirable" says the Director of Public Instruction in Bombay "that a very large percentage of the children now admitted free could well afford to pay. In view of the fact that with their present funds the boards are unable to provide schools for all, it is open to doubt whether it is equitable that such children should receive education free while others who want it are unable to obtain it."

In Bengal one municipality has made primary school attendance compulsory as well as free, while two others run some free schools. But the largest scheme is that inaugurated in 1924-25 by the Calcutta Corporation which ran 94 free schools with 11,561 pupils in 1927. The staffs of these free schools are better paid than elsewhere, and the schools are reported to be largely attended.

In the United Provinces girls and sons of poor parents are exempted from paying fees in all primary schools. Fees are not charged in special schools for the depressed classes,

in night schools or in half-time schools. Many boards have, experimented with free education, but the inevitable conclusion seems to be that "the imposition of fees, along with the exemption allowed under the present rules, is no deterrent to a parent who desires his children to receive primary education, and that the introduction of free primary education, unless it is accompanied by measures of compulsion, merely entails a loss of income to the board with no accruing benefit to the district administered by it". While some boards have abolished fees, others have reintroduced it after declaring education free.

The children of agriculturists, village artizans and "*Kamins*" (depressed classes) are admitted free into the primary classes of schools in the Punjab.

In Bihar and Orissa free education is imparted in one district, three municipalities, three unions, three areas and four thanas. It is reported, that in one municipality which declared education free there has been a fall in the number of pupils; also those villages, which having observed developments asked for schools and could not get them, considered themselves unfairly treated.

All the Government and board schools in the Central Provinces and Berar charge a fixed fee of one anna per mensem. But a certain number of municipal and many mission schools provide free education.

Primary education has long been free in Assam and the North-West Frontier Province. In the latter province, middle vernacular education had also been free, but fees had to be re-imposed during the present quinquennium on account of financial stringency.

Buildings, equipment and school gardens.

229. Of the total number of primary schools in Madras, 41 per cent. are held in buildings of their own, 37 per cent. in rented buildings, 4 per cent. in dwellings of the teacher or manager and the rest in rent-free quarters. Since the last quinquennium there has been a decrease in the percentage of schools with buildings of their own, this being due to the fact that the opening of a large number of new schools necessitates the use, temporarily at any rate, of rented buildings. Government sanctioned Rs. 85,603 during the quinquennium for the construction of buildings: Rs. 2,23,085 were placed at the disposal of District Educational Councils for payments of building grants to aided schools. But on the whole little progress was made in improving elementary school buildings. The equipment of schools still continues to be unsatisfactory, though the Government granted subsidies amounting to Rs. 2,85,400 for the equipment of newly opened schools, and also placed Rs. 91,562 at the disposal of District Educational Councils. Even in rural areas good school gardens are seldom seen. This is due not merely to difficulties of enclosed space and water-supply but to the fact that their value in elementary education has not yet been properly appreciated.

230. Of the 9,608 local board primary schools in Bombay, 32 per cent. are owned partly or wholly by the boards, 17 per cent. are held in rented buildings, and 51 per cent. are situated in rent-free quarters. In all 94 buildings had been erected during the quinquennium, 126 were under construction, and extensions had been made to 75 elementary school buildings by local boards. The number of buildings erected during the quinquennium fell short, however, of actual requirements, and there is a pressing need for more buildings everywhere. The chief difficulty has been the expense, the costly type of building constructed by the Public Works Department being beyond the means of the boards. It has been recognized that if all schools are to be provided with buildings of their own a less ambitious structure is essential and Government have laid down a sum of Rs. 40 per pupil as the maximum admitted expenditure for the building grant. Some District Boards have framed building programmes and are anxious to push on with the construction of cheap buildings. Much depends however, on private enterprise.

231. The position as regards primary school buildings in the United Provinces was more unsatisfactory at the end than at the beginning of the quinquennium, and many schools are reported to be held in the open. This is especially so in one division the Commissioner for which remarks:—"Everywhere schools are badly housed and badly equipped. It is pathetic to see a school held in an open space by the roadside. But parents prefer to send their children to schools close to their homes, however badly housed and equipped they may be, rather than to let them walk two or three miles to schools." Not only have the boards and municipalities (even some of those who have introduced compulsion) been apathetic towards the opening of new buildings, even though funds were placed at their disposal, but they have also neglected buildings already constructed with the result that these have either fallen down or stand in need of much repair. Equipment is not better than might be expected in such buildings. '*Tat*' matting is often insufficient and pupils have to sit upon the bare ground. Apparatus is deficient in amount, badly kept and sometimes unsuitable. There has been no general improvement in the number or quality of gardens in board primary schools. The true reason appears to be apathy on the part of boards or teachers or both.

232. Considerable progress has been made during the quinquennium in the construction of vernacular school buildings in the Punjab. Government contributed in all about Rs. 42½ lakhs to boards for the purpose. New buildings have been provided by the boards for 187 full middle schools, 417 lower middle schools, 991 primary schools and 26 hostels, and extensions have been made to 900 buildings. In the construction of school buildings preference is given to middle schools, for these are more stable; in the construction of these it is becoming usual to provide accommodation for the village library, which is a village institution for adults and children alike. Com-

mendable efforts have been made to improve the appearance of the gardens and compounds of schools by planting trees and flowering shrubs.

233. Vernacular school buildings in Burma are generally unsatisfactory the large majority of them being accommodated in small Burmese houses which were never intended for school purposes. Recently Government has drawn up plans for model schools and, though these may prove too expensive for the aided school, it is hoped that local authorities will make use of them when erecting new board schools.

234. In 1925 out of 19,395 schools in Bihar and Orissa only 5,802 (about 30 per cent.) had satisfactory buildings. During the last two years of the quinquennium Government gave grants for the buildings of 760 new structures of a rather cheap type (costing about Rs. 1,500 each). In 1925-26 they paid the full cost of the construction, while in 1926-27 they bore as much as five-sixths of the cost.

235. At the end of the quinquennium 527 primary schools in the Central Provinces and Berar were without buildings; 1,059 schools required new buildings, and 273 stood in need of extension. The majority of these schools belonged to the District Councils. To deal with this problem, the local Government sanctioned a special building grant of Rs. 9 lakhs during 1926-27; with this money the construction of 222 new buildings has been undertaken, and extensions to 116 buildings have been taken in hand.

236. Teachers of primary schools in Assam have to pay out of their own pockets towards the cost of buildings and repairs to their schools. "The result is that there are no houses for most of them. The schools are held in no fixed places. Their locations vary with the local conditions. In many cases, the schools are held in unhealthy quarters." Buildings of many board primary schools are overcrowded. A scheme of expansion of vernacular education proposes an expenditure of Rs. 29,921 recurring and Rs. 2,33,263 non-recurring towards the cost of additional buildings and equipment. In one division in Assam gardening is insisted upon in all vernacular schools.

237. In the North-West Frontier Province furniture and equipment were on the whole satisfactory, since any savings that accrued were jealously guarded and used for improvements in the equipment of primary schools but in regard to buildings such improvement was not possible. School-gardens are found here and there and attempts are being made to grow vegetables.

238. The Director of Public Instruction, Madras, writes that in spite of departmental advice there has been little progress in the teaching of practical nature study and in the use of school gardens and that much remains to be done in order to adapt the instruction given in rural elementary schools

Rural Education.

to the life of the rural environment. Practical training classes in weaving, tailoring, carpentry, wood work and agriculture have been attached to 24 primary schools, and 2,000 pupils attend these classes.

239. The Director of Public Instruction, Bombay, writes:—"It is commonly complained that the teaching in rural schools is not adapted to the needs of the rural population. But the chief aim of a primary school being to make its scholars literate, it is clear apart from other considerations that if they are to become literate they must devote the whole of their attention to the three R's. What matters is not so much the curriculum as the way it is taught. It is the teachers' outlook that is all important; the teaching is of a literary character where the student is referred not to nature, nor to the experiences of everyday life, but to the written word and to hereditary lore. In order to make teaching in the village school suitable for children of the agricultural classes the first measure is to select teachers from the agricultural classes, and to train them in special training institutions; this the Government have hitherto been prevented from doing by inability to provide the requisite funds. The ordinary curriculum of the upper primary course is admittedly of a literary character and is quite unsuited to the needs of the children of agricultural classes. Hence Government in 1923 sanctioned an alternative curriculum. This is known as the Agricultural Bias course. The object is to give a school education with a special bias towards agriculture."

240. The Punjab has realised the necessity of encouraging education in rural areas and among the rural population. Efforts are being made to spread widely and equitably the benefits of education and to give effective encouragement to rural and backward areas. Grants are assessed with reference to the needs rather than to the resources of each board. This policy has resulted in considerable progress having been made in many districts which used to be classed as backward. Another potent means of encouraging these distant and backward areas is the provision of local teachers; training units are attached to high schools in backward areas and graduates residing in these tracts are given every encouragement to seek admission in the Central Training College; where forty per cent. of the seats are reserved for them. Attention has also been paid to the suitable adaptation of the courses in rural schools to rural requirements. The main conclusions which have been arrived at are:—

(*a*) In primary schools, the subject matter taught and the methods of instruction should be such as to bring the work of a primary school into the closest relation with the life and experience of the people. In the second place, the acquisition of suitable knowledge and the attainment of literacy should be the main objects of the course. The central subject

should therefore be the reading lesson supplemented by oral instruction.

(*b*) In middle schools, the central subject of study should be Rural Science which should co-ordinate and vitalise many subjects already included in the curriculum. It should therefore embrace physical geography, agriculture, rural economics (mainly the principles of co-operation) rural hygiene, and sanitation and elementary civics.

It soon became clear that to make the village teacher understand the spirit of the New Learning was a more imminent task than that of revision of courses and issue of suitable text books. The admirable school and training class maintained at Moga by the American Presbyterian Mission has done much work in this respect and its example is being followed at Gakhar and Gurgaon. In order to prevent adults from relapsing into illiteracy, vernacular libraries have been started in some 1,500 middle schools which are open to adults as well as to boys. For the benefit of the adults, pamphlets and journals are provided which deal with matters of common interest and importance. Allowances are given to teachers who supervise the library arrangements and also read pamphlets with the villagers and promote discussions. These discussions are supplemented by magic lanterns and lectures. A Rural Community Board at Headquarters and District Community Councils have been instituted to supervise and to organize these forms of activity, and to make arrangements for the preparation of lantern slides, lecture notes, and suitable pamphlets. The reports on the progress of these Councils vary considerably, but those at Simla, Jhang, Montgomery, and Gurgaon, have made noteworthy advance. With regard to agricultural training—

(*a*) it has been decided to include and to provide for teaching in agriculture in the ordinary vernacular schools, and not to open special schools which not only cost more but also make children specialise at a premature age.

(*b*) The training is of a practical as well as of a theoretical nature.

(*c*) The teaching is in the hands of a teacher who not only is a trained man but also has undergone a special course in agriculture at Lyallpur.

In the last summer of the quinquennium Mr. R. Sanderson and Mr. J. E. Parkinson were placed on special duty in England for a few months in order to study the attempts which are now being made in that country to develop the countryside and to bring the village school and its teaching into more intimate and practical touch with the surroundings of the pupils. Their report on " Rural Education in England and the Punjab " has since been published as Occasional Reports No. 15.

241. No special syllabus has been prepared for rural schools in Bihar and Orissa. Experiments have, however, been made to introduce agricultural training into middle schools.

242. In the North-West Frontier Province, primary education is rural in the sense that the teacher, the taught and the subject of instruction are mainly drawn from the rural classes or is devisedly framed to suit rural conditions, *e.g.*, arithmetic and nature study courses are framed so as to make use of actual village surroundings. It has, however, not been possible to go beyond this.

Curricula, and teaching of English.

243. Though under the scheme framed under the Madras Elementary Education Act of 1920 provision has been made for a number of optional subjects, the number of schools, especially rural, which provide for instruction in non-compulsory subjects is very limited. There is however, an increasing demand for English even in rural areas and there has been a large increase in the number of schools teaching English.

In Bombay the syllabus for drawing was revised and substituted by a simpler one during the quinquennium. Some of the Educational Inspectors report that the primary school course is still too theoretical and academic, and meets the needs of the advanced classes only (these being of course in a minority).

The enforcement of the revised curriculum, which was finished by January 1925, has effected noteworthy changes in Bengal. The length of the primary school course has been reduced from six to five years; the old division of primary into upper and lower schools has become obsolete. English as an optional language has proved popular. The revival of the public examination at the end of the primary school course which was suggested by the Conference of Educational Officers, was approved by the Government in 1925. The first examination was to have been held just after the close of the quinquennium.

In Bihar and Orissa, in accordance with the advice of the Education Committee of 1923 the two infant classes were combined, and a new curriculum was introduced on 1st January 1925; English having been set aside as an optional subject in classes IV and V.

(*b*) *Population of School-going Age.*

244. The school-going population used to be calculated in India as 15 per cent. of the population. This proportion was in accord with the recommendation made by the Education Commission of 1882 in paragraph 48 of their report. In paragraph 28 of the Sixth Quinquennial Review on the Progress of Education in India, 1907-1912, this question was examined further and it was argued that the conventional figure of 15 per cent. represented a fairly correct basis for the calculation of the population of school-going age in India. Owing, how-

ever, to the vexed nature of the question as to what proportion of the population should be regarded as that of school-going age, the Government of India dropped the 15 per cent. basis altogether and directed that the percentages of those at school should be calculated upon the total population. This was no doubt done to avoid all controversy in the matter and the General Educational Tables appended to the educational reports no longer make any reference to school-going population and reckon the percentages of scholars to the total population.

245. It is, however, possible now to arrive at some, more or less, definite calculations in this respect as Compulsory Primary Education Acts have been passed in most provinces. Generally speaking, these Acts are applicable to children between the ages of 6 and 11 years. All the children between these age-limits may, therefore, be regarded as comprising the population of school-going age. The percentage of this population to the total population, as calculated from Age Table VII of the Census of 1921, is approximately as follows in the different provinces:—

	Per cent.
Madras	13·2
Bombay	14·1
Bengal	14·9
United Provinces	13·5
Punjab	14·4
Burma	12·2
Bihar and Orissa	15·0
Central Provinces	15·1
Assam	15·5
INDIA	14·1

It will be observed from the above table that the percentage of children of school-going age to total population is about 15 in the case of four provinces; about 14 in the case of two provinces and India as a whole; and about 13 or less in the case of three provinces. The general average, comes to nearly 14 per cent. and this proportion can perhaps safely be regarded as a fair indication of the school-going population in India. The detailed figures are given in the subjected table.

Population of School-going age.

Province.	Total Population (all ages).	Population between 5—10 years of age.	Population between 10—15 years of age.	Four-fifths of the Population between 5—10 years of age.	One-fifth of the Population between 10—15 years of age.	Approximate Population between 6 - 11 years of age (Total of Cols. 5 and 6).	Percentage Col. 7 to Col. 2.
1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Madras	42,318,985	5,727,142	5,043,426	4,571 714	1,008,685	5,580,399	13·2
Bombay	19,291,719	2,848,626	2,193,662	2,278,901	438,732	2,717,633	14·1
Bengal	46,695,536	7,342,558	5,342,904	5,874,046	1,068,581	6,942,627	14·9
United Provinces	45,375,787	6,391,754	5,094,499	5,113,403	1,018,900	6,132,303	13·5
Punjab	20,685,024	3,109,871	2,425,220	2,487,897	485,044	2,972,941	14·4
Burma	13,169,099	1,630,390	1,504,298	1,304,312	300,860	1,605,172	12·2
Bihar and Orissa	34,002 189	5,383,220	3,998,162	4,306,576	799,632	5,106,208	15·0
Central Provinces and Berar	13,912,760	2.210,879	1,636,997	1,768,703	327,399	2,096,102	15·1
Assam	7,606,230	1,257,889	860,902	1,006,311	172,181	1,178,492	15·5
British India	247,003,293	36,418,285	28,480,602	29,134,628	5,696,120	34,830,748	14·1
All India	315,350,442	46,747,388	36,741,852	37,397,910	7.348,370	44,746,280	14·2

Sources of information—

I. Census of India—Volume I, India, Part II—Tables pages, 46. 49, 50. 51, 52. 53 54. 55, 57 and 58.

II. Statistical Abstract for British India, 1916-17 to 1925-26, pages 24—25.

NOTE.—The figures for *All India* include figures for British Territory as well as Indian States and Agencies.

The figures for *British India* include figures for the nine major provinces, the North-West Frontier Province, Coorg, Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara, Baluchistan and the Andaman and Nicobar Islands The total populations of these areas are:—

Nine major provinces (Madras to Assam) and North-West Frontier Province	245,408,262
Coorg (163,838), Delhi (488,188), Ajmer-Merwara (495,271), Baluchistan (420,648), Andamans (27,086).	1,595,031
Total	247,003,293

(c) *Adult Education.*

246. Although the provision of facilities for the education of grown-ups is one of the greatest needs of the country in order to break down the illiteracy of the masses, few provinces, except the Punjab, have made any extensive provision for the education of adults, although the returns show quite a large number of institutions and pupils under instruction. A considerable number of the institutions shown in the returns, however, are not strictly schools for adults but are in many cases night or part-time schools for ordinary primary school children who are unable to attend day schools. In the following table the majority of the schools in Bombay, the Punjab, Burma and the Central Provinces are schools which educate adults only, while the figures for the other provinces include schools which admit children as well as adults: — Limited Provision.

Province.	Institutions.	Pupils.
Madras	5,632	151,691*
Bombay	202	7,178
Bengal	1,533	35,276
United Provinces	26	723
Punjab	3,786	98,467
Burma	3	233
Bihar and Orissa	804	17,670
Central Provinces and Berar	39	1,155
North-West Frontier Province	1	25
Delhi	20	562
Total	12,046	312,980

* This figure represents the enrolment in 5,604 schools for boys. The number of pupils in the 28 schools for girls is not available.

247. The adult schools in Bombay include six secondary schools, five special schools and nine schools for women, and have increased from 30 to 202 during the quinquennium. Of the six secondary schools five are for men and one is for women including a night high school; a night high school is maintained by the Saraswati Mandir at Poona; a night secondary school is at Igatpuri mainly attended by G. I. P. Railway workers and two secondary schools are at Karachi. All the five special schools are schools for women and, with the exception of one school at Bombay, are maintained by the Poona Seva Sadan Society. In these schools instruction is given in English, First Aid, sewing, music, nursing midwifery and domestic science. The primary schools for adults are mainly maintained by the district local boards, by municipalities and by private managements, including the Seva Sadan Society at Poona and Bombay and the Adult Education Society. It is to be regretted that owing to financial difficulties the co- Bombay.

operative night schools founded by the late Sir Vithaldas Thackersey which numbered at one time as many as 40 have ceased to exist.

Bengal.

248. The total number of night schools in Bengal has slightly declined and it is reported that the majority of the schools leave much to be desired owing to the irregularity of the school hours and of attendance. In addition to the adult schools in Bengal there are two groups of continuation schools, group I schools nominally for boys below the age of 15 who have already ceased schooling, which now number 125, and group II schools which give a very elementary form of instruction and number 44.

United Provinces.

249. Very little progress was made during the quinquennium in the United Provinces with the provision of adult schools but at the end of the quinquennium a scheme was under the consideration of Government for the opening and aiding of an extended system of night schools in municipalities while another scheme for the formation of Co-operative Adult Educational Societies aided by Government through district boards was sanctioned immediately after the close of the period under review.

Punjab.

250. In the Punjab the movement to open an adequate number of schools for adults originally initiated with the co-operative societies and the example which they set has resulted in the adoption of an extended scheme for the provision of classes for illiterate adults attached to vernacular secondary schools. The activities of the Rural Community Board and of the District Community Councils in regard to the provision of village libraries, lantern slides, lecture notes and pamphlets have also considerably assisted the attempts which have been made to remove adult illiteracy.

Bihar and Orissa.

251. In Bihar and Orissa there has been a large increase in the number of pupils reading in night schools, but in almost all the schools over 50 per cent. of the pupils are children and it is only in the industrial areas that a larger proportion of adults is in attendance.

Central Provinces.

252. In the Central Provinces the majority of the schools are managed by the Depressed Classes Mission and by the Young Men's Christian Association and are most largely attended by mill workers, nearly all the pupils being actual adults.

Delhi.

253. In the Delhi Municipality the number of schools for adults has risen from 14 to 20 and all the schools are maintained by the Municipal Committee. The six privately managed schools for adults which were working in the year 1925-26 have ceased to exist and no school for adults has as yet been opened in the Delhi Province outside the Delhi Municipal area. In the 5-year programme of expansion of education in the directly administered areas provision has

been made for the opening of 25 schools for adults in Delhi during the next 5 years.

(*d*) *Educational Broadcasting.*

254. There is no doubt as to the value of " broadcasting " in promoting the cause of education in general and of adult education in particular. In England, the British Broadcasting Corporation has been broadcasting with a fair amount of success educational talks for the benefit of both the ordinary schools and adult education societies and organisations. In India, the experiment of educational broadcasting has not yet been tried but, when it is introduced, and it must come before long, it is likely to prove of immense value especially in the field of adult education. This novel method of imparting instruction affords far greater attraction and fascination than any system of formal education in so far at least as the education of adults is concerned. Its use is likely to attract the attention of the educationalists in India in the near future.

255. There are at present only two broadcasting stations in India—one in Bombay and the other in Calcutta. The difficulties of cost and the multiplicity of languages are likely to delay the adoption, even in a modified form, of any scheme of educational broadcasting such as that in vogue in Great Britain, but it is anticipated that the development of a scheme in India for broadcasting educational talks will be undertaken in due course when the initial difficulties of cost and language are satisfactorily met.

The activities in England of the British Broadcasting Corporation in this respect will be of especial interest to Indian educationalists. The educational talks broadcasted by them are confined mainly to two groups:—(*i*) talks for pupils attending ordinary schools, and (*ii*) talks for the benefit of the adults Some idea of the system followed and the work performed will be gathered from the Appendix on Educational Broadcasting which is included in Vol. II of this Review.

CHAPTER VII.

EDUCATION OF INDIAN GIRLS AND WOMEN.

Institutions for girls.

—	Year.	Arts Colleges.	High Schools.	Middle Schools.	Primary Schools	Special Schools and Colleges.	Total.
Institutions for Girls.	1921-22	12	120	548	22,579	258	23,517
	1926-27	18	145	656	26,621	316	27 756
	Increase or decrease	+6	+25	+108	+4,042	+58	+4,239
Percentages of increase or decrease.	1926-27	+50 0	+20 8	+19 7	+17 9	+22 5	+18 0
	1921-22	+50 0	+48·1	+22 9	+24 9	−49 6	+23 0

Scholars.

Female scholars in Girls' and Boys' Schools	1921-22	933	25,130	85·079	1,195,892	11,184	1,318,223
	1926-27	1,624	39,858	123·892	1,545,963	14,729	1,726,066
	Increase or decrease	+686	+14,728	+38,813	+350,071	+3,545	+407,843
Percentages of increase or decrease.	1926-27	+73·1	+58 6	+45 6	+29 3	+31 7	+30 9
	1921-22	+78·0	+69 5	+21·8	+15·7	—33·5	+16 1

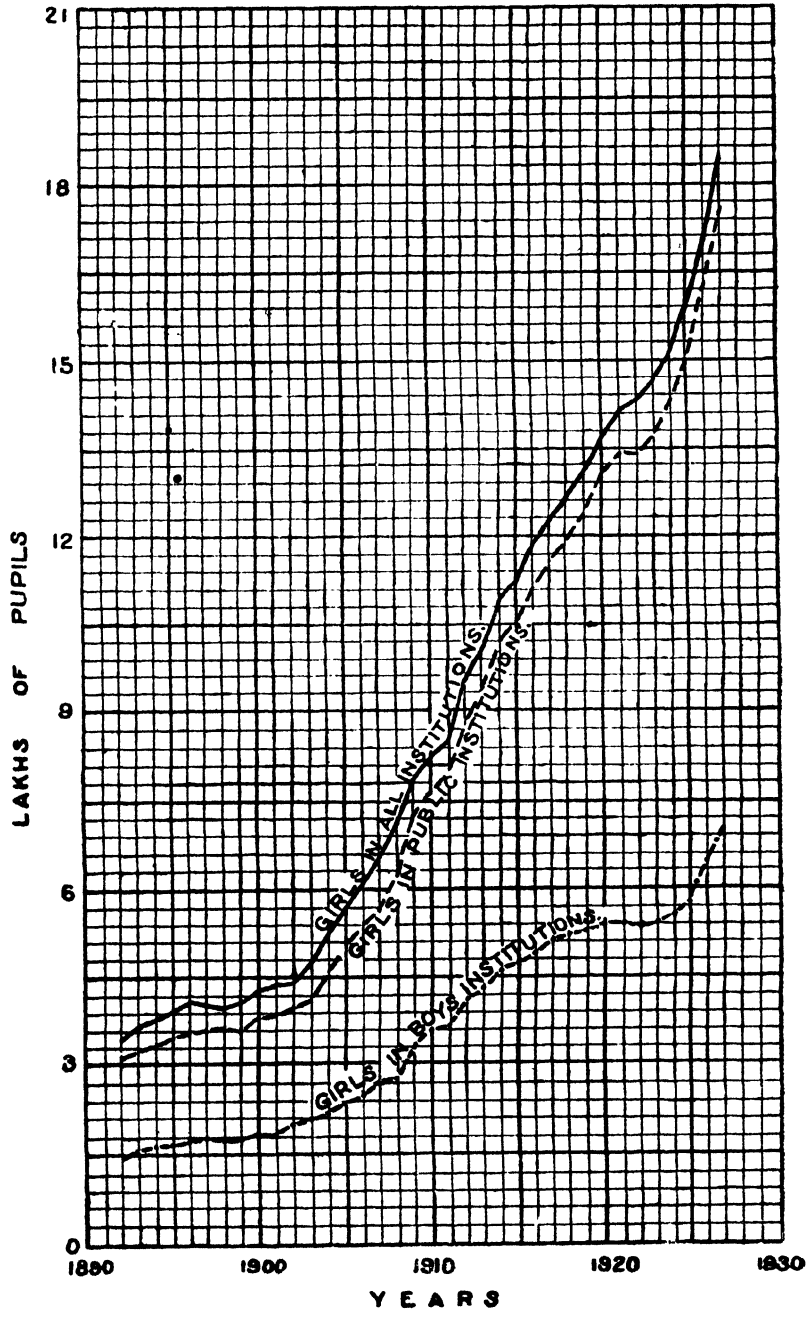
NOTE.—These tables exclude statistics for European Institutions.

Statistics.

256. The prospect at the end of the quinquennium for women's education in British India is bright. There has been a most striking increase in the total number of Indian girls under instruction in all classes of recognised institutions, the increase during the quinquennium being over 400,000 as against an increase of 180,000 in the previous quinquennium. The figures represent an increase of 30·9 per cent. as against the previous increase of 16·1 per cent. The large increase in the total number of girl scholars is especially satisfactory in view of the fact that the number of institutions for girls increased by only 18 per cent. as against an increase of 23 per cent. in the previous quinquennium. The increase in the number of girls reading in recognised primary schools alone was over 350,000 as against 160,000 in the previous quinquennium while the increase in the number of girls reading in special schools and colleges was more than 3,500 as against a decrease of nearly 6,000 in the previous quinquennium. Yet

FIG. 8.

FEMALE EDUCATION.



in spite of the large increase in the total number of girls under instruction comparatively few go up to the high school stage and fewer still enter a university. Only sixteen hundred young women are reading to-day in an arts college in India.

257. The least satisfactory feature of girls' education is the fact that, in spite of all the efforts which have been made to increase the number of girls under instruction, the rate of progress of girls' education has remained very much slower than the corresponding rate of progress of boys' education. During the quinquennium the percentage of boys under instruction in recognised institutions to the total male population improved from 5·0 to 6·9, or by 1·9, while the percentage of girls under instruction to the total female population improved from only 1·1 to 1·5 or by 0·4. The hope, therefore, so often expressed, that the education of women will gradually be brought up to the level of the education of boys is not likely to be realised under present conditions for some time to come. Starting as it does with a heavy initial handicap, women's education, if it is to reach the same level as men's, must considerably increase its rate of progress, in order to achieve the object which is in view.

Provincial comparison.

258. It must, however, be remembered that the individual provinces vary very considerably in the stage of their advancement and in their rate of progress. During the quinquennium, Madras and Burma increased the percentage of girls under instruction by 0·8; Bombay by 0·5; Bengal and Assam by 0·3; the United Provinces by 0·2; while in the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces the increase was only 0·1. For the year 1926-27, the percentage of girls under instruction in recognised institutions to the total population was 2·6 in Burma as against 4·1 for boys; 2·5 in Madras as against 9·2 for boys; 2·4 in Bombay as against 8·9 for boys; 1·8 in Bengal as against 7·8 for boys; about 1·0 in Assam as against 5·9 for boys; in the United Provinces, the Punjab, Bihar and Orissa and the Central Provinces the percentage for girls was under one as against an approximate percentage of five for boys in all of them except the Punjab where it was about nine.

Obstacles to progress.

259. The great disparity between the figures of boys' and girls' education, as exhibited by the statistics given above, is probably due less to a lack of provision of facilities for the education of girls than to a lack of a general demand for it throughout the country. For many generations in the past, the formal education of girls has not, from a utilitarian point of view, been considered as necessary as that of boys. Consequently the education of girls has been subordinated to that of boys and this has reacted adversely on the progress of female education. One reason which appears to have prompted parents to send their daughters to school is that an educated girl has better prospects in the marriage market than

an illiterate girl. A few parents have also educated their girls for the sake of employment as teachers but their number is not large and is usually confined to certain educationally advanced and socially emancipated communities. The training in domestic duties given in some girls' institutions is appreciated but it does not seem to influence parents to any large extent to send their daughters to school. By far the greatest number of girls is found in the primary classes, but their attendance in such classes is not always due to any real desire for education; primary schools too often only serve as convenient *creches* or nursuries for children whose parents cannot for some reason or other look after them during the day. Such girls are removed from the school as soon as they are old enough to attend to domestic duties. Among the more conservative, girls' education, based on Western ideas and culture, is viewed with apprehension and with some distrust of the unsettlement and disintegration of the old order of society which ensues. Such misgivings add considerably to the numerous obstacles to the progress of female education. The obstacles in the way of its rapid advance are well-known and have been repeatedly discussed in previous reports. There are, however, many indications that the conservatism and prejudice of the people are breaking down and that the enlightened public and even the illiterate public are more and more demanding education for their girls and women. Unfortunately, however, the other obstacles in the way of progress remain, namely, the purdah system, early marriages, the early withdrawal of girls from school, the difficuly of obtaining an adequate supply of suitable women teachers, the absence of a sufficient number of separate schools for older girls and the relatively high cost of maintaining schools for girls. The provision of suitable conveyances for girls constitutes another difficulty in the way of progress as the expense of maintaining buses and carriages to convoy girls to and from school is always a heavy one and adds to the high cost of female education. But the interest in women's education evinced by the provincial legislatures, the activities of non-official bodies and associations, the work of the all-India Women's Conferences on educational reform, the introduction of compulsion for girls by local bodies in a few areas and the demand for the postponement of the age of marriage all bear witness to the changing outlook on the position and education of women.

Co-education.

260. One difficulty which lies in the way of a rapid advance consists in the demand which is made in many provinces that separate primary schools should everywhere be provided for girls. In spite of the progress which has been made in co-education in several provinces, it is noteworthy that, as far back as the year 1902, 44·7 per cent. of the girls under instruction were reading in boys' schools, whereas in the year 1926-27 only 38·5 per cent. of the girls under instruction were reading in boys' schools. This of course, may be partially accounted

for by the very large increase which has taken place in the number of separate schools for girls. But in some provinces, particularly in the Punjab, the prejudice against sending even a very young girl to a boys' primary school appears to remain. The objection to co-education in primary schools would probably be reduced if, as in other countries, the mixed schools could be staffed by both men and women teachers. But except in very rare cases, principally where the wife of the village school master has also become a qualified teacher, the appointment of a mixed staff in primary schools is impracticable.

The following table shows the percentage of girls under instruction in boys' schools to the total number of girls under instruction, in the years 1921-22 and 1926-27:—

Province.	1921-22.	1926-27.
Madras	52·1	55·5
Bombay	36·4	33·9
Bengal	16·5	14·4
United Provinces	36·0	33·3
Punjab	5·4	8·1
Burma	74·8	78·5
Bihar and Orissa	42·6	39·6
Central Provinces and Berar	40·4	35·7
Assam	50·6	52·4

It will be noticed that the only provinces in which there has been an increase in the percentage of girls reading in boys' schools are Madras, the Punjab, Burma and Assam; and in the Punjab the total number of girls reading in boys' schools is approximately only 10,000. It is significant that Burma and Madras, which have by far the highest percentage of girls under instruction, have a very much higher percentage of girls reading in boys' schools than other provinces. The low percentage of girls in boys' schools in Bengal may be accounted for by the existence of a very large number of separate institutions for women, while the low percentage in the Punjab is due to the general backwardness of women's education in North India and to the rigidity of the social system.

Number of schools required.

261. There are 26,682 primary schools for girls in India, the majority of which are situated in Bengal, the provinces next in order being Madras, Bihar and Orissa, the United Provinces and Bombay. In Bengal, Bihar and Orissa and Burma most of the girls' schools are under private management, in the Central Provinces the large majority are under direct Government control, in the remaining provinces local boards and municipalities control the large majority of girls' primary schools. The task of providing even one mixed primary school for every village or small group of adjoining villages in India is an immense one, and, if, in addition, separate schools are to be provided for girls in every village, the task will become almost impossible and the cost of financing primary education will be prohibitive. The Directors of Public Instruction in

several provinces have drawn prominent attention to the difficulty of meeting the demand for the multiplication of village schools. The Director of Public Instruction in Bihar and Orissa states:—

"We are now reaching a stage when each village wants a primary school, a Maktab and a Sanskrit Pathsala. In addition, it is claimed that even at the lower primary stage separate schools are necessary for girls and, in many cases, separate schools for children of the depressed classes also. Thus, in the poorest province of India, we are being asked to provide five primary schools in one village, which is altogether outside the range of practical politics."

There are as stated above 26,682 primary schools for girls in British India and there are approximately 500,000 towns and villages. Even leaving out of account the fact that the 26,000 odd girls' primary schools are not distributed evenly between 26,000 towns or villages, on the assumption that separate schools must everywhere be provided for girls, some 470,000 additional girls' schools would be necessary; on the same basis some 339,000 additional boys' schools would be necessary; the present position being that approximately there is one boys' schools for every 3·1 towns or villages and one girls' school for every 18·7 towns or villages. The actual number of schools required would, of course, in all probability, be less than the number estimated since, in spite of many towns and villages requiring more than one school, the population of many villages cannot support a school and villages could be grouped for school purposes. But in any case it is clear that the total recurring cost of financing separate primary schools for girls would be very large indeed. Even taking the number of boys and girls of school-going age alone as a basis for calculation, it has been estimated that it will cost 33 crores per annum (excluding capital expenditure) to provide instruction for all girls and boys of school-going age. The following table throws further light on the situation:—

Statistics for girls (1927).

	No. of Females served by one school (Recognised). (1)	Female population of school-going age. (a). (2)	Female Scholars in Recognised Institutions (3)	Percentage of (3 to (2). (4)
Madras	5,993	3,002,753	525,697	17 5
Bombay	5,509	1,2-3 975	215,401	16·8
Bengal	1,525	3,156 204	416,415	13 2
United Provinces	11,701	3,022,326	119,215	3·9
Punjab	6 757	1 313.026	89 5·7	6 8
Burma	8.287	903 731	166.193	18 4
Bihar and Orissa	6 053	2,413,511	115,785	4 8
Central Provinces	17,231	974,591	12,363	4 3
Assam	8 100	510 317	34,691	6·8
India	4,296	16 840,386	1,751,611	10 4

(a) Calculated at 14 per cent. of the population of females.

This figures in the above table with those at the beginning of this chapter show that at present there is only one girls' primary school for every 632 girls of school-going age and that the total number of girls at present reading in recognised institutions of all kinds represents only 10·4 per cent. of the total number of girls of school-going age. The corresponding figures for boys' schools are one primary school for every 109 boys of school-going age and 49·4 per cent.

Compulsion.

262. A further handicap to women's education is the absence of compulsion in primary schools. With the exception of seven divisions of the city of Madras, two wards of the city of Bombay and the Municipalities of Erode and Cochin in South India in which compulsion has been introduced for girls (excluding Muhammadan girls), no local authority has introduced compulsion for girls.

Attendance.

263. Even the total number of girls under instruction does not give too accurate a picture of the extent of girls' education since there is a wide discrepancy between the average number of girls enrolled and the average attendance. The percentage of average attendance for girls to total enrolment in British India was 76·5 in 1926-27 as against 78·8 for boys. But the percentage of attendance for girls was as low as 65·3 in Assam and 68·7 in Bombay. It is disappointing to find, that there has been so little improvement in the regularity of attendance of girls for even in 1917 the percentage of attendance for all India was 76·1.

Supervision by Women.

264. The extent to which girls' schools are staffed by women and inspected by women has considerable effect on the popularity and progress of women's education. Unfortunately the increase in the number of women inspectors has not kept pace with the large increases in the number of girls' schools and in the number of girls under instruction. In 1926-27 the total women's inspecting agency, including Inspectresses, Assistant Inspectresses and Deputy Inspectresses, numbered 101, as against 84 in 1921-22 and 68 in 1916-17. There are, therefore, at present 101 inspecting officers for 28,001 schools spread over an area of over a million square miles—an average of 280 institutions and an area of ten thousand square miles for each officer. This average is obviously too large and is not appreciably smaller than the average of 285 schools ten years ago. Since 1922, Madras has increased the number of its women inspecting officers by 6, the Punjab by 5, Burma by 3, Bihar and Orissa by 3, and the North-West Frontier Province by one. The United Provinces, Bombay, Bengal, the Central Provinces and Delhi have retained the same number, while Assam has been reduced to only one Lady Assistant Inspectress owing to the holding in abeyance of the post of Chief Inspectress of Girls' Schools as a measure of retrenchment. As remarked in the last quinquennial review, it is obvious that the number of women inspecting officers is quite inadequate, if the inspecting officers are to fulfil one of their

most important duties, namely, to act as missionaries in the cause of female education. The policy of holding in abeyance the post of Chief Inspectress in Assam has been adversely commented on by the Education Department, and in his report for the year 1924-25, the Director of Public Instruction states:—

"The standard of work in the girls' schools must deteriorate and it is reported to have already done so. Male inspecting officers cannot be expected to inspect girls' schools efficiently. The post of Inspectress cannot be restored too soon."

Women teachers.

265. In 1926-27, the total number of women teachers in British India was 34,811, of whom 17,230 were classified as trained, and of whom only 923 possessed a degree. These figures included teachers in European girls' schools, the total number of women teachers in schools for Indian girls being approximately only 32,000. These figures show that there are approximately only 1·2 women teachers for every girls' institution and one woman teacher for every 50 girls under instruction. If trained women teachers only are taken into account, there is only 0·6 teacher per institution and one teacher for every 100 girls under instruction.

The output of trained women teachers has, however, steadily increased. During the quinquennium the number of women under instruction in training colleges increased from 67 to 132 and the number of women in normal and training schools increased from 4,391 to 4,922. These figures are certainly small in comparison to the total demand for trained women teachers, but they compare very favourably with the figures for 25 years ago, which show that there were only 11 women under instruction in training colleges and 1,412 in normal and training schools.

The dearth of women teachers is due to a great extent to the social systems prevailing in India, and the difficulties in the way of obtaining an adequate supply of women teachers are still and likely to remain very great. Something has been done to educate Hindu child widows and train them as teachers and the work done by Government in Madras and by such bodies as the Seva Sadan Society, Poona, and the Industrial Widows' Home, Lahore, is commendable.

Male teachers in Girls' Schools.

266. The total number of men teaching in girls' schools is not available. But most provinces report that the majority of girls' schools are staffed either by untrained women or by old men, who necessarily are neither up-to-date nor particularly competent. In Madras, though the Director of Public Instruction has complained of the shortage of women teachers, the position is more satisfactory and favourable than elsewhere, only 32 per cent. of the teachers in primary schools for girls being men. In Bihar and Orissa, in 1925-26, the Government refused to sanction the opening of any more separate lower primary schools for girls unless the schools were staffed by women teachers. This policy resulted in an immediate

fall in the number of schools for girls but the number of girls under instruction was not affected, since there was an appreciable rise in the number of girls reading in boys' primary schools. In the United Provinces, a very large number of men are reported to be teaching in girls' schools, which is probably one of the main factors which accounts for the percentage of girl scholars reading in recognised institutions to the total female population of school-going age in the United Provinces being the lowest in India, namely, only 3·9 per cent. In the Assam Valley District of Assam, out of 154 girls' schools, only 59 are staffed by women.

Progress by Communities.

267. Figures have not been compiled for all-India to show the progress in women's education of each community separately. But in the United Provinces, the enrolment of Muhammadan girls increased during the quinquennium by 53 per cent. and the enrolment of girls of the depressed classes increased from 464 to 2,221, or, by nearly 379 per cent. As against this the enrolment of Indian Christians increased by only 9 per cent. and of Hindus by 28 per cent.

In Bombay the total number of girls under instruction increased during the quinquennium by 19·5 per cent. The number of Muhammadan girls increased by 8·4 per cent.; of Hindu girls by 24·5 per cent.; of Indian Christian girls by 5·2 per cent.; of Parsis by 20·5 per cent. and of European and Anglo-Indian girls by 12·2 per cent.

In Bengal, the enrolment of Muhammadan girls increased by 25 per cent. as against an increase of 21 per cent. for Hindu girls. In the Chittagong Division however, the enrolment of Muhammadan girls increased by asmuch as 48·8 per cent. as against an increase of 23·5 per cent. for Hindu girls. The author of the quinquennial review for Bengal, however, points out that in spite of the higher percentage of increase in the case of Muhammadan girls, their education is generally confined to the lowest primary classes and the wastage amongst Muhammadan pupils after the first class is enormous. This is illustrated by the fact that in the year 1926-27, in the Chittagong Division, there were 60,931 Muhammadan pupils reading in the first class, 1,695 reading in classes II, III and IV, only five reading at the middle stage, and none at the high stage.

In Madras, the enrolment in Muhammadan elementary girls' schools increased by 44 per cent. as against an increase in enrolment of 31 per cent. in all public elementary girls' schools.

In Ajmer-Merwara, the Muhammadan community is still very backward in relation to other communities. The percentage of Muhammadan girls under instruction to the total number of scholars in 1926-27 was only 2·08 as against 30·09 for Indian Christians, 56·8 for Hindus, 4·8 for Buddhists and 4·8 for Parsis. The percentage of girls under instruction to the total female population of the community was 68·0 in the

case of Parsis; 26·8 for Indian Christians; 0·47 for Hindus; and 0·07 for Muhammadans.

Collegiate Education.

268. The number of women including those in European institutions reading in arts colleges increased from 1,263 to 1,917. The number of women reading in medical colleges increased from 197 to 204, and mine women were reading in law colleges as against *nil* in the previous quinquennium. In 1926-27 no women were reading in commercial colleges as against two in 1921-22. Of the 204 women reading for medicine, 67 were in Delhi, 57 in Bombay, 55 in Madras, 22 in Bengal, two in Burma and one in the United Provinces. Of the nine women reading for Law, three were in Bombay, two in Madras, two in Burma, one in the United Provinces and one in Assam. The facilities provided for professional education are utilised to a greater extent by women in Bombay and in Madras than in other parts of India. The large majority of the women reading Medicine in Delhi come from various places outside the area of this administration.

In Madras additional facilities for the higher education of women were provided by the opening of a new arts college for women in Trichinopoly and by the recognition of two training colleges for women in Madras city. A noteworthy feature of the period was that four Muhammadan women and two depressed class women were reading in arts colleges. A large new Science block for the Women's Christian College, Madras, was completed in 1925 and construction on the new Science block for Queen Mary's (Government) College, Madras, was begun in 1926.

In Bengal the number of arts colleges for women remained unchanged, but the number of women students in them increased from 213 to 289, the increase consisting mainly of Hindus. In the Bethune College it is reported that for the first time the Hindus now outnumber the members of the Brahmo community.

In Assam for the first time four girls attended intermediate classes at the Murarichand College, Sylhet, and two graduate ladies joined the Law College, Gauhati. As previously however, a number of girls from Assam were reading in the colleges in Bengal.

The Indian Women's University.

269. The Indian Women's University at Poona was founded in 1916, mainly on the initiative of Professor Karve of the Hindu Widows Home Association, with the object of providing facilities for education in the vernacular up to a university standard suited to the special needs and requirements of women. There are at present three colleges (one each at Poona, Baroda and Ahmedabad), 15 schools and one training institution affiliated to it. The college course is one of three years' duration. The number of women who graduated in 1927 was 12, as against 8 in 1922. Forty-two women have graduated since the foundation of the University. Of these 30 had Marathi and 12 Gujarati as their vernacular. There are at

present 40 women taking higher courses in the three affiliated colleges. The University is a private institution and in order to enable it to retain its own ideals and courses it has so far abstained from applying for the recognition of its degrees and its affiliated institutions. The enrolment is not good. The majority of girls, like their brothers, prefer to go in for a recognised certificate which possesses an economic value and secures admission to various professional courses.

Secondary Education.

270. In Madras the progress in secondary education has been slow as compared with the progress recorded in the previous quinquennium. But seven new secondary schools were opened, one by Government, one by a municipal board and five by aided managements. Madras is now in the satisfactory position of having 64 secondary schools for girls, at least one for each district, 35 of which are complete high schools. In the previous quinquennium, all girls, irrespective of poverty, were eligible for admission to school at half the standard rates of fees. But during the period under review a new rule was introduced insisting on the production of a poverty certificate from pupils in order to enable them to be eligible for this concession. This restriction appears to have affected slightly the strength of girls in secondary schools. Parents of means, even when they can afford to do so, are not always prepared to pay the fees required to give their daughters a secondary education.

In Bengal six new high schools and 13 new middle schools for girls were opened during the quinquennium, and the total number of girls reading in high schools has shown a remarkable increase, from 2,640 to 4,789. The Director of Public Instruction, however, draws attention to the fact that in spite of the increase in the number of schools and scholars West Bengal, excluding Calcutta, still possesses very few secondary schools for girls.

In the United Provinces the number of girls reading in the high and middle sections of secondary schools increased from 1,239 to 2,145, or by 73 per cent., the increase being shared mainly by Indian Christians and Hindus.

Little progress is recorded in Bihar and Orissa, the number of girls' high schools still remaining at four and the number of pupils having risen from 647 to only 814.

In Assam in spite of the generally backward state of women's education distinct progress has been made. The number of secondary schools for girls increased from 19 to 25 and their enrolment from 2,169 to 3,149.

The position in Ajmer-Merwara is very disappointing. There are no high schools for Indian girls and only nine middle schools with a total enrolment of 976 and, as the Superintendent of Education points out, even this figure does not give an accurate picture of the position since a number of the girls reading in middle schools come from neighbouring Indian

States. The Superintendent of Education attributes this state of affairs mainly to the prevalence of purdah, early marriage and the absence of a separate women's inspecting agency.

In the North-West Frontier Province remarkable progress has been made. The number of middle schools for girls has increased from four to 14 and their enrolment from 757 to 2,084. Two of the new schools are anglo-vernacular schools and a high school for girls has been opened at Peshawar. The five-year programme of expansion which was adopted at the end of the quinquennium includes proposals for the opening of two more high schools and a number of middle schools.

Zenana Education.

271. The education of women in their own homes still forms a feature of educational work in India—a feature which must remain so long as the purdah system is retained. In Bengal a new experiment has been tried based partly on the Parents National Union Scheme in England. A correspondence system of instruction from a centre has been adopted and the instruction is supplemented by visiting. During the quinquennium the pay of the Zenana teachers was improved and a time-scale introduced. In Assam Zenana ladies appeared for the needle work and scholarship examination for the first time and 30 ladies received needle work diplomas and one Muhammadan lady secured a scholarship. In Bihar and Orissa 24 peripatetic teachers were employed and 455 pupils were under instruction. In the Central Provinces the majority of the Zenana classes are conducted by Missions, but 65 pupils attended the Home Class at Akola which is a private institution run by honorary workers.

Curricula.

272. The curricula for girls schools largely follow those in use in schools for boys, but modifications are made not only in different provinces but in different schools in the same province so as to make them more suitable for girls and to the local conditions and people.

In Madras three high schools have experimented with the Dalton plan and much improvement is reported to have taken place in a large number of schools in Kindergarten and Montessori work. In a number of elementary schools provision has been made for vocational instruction which includes classes for carpet and tape weaving, spinning, basket making, lace making and embroidery. At the Wesleyan Mission Vocational School at Ikkadu village girls are trained in needle-work, house-work and crop cultivation. Interesting home craft work is being done at the Lucy Percy Noble Institute for women near Madura. The school has model cottages, a small nursing home with dispensary, a school post office, bank and shop. The work and instruction in the model cottages include house management, cooking, health and sanitation, household accounts and gardening. Many of the girls earn sufficient to provide for their education by working three hours daily at needle-work, lace making and weaving.

At the elementary and training schools for girls at Ankleswar, Gujerat, Bombay, instruction is given in hygiene, first aid, cooking, household management, sewing, laundering and gardening.

In Bengal attempts have been made to widen the curriculum for girls' schools. Vocal and instrumental music has been introduced into all the schools in West Bengal, while many schools now teach embroidery work. A revised curriculum for primary schools was introduced in 1925. Hygiene is a compulsory subject and English and needle work are optional. It is reported that cooking is taught in many schools and that progress is being made in drawing, painting and clay modelling.

In Burma hygiene, domestic economy and needle-work have been made compulsory in the middle sections of English schools and drawing, singing and music are optional subjects. In anglo-vernacular schools the optional subjects include hygiene, domestic economy, needle-work, dress-making, drawing, singing, music, cookery and weaving.

In Assam music, painting, sewing, nursing and cooking receive special prominence in most girls' schools and the number of pupils who have appeared for the needle-work diploma examination has increased from 587 in 1921 to 919 in 1926.

273. In Madras the continuance of the post of Woman Specialist in Physical Instruction has resulted in a considerable improvement in the methods of physical culture adopted in girls' schools. During the quinquennium nearly 700 teachers attended the courses held by the Woman Specialist. A special feature of her exercises consisted in remedial work in the city of Madras. **Physical training.**

In Bombay city the Young Women's Christian Association conducts physical training classes for women teachers and receives grant-in-aid from Government. The Director of Public Instruction reports that within the last three years all the male drill teachers in primary schools in the city have been replaced by women.

In Bengal, the Physical Directress of the Young Women's Christian Association has held training classes for teachers in Calcutta and has inspected a number of girls' schools in the mufassal. Regular medical inspection is reported to be conducted in the majority of schools in West Bengal.

In Burma physical training has been made a compulsory subject in English high schools.

In Bihar and Orissa medical inspection of girls' schools has been much improved by the appointment in 1926 of a permanent Lady School Medical Officer for the whole province.

274. Considerable progress has been made during the quinquennium in the girl-guide movement. The following **Girl Guides.**

table shows the number of Girl-Guide Companies and Flocks and Girl-Guides and Blue-Birds in each Province in 1926-27.

Province.	No of Companies and Flocks	No of Guides and Blue-Birds.
Madras	113	2 577
Bombay	150	3,787
Bengal	43	1,769
United Provinces	61	1,261
Punjab	1	30
Burma	68	1,069
Bihar and Orissa	15	460
Central Provinces	50	991
Assam	13	344
Delhi	9	246
Ajmer-Merwara	12	462
Baluchistan	7	150
Bangalore	16	348
Total	558	13,514

In the United Provinces girl-guide classes have been held in a number of schools, the course including first aid and ambulance work, signalling, cooking, sewing, and nature-study. The companies in this province included several purdah companies.

Buildings and Equipment.

275. The importance of good buildings and equipment which present no mean attraction to school girls has frequently been undervalued or overlooked. But much improvement has been made in some provinces and attempts to better the conditions of buildings and sites have been made in others during the quinquennium. While fine buildings and good equipment have often been secured for colleges and secondary schools it is regretted that little attention has been paid to better the condition of primary schools, especially in the villages. This neglect may, perhaps, account to some extent for the lack of desire among the villagers to send their girls to schools.

In Colleges.

276. In Madras it is reported that the work on the construction of the new Science block for the Queen Mary's College was begun towards the close of the quinquennium. The new Science block for the Women's Christian College, Madras was completed in 1925 with the help of a two-thirds grant from the Government.

In Bengal the need for increased class-rooms and hostel accommodation has long been recognised although little has as yet been done in this direction. A scheme has been prepared for the expansion of the Bethune College, Calcutta, at a cost of Rs. 8 lakhs. This college has opened two new outside hostels to accommodate 50 students. Loretto House, Calcutta, has recently acquired ad adjoining house and grounds into which the Kindergarten classes were moved leaving the old building free for the college department. In the Eden Girls' Intermediate College, Dacca, a wide range of arts subjects is taught but it is regretted that no money has been available for the starting of science classes and the institution still inhabits rented buildings.

In the United Provinces two of the most important institutions, the Crosthwaite Girls' College, Allahabad, and the Theosophical National College, Benares, have quite inadequate accommodation.

In the Punjab the Kinnaird College is reported to have made preparations to move from its unsatisfactory and ill-placed buildings to an excellent site with a fine frontage near the University quarter.

277. Equipment has improved in all secondary schools in Madras, especially science equipment. "The accommodation of aided schools is in most cases good, but it is unfortunate that the accommodation of the majority of the Government schools has remained inadequate and unsuitable" states the Madras report. Absence of suitable sites for new buildings and of adequate accommodation available for rent stand in the way of improving the accommodation of Government schools. Extensions were made to some Mission schools and new buildings were constructed for the two girls' schools at Palghat and Chittoor. The latter has now model school building and hostel accommodation. A small hospital has also been provided for this school. *In Secondary Schools.*

Most of the Calcutta schools have very small playgrounds and can offer few facilities for exercise or games. It is reported that plans are ready for the transfer of the Christ Church Girls' School to a spacious and admirable site at Dum Dum.

In the United Provinces it is reported that each year sees an improvement. The Mission schools led the way in this matter but some other schools such as the Balika Vidyalaya, Cawnpore, are now accommodated in fine buildings. It is deplored that vernacular school buildings are much inferior to English school buildings. Even the so called "model girls' schools" are not beyond reproach although new buildings have been constructed for the Government model girls' schools, Aligarh, at a cost of Rs. 29,000. The Director of Public Instruction, United Provinces, remarks: "The condition of board and aided schools' buildings is unsatisfactory; few of

these schools have buildings of their own; most are badly housed, insanitary, lacking proper ventilation and lighting, and poorly equipped; little progress has been made, lack of funds being usually alleged as the reason ".

In the Punjab high schools for girls are, generally, located in fine buildings and in beautiful surroundings. The Alexandra High School, Amritsar, has recently constructed a fine quadrangular block for school buildings. But the Municipality has been most negligent and dilatory in making satisfactory provision for its high school. The Sikh Kanya Maha Vidyalaya at Ferozepore is gradually constructing class rooms and hostels on a very elaborate scale near the city. At Rawalpindi as well as Lyallpur Government high schools have occupied fine buildings. Improvement has been effected in the buildings of Government girls' schools at Multan but those at Ambala and Ludhiana occupy rented houses.

In Bihar and Orissa much improvement has been made in buildings for class rooms as well as for hostels. Attention has also been paid to the provision of quarters for teachers. At the Ravenshaw Girls' Schools an extension to the hostel was nearly completed. Though some extensions were made to the class rooms and hostels of the Girls' School at Bankipore it still requires further extensions. A project for building a hall for St. Margaret School has been sanctioned by the Government. Teachers' quarters have been built for the Maksho-da Girls' School at Bhagalpur. Middle vernacular school buildings are not neglected. The Government Middle Vernacular School at Sambalpur is about to move into the old Zilla school buildings. Almost all the middle schools under the management of the missions at Cuttack, Ranchi and Maharo have improved their buildings. A new building has been provided for the Government Middle Vernacular School at Bargarh.

It is reported that in the North-West Frontier Province buildings and equipment have been improved as much as the financial condition allowed. The design and arrangement of furniture have received attention; and the province is now better both in buildings and equipment than ever before.

In Primary Schools.

278. Very little attempt appears to have been made to improve the buildings and equipment of primary schools for girls. Separate primary schools for girls in villages are rare and wherever there is one it is ill-furnished and badly housed.

In Madras it is reported that aided elementary schools have good buildings whereas schools under public management are badly housed. The Director of Public Instruction, Madras, writes:—" Most of the latter buildings are rented buildings and the chief defects are want of repairs, lack of ventilation, unsuitable sanitary arrangements and the absence of gardens." Equipment is unsatisfactory except in the city of Madras and in the Ceded Districts.

Though some progress has been made here and there to improve the condition of primary education in Bengal, in the nature of buildings and in the quality and the quantity of equipment there has been no marked rise of level. It is however, satisfactory to note that a number of board model or panchayati union schools has been instituted in selected centres during the quinquennium with a preliminary capital grant of Rs. 1,000 for building and a maintenance grant of Rs. 16 per month.

In the United Provinces very little has been done to provide better accommodation for girls' schools in villages. The Director of Pubilc Instruction remarks:—" If the girls in increasing numbers are to be expected to attend schools they have a right to be accommodated in dry, well-ventilated and well-lighted rooms adequately supplied with suitable furniture; it is only too often that schools are found to fail in these respects."

The five-year programme of expansion in the North-West Frontier Province makes a large provision for school buildings, including 36 new buildings for girls' primary schools.

Scholarships

279. In Madras the number of scholarships available for women were increased by the institution in 1924 of 14 additional higher elementary scholarships. The number of residential scholarships tenable by unmarried girls at the Lady Willingdon Training College, Madras, was increased as also their value, while 8 ordinary and 5 widow scholarships tenable at Queen Mary's College were instituted. The value of scholarships amounted to Rs. 10,000 per annum. During the quinquennium several lady students were awarded State scholarships for higher studies in the United Kingdom.

In the United Provinces 3 women were awarded State scholarships during the quinquennium for proceeding abroad for training in Western methods of Education.

In Bihar and Orissa the number of middle, upper primary and lower primary scholarships awarded to girls increased during the quinquennium from 246 to 267.

In the Central Provinces 2 women graduates were awarded State scholarships during the quinquennium for training in Education in England and 4 scholarships have been awarded annually to women teachers to proceed for training in institutions outside the Central Provinces.

Committees and Associations.

280. The progress of women's education has been considerably assisted during the quinquennium both by the appointment of Special Advisory Women's Committees attached to girls' institutions in many provinces and by the interest shown by Women's Associations all over the country. This is all the more satisfactory, as it has been stated in the past that the cause of female education has suffered at the hands of men who have paid insufficient attention to the special educational

needs of girls and women. In Bombay the Bombay and Poona Seva Sadan Societies have continued to do excellent work, both social and educational, and the Parsi Association's Domestic Arts Classes and the Mahila Vidyalayas at Ahmedabad, Broach and Surat are other examples of private enterprise.

281. One of the outstanding features of the quinquennium was the holding of Women's Conferences on educational reform all over India during the year 1926. These conferences appear to have been the direct outcome of a speech made by the Director of Public Instruction, Bengal, at the prize-giving at the Bethune College, Calcutta, in which he deplored the fact that educated Indian ladies were not taking that interest in girls' education and giving the advice to the authorities which was expected from them. Conferences were held in Madras, Calcutta, Bombay, Poona, Karachi, Delhi, Dacca, Hyderabad (Sind), Lahore, Allahabad and Cawnpore. The movement culminated in the holding of the first All-India Women's Conference on Educational Reform at Poona, in January 1927, under the presidency of Her Highness the Maha'ranee of Baroda. At this conference resolutions were passed demanding moral training, physical training and medical inspection for all girls' schools. Resolutions were also passed demanding compulsion for all girls, including Muhammadan girls, in primary schools, increased rates of pay for women teachers, alternative courses for girls in girls' secondary schools, the employment of educated honorary teachers until such time as the supply of trained teachers became sufficient and legislation to prevent the early marriage of girls.

282. In the Central Provinces a Committee of officials and non-officials was appointed, just before the close of the quinquennium to enquire into Women's education and to make recommendations for its extension: the reference to the committee included the curricula in schools, the provision and training of teachers and co-education. The Committee had not reported at the close of the quinquennium.

Expenditure on institutions for females, by sources.

Year.	Expenditure from				Total.
	Government Funds.	Board Funds.	Fees.	Other sources.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1921-22 . .	63,51 849	29,81,277	8,97,729	29,02,704	1,31 33,559
1926-27 .	81,88,066	45,06 817	14,15,784	39,15,183	1,80,25,850
Increase .	+18,36,217	+15,25,540	+5,18,055	+10,12,479	+48,92,291

Expenditure on different classes of institutions for females.

Year.	Expenditure on				Total.
	Arts Colleges	Secondary Schools.	Primary Schools	Special Schools and Colleges.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
1921-22 . .	2,85,399	37,84,532	73,06,401	17 57,227	1,31,33,559
1926-27 . .	5,54,167	53,11,774	99,75,088	21,84,821	1,80,25,850
Increase . .	+2,68,768	+15,27 242	+26,68,687	+4 27,594	+48,92,291

NOTE —These tables exclude expenditure on European Institutions.

283. Though the total direct expenditure on the education of Indian girls has increased by nearly 49 lakhs it is disappointing to find that, with the exception of the expenditure on arts colleges, the increases during the quinquennium under all heads have been appreciably smaller than the corresponding increases in the previous quinquennium. While the increases under board funds and fees have been very much larger than the previous increases, the increase under other sources has remained stationary and the increase under Government funds has fallen from 37·32 lakhs to 18·36 lakhs. The large increase in expenditure under arts colleges, nearly 94 per cent., is an indication of a desire to break the vicious circle in women's education. Women's education cannot advance because there are few women teachers; there are few women teachers because there are few educated women to become teachers; there are few educated women because there are few women's schools and colleges; and there are few women's schools and colleges because the women to staff them are not available. By spending largely upon higher educational facilities for women, the vicious circle is broken and a supply of educated women will ultimately become available—one of India's greatest needs at the present time. **Expenditure.**

The largest increase in total expenditure on Indian girls' secondary and primary schools occurred in Bombay, there being an increase of over 13½ lakhs during the quinquennium. A corresponding increase of nearly 11 lakhs occurred in Madras. The expenditure in Bengal increased by 4 lakhs, in the Punjab by 2½ lakhs, in Burma by 3 lakhs, in Bihar and Orissa by 1½ lakhs, in the Central Provinces by under one lakh and in Assam by half a lakh.

During the quinquennium the total expenditure on all secondary schools for girls has increased by 22 lakhs while the total expenditure on primary schools has increased by 27 lakhs. In Bombay the increase in expenditure on primary schools was over 11 lakhs, in Madras 8½ lakhs, whereas in the

Punjab the increase was under half a lakh and in Assam under a quarter of a lakh.

Great variations occur in the provinces in the proportion of total expenditure on secondary and primary education. While Madras and Bombay spend more than twice as much on primary schools as is spent on secondary schools, Bengal spends nearly 2 lakhs more on secondary schools than on primary schools, the United Provinces 8 lakhs more, the Punjab 2 lakhs more, Burma over 7 lakhs more and Assam three quarters of a lakh more.

General conclusion.

284. However backward the present state of women's education may be, there are many encouraging signs on the horizon. The women of India of all communities are rapidly awakening not only to the immediate need for the eradication of well recognised social evils, but also to the urgent necessity of educating their daughters not necessarily for employment or high scholarship but at least to be able to take a more intelligent share as mothers and wives in the training and upbringing of children and in the daily affairs of rural and urban life. Until recently the education of the boy appears to have been regarded as more important than the education of the girl and the financing of girls' education, the opening of more girls schools, and the creation of more women supervisors and teachers have been subordinated to the needs of the education of boys. But there is now reassuring evidence, from many quarters, to show that provincial Governments and the public are becoming more and more alive to the vital fact that in national life education, in its broadest sense, begins in the home and that if India wants healthy, upright and unselfish citizens able to bring social uplift and changed customs into the villages of India in which the great mass of the population reside, the quickest, surest and easiest way to obtain them is by improving the education of that most powerful of all influences—the mother in the home. In several of the reports from the provinces this aspect of women's education has been stressed for almost the first time. The author of the last Quinquennial Review on Education in Assam has written at length on the importance of the education of the mother in the home and concludes that " many considerations force on us the imperative necessity of more and better education for the womanhood of the nation ". The Government of the Punjab in their review of the latest Quinquennial Report on Education state that " the Punjab Government realises the great importance of the problem of the education of girls and its bearing on the well-being on the province ". In Madras the same feeling is abroad and in a report, prepared for the local government, on the development of Elementary Education it is stated that " It is therefore necessary to lay emphasis on the fact, that from almost every point of view, the education of girls, at the moment, is more important than the education of boys. If education is really going to bring in its

train social reform, better sanitation and improved public health it is going to achieve this result quickest by the education of the future women and mothers of this presidency. The improvement of the conditions of life must begin in the home and its influence will gradually permeate village and urban life. The first step, therefore, in any programme of social amelioration should be the education of the women of the country ".

285. In the address of welcome delivered by the Rani Saheb of Sangli at the first All-India Women's Conference on Educational Reform at Poona in January 1927 the Rani Saheb said " There was a time when the education of girls had not only no supporters but open enemies in India. Female education has by now gone through all the stages—total apathy and indifference, ridicule, criticism and acceptance. It may now be safely stated that everywhere in India the need of education for girls as much as for boys is recognised as a cardinal need of progress—a *sine qua non* of national advancement ".

Views, such as these, are bound to impress and shape public opinion and in spite of the admitted obstacles in the way of progress the outlook for women's education is brighter to-day than at any previous period. The co-operation asked for in the previous quinquennial report of the Government of India has been secured and the belief that " the education of women is essential to national advancement " is now wide spread.

CHAPTER VIII.

PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION.

(i) *Training of Teachers.*

General.

286. For convenience, the institutions dealt with in this section of the chapter on professional education have been classified into training colleges and training schools. This classification, however, scarcely gives an adequate idea of all the different classes attached to training institutions in the provinces which are varyingly called college, secondary, anglo-vernacular, vernacular, senior anglo-vernacular, junior anglo-vernacular, primary, higher elementary, lower elementary, and guru training classes. The provinces also vary in the types of institutions which provide training for teachers preparing to teach in the various grades of schools. In most provinces graduate teachers proposing to teach in high schools are trained in colleges, but in some provinces secondary training schools provide training for graduate teachers as well as for under-graduate teachers. Secondary training does not have the same connotation in all provinces.

287. The problem of the adequate supply of trained teachers is one of the most important and difficult problems facing educationists in India, and the problem has been intensified in recent years by the rapid extension of schools and increase of scholars in almost all grades of institutions. The problem manifests itself most in the supply of primary school teachers and of women teachers. Compulsory education cannot be introduced before a sufficient supply of primary school teachers is available while the spread of girls' education is retarted by the difficulty in obtaining an adequate supply of trained women teachers, or even of women teachers of any kind. The total number of teachers in all grades of institutions has increased from 3,20,538 in 1921-22 to 4,00,322 in 1926-27. Of the latter figure 3,65,511 were men and 34,811 were women. The percentage of trained teachers to the total number of teachers has increased from 40·0 to 45·8, but the percentage of teachers possessing a degree to the total number of teachers has decreased from 4·0 to 3·8. Although the percentage of trained teachers has increased, the fact that over 50 per cent. of the total number of teachers have undergone no training of any kind reveals the magnitude of the problem in regard to the staffing of schools by qualified teachers. Every province has experienced difficulties in insisting that the existing staffs of all schools should be trained; but the problem is complicated by the need not merely of providing trained teachers for the existing number of institutions but by the necessity of stimulating the production of trained teachers so as to keep pace with the increase in the number of educational institutions.

The training of men teachers.

Training Colleges for men.

Province.	1921-22.			1926-27.		
	Institutions.	Students.	Female students included in the previous column	Institutions.	Students.	Female students included in the previous column.
Madras . . .	3	211	...	3	224	..
Bombay . . .	1	32	3	1	48	7
Bengal . . .	2	118		2	136	...
United Provinces	4	217	3	3	258*	1
Punjab . . .	4	406	4	2	269	3
Burma	...	.	...		12†	4
Bihar and Orissa .	1	38	...	2	57	.
Central Provinces and Berar	1	135	..	1	120	2
Assam . . .	.	...		.	..	.
North West Frontier Province.	1	33	.	1	18	...
India . . .	17	1,190	10	15	1,142	17

* Includes 84 students in the teaching departments of Aligarh and Benares Universities.

† In the teaching department of the Rangoon University.

Training colleges.

288. The number of training colleges for men has decreased from 17 to 15, and their strength from 1,190 to 1,142. There has, however, been no reduction in the total number of institutions providing collegiate training, since some of the institutions classified as colleges in 1921-22 have been absorbed into university departments; so that there are at present, in addition to the 15 colleges shown in the table above, departments of teaching, with degree or diploma courses, at the Aligarh, Benares, and Rangoon Universities, with a total number of 96 students on the rolls.

289. In Madras, there has been no addition to the number of training colleges, and the Government Training College, Rajahmundry, still remained unaffiliated to the Madras University. At the close of the quinquennium this college applied for affiliation to the Andhra University. The proposals for the erection of new buildings and other improvements for this college have been postponed from year to year owing to the necessity of awaiting a settlement of the controversy regarding the location of the headquarters and the centres of advanced

teaching of the Andhra University. At the Teachers' College, Saidapet, extensions are under construction for the physical science building, and new blocks for the mathematics and natural science sections have been sanctioned. In 1923 the University of Madras agreed to geography being taken as a separate subject for the L. T. course, and the teachers under training at Saidapet can now specialize in geography.

290. The Secondary Training College, Bombay, was affiliated to the Bombay University in 1920, and the first examinations for Part I of the degree of Bachelor of Teaching were held in 1923. The course for the degree of Bachelor of Teaching involves two examinations: Part I written, and Part II practical. The syllabus for the examination in Part I was revised in 1927 and includes the science of education, psychology and principles of education, history of education, and the practice of education, including special methods, school organization, and hygiene. The work for the examination in Part II includes observation of lessons, practice lessons, experimental psychology and mental tests. The great majority of the teachers under training in the college during the quinquennium came from Government schools, but by the end of the quinquennium almost all graduate teachers in Government high schools had been trained and the college can now admit a larger number of teachers from non-Government schools. An interesting feature of the work of the college during the period under review has been the use and development of the project method, particularly in the teaching of history and geography.

291. In Bengal the number of students under training in the two training colleges at Calcutta and Dacca increased from 118 to 136; but the author of the latest quinquennial review on education in Bengal points out the inadequacy of the supply of trained graduates and states that " when we remember that there are nearly 22,000 teachers in secondary schools, and that only one in 50 of them are trained graduates it is clear that the output of the training colleges is much too small, little more than is required to fill the places of the trained teachers who retire". It is not surprising, therefore, that the Bengal Government strongly opposed the proposals of the Bengal Retrenchment Committee to abolish even the existing training colleges. The Committee apparently were of the opinion that a teacher's innate capacity and his education were sufficient to make him a successful teacher without any further training!—a view which has received condemnation from educationists as well as others all over India and elsewhere. Lord Lytton, when Governor of Bengal, said at the opening of the new building of the David Hare Training College:—" The ceremony which I have come to perform may be taken as an emphatic declaration by the Government that the teaching profession is no longer to be regarded as the last resort of those who are incapacitated for any other profession; that it is rather the most responsible and important of all

professions; and that those who embrace it require as good a training as those who enter any other profession." In 1925 the David Hare Training College was removed to new and spacious buildings, which include the college, a hostel and a demonstration school for about 300 boys. The Dacca Training College, on the other hand, has constantly had to refuse admission to students on the ground of lack of accommodation, both class room and hostel accommodation being insufficient.

292. In the United Provinces though three Government institutions, one at Allahabad, a second at Lucknow and a third at Agra, are classified as colleges, only students in the Allahabad Training College read for a degree in Education. The students under training at Lucknow and Agra only qualify for the Final Teacher's Certificate. In 1923 the Aligarh University opened a one year's course leading to the B. T. examination of the University, and also a one year training course for intermediate students leading to a Teacher's Training Certificate.

293. In the Punjab, the Central Training College, Lahore, has played a very important part during the quinquennium in the provision of the additional teachers required in the province owing to the rapid expansion of education in all branches. In 1923 the total enrolment of the college was 185, and this figure had increased to 249 in 1927. The number of students under training for the B. T. degree, however, has remained practically stationary in the neighbourhood of 60. Students in the Senior Anglo-Vernacular class have increased from 53 to 113, and in 1925 the Junior Anglo-Vernacular classes were transferred from the college. The gradual changes which have taken place during the quinquennium in the organization of the college have all tended to make the Central Training College concentrate on the production of Senior Anglo-Vernacular trained teachers, and to this end in 1925 the qualification for admission to the Senior Anglo-Vernacular class was raised from the intermediate to the degree standard. Thus, admission to both the B. T. and the Senior Anglo-Vernacular courses is now dependent on the possession of a degree. Junior Anglo-Vernacular classes, which were abolished in the Central Training College, are now held in the Government Intermediate Colleges at Lyallpur and Multan, and in the Islamia College, Lahore, the Khalsa College, Amritsar, and the Dayanand Anglo-Vernacular College, Jullunder.

294. In Burma, the Rangoon University opened an Education Diploma class in the University College in the year 1922-23, but the number of teachers under training was only 12 at the end of the quinquennium.

295. In Bihar and Orissa there are now two training colleges for teachers—the Patna Training College, previously in existence, and the Cuttack Training College, opened in the year 1923. In 1926 the Patna University abolished the L. T. examination and instituted two new courses, one leading to a diploma after one year's study and the other leading to a degree of Bachelor of Education after two years' study. The rules of admission to the training colleges were also revised so as to insist on the admission of only graduates.

296. In the Central Provinces the Government Training College, Jubbulpore, trains graduate teachers for the L. T. degree, and the Nagpur University also trains in its secondary department under-graduate teachers for the Trained Teachers' Certificate Examination. The number of teachers under training has increased from 135 to 170, and the number of stipends available at the College has largely increased.

297. In Assam no training college for teachers has yet been opened, and the author of the last Education Report in Assam states that "the demand for improvement in our secondary schools cannot be effectively met until and unless a training college is established in the Province. No policy of retrenchment on this head should be regarded as sound. It seems strange that while a doctor, an engineer, or even a lawyer is required to have special education and is not allowed to practise in his professional capacity unless he is qualified by training, a teacher's art or profession is supposed to be so unimportant or easy as to require no special training in the great majority of cases. A serious deficiency in the number of well qualified teachers is the fundamental weakness in the system of our education".

298. Though the Training College at Peshawar in the North-West Frontier Province is classified as a college, it only provides for the professional training of senior and junior vernacular teachers. At the beginning of the quinquennium a Junior Anglo-Vernacular training class was attached to the training college, but this was abolished in 1923, and arrangements were made with the Punjab Government to train Junior Anglo-Vernacular candidates in the Punjab training institutions. Teachers who desired to be trained for the Senior Anglo-Vernacular Certificate or for the degree of Bachelor of Teaching have been sent to the Central Training College, Lahore; and in his report on education for the quinquennium the Director of Public Instruction, North-West Frontier Province, states that "the training received, specially at the Central Training College, Lahore, is wide and thorough and is better than this Province could possibly afford to give. The Punjab Government in the Ministry of Education has merited the thanks of the local Administration for its repeated help in the last five years. Had it not been for this timely aid the difficulties for the supply of teachers for the higher grades would have been insuperable".

Training schools for masters, 1926-27.

—	Institutions	Students	Female students included in previous column.
Madras	94	8,697	41
Bombay	15	999	.
Bengal	96	2,190	.
United Provinces	73	1,223	.
Punjab	32	2,851	..
Burma	69	1,615	229
Bihar and Orissa	125	2,333	..
Central Provinces and Berar	11	1,137	..
Assam	8	336	.
North-West Frontier Province	1	65	..
Coorg	.	.	.
Delhi	.	.	.
Ajmer-Merwara	2	41	..
Baluchistan	1	18	...
Bangalore	1	25	
Other Administered Areas	1	80	...
India 1926-27	529	21,610	270
India 1921-22	926	22,774	239

Training schools.

299. In view of the need already mentioned for the rapid increase in the output of trained teachers, especially of vernacular trained teachers, it is disappointing to find that the number of training schools has decreased from 926 to 529 and their strength from 22,774 to 21,610. Though the decrease in the number of institutions is large it is not so serious as the figures would make it appear, since in several provinces the reduction has been due to re-organisation and amalgamation. But the fall in the number of teachers under training shows a definite set-back in the endeavours which were made in the previous quinquennium to increase the output of persons qualified to teach. Between 1916-17 and 1921-22 the number of scholars under instruction increased by nearly 7,000 which gave promise that the annual outturn of trained teachers was, to some extent, meeting the needs of expansion. But the present position shows that while the number of primary schools for boys has increased from 137,437 in 1921-22 to 162,666 in 1926-27, there has been no increase in the output of trained teachers. The enrolment in training schools has

increased in Madras, the Punjab and in Burma, but has decreased in all other provinces. It would appear that these three are the only provinces in which serious and effective attempts were made during the quinquennium to provide the supply of trained teachers necessary for the expansion of education among the masses and for the ultimate introduction of compulsion. Bihar and Orissa should also be included among the provinces in which effective steps are being taken to increase the supply of trained teachers, for the decrease in the schools was caused by the amalgamation of certain classes of duration of the course from three to two years.

300. In Madras, the reduction in the number of training schools was caused by the amalgamation of certain classes of training schools, by the classification of training schools in one grade whether they included other grades of training classes or not and by the abolition of certain lower elementary training classes. During the quinquennium special endeavours were made not merely to increase the output of trained teachers but to improve the quality of the teachers by concentrating on an increased supply of higher elementary trained teachers as distinct from lower elementary trained teachers. An immediate result of this policy was an increase of over 60 per cent. in the strength of higher elementary training classes, while the strength of lower elementary training classes remained stationary. A further result of the new policy was an increase in the strength of secondary training schools from 644 to 1,151. In 1923 the Union Mission Training School, Vellore, with the approval of Government adopted an experimental scheme of training for elementary school teachers somewhat on the lines of the work which is being done at the Moga Training School in the Punjab. The curriculum of the new courses includes history, geography, hygiene, civics, gardening, weaving and cottage industries. An important step forward was taken in 1924 when a Sanskrit and Tamil Training College for Pandits was opened under aided management at Chidambaram, and it is hoped that the new institution will lead the way for the creation of a supply of language teachers trained in modern methods. Another important feature of the period in Madras has been the increase in the number of manual training classes attached to training schools. Fifty-four training schools now have special practical classes in which instruction is given in a variety of subjects including woodwork, mechanical drawing, weaving, rattan and bamboo work, textile printing, aluminium work, wood-carving, engraving, book-binding and basket-work.

301. In Bombay, the decline in the number of training schools and in the number of pupils under instruction has come about through a variety of causes. In the previous quinquennium a scheme was adopted to provide training schools to accommodate approximately 50 students in every district in the Presidency. The new schools were in many ways successful.

But the result of a somewhat indiscriminate opening of schools was that in a few years some districts were producing a larger number of trained teachers than were actually required, while in others a sufficient number of trained teachers was not forthcoming. It was, therefore, decided to modify the scheme so that each district should ultimately have approximately the same proportion of trained teachers. It was also decided that as the number of third year teachers was already high it would be sufficient to train teachers for two years only. It was also considered that a comparatively small number of schools with efficient instruction was probably preferable to a larger number of schools with less efficiency. The need for economy also affected the decisions made. Although the reduction in the total number of teachers under training is to be regretted it is to be remembered that the reduction has caused less harm in Bombay than in other provinces, owing to the fact that the percentage of trained teachers in primary schools in Bombay is still very much higher than in any other province.

302. In Bengal the training schools are divided into first grade training or normal schools and guru training schools. The number of normal schools has remained unaltered but there has been a slight fall in the number of pupils under instruction. In the year 1926 a Committee of Educational Officers was appointed to report on the question of training in these schools. The main recommendations of the Committee were that the course should be a two years' course and not a three years' course as in West Bengal at present, that the qualification for the admission of students should be the Matriculation, that the stipends of students should be increased and that endeavours should be made not to increase the number of schools or pupils but to improve the quality of the products of the school. The report of the Committee was under the consideration of the Government at the end of the quinquennium. Endeavours have been made by Government to establish an improved type of guru training schools and simultaneously to abolish the old type of guru training schools. In consequence of this policy there has been a large reduction in the number of guru training schools and a proportionately large reduction in the number of pupils under instruction in them. The Education Committee on training recommended with regard to the guru training schools that the entrance qualification should be the middle English or middle vernacular, that the length of the course should be two years, that the old type of guru training schools should be abolished and that the Government should guarantee a salary of Rs. 15 per mensem to passed students.

303. In the United Provinces, the number of Government normal schools training teachers for middle vernacular schools increased from 7 to 8 owing to the opening of a new school at Jhansi and the number of students under training increased from 590 to 707. The number of training classes

preparing teachers for the Primary Teachers' Certificate Examination decreased largely from 432 to 65 and the number of candidates for the examination decreased from 3,224 to 518. The main reasons for this large decrease in classes and pupils were the inability of individual local boards to continue to finance the classes opened in the preceding quinquennium, the closure of classes by some boards owing to the increased output of trained teachers and the recommendations of an officer on special duty who reported in 1925 that it was necessary to co-ordinate the training at normal schools and in training classes. Such a co-ordination is now under consideration, but, whatever the causes of reduction in the number of students under training it cannot be regarded with complacency in the light of the low percentage of trained teachers in primary schools in the United Provinces.

304. In the Punjab very great attention has been paid during the quinquennium not only to the production of the requisite number of trained teachers of all grades but also to the production of teachers especially trained to adapt the instruction given in rural schools to the needs of the rural community and to work successfully the changed curriculum for vernacular schools. In consequence of the policy adopted the number of training schools has increased from 18 to 32 and the number of teachers under instruction has almost doubled, the number of students in vernacular training classes for men alone in 1926-27 being over 2,500. The policy of recruiting, as far as possible, agriculturists for training as teachers in rural schools has been successfully pursued and by 1926-27 38 per cent. of the vernacular teachers under training were agriculturists. An important feature of the system of training in the Punjab is the holding of annual refresher courses at specially selected training schools. The refresher courses which have been regularly held at Gakhar and Gurgaon for the staffs of all training institutions have had great and beneficient effect on the standard of the efficiency maintained in the training schools.

305. The output of trained vernacular teachers has considerably increased in Burma, the number of pupils under training having increased from 963 in 1922 to 1,615 in 1927, while the figures for the Elementary Teachers' Certificate Examinations show that the number of candidates presented for the examination has increased from 885 in 1922 to 1,526 in 1927.

306. In Bihar and Orissa the training schools have been re-organised and the first grade training schools, which number five and are maintained by Government, are now called secondary training schools. The guru training schools numbering 120, of which 116 are maintained by Government, are now called elementary training schools. In 1923 the standard of admission to secondary training schools was raised to the Matriculation and the course reduced from three years to two

years. In the same year the number of students admitted in each elementary training school was reduced from 20 to 17 and the stipend of each student raised. As a result of the increased output of trained teachers, the number of trained teachers in primary schools has risen during the quinquennium from 9,713 to 14,929.

307. In the Central Provinces, all the training schools are Government institutions, and writing of the reduction in the number of students under training the Director of Public Instruction reports that each year several of the stipendiary vacancies remain unfilled chiefly owing to the lack of prospects for the teachers after being trained. During the quinquennium 11 posts of Hygiene Instructors in the Subordinate Educational Service were created and attached to training schools.

308. The report from Assam regarding the supply of trained teachers is not encouraging. Though the number of training schools has remained the same, the number of students under training has declined and the percentage of trained teachers in primary schools has decreased from 41·7 to 36·7. It is obvious as the writer of the Assam report points out that unless provision is made for training a large number of primary school teachers every year, the percentage will continue to fall with the continued expansion of primary education that is expected under the new Compulsory Education Act. During the quinquennium the value of stipends was raised from Rs. 8 to Rs. 10 per mensem.

Average annual cost per scholar in Training Schools.

	Average annual cost per scholar in	
	1921-22	1926-27.
	Rs. A. P.	Rs. A. P.
Madras	191 4 8	189 10 3
Bombay	297 7 5	300 13 0
Bengal	192 6 10	196 0 0
United Provinces	246 13 10	320 7 3
Punjab	182 2 2	133 11 6
Burma	169 12 1	311 5 0
Bihar and Orissa	149 11 5	174 3 4
Central Provinces and Berar	245 13 9	294 5 2
Assam	189 12 3	219 0 6
North-West Frontier Province	341 1 5	309 12 5
Coorg	380 0 0	
Delhi	502 12 4	424 4 7
Ajmer-Merwara	367 12 5	345 1 11(a)
Baluchistan	468 12 5	461 9 9
Bangalore	108 15 10	368 1 5
Other Administered Area		273 2 11
India	212 2 5	214 5 3

(a) Excluding schools for mistresses.

309. It is observed from the above table that the average cost of training a teacher is practically the same to-day as it

was five years ago, although considerable increases or decreases in cost are reported from a few provinces.

The training of women teachers.

(*a*) Training Institutions for Women.

Province	1926-27.			
	Institutions.		Students.	
	Colleges.	Schools.	In Colleges.	In Schools.
Madras	2	37	41	1,831
Bombay	...	18	...	666
Bengal	3	10	41	201
United Provinces	...	34	6*	316
Punjab	1	12	27	445
Burma	..	29	...	599†
Bihar and Orissa	...	11	...	180
Central Provinces and Berar	.	6	...	228
Assam		2		36
North-West Frontier Province	...	2		28
Coorg	...	...	..	...
Delhi	...	1	..	25
Ajmer-Merwara	..	1	.	18
Baluchistan	...	.	...	...
Bangalore	...	2	...	30
Other Administered Areas	.	1	...	58
India 1926-27	6	166	115	4,664†
India 1921-22	3	146	57	4,157

* Reading at the Lucknow University.

† Includes 12 male students.

(*b*) Number of Women under Training.

Province.	1921-22.		1926-27.	
	In Training Colleges.	In Normal and Training Schools.	In Training Colleges.	In Normal and Training Schools.
Madras	11	1,623	41	1,872
Bombay	3	946	7	606
Bengal	13	217	41	201
United Provinces	3	223	7	316
Punjab	37	382	30	445
Burma	..	488	4	816
Bihar and Orissa	....	143	..	180
Central Provinces and Berar		194	2	228
Assam	..	38	....	36
North-West Frontier Province		30		28
Coorg	....	8		..
Delhi	..	13		28
Ajmer-Merwara	....	5	..	18
Baluchistan	..	..	.	.
Bangalore	....	81	....	30
Other Administered Areas			....	58
India	67	4,391	132	4,922

Training of Women Teachers.

310. It will be observed from the foregoing tables that the number of institutions for the training of mistresses has risen from 149 to 172 during the quinquennium. A reference to Supplemental Table 61 in Volume II will show that this increase is mainly confined to Madras and Burma, there having been a fall in the number of institutions in Bombay and Bengal while in the Punjab and the Central Provinces the number of institutions has remained stationary. The total number of girls and women under training has increased from 4,458 in 1921-22 to 5,054 in 1926-27. Of these, 4,767 are in institutions for mistresses and 287 in institutions for the training of masters (17 being in colleges and 270 in schools). A striking feature of the figures given in the above tables is that nearly 40 per cent. of the total number of women under training in the whole of British India are in the Madras Presidency, while the provinces of Bengal and the United Provinces—provinces of comparably the same population as Madras—provide only 5 per cent. and 7 per cent. respectively.

The number of women under training in the different provinces affords a rough indication of the state of female education in those provinces, and as a general rule it may be said that the provinces which have a larger number of women undergoing instruction as teachers usually provide greater facilities for the education of women generally and are much in advance of the other provinces in so far as the progress of female education is concerned. The figures given in the following table will serve to illustrate this point:—

Province.	Number of Women under Training.		Percentage of Female Scholars in all institutions to total Female Population.	
	Number	Order.	Percentage.	Order
Madras .	1,913	1st	2·5	2nd
Bombay . . .	673	3rd	2·4	3rd
Bengal	242	6th	1·9	4th
United Provinces .	323	5th	0·57	9th
Punjab . . .	474	4th	1·4	5th
Burma	820	2nd	2·7	1st
Bihar and Orissa . . .	180	8th	0·7	7th
Central Provinces . . .	230	7th	0·6	8th
Assam	36	9th	1·0	6th

This table shows, in a striking manner, that there is a direct relationship between the progress of female education and the number of women under training in almost all the provinces, the only exceptions being the United Provinces and Assam. Madras, Burma, and Bombay which have a fairly large proportion of women under training, are far ahead of the other provinces in the matter of female education. This is as might be anticipated for the provision of greater facilities for women's education naturally induces a greater number of women to restort to the teaching profession.

311. Prior to 1922, the provision for the collegiate training of women teachers in Madras consisted only of a temporary L. T. class attached to the Lady Willingdon School. But during the quinquennium greatly increased facilities were provided for the collegiate training of women by the permanent recognition of the L. T. class as the Lady Willingdon Training College in 1923 and by the recognition of the St. Christopher's Mission Training College in Madras in 1924. Five new aided training schools were opened but no new Government institution was started and though there has been an appreciable increase in the number of women under training it is

reported that there are still nine districts in the Presidency without training schools for women and that the existing shortage of trained women teachers has been due more to the absence of local facilities for training than to the difficulty of obtaining candidates for admission to training institutions. There are greater difficulties in the way of women proceeding to some distance from their homes to undergo training than there are in the way of men so that for the staffing of schools for girls by women it would appear to be desirable to bring training schools within easier reach of women in districts in which women teachers are deficient.

312. In Bombay, there has actually been a fall in the number of women under training but the Director of Public Instruction reports that in his opinion the facilities for the training of women teachers, especially in the Marathi area, are considerably in excess of what is required and that a considerable number of women are unable to find employment after training, but these remarks appear to refer mainly to the conditions in large towns since many rural areas are still in need of women teachers and many trained women teachers appear to have preferred to remain unemployed rather than to go out into schools in the districts. Ten of the existing institutions are aided institutions conducted either by Christian Missionaries or by the Seva Sadan and five are Government institutions, one of which—the training class for Urdu teachers—was opened at Poona during the period under review. There is also a training college attached to the Indian Women's University at Poona and the question of its recognition by Government was under consideration at the close of the quinquennium.

313. There was a small fall in the number of women under training in Bengal and still only one institution prepares Indian Women Teachers for the B. T. degree. Of the total number of training schools for women, three are under the management of Government and the remainder are managed by Christian and Brahmo Missions. The Government Vernacular Training School at Dacca largely increased in strength and the Government Muslim Women Teachers' Training School was re-organised and placed on a permanent basis. The fall in the total number of women under training has been attributed by the authorities to the scarcity in the number of applicants and to the inadequacy of the stipends offered.

314. In the United Provinces, the Training College attached to the Allahabad University admits women teachers for courses leading to the L. T. examination. But the majority of women under training for a degree in teaching are under instruction in the Isabella Thoburn College which opened a training class in 1924 and prepares students for the B. T. degree of the Lucknow University. The number of training classes preparing women for the English Teachers' Certificate Examination has increased from three to four with a total

strength of 48 students. It is, however, reported that the great majority of these pupils are Indian Christians and that very few Hindu and Mohammadan women come forward to take the English Teachers' Certificate course. The number of classes preparing teachers for the Vernacular Teachers' Certificate Examination has increased from 6 to 10, of which three are Government institutions and the remainder aided mission schools.

315. In the Punjab, the number of training institutions has remained stationary but the number of women under training has slightly increased. The only important feature of the period was the replacement of separate training schools by training classes attached to the more important Government girls' high schools.

316. In Burma 11 new training schools have been opened and the number of women under training has more than doubled since, in addition to the 599 pupils under instruction in training schools for girls, over 200 women were under instruction in the training schools for men.

317. In Bihar and Orissa two new Government training schools for women have been opened, one at Gaya in 1923 and one at Bhagalpur in 1927. A scheme for the local training of the wives or relatives of village teachers has been adopted in the Chota Nagpur Division and five stipends of Rs. 5 a month each for a period of three years have been offered. But at the end of the quinquennium only two stipends had been awarded.

318. There are still only two training schools for mistresses in Assam and it is reported that, in consequence, many applications have to be rejected year after year. In view of the great dearth of women teachers in schools in Assam it would appear that the provision of only two schools which can only admit a total of 36 pupils is quite inadequate for the province.

319. In the North-West Frontier Province, the Government Normal School for Women was closed owing to retrenchment in September 1922 and, until 1924, it was only possible to send a very limited number of women candidates to the Punjab for training. But in 1924 a training class for senior vernacular women teachers was opened in Peshawar by the Church of England Zenana Mission and in the following year a training class was opened at Dera Ismail Khan under the management of the Arya Samaj. The number of women under training in these two institutions has increased from six in 1924-25 to 28 in 1926-27.

320. In Ajmer-Merwara the only local provision for the training of women teachers consists of the training class attached to the Christian Girls' School at Nasirabad, but no non-Christian girls have read in this institution. Scholarships are awarded for the training of women at Delhi and at

Lucknow but only two women availed themselves of these scholarships during the quinquennium.

(ii) *Legal Education.*

Number and strength of Law Colleges and Law Departments of Universities, 1926-27.

Province.	Institution.	No of students.
Madras	1. The Law College, Madras	967
Bombay	2. The Law College, Bombay	498
	3. The Law College, Poona	467
	4. The Law College, Karachi	59
Bengal	5. The University Law College, Calcutta	3,196
	6. The Ripon College, Calcutta	
	7. The Dacca University	442
United Provinces	8. The Allahabad University — Internal side	400
	8. The Allahabad University — External side	225
	9. The Lucknow University	354
	10. The Aligarh Muslim University	314
	11. The Benares Hindu University	143
Punjab	12. The Law College, Lahore	545
Burma	13. The Rangoon University	77
Bihar and Orissa	14. The Law College, Patna	547
	15. The Ravenshaw College, Cuttack	62
Central Provinces and Berar.	16. The University College of Law, Nagpur	194
Assam	17. The Earle Law College, Gauhati	91*
Delhi	18. The Delhi University	104
	Total	8,685*

* There are, in addition, six students reading in Arts Colleges who are also studying Law.

General.

321. The total number of scholars reading for law in British India has increased during the quinquennium by approximately three thousand and two new Law Colleges and several new Departments of Law under University management have been opened. Though, at the close of the period under review, the strength of several Law Colleges began to decline, the demand for training for the legal profession has increased in spite of the fact that it is reported from almost all provinces that the profession is already over-crowded. In

this connection the report of the Law College, Madras, is illuminating. It states that " a detailed enquiry was made into the reason why students sought admission into the college and it was discovered that undoubtedly a very large proportion of them (perhaps 50 per cent.) had joined not by deliberate preference for the legal profession but because they could find no other occupation after taking a degree". It would appear, therefore, as if, in some provinces at least, the Law Colleges are being used as convenient waiting grounds until suitable employment is obtained.

Provinces.

322. In Madras in 1924 the Government appointed a Committee to report on the working of the Law College and the Committee, in its report, pointed out that the two main defects in the working of the college were that no provision was made to enable the leading members of the bar to be in touch with and to join in the work of instruction and that sufficient distinction was not made between tutorial and professional work. In consequence the Committee recommended that the lecturing and tutorial work in the college should be correlated, that special lectures should be delivered by lawyers of eminence, that the staff of assistant professors should be strengthened in order to lessen the size of the classes and that the assistant professors should guide students in library work. The main recommendations of the Committee were accepted by Government and the staff of the college was reorganised in 1925. It now consists of a Principal and 12 assistant lecturers, who are legal practitioners of under 6 years' standing. Six special lecturers chosen from amongst senior practising lawyers are appointed each year. The strength of the college rose from 672 in 1922 to 1,005 in 1924 but fell to 967 in 1927.

323. In Bombay two new Law Colleges were opened during the quinquennium—one at Poona in 1924 and another at Karachi in 1926. The number of students in the Government Law College, Bombay, has fallen from 740 to 498 but the number on the rolls at the Law College in Poona has steadily increased since its opening and the total is now 467.

324. No new institutions for law have been opened in Bengal, but the number of students reading in the Calcutta University Law College, in the Law classes at the Ripon College and at the Dacca University have increased from 2,439 to 3,638.

325. In the United Provinces provision is now made for instruction in law at the Allahabad, Lucknow, Aligarh and Benares Universities, a new Law College at Benares having been opened in 1923.

326. The strength of the Law College, Lahore, increased from 465 to 545; its accommodation has been greatly improved by the addition of a college hall and two lecture rooms while the staff has been strengthened.

327. New buildings were acquired for the Patna Law College in 1922 the capital expenditure on the building and improvements during the quinquennium totalling nearly two lakhs. The strength of the college has risen from 272 to 547. The pleadership classes formerly attached to the colleges at Patna and Cuttack are now separately classified as Law Schools. At the end of the quinquennium there were 141 pupils in the school at Patna and 14 in the school at Cuttack.

328. In the Central Provinces, at the beginning of the quinquennium instruction in law was given by practising lawyers at the Law classes attached to the Morris College, but after the establishment of the Nagpur University the University College of Law was opened in 1925. The College is administered by a Committee responsible to the executive council of the University, and the staff consists of a Principal and 4 lecturers, all of whom are practising lawyers. The college classes are located in the University building and a new building has been erected for use as a Law Library.

329. The Earle Law College in Assam has not yet been established on a permanent basis though the need for a separate Law College for Assam has long been well recognised. The number of students in the college has risen from 70 in 1922-23 to 91 in 1926-27.

330. During the quinquennium the University of Delhi opened a Faculty of Law the teaching in which is directly under the control of the University.

Bachelor of Law Examinations.

Year.	Number of Candidates	Number of Passes	Percentage of Passes
1921-22	3,519	1,935	55·0
1926-27	5,048	2,669	52·9
Increase or Decrease . .	+1,529	+734	−2·1

Statistics of Medical Colleges, 1926-27.

Provinces.	Name of Colleges.	Management	Students.	Expenditure.				
				Government Funds	Municipal Board Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	Total.
				Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Madras	Medical College, Madras	Government	586	3,06,595	...	91,002	201	3,97,798
	Medical College, Vizagapatam	Do						
Bombay	Grant Medical College, Bombay	Do.	518	1 99,451		1,39,364	5,057	3,43.872
	The Seth Gordhandas Sunderdas Medical College. Bombay.	Municipal Board	100		1,63,066	33,506	240	1,96.812
Bengal	Medical College, Calcutta	Government	939	4,40,295	...	9,000	...	4.49,295
	School of Tropical Medicine, Calcutta.	Do.	79	3,19,913	...	20,270	..	3,40,183
	Carmichæl Medical College, Belgachia.	Aided	593	14,500	...	1,19,359	...	1,33,859
United Provinces	Lucknow University, Medical Department.	Do.	254	..		...	...	...
Punjab	King Edward Medical College, Lahore.	Government	488	3,74,062	..	59,715	...	4,13,777
Burma	Rangoon University, Medical Department	Aided	71	...	..	...	...	...
Bihar and Orissa	Prince of Wales' Medical College, Patna	Government	154	2,38,207	...	20,747	...	2,58,954
Delhi	Lady Hardinge Medical College *for women*.	Aided	67	1,17,132		18,871	19,200	1,55,203
		Total	3,854	20,10,155	1,63,066	4 91,834	24,698	26,89,753

N.B.—The expenditure on the Medical Departments of the *Lucknow* and *Rangoon* Universities is not included in this table as separate figures are not available.

331. The question of the establishment of an All-India Medical Council to regulate educational qualifications and maintain a register of medical graduates on the lines of the British Medical Council is at present under the consideration of the Government of India. All-India Medical Council.

Meantime a State Medical Faculty was constituted in the United Provinces in 1926 for the purpose of conferring, granting or issuing, in British India, diplomas, licenses, certificates or other documents stating or implying that the holder, grantee or recipient thereof is qualified to practise Western Medical Science. State Medical Faculty, United Provinces.

332. The General Medical Council of the United Kingdom still do not recognise the Medical and Surgical degrees granted by the Calcutta University since 30th November, 1924. The Executive Committee of the Council has resolved that in the event of the Calcutta University making its new regulations applicable to existing students of the first, second, third and fourth years, the Council would be prepared, on receipt of a satisfactory report on the conduct of the first final examination held under the new regulations, to consider an application for the recognition of the degrees of Calcutta University. The recognition of the M. B. B. S. degrees of the Universities of Bombay, Punjab and Lucknow was extended to 30th June, 1927. The Executive Committee of the General Medical Council has renewed the recognition accorded to the above Universities and also to Madras for a further year till 30th June, 1928. The question of giving a further extension is under consideration. As regards the Patna University, the Executive Committee of the Council has resolved that the consideration of the application for recognition of the degrees of M.B.B.S., Patna, be deferred, pending the receipt of a further report on the courses of study and examinations including the final examination of those candidates who have been under instruction for the last three academic years at the Medical College, Patna. With regard to the Andhra University (Vizagapatam Medical College) the Executive Committee resolved that application for the recognition of the degrees of M.B.B.S., Andhra, be not acceded to. The question of according recognition to the degrees granted by the Rangoon University is still under consideration and the General Medical Council of the United Kingdom are again being approached in the matter. Recognition of Indian Medical Degrees by the General Medical Council of the United Kingdom.

333. In 1926-27 Dr. W. S. Carter, Acting Principal, Peking Union Medical College, visited the Medical Colleges and Schools and Medical Research Institutes in this country on behalf of the Division of Medical Education of the Rockefeller Foundation with a view to reporting whether any assistance should be granted in connection with Medical Education and Medical Research. Interest taken by Rockefeller Foundation.

334. Medical Colleges were established at Vizagapatam in Madras in 1923 and at Rangoon in conjunction with the New Colleges.

Rangoon University in Burma in 1925. In 1925 a new Municipal Medical College, teaching up to the M. B. B. S. degree, was opened in Bombay being endowed with Rs. 14·5 lakhs by the trustees of the estate of the late Seth Gordhandas Sunderdas. A new school of Tropical Medicine was started in Calcutta in 1923 and by the end of the quinquennium 79 students, including 6 women, were under instruction. A proposal to expand the King George's College, Lucknow, is on foot and such projects as a maternity and women's hospital, a tuberculosis hospital, an ophthalmic hospital, a public health institute, a leprosy department, are all either maturing or are on a fair way to doing so.

Examinations.

335. The statistics of the various examinations for medical degrees and diplomas are given in the following table:—

Medical Examinations for Degrees or Diplomas.

Degrees or Diplomas.	1921-22.		1926-27.	
	Number of Examinees.	Number passed	Number of Examinees	Number passed.
Doctor of Medicine or Surgery	7	5	17	2
Master of Surgery . . .	3	...	8	1
Bachelor of Medicine or Surgery	855	406	1 525	548
Bachelor of Hygiene . .	6	1	10	4
Final Membership . . .	35	10	...	...
Bachelor of Sanitary Science .	7	5	15	3
Diploma in Public Health .	10	7	24	21
Licentiate of Medicine and Surgery.	73	43	43	10
Member of the College of Physicians and Surgeons.	..	...	7	2
Member of the State Faculty of Medicine.		...	15	7
Master of Obstetrics . .	...	...	1	...
Diploma in Tropical Medicine	...	..	40	25
Total .	996	477	1,705	623
Percentage of Passes .	...	47 9	..	36·5

Miscellaneous.

336. In an appendix in Volume II of this review will be found information relating to the seventh Congress of the Far Eastern Association of Tropical Medicine, Medical Relief for Women, Countess of Dufferin Fund and Women's Medical Service.

(iv) *Engineering Education.*

337. In British India facilities for higher technical study in Engineering are almost entirely provided by Government, there being only one aided Engineering College and two Engineering Departments of Universities. The number of Engineering Colleges has increased from 4 to 7. In 1922 there were 4 Government Colleges situated at Madras, Poona, Sibpur and Roorkee. But by the end of the quinquennium three new colleges had been established, namely, the Maclagan College of Engineering in the Punjab, the Bihar College of Engineering at Patna and the Nadirshaw Edulji Dinshaw Aided Civil Engineering College at Karachi. In addition to these colleges, however, there are Departments of Engineering at the Rangoon and Benares Universities. The following table shows the number of students in each college and department in the year 1926-27:— Engineering Colleges.

Institutions.	Students
1 The College of Engineering, Madras	183
2. The College of Engineering, Poona	184
3 The Bengal Engineering College, Sibpur	291
4. The Maclagan College of Engineering, Punjab . . .	207
5. The Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee, United Provinces.	198
6. The Bihar College of Engineering, Patna	263
7 The Nadirshaw Edulji Dinshaw Engineering College, Karachi	143
8. The Rangoon University Engineering Department . . .	65
9. The Benares University Enigeering Department . . .	475
Total .	2,009

338. The strength of the Engineering College, Madras, fell considerably during the quinquennium from 449 to 183, the main reason for the fall being the transfer of the lower subordinate classes of the college to the recently opened Engineering schools at Vizagapatam and Trichinopoly and to the abolition of the architectural draftsmen class in 1923. During the quinquennium the work of equipping the new workshops and laboratories consequent on the transfer of the college from Madras to Guindy was completed.

At the Poona College of Engineering new buildings have been erected for the Physics and Electrical Engineering Departments and additional workshop buildings have been provided. In 1924 the course in the college was revised and the elements of chemistry, physics and mechanics are now taught to students in Arts Colleges before admission to the Engineering College, the standard for admission to which has

been raised to the Intermediate in Science. In 1923 the Nadirshaw Edulji Dinshaw Aided Civil Engineering College was opened at Karachi. It provides instruction in Civil Engineering up to the B. E. degree standard and the number of students on the rolls has steadily increased since the first year class was opened.

At the Sibpur Engineering College a new hostel has been erected for European and Anglo-Indian students and the water works and sewage disposal schemes started during the last quinquennium were completed during the period under review. The power plant has been extended and new oil engines have been installed. The strength of the college has declined from 356 to 291. This was mainly due to the abolition of the apprentice class. But the college reports show that there has been a considerable fall in the number of Anglo-Indians applying for admission and that the number of Muhammadan pupils is very small.

Few changes have taken place in the Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee. But the upper and lower subordinate classes were abolished and a new overseer class established in their place. After the opening of the Faculty of Engineering in the Benares Hindu University the Mechanical and Electrical Engineering class at the college was closed. Many improvements have been effected in the buildings and the class rooms have been remodelled to meet the increased admissions.

The Maclagan College of Engineering in the Punjab was opened in 1922 and now provides instruction in Mechanical and Electrical Engineering. The students under training receive practical training in the Moghulpura workshops of the North Western Railways. The Engineer class students spend 3 years in college and then receive 2 years' workshop training in the Railway workshops. The students under training as mechanics and electricians attend the Railway workshops throughout their 5 years' college course.

The Bihar School of Engineering was raised to the status of a college and affiliated to the Patna University in 1924. Instruction is provided in Civil Engineering in the degree classes and mechanical apprentices are trained in subordinate classes.

Expenditure.

339. The following table shows the total expenditure on Government Engineering Colleges in 1921-22 and 1926-27:—

Institutions.	1921-22.	1926-27.
	Rs.	Rs.
1. College of Engineering, Madras . . .	2,31,509	1,63,211
2. College of Engineering, Poona . . .	1,53,207	1,98,481
3. Bengal Engineering College, Sibpur . .	3,25,965	3,38,692
4. Thomason Civil Engineering College, Roorkee	4,58,645	4,26,253
5. Maclagan College of Engineering, Punjab .	...	2,08,928
6. Bihar College of Engineering, Patna . .	...	1,51,597
Total .	11,69,326	14,87,162

340. In addition to the Engineering Colleges mentioned above there were in 1927, as in 1922, 8 Government Engineering schools with a total strength of 1,387 students. Engineering schools.

In Madras the School of Engineering at Trichinopoly was continued on a temporary basis and at the end of the quinquennium it was decided to close the school. The School of Engineering, Vizagapatam, was also continued on a temporary basis and its future depends on the acceptance or rejection of the proposal to establish an Engineering College affiliated to the Andhra University.

The strength of the Ahsanullah School of Engineering at Dacca considerably increased owing to the training of overseers being transferred from the Sibpur College. The school classes have been divided into sections, the staff strengthened and additional hostel accommodation provided. The Mainamati Survey School in Bengal has also increased in strength and new buildings have been provided for it.

The strength of the School of Engineering at Rasul in the Punjab increased from 103 to 129 and special courses in the study of reinforced concrete were introduced during the quinquennium.

The Engineering School at Insein, Burma, has been mentioned under technical education.

The Orissa School of Engineering was newly opened in 1923 with classes for Lower Subordinate Engineers and Artisans. In 1925 a full Civil Engineering class was opened and at the end of the quinquennium sanction was given for the introduction of a mechanical apprentice department.

The strength of the Engineering School at Nagpur has risen from 82 to 160 and it is reported that the maximum number of students has now been accommodated. The departments of the school comprise the Overseer and Sub-overseer Civil Engineering classes, the Mechanical Engineering class, the Motor Mechanics class and the class for Oil Engine Drivers.

(v) *Agricultural Education.*

341. Three types of educational institutions, each with a distinct aim, are maintained; these are:— General.

I. Provincial Agricultural Colleges, which train men for employment in the Agricultural Department and which provide, also, a course of training for students who are desirous of turning their instruction to practical account in private farming or estate management.

II. Central Agricultural Institutions, where facilities are provided for post-graduate courses and research.

III. Special and bias agricultural schools, which provide a course of agricultural training suitable for the sons of tenants or small zemindars.

I.—Agricultural Colleges.

Statistics.

342. The following statement shows the number of Government Agricultural Colleges and their strength in 1921-22 and in 1926-27:—

College.	1921-22.	1926-27.
Poona	189	201
Coimbatore	63	82
Nagpur	52	56
Sabour	57	(a)
Cawnpore	103	148
Lyallpur	213*	367*
Mandalay	...	40

(a) The College was closed in 1924.
* Includes short course students.

Courses and Training.

343. There are now Agricultural Colleges at Poona, Coimbatore, Lyallpur, Nagpur, Cawnpore and Mandalay; that at Mandalay was opened in 1923-24. The College at Sabour in Bihar and Orissa was closed in 1924 owing to the poor demand in the province for higher agricultural education. All the colleges combine the function of education with that of research. Although none of them is intended to provide training exclusively for Government posts, yet a very large percentage of the students who seek admission to these institutions do so with the intention of obtaining appointments in the Department. The attendance at the colleges as a consequence is subject to considerable fluctuations. When there is a prospect of any department expanding, with a concurrent increase in the prospect of service, there is a rush of applicants seeking admission, but this rush subsides again as soon as the demand for recruits is satisfied. The affiliation of agricultural colleges to the universities, thereby qualifying successful candidates for degrees, has in some provinces had a marked effect on the increase in the number of applications for admission. With the affiliation of the Nagpur College to the local University in 1924-25, there are now four colleges (Poona, Coimbatore, Lyallpur and Nagpur) which are affiliated to provincial universities. The Lyallpur College has also a post-graduate course teaching up to the M.Sc. degree in Agriculture. The examination at Cawnpore at the conclusion of the first two years has been recognized by the Intermediate Education Board, and proposals have been mooted for the re-arrangement of the second part of the diploma course which, if accepted, will change it in all but name into a university course for a degree in Agriculture. The affiliation of the college at Mandalay to the local University will possibly be effected as soon as it is found practicable to raise the standard of admission. At Coimbatore and Poona, the degree courses last

for three years. The qualification for admission to the Coimbatore College is the Intermediate examination in Science of the Madras University or an equivalent examination; while the Poona College demands a certificate from the Principal of an Arts College affiliated to the Bombay University that the candidate has satisfactorily carried out the work prescribed for the first year of the University course or an equivalent qualification recognized by the Bombay University. The courses at Nagpur and Lyallpur last for four years, the High School or the Matriculation examination being prescribed as the minimum qualification for admission. The Nagpur and Lyallpur colleges have, in addition to the degree courses, a certificate course of two years' duration to train students as practical agriculturists or to fill subordinate posts in the Agricultural Department. There is no certificate course now at Coimbatore, while no such course has as yet been instituted at Mandalay, where the diploma of Agriculture is given after a three years' course of training. Cawnpore has both a diploma course of four years' duration and a certificate course lasting for two years. The qualification for admission to the diploma course is the school-leaving certificate or the Matriculation examination of the provincial universities. The Punjab Agricultural College has instituted, in addition to the regular courses, a number of miscellaneous short courses for which there has been a demand, *e.g.*, a vernacular course in practical agriculture, a rural economy course, a teacher's training course and a blacksmith's course. With a view to giving an impetus to agricultural education by encouraging agricultural graduates to undertake farming on their own account, a proposal is under the consideration of the Punjab Government to allot for a period of five years an area of land to five selected graduates of the Lyallpur College which they will cultivate under the general supervision of the Agricultural Department. The area to be granted will be sufficiently large to enable them to obtain a respectable livelihood.

Agricultural Institute, Allahabad.

344. Besides the Government colleges mentioned above, there is an Agricultural Institute at Allahabad, run and financed by the American Presbyterian Mission. At this Institute two courses of intermediate college standard are given, one in agriculture and the other in dairying.

II.—Post-Graduate Courses and Research in Central Institutions.

Institutions for Agricultural Research at Pusa and Bangalore.

345. There are two Central Institutes where post-graduate training in agriculture and allied subjects is imparted, *viz.*, (1) the Agricultural Research Institute at Pusa, and (2) the Imperial Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying at Bangalore which was established in 1923. The position which these institutes occupy in relation to the provincial activities is that of higher institutions for post-graduate training. Their main object is to enable students, by means of post-graduate courses, to qualify for the higher appointments in the

Agricultural Services. At present two-year courses are given at Pusa in (*i*) agricultural chemistry, (*ii*) botany, (*iii*) mycology, (*iv*) entomology and (*v*) agricultural bacteriology. These courses were started in 1923. Only distinguished science graduates of Indian universities who are considered fully qualified to take advantage of the courses of training in methods of research are admitted for training. The course in animal husbandry and dairying at Bangalore, coupled with a special course in agriculture at Pusa, lasts for fifteen months. For the present, the latter course is confined to officers of the provincial agricultural departments and to selected agricultural graduates. A selection committee with the Agricultural Adviser to the Government of India as Chairman makes the selections for admission to the courses both at Pusa and Bangalore. The number of admissions is necessarily small.

A course of two years' duration is also given at the Imperial Institute of Animal Husbandry and Dairying at Bangalore to qualify students for an Indian diploma in Dairying. Only one other institute in India—the Allahabad Agricultural Institute—is recognised as capable of teaching up to the standard required for the diploma.

III.—Agricultural Schools.

General.

346. The subject of agricultural education in secondary schools has been much discussed and the divergencies of opinion in regard to it have led to the evolution of two entirely different types of schools, *viz.*, (1) the vocational schools, known as agricultural middle schools which provide a course of agricultural training suitable for the sons of tenants or small zemindars who intend to take up farming on leaving school, and (2) the ordinary rural secondary schools in the curriculum of which elementary agriculture is included. The former type was first tried in Bombay where it finds favour, while in the adoption of the latter type the Punjab has led the way.

Agricultural Middle schools.

347. *Agricultural Middle Schools.*—The following statement shows the progress in the number of such vocational schools in the various provinces and of students on their roll during the quinquennium under review:—

Province.	1922-23		1926-27.	
	No. of Schools.	Scholars.	No of Schools.	Scholars.
Bombay	6	140	6	194
United Provinces	1	48	1	87
Central Provinces	2	19	1	53
Madras	2	25	2	18
Bengal	2	26	1	11
Bihar and Orissa	1 *a*)	...	1 *a*)	...
Burma	1(*a*)	29	1(*a*) 4*	55 115

(*a*) These are Missionary schools

* These are schools on farms for giving short courses of practical instruction.

The course in these schools lasts for two years and the instruction, which is given in the vernacular, is both theoretical and practical. The object is to send pupils back to their own land to cultivate them better. Bombay alone maintains that these schools have proved a success. In other provinces the system has so far made little headway. Of the two schools in the Madras Presidency one has recently been closed down as it failed to attract students. For the same reason, one of the schools in the Central Provinces had to be closed and the other altered in character. Exactly the same is the history of the schools in Bengal, where one of the two schools had to be closed in 1924, while the other, in spite of wide advertisement and the offer of stipends, has only half its proper complement of students. The vacant places at these schools are being utilized to give demonstrators in the service refresher courses. The school in the United Provinces is being used to some extent as a training centre for teachers for the agricultural classes which are being established in the middle vernacular schools. Besides the above schools which are maintained by the agricultural departments, there are two missionary schools of this character—one in Bihar and another in Burma. Both of these are in receipt of a subsidy from Government.

Agriculture in Rural School curriculum.

348. *Agriculture as a subject in the general curriculum.*—While other provinces were busy experimenting with vocational schools, the Punjab took its own line and stood out for giving a practical bent to education in rural areas by including agriculture in the curriculum of the ordinary middle vernacular schools. Under this system, the instruction given in the class room is both illustrated and supplemented by practical work in all agricultural processes on the land. For this purpose, farms of about three acres in extent were attached to each of the schools in which the new courses were first introduced but, owing to financial stringency, the alternative of school gardens, half an acre to an acre in extent, was adopted in 1923. All the work on the farms and gardens is done by the boys themselves and many of the gardens and farms are not only self-supporting but leave a margin of profit. The teaching is in the hands of trained and carefully selected teachers who have first taken the ordinary senior vernacular training course and have then completed a separate course in agriculture at the Lyallpur Agricultural College. This scheme of imparting agricultural education achieved immediate popularity and there were 102 middle schools teaching agriculture during 1926-27. The Punjab model has attracted wide attention and is being copied in other provinces. Bombay and the United Provinces have already started working on the same lines.

Special courses in practical Agriculture.

349. *Short Courses.*—Besides the regular courses in the Agricultural Colleges and Institutes, a system of giving short courses of practical instruction in general agriculture or in special subjects is being

developed and is gaining favour. Such courses are given either at a college or on some of the farms of the department. Short courses in cattle breeding and dairying are provided at the Bangalore Institute, while at Pusa facilities are afforded for a special training extending over short periods in the various agricultural sciences. A six months' practical vernacular class is held at the Lyallpur College in addition to a rural economy class for officers of other departments, which lasts for one month. With a view to training village blacksmiths to repair oil engines and modern implements, a six weeks' course is also being given at the agricultural workshop of this college. On the Nagpur Farm in the Central Provinces there is a class for engine and tractor drivers and the students are given a certificate of competency on the completion of the course. In the same province a seven months' course in practical agriculture has been started on the Yeotmal Farm for sons of *bonâ fide* cultivators. In other provinces short courses in improved methods of farming are arranged on Government Farms according to local needs.

Text-books in Agriculture.

350. A list of the text books on Indian agriculture and allied subjects, which were published during the quinquennium, is included in an appendix in Vol. II of this review.

(vi) *Forestry.*

Institutions.

351. Forestry is taught at the Forest Research Institute and College, Dehra Dun; at the Forest College, Coimbatore; in the Forest Department of the Rangoon University and at the Burma Forest School at Pyinmana.

Dehra Dun.

352. Since November 1926 the Forest College at Dehra Dun has provided instruction, in a two years' course, for the Indian Forest Service. It also provides instruction in a Ranger course for Rangers coming from the provinces and Indian States other than those which send students to the Ranger course at the Coimbatore College. The course of instruction for the Indian Forest Service is similar to the Forest course at Oxford University and is supplemented after some years' practical experience in forest work by a one year's course at the Imperial Forestry Institute at Oxford. The staff of the College consists of a Professor of Forestry, a Forest Botanist, a Forest Entomologist, a Forest Chemist and a Forest Economist. There are also Assistants in each subject. Until 1921 free education was given at the Forest College but the fees now charged are Rs. 1,500 per annum for Ranger students and Rs. 2,400 per annum for students of the Indian Forest Service class. The Rangers and the Forest Service class students are in different buildings. Owing to the institution of the Indian Forest Service course in 1926, the Provincial Service course at Dehra Dun was closed shortly after the end of the quinquennium.

Coimbatore.

353. The Forest College, Coimbatore, trains Forest Rangers in a two years' course, the students being recruited from

Madras, Bombay, the Central Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, the Orissa Feudatory States, the Central India States, the Hyderabad State and the Indian States of South India. At the beginning of the quinquennium students from Ceylon were also trained, but owing to the increase in the rates of fees students have now ceased to come from Ceylon. Nearly half the course is spent in practical instruction in Forest camps, and in 1924 a revised system of marking was introduced in the certificate examinations so that practical work receives a much larger number of marks than heretofore. In 1923 the fees of the college were raised for all students other than those coming from the Madras Presidency—from Rs. 1,800 for the whole course to Rs. 3,000.

Rangoon University.

354. In 1923 a Forest course of three years' duration leading to a B. Sc. degree was instituted in the University College of the Rangoon University, and new buildings for the department were completed in the same year. The students attending the course are required to do six months' practical work in the forests before commencing their course. At the end of the quinquennium the staff of the department consisted of one professor and one lecturer while six students were reading for the B. Sc. degree in Forestry.

Pyinmana.

355. The Burma Forest School at Pyinmana is under the control of the Forest Department and has vernacular and anglo-vernacular departments for the training of Forest Rangers.

(vii) *Veterinary Education.*

Institutions and courses.

356. For the training of students in veterinary science, there are colleges at Bombay, Madras, Calcutta and Lahore and schools at Insein and Taunggyi in Burma. Among the important developments of the quinquennium is the establishment of a Veterinary College at Patna for Bihar and Orissa which will begin to admit students in 1929. This college will have a cattle breeding and dairy farm attached to it on which the students will receive practical instruction in animal husbandry and dairying. The colleges at Bombay, Madras and Calcutta continued to give a three year diploma course in English, while at Lahore the old three-year vernacular course was replaced by a four-year English course.

The schools at Insein and Taunggyi in Burma continued to give veterinary instruction in the vernacular in a three-year and one-and-half-year course respectively. It is proposed to convert the Insein school into a college, the foundation stone of which was laid in February 1925. The main building has been completed, but the necessary hostel accommodation has yet to be provided.

Qualified Students.

357. The number of students who successfully qualified for the diploma of the four colleges was 402 in the quinquennium under review as against 675 in the previous five years. The respective figures for the two schools in Burma were 80 and

84. The reduction in the number of students is shared by all colleges and is attributed to the shortage of openings in Government service and to the discontinuance by the Military Department of the practice of sending students to the Lahore College.

Post-diploma courses and future development.

358. Besides the regular training provided in the above colleges and schools, post-diploma classes have been instituted at Madras and Lahore for selected subordinate officers of the department. At the Imperial Institute of Veterinary Research, Muktesar, endeavours have been made to train members of the superior and subordinate veterinary staffs in the provinces and of the Royal Army Veterinary Corps with the object of qualifying them, by short courses, to deal with the special disease problems with which they are confronted in their daily work and of bringing their scientific knowledge up to date. Thirty-seven officers availed themselves during the quinquennium of the training facilities thus afforded. In 1922, a two-year post-graduate course was held at this Institute with a view to training selected men in the provincial veterinary services for promotion to the Indian veterinary service; six officers took advantage of the course. In view, however, of the fact that recruitment to the Indian Veterinary Service has ceased, the question of continuing the course has been deferred for the present. The outstanding problem which faces the Civil Veterinary Departments in India is the control of contagious diseases, and the eventual development of the departments, including the training of their staffs, hinges on the decision to be arrived at on this question which has been thoroughly investigated by the Royal Commission on Agriculture, whose recommendations were published after the close of the quinquennium.

(viii) *Seamanship.*

Training for Mercantile Marine.

359. During the quinquennium a scheme relating to the establishment of a training ship for deck officers on ships trading in Indian waters was under the consideration of the Government of India. In order to give effect to the scheme, steps were taken to convert the R. I. M. S. "Dufferin" into a training ship. It was arranged that the cadets on the training ship should receive general education up to the High School standard in addition to special instruction in navigation, nautical training and seamanship, so that those who are unable to take employment at sea in the Mercantile Marine may pursue their studies further or obtain other employment. The scheme took effect after the close of the period under review.

CHAPTER IX.

INDUSTRIAL AND COMMERCIAL EDUCATION.

(I) Technical and Industrial Schools.

Control.

360. The great majority of technical and industrial institutions do not come under the control of the Education Department in the provinces and, in consequence, the educational returns dealing with these institutions are not always complete and in the form in which they are furnished for ordinary schools. But it would be undesirable to attempt to give a survey of education in India in all its branches without including in it some account of the extent of technical and industrial education. In all provinces, except Bombay, technical and industrial education is in charge of the Industries Departments. As already indicated, however, elsewhere in this report, there is a large number of vocational classes and centres attached to schools for general education which are under the control of the Education Departments.

In Bombay, industrial schools are under the control of the Director of Industries and technical education is under the control of the Director of Public Instruction, assisted by a Committee styled "the Committee of Direction for Technical Education". The functions of this Committee are:—(*i*) to regulate the courses and standards of instruction in the schools and classes under its control; (*ii*) to arrange for the inspection and examination of such schools; (*iii*) to recommend to the Director of Public Instruction grants-in-aid; (*iv*) to arrange for translation into the vernaculars all text books on technical subjects; and (*v*) to determine the conditions under which new schools and classes should be established by the aid of Government.

In Burma, the majority of the industrial schools are under the control of the Cottage Industries Department.

In Madras, where there is a large number of aided industrial schools, the Industries Department has continued to control technical and industrial education, and at the end of the quinquennium a new and separate code of regulations for industrial schools embodying the regulations in regard to recognition of and grant-in-aid to institutions and the conditions of training and certification of the pupils and teachers was approved by Government.

State Technical Scholarships.

361. Since the provincialisation of education, many overseas scholarships for technical training have been granted by the various provincial Governments, and a definite attempt has been made in most provinces to co-ordinate the overseas training received with the needs of Indian industries. In 1921-22, there were 35 State technical scholars under the supervision of the Educational Branch of the High

Commissioner's office in England and by 1926-27, this number had increased to 57. The scholars have, in most years, been divided between those taking a collegiate training and those taking a practical training in workshops and factories. The special subjects of study pursued by them during the period under review have included the following:—Metallurgy, mining, geology, engineering other than civil, chemical technology and work in connection with such industries as oils, dyes, leather, glass, sugar, industrial alcohol, electro-plating, saw milling and drugs. Owing to the wide opportunities available in India for the study of civil engineering, scholarships have not been given in this subject except in Burma and since the opening of the Indian School of Mines at Dhanbad in Bihar and Orissa scholarships have not been given for mining and geology.

362. Scholarships for study in connection with the following industries have been awarded by the Madras Government:—Metal mining, electro-metallurgy, industrial alcohol, hydro-electric engineering, ceramics, leather, food products, paints and varnish, dyeing and weaving, saw milling, colour chemistry and sugar manufacture. The Bombay Government has awarded scholarships for dyeing and bleaching, leather, sugar manufacture, drugs, photo-zinco process, cotton spinning and electrical engineering. The Bengal Government have sent scholars for silk weaving and dyeing, fish oils, glass manufacture, mining, cotton cloth dyeing, and soap manufacture. The United Provinces scholarships include those for glass technology, oils, dyeing and textile printing, electrical engineering, soap, hosiery, leather, mechanical engineering and sugar manufacture. Few scholars have been sent overseas by the Punjab Government, but at the end of the quinquennium one scholar was sent for the study of cotton at the Imperial College of the Tropical Agriculture, Trinidad. Burma sent scholars for oil refining, textiles, painting, mining architecture, oil mining, printing, electrical engineering, pottery, civil engineering and sanitary engineering. The Bihar and Orissa Government have awarded scholarships for cutlery, mining, oils and fats, electrical engineering, steel casting, coal mining, pottery and sugar manufacture. The Central Provinces sent students for coal mining, dyeing and electrical engineering. The Assam Government awarded scholarships for locomotive engineering and oil refining. In addition to these, scholarships were awarded by the Government of India for metallurgy, geology, coal mining, flour milling and printing.

Technical scholars abroad.

363. Of the 57 technical scholars studying in England in the year 1926-27, 37 were undergoing technical training in colleges and 20 were working in factories or workshops but in addition to State scholars, large numbers of Indian students without scholarships have received technical training abroad during the quinquennium. The following table shows the

number of students, as far as is known, studying technological or industrial subjects in England during the year 1926-27:—

	Number of Students.
Engineering	202
Technology	98
Metallurgy	6
Leather	5
Mining	5
Architecture	3
Mechanical Sciences	2
Total	321

364. The total number of technical and industrial schools in India increased from 276 to 450 and their strength rose from 14,082 to 24,537. These figures, however, cannot be regarded as absolutely accurate since the returns for Burma and the Central Provinces do not clearly indicate the extent of the provision for technical and industrial education. The number of schools in Bengal increased from 86 to 153 and in Madras from 41 to 63. Schools and Scholars.

365. Apart from the Indian Institute of Science at Bangalore, which has been referred to elsewhere, the more important institutes for higher technological study are the Harcourt Butler Technological Institute at Cawnpore, the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay, the Indian School of Mines at Dhanbad and the Technical Institute at Jamshedpur.

366. The Harcourt Butler Technological Institute at Cawnpore was founded in the year 1920, and in the following year opened courses in applied chemistry and in oil chemistry. Leather chemistry was added in the year 1922-23 and the technology of sugar in the year 1926-27. The courses are of three years' duration and begin with a short course in mechanical engineering provided at the Government Technical School, Lucknow. This course is followed by instruction in general chemical technology at the institute at Cawnpore. In the 2nd and 3rd years of the course, the students study the special branches of chemical technology which they have selected. At the end of the quinquennium an engineering workshop was in course of being equipped and new laboratory buildings costing nearly two lakhs of rupees were under construction. The present enrolment of the Institute is 30 students, 24 of whom are in receipt of stipends. Of the total number of students who have received training at this Institute, the majority have obtained appointments in business firms, only four remaining unemployed. Harcourt Butler Technological Institute, Cawnpore.

367. The Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay, is managed by a controlling board of 18 persons, 8 of whom—including the chairman—are nominated by Government while the rest are appointed by various public bodies. The Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute, Bombay.

Institute provides instruction in mechanical engineering, textile manufacture, electrical engineering, technical chemistry, sanitary engineering and plumbing. Admissions to the Institute are made on the results of an entrance examination, except in the case of those candidates who have taken the final degree of a recognised University, and in spite of the fact that the standard for admission has been raised, the number of pupils in the Institute has increased from 314 in 1922 to 503 in 1927. The courses last for four years and the pupils are examined in both practical and theoretical knowledge. During the quinquennium 365 students received the final diploma of the Institute. In addition to the courses mentioned above special classes in drawing, mechanics, steam and electrical engineering were opened in 1923, the classes being mainly attended by railway apprentices and workers from various industrial concerns. A textile apprentices class was opened in 1923, with a two years' course, which has been largely attended. Electrical wiring classes are also held for wiremen, foremen, and contractors. A certificate of competency is given at the end of this course.

Indian School of Mines, Dhanbad.

368. The Indian School of Mines was opened by Government at Dhanbad at the end of the year 1926. The proposal, however, to establish this institute was first considered as long ago as 1914, and in 1921 the arrangements for the opening of the school were complete. But, owing to retrenchment, funds were not available for completing the buildings and equipment until 1924. The school provides for the tuition of Mining Engineers and Geologists and has a three years' course leading to a certificate in Coal Mining, Metalliferous Mining or Geology and a four years' course leading to a diploma in Mining Engineering or Geology. The number of vacancies each year are limited to 50 and seats are reserved for candidates coming from every province.

Jamshedpur Technical Institute

369. The Jamshedpur Technical Institute, which was started by the Tata Iron and Steel Company in 1921, continued its work throughout the quinquennium and trained 116 men out of whom 43 came from Bihar and Orissa. The Institute provides an academic course in the metallurgy of iron and steel equal to the standard of an English University. The course extends over three years and is supplemented by practical training in the Tata Iron and Steel Works. Liberal stipends are given to students who are undergoing training. Successful candidates have excellent prospects of employment: of the 13 students who completed the course in 1924 twelve were given five-year contracts by the company on an initial salary of Rs. 200 a month and one a similar contract with a starting pay of Rs. 150 per mensem.

Other Institutes, Madras.

370. A new Government Textile Institute was opened in Madras city in July 1922. Its main objects are to provide practical training for students—weavers and maistries—engaged in hand-loom weaving and for teachers of weaving, and to train and maintain a staff of maistries for setting up

looms and appliances in schools and factories. There are two courses in the Institute, a supervisor's course of two years and an artisan course of six months. The supervisor's course includes the theory and practice of textile manufacture and instruction in the weaving of cotton, silk and woollen yarns, the dyeing and printing of cotton cloths, sericulture, silk filature reeling and power loom weaving. The artisan course is entirely practical and prepares pupils for employment as weavers in hand-loom factories. The Institute also provides a course of training in the manufacture of socks and stockings from cotton, artificial silk and woollen yarns. Considerable additions have been made to the courses in the Government Trades School, Madras, which was transferred to a new and permanent building in 1924. The scope of the course in mechanical engineering has been widened so as to include applied science, and the electrical engineering courses have been divided into a four years' course of electrical engineering and a short course in practical electric wiring in which artisans are given instruction through the vernacular. Building drawing classes have been added for the benefit of artisans from the building trades and printing trade classes have been opened for workmen employed in the printing presses in the city. New class rooms and laboratories have been added to the Leather Trades Institute, Madras, and classes have been opened for the practical training of tanning operatives and for the training of working tanners and maistries from private tanneries. The Railway branch school at Perambur near Madras has opened new classes in drawing for metal and wood workers and in drawing as applied to railway carriage building.

The Government Industrial Institute, Madura, which was opened in 1920, new provides a five years' apprenticeship in metal working and in wood working. Short courses are also provided in motor driving and mechanism, oil and gas engine driving, and the care of industrial machinery.

By the year 1926-27, there were as many as 60 recognised industrial schools in the Madras Presidency, 56 of which were in receipt of grant-in-aid from Government. The more important schools opened during the quinquennium include the Sri Ram Motor School, Madras, which provides instruction in motor driving and mechanism; the Rajah's Industrial School, Parlakimedi, which teaches carpentry and cabinet-making; the Rama Krishna Students' Home Industrial School, Madras, in which instruction is given in wood-work, cotton-weaving, woollen carpet-weaving and general educational subjects; the Wesleyan Mission Girls' Industrial School, Trivellore, in which lace-making and weaving is taught; and the Industrial School for Moplahs at Arieakode, where instruction is given in weaving and cane work.

371. In Bombay, both the Government Technical Institute, Ahmedabad, and the Mission Technical Institute, Surat, have Bombay.

largely increased in strength—the former from 78 to 115 and the latter from 32 to 132. The standard for admission to these institutions has been raised and, in consequence, the general efficiency has greatly improved. In the Ahmedabad institute, the course extends over three years and provides theoretical and practical instruction in cotton spinning, weaving, dyeing and bleaching. Mechanical engineering, including courses in the use of hand and machine tools which were first given in 1925, is also taught. At the beginning of the quinquennium the institute at Surat only provided instruction in mechanical engineering, but in 1923 classes in furniture making and workshop apprenticeship were added. At the College of Enginering, Poona, there are workshop classes with three years' courses in civil, mechanical and electrical engineering, which prepare students for training as foremen and overseers. During the quinquennium the workshops have been extended and up-to-date machinery provided.

During the quinquennium the Department of Industries in Bombay gave considerable stimulus to schools for handloom weaving and nine new weaving schools and nine demonstration classes were opened. A peripatetic weaving school for agriculturists was opened in order to introduce hand-loom weaving as a spare-time industry amongst agriculturists in the off season. Demonstration classes were opened in cottage sizing sets, in dyeing and calico printing and proved very successful.

At the end of the quinquennium, the Committee of Direction for Technical Education had under its control 28 schools with an attendance of 2,134 pupils. The majority of the schools provided instruction in carpentry as applied to house building, in furniture making, carriage building and in handloom weaving. Three schools teach smithy work and three teach machine tool work. In 1926-27, the Committee of Direction paid grants, amounting to nearly Rs. 39,000, to 25 of these schools.

Bengal.

372. The number of industrial and technical schools in Bengal increased by 67 to 153, the increase being mainly in weaving schools and the total number of pupils from 3,631 to 6,234. In addition to the weaving schools there are institutions which give artisan training in carpentry, black smithy, tin smithy, basket weaving, cane work and pottery. The more important technical schools are the Calcutta Technical School, which was opened in 1926, absorbing the old Calcutta Technical Evening School, and which gives instruction in mechanical and electrical engineering to workers actually employed in industries in Calcutta and the Kanchrapara and Kharagpur Schools which train railway apprentices for the Eastern Bengal and the Bengal Nagpur Railways. Advanced technological training is given at the Calcutta Tanning Institute and the applications for the 24 vacancies in this

Institute have been large. The Institute was placed on a permanent footing in 1925, and provides a two years' course of instruction in leather manufacture and applied analytical chemistry. In 1925, the Government sanctioned the opening of a silk weaving and dyeing institute at Berhampore, but the school did not actually begin work until after the close of the quinquennium. The Government Weaving Institute, Serampore, has continued to do satisfactory work but is reported to be badly in need of permanent buildings. The Institute holds two courses—one a three year course for those wishing to qualify as teachers, overseers and managers of hand weaving factories and the other an artisan one year course for actual hand-loom weavers. In 1927, there were 75 pupils studying in the institute.

During the quinquennium, the female industrial classes organised by the Young Women's Christian Association at Serampore were taken over by Government and added to the Institute. A lady superintendent was placed in charge of these classes which provided instruction in plain and fancy needle-work, spinning, weaving, carpet-making and hose making.

373. In the United Provinces, there are ten Government Textile Schools—the Government Textile School, Cawnpore; the Government School of Dyeing and Printing, Cawnpore; the Central Weaving Institute, Benares; the Government Weaving and Cotton Printing School at Bulandshahr and six model weaving schools in the districts. The textile school at Cawnpore was opened in 1924, and provides instruction in cotton carding and spinning and weaving on power machinery. Mechanical engineering, mathematics and physics are also taught and the students under instruction are trained as foremen for employment in the textile mills. The school at Bulandshahr was also newly opened during the quinquennium and has a one year's course providing instruction in weaving and a two years' course in printing. In the year 1926-27, there were 354 students under instruction in the ten institutions as against 321 under instruction in 1921-22. Two new Government carpentry schools were opened during the quinquennium making the total number of Government carpentry schools four. The Government carpentry school at Allahabad provides three year courses in general wood-work, advanced wood-work, polishing and painting, and upholstery, while the wood-work institute at Bareilly provides separate courses in cabinet making and joinery, machine tool work, painting, polishing and wood finishing, and upholstery. The number of Government leather-working schools was increased to three by the opening of a school at Agra, in 1925-26. All the three schools provide instruction in a two years' course in the making of boots and shoes and other leather articles. All the peripatetic Government weaving schools, except one attached to the Government School of Dyeing and Printing,

United Provinces.

Cawnpore, were abolished during the quinquennium. In 1926-27, a pottery class was opened at Benares by the Industries Department, and four students who have passed the Intermediate Examination in Science, and four professional potters are now under instruction.

The number of aided industrial schools under mission and private management has increased from 21 to 74; thirteen industrial schools are now maintained by local bodies as against *nil* in 1922. The aided schools and the schools under local bodies provide instruction in various classes of subjects including carpentry, weaving, needle-work, hosiery, smithy and metal work and leather work.

Punjab.

374. In the Punjab, the Railway Technical School at Lahore has increased in popularity in spite of the higher standard demanded from candidates for admission. The number of pupils on the rolls has increased by 334, from 370 in 1921-22 to 704 in 1926-27. The Central Weaving Institute at Amritsar takes an active part in the handloom industry; its enrolment increased from 23 in 1920-21 to 66 in 1926-27.

During the quinquennium ten new industrial schools were opened by Government and six schools were provincialised, bringing the total number of such schools up to 17; the total enrolment of pupils under instruction increased to 2,560. Six industrial schools under private or local body management are given grants-in-aid by Government.

Burma.

375. In Burma, the Government Technical Institute, Insein, has considerably developed since its reorganisation at the end of the previous quinquennium and the number of students under instruction has risen from 59 to 251. The Institute, in addition to providing instruction for artisans, holds courses in mechanical and civil engineering for students coming from the Engineering Department of the Rangoon University. During the quinquennium the Institute was improved by the provision of two new hostels, a physical laboratory, quarters for staff and servants, a new power house and a new system of sanitation and water-supply. The Saunders' Weaving Institute at Amarapura, which previously only conducted a class for artisans, opened a higher course for teachers, master weavers and managers of weaving factories in 1923, in consequence of which the number of pupils at the institute increased from 45 to 78.

During the quinquennium, two new industrial schools were opened—one a lacquer and carpentry school at Pagan and the other a pottery school at Insein. There is also a non-Government technical school at Twante, namely, the De La Salle Institute, which has been working successfully for over five years and had 54 apprentices on its rolls in 1926-27. It provides instruction in such subjects as mechanical engineering, rubber, carpentry, and farming, and has received generous support from the Burma Government.

376. In Bihar and Orissa, the number of technical and industrial schools has increased from 32 to 43 and their strength has risen from 1,543 to 2,462. Amongst the new schools instituted the most important was the Tirhut Technical Institute which was opened in 1925. This institute has a leather-working class, a mechanical apprentices class and an artisan class. Large numbers of applications for admission have been received ever since the institute was opened. Other new industrial schools opened during the quinquennium include a cottage industries institute, a school for compositors, a blanket weaving school and four new mining classes. Bihar and Orissa.

The Jamalpur Technical Institute was opened during the quinquennium and is maintained by the Railway Board in conjunction with the provincial Government. Apprentices undergo a three months' course annually over a period of five years and in 1927, there were 275 apprentices.

377. In the Cenrtal Provinces, there are now three Government Industrial Schools—the school of handicrafts at Nagpur, the Robertson School at Jubbulpore and the school of handicrafts at Akola newly opened in 1922. The only other school of importance opened during the quinquennium was the leather tanning school started at Nagpur in 1925. Central Provinces.

378. The more important industrial schools in Assam include two Government Weaving Institutions at Gauhati and Shillong, the Fuller Industrial School, Shillong, the Fuller Technical School, Kohima, the Industrial School, Tura, and the Government School of Handicrafts, Sylhet. Advanced courses were opened in the Government Weaving Institution at Gauhati in the year 1923-24 and in 1925-26 classes were opened in dyeing and hand-printing. The Fuller Industrial School, Shillong, provides courses in wood-work and metal work, the leather work section being abolished at the beginning of 1927. The Fuller Technical School, Kohima, provides courses in carpentry, black smithy and stone masonry and the Government School of Handicrafts, Sylhet, which was opened in 1923 provides courses in wood work and metal work. The Industrial School, Tura, had only 13 pupils on the rolls in 1925, and was closed in 1926. At the end of the quinquennium sanction was given for the establishment of His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales' Technical School at Jorhat, but the school was not actually opened until after the close of the period under review. Assam.

379. In Bangalore, the R. B. A. N. M. Technical School which had previously trained surveyors and sub-overseers has been converted into an industrial school teaching wood work, metal work and rattan work. Bangalore.

380. In Delhi, there is one industrial school formerly maintained by the municipal committee but now maintained by Government. Instruction in the school is given in car- Delhi.

pentry and smithy and during the quinquennium the number of pupils rose from 173 to 263.

General.

381. The above survey indicates a general all round activity in increasing the facilities and extending the scope of both industrial and technical education. It appears to be generally recognised, however, that the educational and training facilities that are to be provided for the community should assist in the improvement of the existing industries and of the workers therein and should not aim at creating workers for new industries, and that there is considerable scope for a further extension of these facilities, even in a country which is predominantly agricultural rather than industrial.

Expenditure on Technical and Industrial Schools, 1926-27.

—	Expenditure from				Total Expenditure
	Government Funds	Board Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.
Schools for males	20,95,131	1,96,864	1,80,957	12,46,796	37,19,748
Schools for females . .	66,914	6,090	7,145	2,44,731	3,24,880
Total .	21,62,045	2,02,954	1,88,102	14,91,527	40,44,628

(II) Schools of Art.

Statistics for 1926-27.

Institutions.		Pupils.	Expenditure.			
			Government and Board Funds	Fees	Other Sources.	Total.
			Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs.
The School of Arts and Crafts, Madras .	1	494	59,251	...	..	59,251
Sir J. J School of Art, Bombay. Reay Art workshops, Bombay.	2	575	1,21 439	9,463	1,602	1,32,504
Schools of Art, Bengal . .	6	567	71,149	16,240	14,547	1,01,936
The School of Arts and Crafts, Lucknow .	1	164	62,078	1,926	3,190	67,194
The Mayo School of Art, Lahore . .	1	164	82,706	1,606	4,571	88,883
India	11	1,964	3,96,623	29,235	23,910	4,49,768

382. The number of schools of art has increased from 8 to 11; six being Government schools at Calcutta, Madras, Bombay (2), Lucknow and Lahore, and three being aided and two unaided schools. As was explained in the previous quinquennial review, the name given to these institutions is in many cases misleading, as several of the schools classified under the head "Schools of Art" are really industrial craft schools, with very little provision for the teaching of fine arts such as drawing and painting. General.

383. In 1921, the Government of Madras appointed a committee to examine the working of the School of Arts at Madras, and accepted the recommendation of the Committee that the object of the school should be to teach the application of arts to industries which are capable of artistic development. The School has been re-named, in consequence, the School of Arts and Crafts, and now provides a training in art and design as applied to industrial crafts. It provides instruction in cabinet making, metal-working, including silver smithying and jewellery, wood and copper engraving and dye sinking, lacquer-work, painting, designing and carpet weaving, modelling and geometrical drawing. Madras.

384. Little change has taken place during the quinquennium in the Bombay School of Art and in the Reay Art Workshop, attached to it, but the work in the Life classes, in decorative design and in mural painting has greatly improved and has received considerable public attention. Five special scholarships have been instituted by Government for backward class pupils attending the modelling classes, and, in consequence, the attendance at these classes has improved. Bombay.

385. The Government School of Art, Calcutta, which had been placed under the control of the Industries Department in 1920, was re-transferred to the Education Department in 1923. In spite of the fact that the fees in the school were raised in 1924 and the number of free and half-free studentships was reduced, the number of pupils under instruction has increased from 268 to 335. The popularity of the school is witnessed, too, by the fact that pupils come to it from all parts of India; it includes representatives of the European, Anglo-Indian, Indian Christian, Muhammadan, Buddhist, Sikh and Hindu communities. A new Commercial Art section has been started in order to train students in designing, poster drawing, advertising and illuminating. The new class has only recently been started as an experiment, but has so far proved successful. The remaining five schools of art in Bengal are privately managed, but three of them are in receipt of grant-in-aid from Government. Bengal.

386. The Government School of Arts and Crafts at Lucknow has increased in strength from 106 to 164, but the Fine Art section of the school has only 10 students on its rolls, the remaining students being under instruction in the Industrial Art section, which trains pupils in those branches United Provinces.

of arts, designs and handicrafts which bear on the more artistic trades practised in the United Provinces. A new training class for drawing masters was opened in the school in 1926-27, but its numbers are limited to 8 annually. There are two aided arts and crafts schools in the United Provinces, but they are more fittingly classified as industrial schools. These schols are the Dible Industrial School, Nagina, and the Brassware School, Benares. Both Schools were opened in 1925, and have an enrolment of approximately 20 pupils each.

Punjab.

387. The strength of the Mayo School at Arts, Lahore, has declined during the period under review, mainly owing to the closure of its elementary section. Recruitment to the school is now ordinarily made from pupils who have completed a course in industrial middle schools. During the quinquennium new classes were started in book binding and in commercial printing.

(*III*) *Commercial Education.*

(*a*) Colleges and Schools of Commerce.

	Institutions.		Scholars.	
	1922.	1927.	1922	1927.
Colleges	5	14	421	1 516
Schools	134	144	7,090	6,705
Total .	139	158	7,511	8,221

(*b*) Expenditure on Colleges and Schools of Commerce.

Expenditure.	Colleges.		Schools.	
	1922.	1927.	1922.	1927.
	Rs.	Rs.	Rs.	Rs
From Government Funds .	60,581	57,624	69,747	1,14,626
,, Board ,, .	...	...	4,108	8,068
,, Fees	35,932	71,262	1,69,869	2,47,250
,, Other Sources . .	2,555	39,413	75,096	76,333
Total .	99,068	1,68,299	3,18,820	4,46,267

388. Though the number of commercial schools has increased by 10 during the quinquennium, there has been a decrease of nearly 400 students under instruction. But it could hardly be expected that the impetus given by the opening of nearly 70 new institutions in the previous quinquennium and the large increase of nearly 4,000 students would be continued and repeated in the period under review. In fact it was indicated in the last quinquennial review that at the end of the period some of the products of the recently opened commercial institutions were already finding it difficult to obtain suitable employment. The number of Government and unaided institutions has considerably increased while there has been a large fall in the number of aided institutions, the fall occurring mainly in Bengal. The number of scholars under instruction decreased in almost all provinces except Madras. The fall in the number of pupils reading in commercial schools has however been more than compensated by the rise in the number of students reading in commercial colleges, where there has been an increase of nearly eleven hundred. At the end of the quinquennium there were 14 commercial colleges as against five in 1922, and instruction in commercial subjects leading to a degree or to a diploma was being given at the Universities of Bombay, Calcutta, Lucknow, Allahabad, Punjab and Dacca. Most of the commercial schools in British India provide courses in Shorthand, Typewriting, Book-keeping, Banking and Commercial Geography, but a few schools have a larger variety of courses. Expenditure has increased on both schools and colleges by about 40 and 70 per cent., respectively. General.

389. In Madras, there was a fall in the strength of both the Institute at Madras and the Institute at Calicut. But in 1925, the Government opened a new School of Commerce at Vizagapatam and its strength at the end of the quinquennium was 106. The opening of this new school was the direct result of the recommendations of a Committee on Technical and Industrial Education which advocated a new commercial school for the Northern Districts of the Madras Presidency. The school at present prepares students for the Government Technical Examinations in Shorthand, Book-keeping, Theory and Practice of Commerce, Banking and Commercial Geography. It is satisfactory to note that the reports from the two older institutions of commerce show that the great majority of students trained have found employment not merely in India, but in countries outside India. Madras.

390. In spite or because of the opening of a number of other commercial institutions in Bombay, the strength of the Sydenham College of Commerce has continued to increase. The most important events of the quinquennium in this college have been the provision of separate buildings for the college, the establishment of a commercial museum, and the opening of a class for the teaching of actuarial science. Bombay.

Prior to 1926, the commercial schools and classes in Bombay, which now number 34, had been inspected by the ordinary inspecting agency of the Education Department. But early in 1926, the Principal of the Sydenham College of Commerce was appointed as an Inspector of Commercial Schools in the Presidency and beneficial results and greater efficiency are expected from this change. Most of the commercial schools and classes in Bombay send up students for the Junior and Senior Examinations of the London Chamber of Commerce. It is reported that notwithstanding the decrease in the demand for students with these qualifications, these examinations have continued to be as popular as ever.

At the end of the quinquennium, after consulting the Bombay Chamber of Commerce, the Indian Merchants' Chamber and the Bombay Mill Owners' Association, Government instituted a Commercial and Clerical Certificate Examination, which was held for the first time shortly after the close of the quinquennium.

Accountancy Diploma Board, Bombay.

391. The Accountancy Diploma Board has continued to hold the examinations for the Government Diploma in Accountancy and in 1924, Rangoon was added to the list of centres which previously included only Bombay, Madras, Calcutta and Allahabad.

Bengal.

392. In Bengal, apart from the University commercial classes, the most important commercial institute is the Government Commercial Institute, Calcutta. In 1923, this institute was transferred from the Department of Industries to the Education Department and in the same year the Retrenchment Committe recommended that it should be deprovincialised. In consequence, in 1924, Government appointed a Committee to report on the future of the institute, and, in 1926, this Committee recommended that the institute should not be deprovincialised. In 1923, classes were opened for training candidates for the examination of the London Institute of Bankers, and though classes were continued for the examination of the Bombay Government Diploma in Accountancy, a Committee has recently been appointed to draw up a scheme for a separate examination in Accountancy for Bengal.

Punjab.

393. Several important changes in connection with commercial education have taken place in the Punjab, during the period under review. The Institute of Commerce, Lahore, was closed and in its place a two years' training class was started for Matriculates at the Central Model School. In 1925 the question of clerical and commercial education was enquired into by a special Committee which recommended the abolition of Pre-Matriculation clerical classes and the opening of Post-Matriculation classes. As a result of the Committee's recommendations Pre-Matriculation classes have been closed and Post-Matriculation classes have been opened at Amritsar, Jullundur, Lyallpur, Multan, Jhang, Sialkot, Ambala,

Rohtak and Ludhiana. The Committee also recommended that a College of Commerce should be opened with the Intermediate as the minimum qualification for admission. Thanks to the munificence of the late Sir Ganga Ram, the Hailey College of Commerce was established at the end of the quinquennium.

Burma.

394. In Burma commercial education seems to have made little headway. The number of students under instruction has declined and the scheme for the establishment of a Commercial Institute in Rangoon has been abandoned. Even the three Accountancy classes started in 1923 were closed in 1927.

Delhi.

395. In the Delhi Province, there are 7 Commercial Classes attached to high schools and the Commercial High School in Delhi has been recognised by the Secondary Board of Education.

Other Provinces.

396. In the United Provinces and in Bihar and Orissa, there are very few commercial schools and their strength has declined and in the Central Provinces and Assam, there are no commercial schools.

Commercial subjects in Secondary School Curriculum.

397. In nearly all the provinces commercial subjects from part of the optional subjects taken at the various examinations held at the end of the high school course and during the quinquennium additional commercial subjects were added to the courses in Madras, Bombay and the Central Provinces. It was recognised however, more towards the end than at the beginning of the quinquennium, that the commercial training which best meets the needs of the commercial communities in India is based upon a sound knowledge of modern English. This has shown itself in a tendency towards raising the standard of general education of those who are admitted to a commercial course.

CHAPTER X.

Education of Special Classes and Communities.

I.—*Education of chiefs and noblemen.*

Chiefs' Colleges.

398. Five Chiefs' Colleges, organised on the lines of an English public school and staffed with a sprinkling of European members of the Indian Educational Service, are maintained for the education of the sons and relatives of the chiefs and princes of India. Their future has been for some time and still was, at the end of the quinquennium, under the consideration of the Government of India and the college councils. The following table shows the strength of these colleges in the years 1921-22 and 1926-27:—

	1921-22.	1926-27.
The Mayo College, Ajmer . .	99	126
The Daly College, Indore . .	51	63
Aitchison College, Lahore . .	95	110
Rajkumar College, Rajkot . .	53	43
Rajkumar College, Raipur . .	64	50
	362	392

Examinations.

399. These colleges in their higher classes usually prepare students for the Diploma and Higher Diploma Examinations. The standard of the former examination, which is conducted by the Educational Commissioner with the Government of India under the authority of the Government of India (Foreign and Political Department), is equal to that of the Matriculation Examination of an Indian University. This examination can be taken in either of two courses; *Course A* is suitable for those intending to proceed to a University, but *Course* B, which qualifies a candidate for a full diploma, does not qualify for admission to a University. The standard of the course for the Higher Diploma Examination which is taught at the Mayo College only is roughly equivalent to that of the B. A. Examination of an Indian University. The Educational Commissioner with the Government of India conducts the examination in "*English*" and "*History*", while the examination in "*Administration*" (Revenue and Judicial Examination by the Lower Standard) is conducted under the supervision of the Commissioner of Ajmer-Merwara. The Examiners appointed to set papers and to value the answers in both diploma examinations are usually selected from University Examiners.

Mayo College, Ajmer.

400. The strength of the Mayo College recovered during the quinquennium and has now reached the maximum number which the present staff can efficiently handle, there being

in addition to Indian members only three English members as against six in pre-war days. The examination results of the College have been satisfactory, 35 out of 44 candidates having passed the Diploma Examination and 10 out of 10 candidates having passed the Higher Diploma Examination. Electricity has been installed in the College buildings, part of the cost of the installation being met by the Jaipur Durbar and by the Maharaja of Mayurbhanj. The majority of the chiefs attending this College come from Rajputana but a few come from Central Indian and other States.

Daly College, Indore.

401. The constitution of the Daly College, Indore, has been altered so that the ruling princes in Central India through the College Council and Working Committee have now more direct control over the administration of the College than formerly. The English staff has unfortunately suffered continual changes throughout the quinquennium and it is reported that the efficiency of the College has in consequence deteriorated somewhat. The accommodation has remained the same; it is much in excess of the requirements of the present number of pupils. Only a few chiefs appeared for the Diploma Examinations during the period under review and after 1925 it was decided to adopt the High School Examination of the United Provinces in place of the Diploma Examination. In 1926-1927 four chiefs appeared for this examination all of whom passed.

Aitchison College, Lahore.

402. The Aitchison College, Lahore, has, as in the previous quinquennium, suffered from increasing financial embarrassment and the financial difficulties have been tided over only by raising the College fees from Rs. 75 per mensem to Rs. 85 per mensem and by the liberality of the princes of the Punjab who in response to an appeal from the College inaugurated a system of yearly contributions which has realised since 1923 an average annual contribution of about Rs. 18,000. His Highness the Maharaja of Patiala initiated the movement for these contributions and in addition gave a special donation of Rs. 30,000 to the College in 1926. The actual strength of the English staff has been reduced from four to three but owing to the absence of officers on leave the effective strength of the English staff was, with the exception of the year 1924, only two throughout the quinquennium. The farm and dairy buildings have been extended and improved. A new swimming bath was opened in 1923. A new riding school has been built and additional tennis courts have been laid out. The majority of chiefs under instruction in this College come from the Punjab States but during the quinquennium several pupils came from the Khairpur State in Sind and from the Rampur State in the United Provinces. The results of the Diploma Examination have varied, but especially good results were obtained in the years 1923-1924. The Cadet Corps and the Boy Scout Troops referred to in the last quinquennial review have not proved as successful as was anticipated. The Cadet Corps has suffered by the loss of the College Parade ground and its

number has seldom exceeded 17, while the Boy Scout Troop ceased to function by the end of the period under review.

Rajkumar College, Rajkot.

403. The staff of the Rajkumar College, Rajkot, consisted for several years during the quinquennium of only one European but in 1926-27 there were two members on the English staff. In 1924 a Committee of the College Council decided in favour of the vernacular as the medium of instruction in all but the two highest classes and in favour of the substitution of the Bombay Matriculation Examination for the Diploma Examination. The recommendations of the Committee were adopted and the Matriculation Examination was substituted for the Diploma Examination in 1925-26. The Government of India grant to the College was reduced in 1923-24 from Rs. 25,000 to Rs. 10,000, but the fee receipts and the interest on the Endowment Fund have increased. The Endowment Fund was increased by over 3 lakhs of rupees obtained from Jubilee subscriptions contributed by Indian States bringing the total of the Fund up to nearly $9\frac{1}{2}$ lakhs of rupees.

Rajkumar College, Raipur.

404. In 1923 a special committee was appointed to revise the constitution of the Rajkumar College, Raipur, and in 1924 a new constitution was approved by which the General Council of the College comprises all the ruling chiefs of the Central Provinces and Bihar & Orissa, two zamindars nominated by each of the Central Provinces and Bihar & Orissa Governments and five official members. The Committee of the Council now consists of four ruling chiefs and two zamindars elected by the General Council and four official members. At the beginning of the quinquennium the finances of the College were in a serious state, but thanks to an appeal made for the creation of a new Endowment Fund the financial position of the College has much improved and the annual income of Rs. 50,000 from the new Endowment Fund has made the College self-supporting. The only new building added to the College during the period under review was a new Guest House erected out of subscriptions from the chiefs. Out of the total of 50 Kumars on the rolls in 1927, 21 came from the Central Provinces, three from Bihar, two from Madras, two from Bengal and three from Assam. The results of the Diploma Examination have been very satisfactory and out of a total of 23 Kumars appearing for the examination 20 have passed, 11 in the first class.

II.—*European Education.*

Administration.

405. The European and Anglo-Indian population of British India is approximately 250,000, which is only 0·1 per cent. of the total population. The smallness and scattered nature of the population, coupled with their demand for separate schools, has made European education a problem which is difficult and expensive of solution. In all provinces except Burma European education is a provincial *reserved* subject, in charge of a member of the Executive Council of the provincial Government. It is governed by its own code of regulations for

the award of grants, prescription of courses and the like which differs from the code applicable to Indian schools. In Burma, European education is a provincial *transferred* subject, that is, under the control of the provincial Minister for Education.

European Schools with Scholars, 1926-27.

—	Colleges.		High Schools.		Middle Schools.		Primary Schools.		Special Schools.		Unrecognised Schools.		Total.	
	Institutions.	Scholars.	Institutions.	Scholars.	Institutions.	Scholars.	Institutions.	Scholars.	Institutions.	Scholars.	Institutions.	Scholars.	Institutions.	Scholars.
For Males	7	263	69	16,760	42	4,559	55	3,287	3	176	..	..	176	25,045
For Females.	3	351	98	16,879	66	6,755	61	3,655	17	466	..	..	245	23,106
Total .	10	614	167	33,639	108	11,314	116	6,942	20	642	..	..	421	53,151

406. The total number of recognized institutions for Europeans has not altered very largely in recent years, and owing to the tardy but growing recognition of the need for concentration and economy there has lately been a tendency for the number of institutions to decrease. In 1917, there were 444 institutions; in 1922, 443; and in 1927, 421. On the other hand the total number of scholars in European schools has increased during the period under review from 46,620 to 53,151. The latter total, however, includes 9,599 (that is, 18 per cent.) Indian pupils, and since 3,740 Europeans are reading in schools for Indians, the total number of Europeans under instruction is 47,292. It is noticeable that this number forms 18·3 per cent. of the total European population of British India, as compared with 4·5 per cent. of the Indian population under instruction, and with the figures 14 and 15 which are used in India and in Britain respectively as the percentage of pupils of school-going age. Madras has 87 institutions for Europeans, with over 10,000 scholars; Bengal, 62 institutions, with over 10,000 scholars; the United Provinces, 55 institutions with nearly 6,000 scholars; and Bombay, 39 institutions with nearly 5,000 scholars. The percentage of European scholars to the total European population has increased from 17·7 in 1922 to 18·3 in 1927. During the quinquennium the number of colleges for Europeans increased from 6 to 10, but their strength declined from 846 to 614. The number of high schools increased from 153 to 167 and their strength from 25,247 to 33,639. The number of middle schools declined from 130 to 108 and their strength from 13,322 to 11,314. The number of primary schools increased from 102 to 116 and their strength from 5,638 to 6,942, and the number of special schools declined from 52 to 20 and their strength from 1,547 **Statistics.**

to 642. The increase in the number of colleges is accounted for by the inclusion of the Dow Hill Training College for Women at Kurseong in Bengal*, by the recognition of four boys' high schools as intermediate colleges, by the loss of recognition as colleges of two colleges for girls in the United Provinces, and by the opening of a new intermediate college for men in the Punjab. It will thus be seen that with the exception of the training college in Bengal and the intermediate college in the Punjab, the increase in the number of colleges has been due merely to a re-classification of existing institutions. The four men's colleges in the United Provinces have been recognised by the Board of High School and Intermediate Education for its intermediate examination, and the two women's colleges in the same province have ceased to prepare pupils for the intermediate examination and now prepare pupils only for the Cambridge Higher School Certificate examination. The Director of Public Instruction in the Punjab regards the opening of the intermediate college at Ghora Gali as marking an epoch in the history of European education in that province; and he considers that the college will offer a long-needed opportunity to European pupils to equip themselves so as to be fit to take up some professional training.

Concentration.

407. In Madras the number of secondary schools has been reduced by the amalgamation of two high schools and by the closure of four middle schools. The Director of Public Instruction in Madras in this connection states:—"The policy of concentration by amalgamation constantly advocated by Government has not met with much success, and schools which are unnecessary and expensive from the purely educational point of view still continue to exist. Religious interests, vested interests and social differences are the main obstacles in the way of amalgamation and they present real difficulties. But there are signs that the various classes of management are alive to the necessity for the creation of larger and more efficient schools to serve areas which have hitherto been served by several sectarian schools." In Bombay also the Department and the managements of European schools have recognized the need for concentration and economy, and during the quinquennium two amalgamations took place and three schools were closed. The large reduction in the number of special schools is mainly accounted for by an alteration in the classification of such schools in Bengal. In the previous quinquennium the supplementary and technical classes attached to institutions for general education were classified as special schools, but in the reports of the year 1926-27 these classes have not been separately classified. That further concentration is desirable is evidenced *inter alia* from the fact that there is one teacher on an average for every 15 pupils in European schools in India.

* NOTE.—Although the Dow Hill Training College was in existence in 1921, its statistics were not then included in the General Educational Tables for Bengal.

Management.

408. Most European schools are managed by denominational bodies. In Bengal of the 62 institutions 43 or about two-thirds are sectarian. The author of the quinquennial review for Bengal states:—"The fact that there are only a few managing authorities, each of which controls several schools, made it possible during the period to follow the policy of organising the schools under one management so as to form an educational unit." Of the four institutions in Assam three are managed by sectarian bodies. In this connection the author of the Assam quinquennial review remarks:—"The value and importance of these institutions with a devoted band of trained European teachers cannot be exaggerated. They indirectly benefit the Indian educational workers by serving as models to illustrate what public schools should be, how the pupils therein should be trained to be strong in body, mind and character and to be useful and serviceable as members of the community to which they belong. They also hold before the Indian reformers the ideal and example of sacrifice in the cause of education."

Railway authorities also manage a number of European schools. There are some 95 schools for Europeans and Anglo-Indians managed by the various Railways in India. The greatest number is under the control of the East Indian Railway; of the 22 schools with 1,004 scholars managed by them 21 are primary. Among the provinces Madras has the greatest number of Railway schools (17) located in the Presidency. But the highest average number of scholars is 72 in the schools maintained by the South Indian Railway.

Government plays but a small part in the management of these institutions. In 1921-22, out of 443 institutions for Europeans, only eleven were managed by Government, *viz.*, two in Madras, four in Bengal, three in the Punjab, and one each in Burma and Assam. Owing to a change in the construction of the General Educational Tables prescribed by the Government of India, it is not possible to give similar figures for 1926-27 for all India. Some provinces, however, for instance, Bengal, include the relevant information in the body of their reports. Out of 62 institutions in 1926-27 in Bengal, only three were under the direct control of Government, the rest were private management and were distributed as follows:—

Church of England	9
Church of Rome	28
Noncomformist	4
Undenominational	16
Jewish	1
Armenian	1
	59

The majority of institutions are managed on denominational lines, largely by religious bodies. The few undenominational schools are mainly schools maintained by Railway companies for children of their employees. The total number of Government institutions in Bengal, for Indians as well as for Europeans, was only 329 in 1926-27 out of a total of over 60,000. In Bombay, however, there are no Government institutions for Europeans; of the 39 institutions for Europeans in that Presidency 30 are maintained by Missionary bodies and 9 by Railway companies.

Expenditure on recognised institutions for Europeans.

—	Expenditure from				Total Expenditure.
	Government Funds.	Board Funds.	Fees.	Other Sources.	
	Rs	Rs.	Rs	Rs.	Rs.
1921-22 . .	46,70,968	21,653	49,06,770	36,73,835	1,82,73,226
1926-27 . .	50,98.162	52,236	53,94,471	45,16,549	1,50,61,418

NOTE.—This table includes indirect expenditure.

Expenditure.

409. The total expenditure on European schools has increased by Rs. 17,88,192, or by 13·5 per cent., as against an increase of Rs. 36,70,038, or 38·2 per cent., in the previous quinquennium. Of the total increase between 1922 and 1927 Government funds bore 23·9 per cent., board funds 1·7 per cent., fees 27·3 per cent., and other sources 47·1 per cent. Of the total expenditure on European schools in the year 1926-27 Government funds bore 33·9 per cent., board funds 0·4 per cent., fees 35·8 per cent., and other sources 30·0 per cent. The corresponding figures for the year 1922 were:—Government funds 35·2 per cent., board funds 0·1 per cent., fees 37·0 per cent., and other sources 27·7 per cent. In 1926-27, therefore, public funds contributed 34·2 per cent. of the cost of European education while fees and private funds contributed 65·8 per cent. In 1922 the corresponding figures were:—public funds 35·3 per cent., fees and private funds 64·7 per cent. The percentage of expenditure from public funds has thus fallen by 1·1, while the percentage of expenditure from fees and private funds shows a corresponding increase. Owing to the relatively high standard of living of staff and pupils and owing to the uneconomical size of the majority of schools the cost of European education is high; but it is observed that private funds contribute much more largely to the total cost of educating a European scholar than they do to the cost of educating an Indian scholar. In 1926-27, as already stated,

private funds contributed 65·8 per cent. of the cost of European education. The corresponding figure for the cost of education in Indian schools was only 34·7.

Fees.

410. It is interesting to note that, while the cost from Government funds per scholar declined from Rs. 103 to 96, the average fee paid for each scholar also declined by the same amount from Rs. 108 to 101. This possibly indicates a general tendency towards recovery from the stress of the aftermath of war-time. This feature is not, however, uniform throughout all the provinces. Only Bengal, the Punjab, the Central Provinces and the North-West Frontier Province show a tendency to reduce their expenditure from Government funds as well as from fees per scholar. In Madras, Burma, Bihar and Orissa, Assam and Baluchistan, there was a decline in the cost per scholar from Government funds but fees per scholar show an increase. Bombay, Delhi, Ajmer-Merwara and Bangalore, on the other hand, manifested a rise in both the items. The increases are, however, not sufficiently large or extensive in area to affect the general decrease that occurred over India as a whole. The most noteworthy declines in the Government cost per scholar occurred in Bihar and Orissa from Rs. 107 to 79, and in the Central Provinces from Rs. 83 to 57. The greatest drop in the expenditure from fees per scholar is recorded in the Punjab from Rs. 241 to 92 while Assam displays the highest rise in this respect from Rs. 364 to 431. It should, however, be mentioned that although the above observations are based on Supplementary Table No. 98, the figures there are not strictly comparable inasmuch as the figures for 1921-22 were obtained by calculating the average number of scholars monthly during the year while the figures for 1926-27 are based upon the number of scholars on roll on the 31st March.

The admission of Indians.

411. One outstanding feature of the period under review is the large increase in the number of Indians reading in European schools, the number having increased from about 4,838 to 9,599. Thus, while the number of Europeans reading in European schools increased by only 4·2 per cent., the number of Indians reading in European schools increased by 98·4 per cent. At the same time the percentage of Europeans reading in Indian schools increased very much more largely than the percentage of Europeans reading in European schools. The main reason for the increase in the number of Indians reading in European schools has been the modification or the removal of the restrictions which were previously placed on their admission. In Madras, in the year 1923, the permissible proportion of Indian pupils in European schools was raised from 15 per cent. to one-third, *i.e.*, to 33 per cent. In Bombay the percentage of Indians to the total number of pupils in European schools was 21·3 in 1927 as against 16·1 in 1922, the permissible percentage being 30. In Bengal, in 1926-27, out of 10,821 pupils 1,685 were non-Europeans. In Burma the restriction on the admission of non-Europeans to

English schools has been removed altogether and the percentage of non-Europeans in these schools has risen from 13 in 1922 to 36 in 1927. The large rise in the number of Europeans reading in Indian schools and colleges can be attributed in the main to the absence of adequate facilities for all branches of education in the existing European schools, especially in arts and professional colleges and in technical institutions. The comparative cheapness of higher education in Indian schools and colleges and the recognition that large numbers of Europeans and Anglo-Indians must now compete with Indians through the same system of examinations are probably also contributory causes. In other provinces the fixed percentage for non-European scholars are:—United Provinces—15 per cent. (which has been raised to 25 per cent. since the close of the quinquennium); Punjab—15 per cent. (*plus* a further 10 per cent. of Indian Christians and Indians whose vernaculars are other than those of the Punjab); Bihar and Orissa—25 per cent.; Central Provinces—about 25 per cent.; Ajmer-Merwara—25 per cent.; Baluchistan—25 per cent.; Delhi—15 per cent.; and Coorg—15 per cent. In Assam, Burma, and in the North-West Frontier Province there is no fixed percentage.

European School Codes.

412. Considerable modifications in the educational codes for European schools have been made during the quinquennium, and there has been a noticeable improvement towards bringing the codes for European schools into line with those for Indian schools. In Madras a new code of regulations for European schools was published in 1926, and the grant-in-aid rules were as far as possible brought into line with the grant-in-aid rules in the Madras Educational Rules. In Bengal the code of regulations has been revised. The revised draft was first discussed in a Conference of Teachers and Managers in 1923 and finally approved in 1926. The new code abolished free boarding grants to secondary schools and has delegated powers to the Inspector of European Schools in respect of the award of maintenance grants and cadet grants. In the Punjab, the grant-in-aid rules for European schools have been revised and brought more into line with those obtaining in Indian schools, and a new regulation has been added laying down the minimum scale of fees to be charged in aided schools. In the Central Provinces a revised system of grant-in-aid was introduced during 1925-26, which, in effect, placed European schools on the same basis as Indian schools in respect of grants. As a result of this revision the amount of maintenance grants paid in the year 1925-26 decreased from Rs. 1,00,000 to Rs. 73,000. As in previous periods, the policy to be adopted in regard to European education generally has been repeatedly discussed in several Provinces.

Courses and Examinations.

413. In Madras in 1925 a conference was held to consider problems connected with the education of European and Anglo-Indian children. The conference resolved that "in

view of the present needs of the Anglo-Indian community it is imperative that the whole position of European education in the Province should be surveyed with a view to ascertaining (1) the educational needs of each area, and (2) the type of education which should be encouraged in that area." Subsequently a survey was undertaken by the Inspector of European Schools, and his report was submitted to Government early in 1925. At the end of 1925 Government summoned another conference at which the report of the Inspector of European Schools was discussed. As a result of the survey and of the conferences it was decided that no radical alteration was needed in the system of European education, but that there was much room for improvement in the standards attained in the existing schools, and further that the present aim of European education should be the provision of a sound general education for Anglo-Indian children so as to enable them to face successfully the increasing competition for entry into various classes of employment.

414. In Bengal attention has been focussed during the quinquennium on the relationship of European schools to the University and the idea of a separate Anglo-Indian University was again discussed. In 1923, the Anglo-Indian Association of Calcutta proposed that the two Government Schools at Kurseong should be affiliated to the Dacca University, but such affiliation was not possible under the existing University Act. The position of the Cambridge School Certificate has been hotly debated in Bengal and there is a growing body of opinion, official and non-official, that the examination should be abandoned in favour of the University Intermediate Examination in Arts or Science. In this connection, however, the Calcutta University Senate has recently overcome the difficulties in connection with the results of the Cambridge examinations being published too late for candidates to obtain admission into the University by deciding that Cambridge Senior candidates* may join the first year college classes in January and that the Cambridge Higher School Certificate candidates may join the third year class in August, the admissions being cancelled if the results of the examinations are unfavourable. This is, obviously, not a very satisfactory arrangement, but it has at least made the passage of a European pupil from the school to the University more practicable than it was formerly. The general inelasticity of the courses in European schools has also been discussed and, in consequence of the need for a wider type of curriculum, new types of schools, known as higher grade or pre-vocational schools, were started in 1922. These schools are complete schools with primary, middle and upper departments, but after a general education up to standard VI, pre-vocational instruction is given in standards VII and VIII, with the intention of preparing pupils for direct

* *I.e.*, candidates appearing at the Cambridge School Certificate Examination.

entry into skilled industries. There were at one time four types of courses in these schools: the Commercial Course, the Domestic Course for girls, the Industrial Course and the Telegraph Course, but the Telegraph Course has since been closed. Only the Industrial Course has really been popular, but improved and alternative courses were under consideration at the close of the quinquennium, including a Salesmanship Course for girls and an Agricultural Science Course.

415. In the United Provinces also the comparative value of the Cambridge examinations and the local High school and University examinations has been discussed and the Director of Public Instruction states that " Indian high schools, intermediate colleges, and universities provide a continuous educational course, the stages of which are marked by the high school, the intermediate and university degree examinations. It is naturally to be expected that the boy attending a European school will, if he continues his formal studies, do so in a University or other higher educational institutions in India. Satisfactory though the Cambridge examinations may be for a boy leaving school and directly entering business or a profession, the stages marked by them hardly coincide with any definite stage of the full Indian educational course and it is difficult, with restrictions hampering choice of subjects, etc., to render them suitable as entrance examinations to the courses of study provided in Indian Universities."

416. In the Central Provinces, on the other hand, the curriculum of European schools is based mainly on the syllabuses of the Cambridge Local Examinations. These examinations, it is stated, have been introduced in the province in response to demands made by the schools and have increased in popularity during the quinquennium. The Central Provinces Government has therefore decided, " after consulting with the European School Board and the school managers ", to abolish the Departmental Examinations and to make the Cambridge Local Examinations the sole examinations for these schools from 1928.

417. It may be noticed from the foregoing remarks that different provinces have adopted different policies—in some cases, diametrically opposed to each other—in regard to the curricula and examinations of pupils in European schools. Under the present system of educational control engendered by the Reforms, some differences in the general educational policies of the various provinces are inevitable, but divergence in fundamental principles such as in the curricula and examinations of these schools is to be deprecated. The anticipation that the provinces would have adopted a policy acceptable on the one hand to European schools and in conformity on the other hand with the recognised public system of education for Indians obtaining in the provinces has not been realized. Recognising, however, that by far the large majority of pupils in European schools never leave India, opinion has

been hardening in support of the official view that examinations conducted and controlled by authorities in this country are more suitable than are examinations controlled by some authority five or six thousand miles away. Moreover, the disadvantage of allowing the educational policy in this country to be influenced by a body outside India—and if boys enter for Cambridge school examinations the school course is modelled so as to suit those examinations and the outside body which conducts these examinations thus directly influences educational policy of India—is beginning to receive due recognition. No educational body situated in Britain has sufficient detailed knowledge of the general and particular local conditions in this country to be able to prescribe—except on the most general lines—a suitable educational policy for India, whether that policy is for Indians or for Anglo-Indians.

Teachers in European Schools, 1926-27.

Provinces	Trained Teachers	Untrained Teachers.	Total.	Percentage of trained teachers to total number of teachers.
Madras	526	226	752	69·9
Bombay	219	168	387	56·6
Bengal	386	305	691	55 9
United Provinces	309	146	455	67·9
Punjab	159	80	239	66·5
Burma	281	125	406	69 2
Bihar and Orissa	54	37	91	59 3
Central Provinces	66	61	127	52·0
Assam	32	5	37	86·5
India	2,241	1,314	3,555	63 0

418. From the above table it is observed that 63 per cent. of the teachers in European schools are trained, the highest percentage being in Assam (86·5) and the lowest in the Central Provinces (52·0). These are, however, among the smaller provinces. Of the large areas Madras has the highest percentage of trained teachers (69·9) while Bengal has the smallest (55·9). Staff.

In Madras it is reported that out of 735 teachers in institutions for general education 511 are trained, 79 certificated and 145 uncertificated. The Director of Public Instruction, Madras, however, remarks:—"There appears to be a reluctance on the part of the young men and women leaving European institutions to enter the teaching profession and those who qualify obtain better prospects outside the Presidency."

In Bengal, in 1921-22, there were 657 teachers including 61 graduates; in 1926-27 the number increased to 691 with 74 graduates. Of these 378 (including 45 graduates) were trained teachers in institutions for general education. There are no facilities in Bengal for the training of male teachers but the Government of Bengal assist men who wish to prosecute their training at the Training College, Ghoragali, Punjab. Women teachers are trained at the Dow Hill Training College, Kurseong.

In the United Provinces, in 1921-22, there were 244 trained teachers and 64 graduates, out of an aggregate of 427. In 1926-27 the number rose to 309 trained teachers and 89 graduates, out of a total of 455 teachers. The percentage of trained to total has increased from 57 in 1921-22 to 68 in 1926-27. The Director of Public Instruction, United Provinces, writes:—"The increase is attributable, in a large measure, to the Government assistance which the schools receive towards the payment of salary of trained teachers, and which enables them to offer more attractive salaries; provident funds, towards which grant-in-aid is given, provide an additional attraction."

In the Central Provinces there has been a slight improvement in the proportion of trained to untrained teachers, the number being 59 trained and 63 untrained in 1921-22 and 66 trained and 61 untrained in 1926-27 and the Director of Public Instruction, Central Provinces, remarks that the effect of this difference in staff is reflected in the work done in the schools.

The Director of Public Instruction, Punjab, on the other hand reports that "The proportion of trained teachers has unfortunately diminished, mainly on account of employment of untrained teachers for various subsidiary subjects chiefly in the Convent schools."

Concluding remarks.

419. The salient features of the progress and development of European education in India during the present quinquennium have been described briefly in the preceding paragraphs. Before concluding this account, it appears desirable to make some mention of and to discuss the tendencies that are at present at work in regard to the future position of European schools. As already stated in the beginning of this section, European and Anglo-Indian education is now a "provincial *reserved*" subject in all Governors' provinces except Burma, that is to say, it is under the control of a Member of the Executive Council of the Governor who is nearly always a European officer of the Indian Civil Service. In Burma, however, the subject is a "provincial *transferred*" one, being placed in charge of a Minister. The change brought about by the Reforms, in so far as it affects the administration and control of European and Anglo-Indian education, has been subjected to a good deal of controversy and the wisdom of its provincialisation has been questioned.

In February 1921 a resolution was passed at the first annual conference of the Association of Head Masters of European Schools in India that the Central Government should take control over European education from the provincial Governments. Somewhat similar resolutions were passed by the same body in August and December 1921. In November 1923 a deputation of delegates of the Anglo-Indian and Domiciled European Association of India waited on the Secretary of State. One of the prayers contained in the memorandum which they submitted to him was that European education should be made a central subject. A second deputation of delegates of the Anglo-Indian and Domiciled European Community of India and Burma waited on him in July 1925. At the annual conference of the European Association held in Calcutta in December 1925, a resolution was passed that European education should remain a reserved subject but placed under the central Government. The Association of Headmasters of European schools in India passed a further resolution at their annual meeting in January 1927 suggesting that a conference be summoned to consider the whole aspect of European education in India.

Centralisation of control.

420. It is possibly desirable to discuss here in some detail the pros and cons of the proposal for the centralisation of European education, and to put forward a suggestion that might assist in the solution of its administrative problems.

421. The protagonist of centralisation maintains that European education is largely extra-provincial, since European schools are attended largely by boys from other provinces than that in which European schools are situated, and that it is unfair that a province which has a large number of European schools should be called upon to bear the cost of educating boys from those provinces which have few European schools; that the greater part of the taxation paid by the European community is to central revenues in the form of customs and income-tax while European schools are given aid from provincial funds which are obtained largely from the proceeds of land revenue and excise paid by the Indian community, and that the cost of European education is therefore more properly a charge against central revenues than against provincial revenues; that European education would be more liberally treated in the matter of grants by the central Government than by the provincial Governments; that owing to the small number of schools in certain provinces it is impossible to maintain a whole-time Inspector of European Schools but that by centralisation it would be possible for whole-time Inspectors of European Schools to be appointed who could have jurisdiction over more than one province; that the curricula of European schools would not vary from province to province in a centralised scheme and that some uniformity is desirable since the parents of European boys are occasionally transferred from a station in one province to a station in another province

and such transfers affect prejudicially children who move with their parents and so from a school in one province to a school in another province; that it would be possible under centralisation to institute a single all-India examination which would receive recognition in England as equivalent to the Cambridge School Certificate examination, yet would be specifically suited to children living in India; and generally that the interests of European education would be better and more efficiently dealt with under a unified system under the central Government. In particular, it has been put forward that central control will have the effect of welding the schools together into a real educational system for Europeans in India and of remedying, to a certain extent, the defects of lack of unity of aim and control, absence of a uniform standard of endeavour, insufficiency of competent teachers, constant change of teachers due to inadequate remuneration, waste of money caused by the multiplicity of small and in many cases inefficient schools, frequent overlapping of effort in the same place and inequality of treatment of schools in respect of grants by the several provincial Governments.

422. On the other hand the antagonists to centralisation maintain that the progress of European education would be prejudicially affected if it were cut off from the other branches of provincial education, with which it is vitally connected; that, if centralised, funds for the maintenance and development of European education would have to be voted by the Legislative Assembly, and it is unreasonable to expect that the Assembly will be more liberal than provincial Legislative Councils are, especially since knowledge of the institution under consideration for which a demand for grant is being considered is desirable and is more likely to be possessed by members of the Legislative Councils than by members of the Legislative Assembly; that the European community in India would be still further differentiated from other communities in Inida at the very time that they are claiming that they should not be debarred from the benefits of Indianisation; that European education, if centralised, is likely to be singled out for attack, that local Governments would at once lose interest in the matter, since they would be no longer in a position of responsibility for European education but merely the agents of the central Government; that centralisation would inevitably lead to friction with local Governments, to the discouragement of local effort and the ignoring of local needs; that central control would be against the accepted policy of decentralisation; that the vastness of area of British India alone (more than a million square miles) renders proper, efficient and suitable control from a single centre impracticable; that co-operation between adjoining provinces will solve most of the soluble difficulties that arise in the administration of European education and that such as are not soluble are due to purely local conditions which a local authority can best consider or to the attitude of the managers of schools through-

out all India as, for example, unwillingness to co-operate with a view to concentration, efficiency and economy of schools.

423. There is one aspect of the problem of European education that possibly needs a little more consideration than has hithtrto been given to it, namely, the extra-provincial character of European boarding schools which are situated mainly in the hills or on the higher plateaus in India where the climate is for the greater part of the year bearable for the Anglo-Indian. The geographical configuration of the country which helps to determine the climate of any place is one of the main factors which settles the location of European boarding schools. Political boundaries have little to do with it. It is natural to find that provinces with good hill or upland stations like those which border on the Himalayas are more plentifully supplied with Anglo-Indian boarding schools than are provinces with few hill stations like the Central Provinces, and that Anglo-Indian children from this latter province and others of tropical climate have to go to stations outside their province to secure suitable education, at all events in the higher classes. Since nearly all European schools were founded by and are still under private management, Governments have had little control over their location.

424. Where a school in a province is attended very largely by the children of parents who reside outside the province it has been asserted that there is little justification for grants for its maintenance being paid from the funds of the province in which the school is located and that if grants are paid they should be at a reduced scale since the funds of one province ought not legitimately to be used for educating the children of a distant province. Centralisation of European education would be one solution of this difficulty; but centralisation does not appear to be the only solution. It should be quite easy for one province to come to an agreement with another province so that the province which is not supplied with European schools should help in the maintenance of a school which admits pupils from outside, who normally reside in the former province. This kind of problem, as well as others, might be solved by arrangement between adjoining provinces, each province which sends an appreciable number of children to schools beyond its boundaries bearing a share of the grants payable for the maintenance of the school. There are, in addition, other problems of European education apart from the problems of grant-in-aid which are common to education in adjoining provinces—some problems are in fact common to all India—so that there seems to be need for some central machinery or Board being set up containing representatives of the provinces and of the Government of India, to which body matters relating to educational problems which are common to more than one province can be referred and which can advise provincial authorities on the action that might suitably be taken. Whether the Government of India should

maintain authority to enforce such views of the Central Board as they accept upon unwilling provincial Governments is a matter which need not be gone into at the moment. What appears clear, however, is that the interests of the European population in educational matters overlap so largely from province to province that some central machinery is required which will be able to advise the various provincial authorities on matters which are referred to them and on which differences of opinion naturally arise between adjoining provinces. Such machinery as the late Central Advisory Board of Education to the Government of India would have fulfilled this function. This Board was, however, abolished at the beginning of the quinquennium as a measure of retrenchment and the need for its resuscitation in some form or other is evident, not only in regard to European education but in regard to other forms of education, as already stated in an earlier chapter (Administration and Control). Co-operation between province and province and between provinces and the central Government in educational matters can solve most difficulties and can be secured only by an Advisory Board or Council constituted with the consent of the participating provinces under the authority of the central Government.

III.—*Muhammadan Education.*

Special Problems.

425. Before proceeding with the progress of Muhammadan education recorded during the quinquennium, it is probably desirable first to touch upon some of the special problems which confront the Muhammadan community in India and which have influenced to a large extent their educational policy in this country. The chief cause of the backwardness of Muhammadan education has perhaps been the general aversion of the members of the community to avail themselves of the public systems of education, which are mainly, where not wholly, secular in character, in preference to the indigenous system of education which is essentially religious in character. But this aversion is slowly decreasing as will be borne out by the figures of scholars in " recognised " schools. The community has begun to feel that it cannot afford to lose pace in the general progress towards full development through universal literacy, and it must lose pace unless it accepts the opportunities for education that are afforded to it.

426. There are to-day two entirely different kinds of educational institutions that are accepted amongst the Muslim community in India. There is the ' recognized ' type of institutions—the primary school, the middle school, the secondary or high school, the intermediate college, the degree college, and finally the University—a system that was introduced as an exotic plant from the West, but which has flourished in its new surroundings and may be considered as part and parcel of a national system of education in India. In addition, there is the older system which begins with the *Mulla* school or

Maktab and finishes with the Madrasa—a system which had its roots firmly embedded in this country long before the former system was introduced and which remains in most places and in most respects almost unchanged from what it was a century ago. The *Mulla* school is frequently held in the vicinity of a place of worship, the teacher in charge is a *Mulla*, the pupils are children from five years of age upwards, and the instruction imparted is mainly in Arabic. It is customary for all Muhammadan children to receive instruction in the *Quran* before any other instruction is offered to them. Indeed until some extracts from the *Quran* are learnt by heart, it is not possible for a Muhammadan boy to say his daily prayers, nor does he generally learn anything else in school until he has finished reading the *Quran* in Arabic. From the age of five to seven, he does little, if anything, more than read in Arabic *Suras* of the *Quran*. At the age of seven, when the required proficiency in reading *Suras* from the *Quran* has been acquired, the boy, if he pursues his education further, either joins a recognised primary school of the modern type or proceeds to a Madrasa for Arabic and Persian instruction given according to the methods and with books a century old, this latter course leading to proficiency in these languages and in matters pertaining to the Muslim religion. The older system stands for an education based upon religion, for the acceptance of authority, for respect of persons and institutions; the newer system stands for rational teaching, for liberal views, and for the spirit of development and evolution and each system has much to learn from the other.

427. Looking a little more closely at the courses that the Muslim child has had mapped out for him, it will be found that owing to the customs to which his community through the greater part of India conforms he suffers greater disabilities in modern education than does any other boy. Not only does he not begin his ordinary secular education until he has learnt to read the *Quran* in Arabic, that is, at about the age of seven, but he has to learn the language of his province in addition to the language of his home—this latter being, except in large parts of Bengal and in Malabar in South India, Urdu. He has thus, very early in his life, to be trilingual through Urdu the language of his cradle, Arabic the language of his religion, and some Indian vernacular the spoken and recognised language of the district in which he lives—and if he goes on to higher education, he also requires a knowledge of English—four languages in all. The Muhammadan from Bengal and the Moplah from Malabar together with the Muhammadan in the Urdu speaking parts of North India have an easier task; the former do not usually speak Urdu in their homes, they speak the language of their district or province, so that they require only a knowledge of Arabic, of their vernacular (Bengali or Malayalam) and of English—three languages, while the Muhammadan from North India requires no knowledge of another vernacular than Urdu. Urdu, Arabic and English

suffice for him. The Hindu has a much lighter task. He does not require a knowledge of his ancient language (usually Sanskrit) while his cradle tongue is usually the language of the district in which he lives, so that a knowledge of a single vernacular and of English usually suffices for him. Other languages he learns not because they are necessary to him in the course of his everyday life but as a mental and cultural training.

428. We observe that the Muslim child spends two of the most impressionable years of his school life in learning by rote words of a foreign language the meanings of which he does not understand at the time when he learns them, or indeed even later in life unless he studies Arabic. A question thus arises as to whether it would not be possible to lighten the educational burden of the Muslim child by imparting religious instruction through the medium of his mother tongue, whatever that mother tongue might be. A further question arises as to whether it would not be possible to make arrangements for his receiving some secular instruction during these early years *pari passu* with his *Quran* instruction. There is one school of thought among Musalmans which considers that the *Quran* should be taught only through the medium of Arabic; there is another but smaller school of thought which is prepared to favour its study through the medium of some other language. The educationist considers it to be scarcely sound to teach the *Quran* to young children through the medium of Arabic, and that if Arabic is to be taught in the early years of a child's life it should be taught as a living language is taught and not by unintelligent memorising. It is a matter of conjecture whether and when the rational view of the educationist will become acceptable to the community as a whole and the educational burden of the Muslim lightened.

Statistics.

429. The Muhammadan population of British India is approximately 59½ millions, or 24 per cent. of the total population. The following table shows the number of Muhammadan scholars under instruction, and the percentages of scholars to total population:—

Muhammadan Scholars and Population.

(In all institutions, recognised and unrecognised.)

Year.	No. of Muhammadan Scholars in all Institutions.	Percentage of Muhammadan population to total population.	Percentage of Muhammadan Scholars to Muhammadan population.	Percentage of Muhammadan Scholars to total Scholars.
1921-22 . . .	1,966,442	24·1	3·3	23·5
1926-27 . . .	2,821,109	24·1	4·7	25·3
Increase .	854,667	..	1·4	1·8

The progress made during the quinquennium in the enrolment of Muhammadan pupils at school has been phenomenal. Between 1917 and 1922, the total number of Muhammadan scholars increased by 142,000, while between 1922 and 1927 the total number increased by over 850,000. The percentage of Muhammadan scholars in recognised institutions to the total Muhammadan population has increased from 3·0 to 4·4, or by 1·4. The percentage of all scholars under instruction in recognised institutions to the total population of British India has increased from 3·1 to 4·3, or by 1·2. In spite of all that has been written, therefore, about the backwardness of the Muhammadan community the percentage of Muhammadan scholars under instruction to the total Muhammadan population is now 0·1 higher than the percentage of all scholars to the total population, and the rate of increase in the number of scholars during the quinquennium has been greater in the case of Muhammadans than in the case of all communities taken together. It is true that the great majority of Muhammadan scholars are reading in primary schools, but in relation to the ultimate literacy of the community the progress made has been most satisfactory. The following table shows the progress that has been made in the Provinces in the percentages of the total number of Muhammadan scholars to the total population.

Percentages of Muhammadan Scholars.

(In *Recognised Institutions* only).

Province.	Percentage of all Muhammadan Scholars to total Muhammadan Population.		Percentage of all Scholars to total Population	Percentage of Muhammadan Girl Scholars to Muhammadan Female Population *		Percentage of all Girl Scholars to total Female Population.
	1921-22.	1926-27.	1926-27.	1921-22.	1926-27.	1926-27.
Madras . .	5·5	8·5	5·8	2·3	3·8	2·5
Bombay . . .	4·1	5·0	5·8	2·0	2·3	2·4
Bengal . . .	3·4	4·4	4·9	1·4	1·8	1·8
United Provinces .	2·3	3·3	2·8	0·4	0·5	0·6
Punjab . . .	2·0	4·6	5·3	0·3	0·5	0·8
Burma . . .	3·2	4·4	3·4	2·2	3·1	2·6
Bihar and Orissa .	2·4	3·7	3·1	0·9	1·2	0·7
Central Provinces and Berar.	5·2	6·4	2·8	1·4	1·5	0·6
Assam . . .	2·0	2·9	3·5	0·3	0·4	1·0
India . . .	3·0	4·4	4·3	1·1	1·4	1·5

* The percentages for 1926-27 are in most cases based on approximate figures as, owing to a change in the construction of the General Educational Tables, it has not been possible to calculate the exact number of Muhammadan girls at school, except where it has been indicated in the body of the provincial reviews.

Comparison with other Communities.

430. It will be seen that not only has the percentage largely increased in all provinces, particularly in Madras and in the Punjab, but that the percentage of Muhammadan scholars to the total Muhammadan population is higher in five provinces out of nine than the percentage of all scholars to the total population. Even in the four provinces in which the percentage is lower the variation is only 0·5 in Bengal, 0·6 in Assam, 0·7 in the Punjab and 0·8 in Bombay. These figures indicate that in every province there has been a remarkable improvement in the position of the Muhammadan community in relation to all other communities. Even with regard to Muhammadan girls, in spite of the obstacles of language, religion, and the *purdah* system, the percentages of Muhammadan girls under instruction to the total Muhammadan female population show that in four provinces Muhammadan girls are ahead of girls of all communities taken together.

Enrolment.

431. It is remarkable that out of the total increased enrolment of 2,780,000, in recognized institutions during the quinquennium 830,000, or 30 per cent., consisted of Muhammadan scholars. Of the total of over 2,800,000 Muhammadan scholars, 2,437,000 are reading in recognized secondary and primary schools and only 8,450 are reading in universities and arts colleges. But though the number of Muhammadans reading in arts and professional colleges is still extremely low compared with the number of scholars from other communities, there has been a satisfactory increase during the period under review of about 3,000 scholars, while the number of Muhammadan women reading in arts colleges has increased from 25 to 30. It is equally satisfactory that the number of Muhammadans under instruction in special schools has increased from 42,000 to 141,000. In the Punjab progress has been rapid and encouraging, the total number of Muhammadans under instruction being nearly doubled during the quinquennium. The Muhammadan community in the Punjab, far from being in a state of considerable backwardness as compared with other communities, has now a larger number of pupils under instruction than the total of Hindus and Sikhs put together. The figures for the increased enrolment in the number of Muhammadans in every division of the Punjab are striking, the percentage of increases being—Multan 189·3, Ambala 180·6, Lahore 135·2, Jullundur 93·4, and Rawalpindi 72·4. In Madras the enrolment of Muhammadan scholars increased out of all proportion to the corresponding increases in the previous quinquennium. The number of Muhammadan scholars enrolled in institutions mainly intended for Muhammadans increased by 48 per cent. as against only 4 per cent. in the previous quinquennium, and the total number of Muhammadan scholars reading in all classes of public institutions rose by 56 per cent. as against only 13 per cent. in the previous quinquennium. The number of Muhammadans reading in arts colleges rose from 141 to 393 including

four women, and the number of Muhammadans reading in professional colleges increased from 41 to 73. The number of Muhammadan girls reading in all classes of elementary schools is now over 54,000, being an increase of 69 per cent. over the number reading in the year 1922. In Bombay Presidency proper the total number of Muhammadans reading in recognised schools increased by over 28,000 to 129,933 and in Sind by nearly 3,000 to 57,986. In the Presidency proper in 1926-27, 10·2 per cent. of the total Muhammadan community were in school as against 8·5 in 1921-22 and as against 5·7 for all classes of Hindus in 1926-27. In Sind, however, the percentage of Muhammadans at school was only 2·8 in 1926-27. In Bengal the number of Muhammadan pupils under instruction increased in all institutions by over 250,000, or by 29·4 per cent. But the increase was confined almost entirely to the lowest primary classes, and it is reported that this increase does not represent much real progress of the Muhammadan community in primary education owing to the enormous wastage which occurs amongst Muhammadan scholars in primary schools. In the United Provinces the number of Muhammadan boys reading in ordinary and special primary schools increased by over 53,000, and a satisfactory feature of the progress that has been made is that by far the largest increases in numbers occurred in the ordinary schools and not in the separate Muhammadan schools. In Bihar and Orissa the total number of Muhammadan scholars increased by approximately 46,000, and the percentage of Muhammadan scholars to the Muhammadan population improved from 2·6 to 3·9. In the Central Provinces the total number of Muhammadans under instruction in recognised institutions increased by approximately 7,000, or by 24·5 per cent., but of the total number of scholars 86·8 per cent. of the boys and 99·2 of the girls are reading in the primary stage. The percentages for other stages are:—

Middle stage . . .	11·6	Boys and	0·8 Girls.
High stage . . .	1·2	,,	*nil* ,,
College stage . . .	0·4	,,	*nil* ,,

In Assam though the position of the Muhammadan community is still backward, there was a remarkable improvement during the quinquennium. While the total enrolment of all classes of scholars increased by 33 per cent. the Muhammadan enrolment increased by 59 per cent. In the Assam valley alone the number of Muhammadan pupils increased by over 68 per cent. In Ajmer-Merwara the total number of Muhammadan scholars has increased from 2,614 to 3,476 and the percentage to the total Muhammadan population from 2·6 to 3·4. The increase in the percentage has brought the Muhammadan community on a level with all the communities taken together for whom the percentage was 3·4 in 1926-27.

Government Muhammadan College, Madras.

432. After many discussions in which the future of the Government Muhammadan College was often in doubt the Government of Madras has finally decided to expand it and to retain it in Madras. At one time owing to the very limited number of pupils reading in the B.A. classes and on account of the difficulties connected with the provision of adequate accommodation it was considered whether the college should not be reduced to a second-grade institution. But towards the close of the quinquennium new class rooms and laboratories were built for the College and the high school and the Mathematics and Science group of the Intermediate course was opened in the College. Sanction was also granted for opening B.A. classes in the History group and these classes were opened immediately after the close of the quinquennium.

Secondary Education in Madras.

433. Considerable expansion has taken place in Madras in the provision of special secondary schools for Muhammadan boys. Four new secondary schools, one under local board management and three under private management, have been opened and three Government Muhammadan secondary schools were raised to the status of complete high schools. In addition special duplicate Urdu classes have been opened in two local board high schools in the Telugu districts.

Education of Moplahs.

434. The education of the Moplah community in Malabar has received very special attention during the period under review, especially since the outbreak of the last Moplah rebellion. In July 1922 the Madras Government appointed a Committee to investigate Moplah education and the abolition of separate elementary schools for them. The recommendations of this Committee included the following:—

(1) Separate Moplah schools should be retained.

(2) Elementary education should be made compulsory for Moplahs.

(3) The appointment of qualified Arabic teachers to give religious instruction in the Government Training Schools is desirable.

(4) The appointment of a Committee to prepare text books in Malayalam from selected passages of the *Quran* is desirable.

(5) The sanctioning of additional scholarships for the higher education of Moplahs is desirable.

In March 1923 the Government accepted most of the recommendations of the Committee and in 1924 a Special Text Book Committee of five members was appointed. In 1925 a special Assistant for Moplah education was appointed to assist the District Educational Officer, Malabar, and the two posts of Supervisors of Moplah schools were converted into Junior Deputy Inspectors' posts. Towards the close of the quinquennium primary education was made compulsory for Moplahs

in three taluks of the Moplah area of Malabar and the additional scholarships recommended by the Committee were sanctioned by Government. There is now a high school for Moplahs at Calicut, one of the two Moplah middle schools being converted into a high school during the quinquennium.

435. No large changes have taken place in the provision of educational facilities for Muhammadans in Bombay. But the most important feature of the period has been the attempt that has been made to increase the number of trained Muhammadan teachers for service in special Muhammadan schools. To this end Government have opened, in addition to the existing school in the Broach district, central Urdu schools in the districts of Ratnagiri, Colaba, Thana and Sholapur. And in consequence of the provision thus made the number of Muhammadans who passed the final vernacular examination rose from 346 in 1921-22 to 448 in 1926-27. During the quinquennium special endeavours were made to raise the standard of the *Mulla* schools in Sind to the level of the district local board schools and the chief changes have been increased facilities for *Mulla* training classes and larger grants for buildings and equipment. The results of these improvements were seen in 1926-27 when as many as 58 pupils from *Mulla* schools proceeded to secondary schools and 278 pupils joined local board schools for higher study. In 1924 a special Committee was appointed by Government to consider the position and the future of *Mulla* schools. The Committee has since recommended that *Mulla* schools should be placed directly under the district local boards, but the recommendations of the Committee are still under the consideration of Government. Special facilities in Bombay.

Numerous and special concessions are given in Bombay to Muhammadans for the encouragement of their education. Forty-two scholarships are reserved in Arts Colleges, nine scholarships in Engineering Colleges, three scholarships at the College of Commerce, six scholarships at Law Colleges and twelve scholarships at the Victoria Jubilee Technical Institute. Fifteen per cent. of all the places in Government secondary schools are reserved for Muhammadans and 22 per cent. of the number of Muhammadan pupils in Government secondary schools are awarded free studentships. In addition 637 reserved scholarships are awarded for Muhammadans in secondary schools in the Presidency proper. Muhammadan girls are admitted without the payment of fees into all district local board and municipal primary schools and a number of special scholarships are reserved for Muhammadan girls reading in primary schools. For Muhammadans in Sind there are twelve Government scholarships in Arts Colleges and in addition 22 other endowment or local board scholarships. In Government high schools 30 per cent. of the Sindhi Muhammadan students are admitted without payment of fees and in addition there are 700 Government scholarships for Muhammadans reading in secondary schools.

Backwardness of Muhammadans in Bengal.

436. The author of the last quinquennial review on the progress of education in Bengal states that "there is little room for congratulation on the progress of the Muhammadan community in education" and he attributes the lack of progress to the apathy of the people, the dispersion of the Muhammadan population in villages far from secondary schools and the scarcity of Muslim-managed high schools. Additional special institutions for Muhammadans have however been opened during the quinquennium, the most important of which—the Islamia College—started work in July 1926. In the Chittagong College the percentage of places reserved for Muhammadans has been raised from 25 to 30 and since 1925, 25 per cent. of the places in the Bengal Engineering College and in the Ahsanullah School of Engineering have also been reserved for Muhammadans. The number of Islamic intermediate colleges has been increased to three by the raising of the aided institution at Serajganj to the status of an intermediate college. The number of high and middle madrasas has largely increased, the high madrasas from 8 to 17 and other madrasas from 329 to 521. The number of recognised *maktabs* also largely increased from approximately 15,000 to nearly 21,000, and in 1925 a revised curriculum was introduced for *maktabs* which brought many schools more into line with the ordinary primary schools of the province. During the quinquennium as many as 71 additional scholarships for Muhammadans reading in various grades of educational institutions were sanctioned.

Islamia Schools in the United Provinces.

437. In the United Provinces in spite of the large provision of special schools for Muhammadans, a larger number of Muhammadan pupils were reading at the end of the quinquennium in ordinary schools than were reading in special schools. The number of Islamia schools very slightly declined but their enrolment has increased, while the number of aided *maktabs* has increased from 762 to 1,250 and their enrolment has nearly doubled. The standard of education imparted, the qualifications of the teachers and the state of the accommodation and equipment in Islamia schools and *maktabs* are unfortunately reported to be very much inferior to those of ordinary schools.

Language difficulties in Burma.

438. The progress of Muhammadan education in Burma has been slow and the Director of Public Instruction reports that the main difficulty is that of language, the home language of many Muhammadan children being Burmese or Bengali. And yet it is considered necessary to use Urdu in Muslim vernacular schools, with the result that the children's education is considerably handicapped. Two new Muslim secondary schools were opened during the quinquennium and the number of Muhammadan vernacular schools increased from 154 to 178.

Madrasas in Bihar and Orissa.

439. In Bihar and Orissa the number of recognised madrasas has risen from 10 to 30 and a new Madrasa Examination Board has been appointed to superintend the new syllabus

and examinations introduced into all recognised madrasas. The number of recognised *maktabs* increased by over 1,000 to 3,477 and their enrolment by over 30,000 to 86,384.

Special schools in the Central Provinces.

440. In the Central Provinces the number of special Anglo-Urdu and Urdu schools for Muhammadans has increased from 233 to 280, high schools increasing by one anglo-vernacular middle schools by four, vernacular middle schools by two, and primary schools by 40. In addition to these schools four Government anglo-vernacular middle schools have Urdu classes attached to them.

Muhammadan Educational Conference in Assam.

441. An important feature of the period in Assam was the holding of the Second Muhammadan Educational Conference at Shillong in February 1926. The conference discussed a large number of problems connected with Muhammadan education and passed numerous resolutions on various subjects including the following:—

(1) The improvement of the junior madrasa course with a view to bringing it into line with the middle school course;

(2) The teaching of Urdu and Arabic in public schools;

(3) The question of the increase in the number and value of Muhammadan scholarships;

(4) The revision of text books;

(5) The opening of Government junior madrasas; and

(6) The appointment of special Muhammadan inspecting officers.

The Junior Madrasa course has since been revised and a special Deputy Inspector for Muhammadan education has been appointed and attached to the office of the Inspector of Schools, Surma Valley and hill districts.

Improvement in Ajmer-Merwara.

442. The position of Muhammadan education in Ajmer-Merwara has considerably improved during the quinquennium and the total number of Muhammadans under instruction in all classes of schools has as stated above increased considerably, the increases in their number reading at the college, high and middle stages being particularly satisfactory. The Government Islamia High School has increased in popularity and its strength has risen from 184 to 306.

IV.—*Education of Depressed Classes.*

Definition of "Depressed classes".

443. Although, as explained in the last Quinquennial Review, different meanings have continued to be applied to the term "depressed classes", almost all the educational reports from the provinces interpret the "depressed classes" as those classes of the community which, owing to custom or religion, are regarded as causing pollution by contact or presence, and who, in consequence, experience difficulties in obtaining admission to educational institutions and in securing some of the other ordinary facilities of life that every citizen

expects. This section confines itself to an educational survey of the position of such depressed classes only. It does not relate to classes classified as backward, since there are a number of communities which are educationally backward and under special protection or assistance, but which are not depressed from the social point of view. It excludes the Muhammadan community, in which there are, strictly speaking, no depressed classes at all. It also excludes aboriginal, hill and criminal tribes, which are separately dealt with, and which, though they may include a certain number of depressed classes, cannot be regarded generally as communities which cause pollution.

Statistics.

444. The following table shows the depressed class population in each of seven provinces, and the percentage of depressed class pupils under instruction of some kind.

Province.	Depressed class population in millions.*	Depressed class pupils in all institutions.	Percentage of scholars to population.
Madras	6 50	228,511	3·5
Bombay	1·75	60,260	3·4
Bengal	6 75	344,179	5·1
United Provinces . . .	8 25	94,669	1·1
Punjab	1 70	19,502	1·1
Bihar and Orissa . . .	1 00	25,006	2·5
Central Provinces and Berar	2·60	34,531	1·3
TOTAL .	28·55	806,658	2 8

* It must be understood that the figures of "depressed class" population given here are approximate and refer as far as possible only to those members of the Hindu community who are believed to cause pollution by contact or presence and who in consequence find difficulty in obtaining admission into the ordinary schools. The term "depressed classes" has been used here in this restricted sense only and for this reason the figures in the above table vary slightly from those based strictly on the 1921 Census returns. For the sake of comparison, the total number of depressed classes (excluding aborigines, hill tribes and criminal tribes) in the seven provinces concerned, calculated on the Census returns only, is given below:—

	Millions.
Madras	6·37
Bombay	1·89
Bengal	6·61
United Provinces	9·00
Punjab	1·73
Bihar and Orissa	4·90
Central Provinces	3·01
TOTAL .	33·51

These figures are also approximate for, owing to the extreme vagueness of the term and the looseness with which it is applied to certain castes, it is impossible to arrive at an exact estimate of the actual depressed class population in any province.

The table does not include figures for Burma and for Assam. In Burma there are no depressed classes, and, in Assam, owing to the very large aboriginal population, it is almost impossible to classify depressed class pupils separately. The figures for total population are based on the 1921 census and on the castes which are reported by the provinces to be ordinarily regarded as depressed.* It will be seen that the percentage of depressed class pupils under instruction to the total depressed class population in seven provinces was 2·8 as against the figure of 4·5 for all communities taken together in all provinces. Owing to social disabilities and to extreme poverty the depressed classes are obviously educationally very backward; but it is satisfactory that the increase in the percentage of depressed class pupils under instruction has been larger during the quinquennium than the increase in the percentage for all communities taken together. The provinces however have varied very largely in the percentage of their depressed class community at school and in the progress made for the education of the depressed classes. In Bengal, where the social disabilities have been rapidly disappearing, progress has been most rapid, while Madras, although caste feeling is more intense there than elsewhere, has shown a remarkable advance largely owing to the special measures taken in that province which are discussed below. The United Provinces, on the other hand, which has the largest depressed class population, has made little progress. In the sphere of higher education depressed classes still remain extremely backward except in Bengal, and if the figures for Bengal are ignored it is calculated that at the end of the quinquennium only one depressed class pupil out of every hundred thousand of the depressed class population was reading at the collegiate stage.

Special facilities and developments.

445. During the period under review almost all the provinces have continued or adopted special measures, such as the opening of special schools, the remission of fees, the grant of scholarships, and the appointment of a special inspecting agency to assist the rapid development of the education of the depressed classes. It is noteworthy that in spite of the necessity for the creation of special schools, the number of depressed class pupils reading in ordinary schools and the number of caste pupils reading in special schools for the depressed classes have largely increased in several provinces, and the Provincial Directors of Public Instruction have reported that undoubtedly caste prejudice is weakening. In many places it is now no longer so much the social disability which prevents the children of the depressed classes from obtaining proper education as the economic difficulty. Provincial reports show that in some places the depressed class community is so poor that even with the provision of free education parents are unable to clothe and equip their children for school and are also unwilling to lose their services

* *Vide* footnote on p. 27.

as child workers for some small remuneration. It has even been suggested that it is necessary in some cases to compensate the parents for sending their children to school.

Madras. 446. In Madras the Commissioner of Labour and his Department have continued to pay special attention to the educational needs of the depressed classes, and as many as 783 special schools, with a total strength of over 32,000 pupils, have been opened by the Labour Department during the quinquennium. In addition, schools opened under the auspices of the Poor School Society, the Social Service League and Depressed Classes Missions have received aid from the Department. Two hundred and twenty-eight of these special schools have had buildings constructed for them during the period under review. A large number of new scholarships have been instituted for depressed class pupils, including 550 scholarships for students reading in Class IV to Form VI, and 220 fee remissions in Forms I to VI; five scholarships for pupils reading in intermediate classes; and four scholarships for pupils reading in degree classes. In addition, ten scholarships have been sanctioned for pupils learning commercial subjects and 110 scholarships for pupils not reading for general education but studying in industrial schools. Two special hostels for depressed class pupils have been opened and financed by Government at Madras and at Masulipatam. The students in these hostels receive free board and lodging and are mostly in receipt of scholarships for the payment of their school fees, etc. The total number of depressed class pupils reading in public institutions in Madras increased by over 70,000, or by 45 per cent., during the quinquennium and depressed class students have continued to be admitted into all classes of institutions on payment of half fees, subject to the production of a poverty certificate. In 1925, this concession was extended to Indian Christians of depressed class origin. Special endeavours have been made to increase the number of trained teachers coming from the depressed class community, and in 1925-26 the opening of sessional schools for the depressed classes under the control of district boards was sanctioned in nine districts of the Presidency. The Government of Madras has continued successfully its policy of insisting that all publicly managed schools should be located in places accessible to the depressed classes, and at the end of the quinquennium nearly 90 per cent. of the schools under the management of municipalities and taluk boards were held in places accessible to all including the depressed classes.

Bombay. 447. In Bombay an important step forward was taken when the Government issued orders in 1922-23 that no disability of any kind should be imposed on children of the depressed classes in any school conducted by a public authority and that no grant-in-aid would be given to privately managed schools which did not admit depressed class children. The number of special schools for the depressed classes in the

Presidency (excluding Sind) increased from 508 to 572 and their strength from 18,000 to nearly 21,000. But it is significant that the Bombay Municipality has closed its special schools for depressed classes and has insisted on the depressed class pupils being freely admitted into the ordinary schools. Private enterprise has also been active and Christian Missions the Depressed Class Mission, the Servants of India Society. Labour Unions, and the Antyaja Seva Mandal have done much during the quinquennium for the spread of education amongst the depressed classes. Special efforts have been made to staff the special schools for the depressed classes with trained teachers from the depressed class community, and the number of scholarships reserved for depressed class pupils has been largely increased and a fixed percentage of the places in Government colleges and schools have been reserved for backward, including depressed class, students.

448. In Bengal, owing to the fact that it has been repeatedly reported that depressed class pupils find no difficulty in being admitted into the ordinary schools, the depressed classes are not classified separately but are grouped along with the backward classes. There has been an exceptionally large increase in the number of pupils from backward classes reading in school, from 96,500 to over 3,44,000; and it is stated that education has been spreading among the backward classes at a rate much faster than among other classes. Special scholarships have long been reserved for backward class pupils, but in 1922-23 the Government made an additional grant of Rs. 20,000 per annum, to be used partly to provide facilities for the training of teachers from the backward classes and partly for special scholarships for these classes. Missions have also been active in attending to the educational needs of the backward classes and the Society for the Improvement of Backward Classes now maintains over 400 special schools in different parts of the Presidency. *Bengal.*

449. Though the percentage of depressed class pupils to the total depressed class population in the United Provinces is still about one per cent. considerable progress has been made during the quinquennium. The number of special schools under the management of district boards has increased from 582 to 814, and their strength from nearly 15,000 to 23,000. But more important than this has been the increase in the number of depressed class pupils reading in the ordinary primary schools for boys—from 25,000 to 69,000. The total number of depressed class pupils has increased by 134 per cent. while 75 per cent. of the total number are reading in ordinary schools. These figures and the fact that a large number of caste pupils are reading in the special schools for the depressed classes appear to prove that the caste prejudice is surely, if slowly, dying out. During the period under review much larger subsidies were granted to district boards for the maintenance of special free schools and *United Provinces.*

additional supervisors of schools for the depressed classes were appointed by a number of district boards.

Punjab.

450. Special measures were adopted during the quinquennium in the Punjab to forward the education of the depressed classes. In 1923, a special circular was sent to all local bodies insisting on equality of opportunity for the members of the depressed class community, and recommending the exemption from payment of fees and the provision of school books by local bodies. Separate lists of children who are of school going age and who are not at school are now maintained for the depressed classes. As a result of the measures taken the number of depressed class pupils has risen from just over 1,000 to 19,500, of which over 15,000 are attending ordinary schools. Much leeway has still, however, to be made up as only 1·1 per cent. of the total depressed class population is as yet under instruction.

Bihar and Orissa.

451. In Bihar and Orissa the number of special schools for the depressed classes has increased from 131 to 222, and their strength from 3,101 to 5,633; while the total number of depressed class pupils under instruction has increased from 15,000 to 25,000. Special scholarships and fee remissions have been awarded to depressed class pupils, and a special inspecting staff has been appointed under a limited number of local boards. The number of depressed class pupils reading at the secondary stage has, however, remained extremely low and, in consequence, in 1926 the Government decided that no fees should be charged from depressed class pupils in any recognised school in the Province.

Central Provinces.

452. At the close of the last quinquennium the Government of the Central Provinces appointed a committee of officials and non-officials to enquire into and report on the problem of the depressed classes. In consequence of the report and recommendations of this committee, Government have recognised the principle of giving grant-in-aid for hostels specially intended for pupils of the depressed classes and have during the period under review given recurring and non-recurring grants to four depressed classes hostels. The number and value of special scholarships for depressed classes, at the middle, high and collegiate stage, have been raised, and 185 such scholarships were granted during the quinquennium. The Government has also amended the Education Code so as to prohibit differential treatment of depressed class pupils in schools under public management.

Other areas.

453. The Superintendent of Education in Ajmer-Merwara reports that special schools for the depressed classes are fast disappearing in Ajmer-Merwara and that such children are being admitted into ordinary schools without any opposition. The Arya Samaj and Christian Missions are however still maintaining a number of schools for the depressed classes. In the Delhi Province little difficulty has been experienced in admitting depressed class pupils into the ordinary schools,

but special schools are still maintained by the S. P. G. Mission, the Baptist Mission and the Arya Samaj. In Coorg there are six special day schools and four night schools for the depressed classes, with a total attendance of 464. During the quinquennium a number of special scholarships for the depressed classes were sanctioned and it is reported that caste schools now freely admit such pupils.

V.—*Education of Aboriginal and Hill Tribes.*

Difficulties of classification.

454. It is becoming increasingly difficult to classify accurately the various aboriginal and hill tribes in the provinces with reference to their special educational needs. During the last few decades, as has been pointed out by successive Census Commissioners, considerable changes have taken place in the habits, religion, language, occupation and location of the hill and forest tribes in British India. Tribal aboriginés have not only in some places become absorbed in the Hindu community but they have also migrated to the plains, have adopted new standards of living and have, in many cases, become merged into the ordinary population. It is still necessary, however, to provide special schools and facilities for large classes of hill tribes, and this section deals with a variety of aboriginal tribes, such as the *Nagas* and *Abors* of Assam, the *Sonthals* of Bengal, the *Oraons* and *Sonthals* of Bihar and Orissa, the *Gonds* of the Central Provinces, and the *Badagas* and *Todas* of Madras, who, owing to their habits and in many cases to their comparative inaccessibility, require special provision of schools and special supervision.

Madras.

455. In Madras the more important aboriginal and hill tribes are the Badagas, the Irulas, the Kotas, and the Todas in the Nilgiris, the Lambadis in the Salem district, the Yanadis, Chenchus, Sugalis, Tandas, Korajas, Voddas, and Lambadis in the Telugu districts, and the Khonds, Savaras, Jatapus, etc., in the Agency tracts of the districts of Ganjam, Vizagapatam and Godaveri. During the quinquennium there has been an appreciable increase in the number of special schools for all these tribes. The schools for hill tribes in the Nilgiris increased from 47 to 68, and the schools in the Agency tracts numbered 338 in 1927, with over 9,000 pupils on the rolls. The pupils in schools in the Nilgiris increased in strength by 1,500, the increase consisting mainly of Badaga pupils. Owing to the decline in the total population of the Todas very few Toda children are now under instruction, and in 1927 there was only one special school for Todas. The number of scholarships available at various classes of institutions for students coming from aboriginal and hill tribes was considerably increased during the quinquennium, 60 additional scholarships being provided for pupils coming from the Agency tracts alone.

Bombay.

456. The number of aboriginal and hill tribe pupils under instruction in the Bombay Presidency proper has increased

from 12,000 to nearly 21,000, of whom only 54 are reading in secondary schools. Though there has thus been a marked increase in the number of children at school, the total figures do not show the real increase, since during the quinquennium the Mahadeo Kolis, who had formerly been classified as criminal tribes, were classified as aboriginal tribes. The main difficulties in the way of a rapid advance are reported to be the multiplicity of hill dialects, the extreme poverty of the tribes, the inaccessibility of many settlements in the jungle, the superstition of the people and their comparative apathy towards education. The District Local Board, West Khandesh, has during the period under review made great efforts to increase the number of Bhils under instruction and has opened new schools in the Bhil tracts and awarded a large number of stipends. In order to get over the language difficulties the Board has decided to use Marathi as the medium of instruction in the board schools which admit Bhils. In the Gujrat division there are four central boarding schools which cater for the various aboriginal tribes, such as the Dublas, Dhodias, Bhils and Talavivas. These schools prepare pupils for the Vernacular Final examination and send their pupils back into the villages as village teachers. During the quinquennium "Agricultural Bias" courses have been opened in two of the central schools, so that the schools now produce both teachers and agricultural workers.

Bengal.

457. In Bengal, the aboriginal and hill tribes are mainly to be found in the Dacca and Chittagong Divisions. One hundred and ninety nine special schools, including one high school and three middle schools, are provided in these districts for the education of the tribal aboriginés. Progress during the quinquennium has, however, been slow, and the number of primary schools actually declined from 172 to 151, funds not being available for the continuance of a number of unaided schools.

Bihar and Orissa.

458. Bihar and Orissa has a large aboriginal population, numbering approximately $3\frac{3}{4}$ millions, the majority of whom are located in the Bhagalpur and Chota Nagpur Divisions. The number of pupils from these classes attending school has increased during the quinquennium from 58,000 to 80,000, of which 62 were reading at the college stage and over 2,400 including some 300 girls were reading in secondary stage. There is a special inspecting staff for schools for aboriginés, which, at the end of the quinquennium, consisted of two deputy inspectors and 13 sub-inspectors, the special inspecting officer in the Chota Nagpur Division having been replaced by an ordinary deputy inspector. The number of special schools has increased from 27 to 34, and there are now four Government elementary training schools, specially reserved for aboriginés. Special scales of fees are charged for aborigines in all Government schools, and free studentships up to a maximum of 50 per cent. of the number of aboriginal pupils are granted.

459. The education of aboriginal and hill tribe children in the Central Provinces has made little progress, and out of a total population of over 2½ millions only a little over 5,000 pupils were under instruction in 1926-27, of whom only nine were reading above the anglo-vernacular middle stage. Central Provinces.

460. The aboriginal and hill population in Assam is chiefly located in the Khasi, Jaintia, and the Naga hills, the Lushai hills, and the Garo hills. During the quinquennium the enrolment of the hill schools located in these areas increased from 21,000 to over 25,000, the largest increase being in the Naga and Lushai hills. In the Khasi and Jaintia hills out of the total of 559 schools, 547 are under Mission management while six are managed by Government. In the Garo hills out of a total of 156 primary schools 101 are directly managed by Government. One of the main difficulties in the way of helping forward the progress of education in these hill tracts is reported to be the absence of an adequate inspecting staff; it is almost impossible for one sub-inspector to visit and adequately supervise as many as 150 schools in areas which present peculiar difficulties to a touring officer. Assam.

VI.—*Education of Criminal Tribes.*

461. Under the Criminal Tribes Act the Government of every province can settle any notified criminal tribe in a definite locality and endeavours are being made in all provinces, where there is an appreciable number of such tribes, not only to convert the settlers who have been confined in a particular locality under the Act into honest citizens, but more particularly to ensure, by the provision of education, that the children of the settlers desert the hereditary occupation of their parents and obtain such an education as will fit them to earn an honest and remunerative living. General.

462. In the Madras Presidency there are seven settlements under the Act, of which two are managed by Government and five by non-official agencies. In each settlement a school has been provided at which attendance is compulsory for all children of school-going age, and in the year 1926-27 a total of nearly 1,300 pupils were under instruction in these schools. Two industrial schools under the management of the Salvation Army have also been established under the Criminal Tribes Act. One school is for boys and has a strength of 103 pupils while the other is for girls with a strength of 57. The boys are taught carpentry, rattan work and tailoring and the girls needle-work and domestic science. Important reclamation work has been done for the Kallars (a hereditary thieving caste) in the Madura, Ramnad and Tanjore Districts during the quinquennium. Two hundred and nineteen new schools for Kallars have been opened making a total of 414 schools with nearly 15,000 pupils in 1926-27. There are also 13 boarding houses for Kallars, including a new hostel opened in the Tanjore District in 1926. A large number of special Madras.

scholarships have also been sanctioned for Kallar pupils reading in the ordinary schools in these districts and seven supervisors have been employed to inspect the special Kallar schools.

Bombay.

463. As in other provinces the Bombay Government maintain special settlements for criminal tribes at various places, the more important settlements being at Dharwar and Bijapur. In all the settlements education is free and compulsory both for boys and girls up to the age of 13 and attendance in night schools is compulsory for the boys up to the age of 18. There are 34 special schools with 1,106 pupils on the rolls. But the total number of pupils belonging to the criminal tribes is nearly 5,000. The control of education in the special settlements is in the hands of the Criminal Tribes Settlement Officer. In the settlement schools special attention is being paid to vocational subjects and boys are receiving training in carpentry, agriculture, tin work, tailoring and weaving.

Other provinces.

464. Information is not available about the education of criminal tribes in Bengal, but it is reported that the Salvation Army runs a school for the Karwal Nuts in the colony at Saidpur in the Rangpur District. This school had 59 persons on its rolls in 1926-27. In the United Provinces there are four settlements under the control of the Salvation Army and at each settlement residential schools for children of both sexes are provided. But the total number of pupils receiving instruction at these schools was only about 260 in 1926-27. The senior pupils in the schools, in addition to class work, take part in the weaving and other industries carried on in the settlements. In the Punjab there are now 44 special schools in which boys and girls from the criminal tribes receive compulsory primary education. The total number of children under instruction at the end of the quinquennium was 1,597 in special schools and 1,701 in ordinary schools. In Bihar and Orissa there are only three special schools for children from the criminal tribes—one in Tirhut and two in Bhagalpur. The total number of children under instruction in 1926-27 was 459. In the Central Provinces, although the criminal tribes number over 500,000, there were only 168 children from the criminal tribes reading at the end of the quinquennium, 20 at the vernacular middle stage and 148 at the primary stage.

VII.—*Education of the children of Labourers in Factories and Tea Gardens.*

General.

465. It is difficult to obtain accurate details regarding the number of schools provided for adult employees, juvenile employees and the children of employees in connection with factories and tea gardens, but it is evident that a considerable improvement has taken place in the provision of educational facilities for the labourers and their children employed in all forms of factories and planting estates. A large number of schools now exist in Bengal, Bombay, Madras, the United

Provinces, Bihar and Orissa, the Central Provinces, Burma and in Assam in connection with jute mills, cotton mills, rice mills, sugar mills, coal mines, engineering workshops, oil factories, tea gardens and rubber estates. The schools roughly fall into three classes. Those provided by Government, those provided and financed entirely by the employers and those provided by the employers and aided by Government or by local boards.

Madras.

466. In Madras the largest and probably the most efficient school is maintained by the Buckingham and Carnatic Mills in Madras City. The school consists of both a day school and a night school and in 1926-27 there were 1,426 pupils in the day school and 333 men in the night school. The day school is an elementary school with five standards and has as many as 34 teachers and eight technical instructors on the staff. In the technical section attached to the school, carpentry, tailoring, blacksmithy, tinsmithy, turning, fitting and weaving are taught. The night school has eight standards and commercial instruction is also given in English and typewriting. There are five other schools for the children employed in factories in various parts of the Presidency, one of which is maintained by the Government Labour Department and one by the Government Cordite Factory in the Nilgiris. There are five estate schools in the Nilgiris and Palni Hills.

Bombay.

467. In Bombay City there are in all some 32 schools attached to textile mills which provide instruction for adults, juvenile employees or the children of employees. There are also mill schools at Ahmedabad, Sholapur and in other parts of the Presidency.

Bengal.

468. In Bengal a number of jute mills, cotton mills, shipbuilding firms, coal mines and tea gardens maintain schools for juvenile employees, schools for the children of employees and schools for adults. The number of tea garden estate schools has increased from 94 to 136 and there are 10 schools in connection with the coal mining industry in the Burdwan District. Over 40 schools are maintained in connection with jute and cotton mills.

Bihar and Orissa.

469. In Bihar and Orissa there are 50 schools with a total attendance of nearly 2,000 children. The schools include 38 colliery schools, six schools at the iron centre—Jamshedpur, five mica mine schools and 1 tobacco factory school. Nine schools were closed during the quinquennium and four new schools opened.

Central Provinces.

470. In the Central Provinces, there are 10 schools maintained by factories and mills. Of these, five schools are for juvenile workers only while the remaining five schools admit both workers and the children of workers. The five schools for juvenile workers had 555 boys on the rolls in 1926-27 and received grants amounting to Rs. 9,899. A school for boy orderlies in the Police Department is also maintained in the Secretariat at Nagpur.

Assam.

471. As far back as the year 1910 the Assam Government sanctioned a scheme for the gradual extension of education on the tea garden estates and the scheme contemplated the establishment of 361 schools, 46 to be maintained by Government, 85 to be aided by Government and 230 to be maintained by the tea estates. It is disappointing to find that 17 years afterwards in 1926-27 there were only nine Government schools, 23 aided schools and 33 estate schools with a total of under 2,000 pupils working under the scheme. At the end of the quinquennium the Government sanctioned an improved scale of grant-in-aid for the aided schools and it is hoped that this will encourage the opening of more schools.

Besides tea-garden schools, there is one factory school which had an enrolment of 30 pupils in 1926-27. Some factories have not yet made any provision for the education of children employed by them.

VIII.—*Education of Defectives.*

Statistics.

472. The provision for the education of defective children continues to be inadequate. There are only 13 recognised schools for the blind and 15 schools for deaf-mutes, with a total enrolment of 971 pupils. The following table gives the detailed statistics by provinces:—

Statistical of Blind and Deaf and Dumb Schools, 1926-27.

Province.	Schools for Deaf-mutes.	Schools for the Blind.	Number of pupils.		
			Deaf-mutes.	Blind.	Total.
Madras .	3	3	149	105	254
Bombay . .	4	3	133	115	248
Bengal	6	1	180	57	237
United Provinces . .	...	1	. .	40	40
Punjab	..	1		25	25
Burma . . .	1	2	29	49	78
Bihar and Orissa. .	. .	2		70	70
Central Provinces and Berar	1	...	19	...	19
Assam	..	...	...	...	...
INDIA .	15	13	510	461	971

General.

473. It was stated in the last Review that, according to the 1921 Census, there were at least 73,000 defective children (both blind and deaf-mutes) in British India who were

between the ages of five and fifteen. It will thus be observed that only 1·3 per cent. of such children are receiving special instruction and that there is still much room for the provision of educational facilities for them. The reasons for this inadequacy of provision are not far to seek. In the first place, there is no effective demand for the education of defectives. Speaking generally, physical deficiencies among the poorer classes seem to possess a monetary value in India and it has been pointed out that blind beggars can earn more by mendicancy than by a regular livelihood after receiving some sort of education and training. This factor is no doubt in part, if not largely, responsible for the fact that so far no serious efforts have been made on any wide scale for the education of defectives. Actually the existing provision, however inadequate in relation to the total number of defective children, is really in excess of the present demand in areas where there are schools and can easily cope with any increase in the number of pupils which may be expected for some years to come. The second factor which appears to have adversely affected the expansion of educational facilities for defective children is the general lack of funds. At present, there is not sufficient money to meet the urgent demands for educational expansion in other directions, *e.g.*, compulsory primary education, rural education, the training of teachers, etc., and in consequence the education of defectives, for which there is no large demand, has been comparatively neglected. No matter how gloomy the picture might appear to be from the statistics given above, many improvements and developments have taken place in the provinces during the quinquennium, the most notable of these being dealt with in the following paragraphs. .

474. In Madras, two schools for defective children were opened during 1926-27; one of them is under Mission management and caters for deaf and dumb children, while the other is under the Madras Corporation and teaches both the blind and deaf-mutes. There are at present six schools for defectives—three for the blind and three for deaf-mutes. Three of them are residential institutions. One school for deaf-mutes was closed during the quinquennium and recognition was withdrawn from another school of the same type. An interesting feature of the C. M. S. Blind School at Palamcottah is the existence of a successful boy scout troop. *Madras.*

475. In the Bombay Presidency there are now three schools for the blind (two in Bombay city and one at Karachi) and four schools for deaf-mutes (two in Bombay city, one in Ahmedabad and one in Poona). The school at Karachi, which takes both blind and deaf-mute pupils, was newly opened by the Ida Rieu Poor Welfare Association in 1923, and has been provided with large new buildings, erected and equipped at a cost of over Rs. 1·3 lakhs. All the schools, except the one at Poona, have boarding houses attached, though day pupils are also taken. The first All-India Conference of Workers *Bombay.*

for the Blind and Deaf-Mutes was held in Bombay in January 1923, and during its debates great stress was laid on the importance of the provision of trained teachers and the necessity of adopting some common vernacular form of the Braille system.

Bengal. 476. In Bengal, there are six schools for the deaf and dumb, including two new schools at Chittagong and Faridpur. The largest of these schools is at Calcutta, with 109 pupils of whom about two-thirds are boarders. The school has a teachers' training department which has supplied teachers for Bengal and for places as far away as Baroda, Ahmedabad and Mysore. It receives large grants from Government, district boards give 25 stipends to deaf and dumb children tenable at the school and the Government of Assam gives five scholarships of Rs. 18 each. The only blind school in Bengal was transferred from Calcutta in 1925 to a spacious site in the suburbs at Behala, the Government contributing over half a lakh of rupees towards its new buildings. There is a motor bus for day scholars, but the majority are boarders. The Government of Assam awards six stipends at the school and various district boards also offer scholarships. It is noteworthy that in 1926 one student passed the Matriculation in the first class with distinction in two subjects, and an ex-pupil studied at the University and after obtaining a first class M.A. in Philosophy was appointed a lecturer in one of the Calcutta colleges.

United Provinces. 477. No public institution in the United Provinces makes provision for the education of defectives, but there is one Mission school for the blind at Rajpur, Dehra Dun, with an enrolment of some 40 women and girls. A private school for the blind is being built at Aligarh by Sahibzada Aftab Ahmad Khan, ex-Vice-Chancellor of the Aligarh Muslim University, at his own cost.

Punjab. 478. The school for the blind at Lahore has 25 pupils on its rolls, and now possesses buildings of its own, having been previously located in the buildings of the Railway Technical School.

Burma. 479. There are now only two schools for the blind in Burma, one school having been closed during the quinquennium. The St. Michael's School at Kemmendine is for boys, and the St. Raphael's school at Moulmein is for girls. At the former institution, there are some special vocational studentships of which one is held by a blind student studying Law and the other by a student studying Burmese music. There is only one school for deaf-mutes, the Mary Chapman School, with 29 pupils. The institution undertakes both the teaching of deaf-mutes and the training of teachers. During the quinquennium it was moved from rented buildings into a spacious new building.

Bihar and Orissa. 480. In Bihar and Orissa there are two schools for the blind at Ranchi and Patna. The Ranchi school is managed

by the S. P. G. Mission and receives grants both from Government and from the municipality. It has recently been housed in a large new building. The school at Patna was newly opened in 1922-23 and is aided by Government and by the Patna City Municipality.

Central Provinces.

481. There is one school for the education of deaf and dumb in the Central Provinces, the Bhonsla School at Nagpur, with an enrolment of 19 pupils, including eight girls. The school is reported to be doing very useful work.

Courses and training.

482. All these schools provide general education as well as some sort of practical training, adapted to the needs of defectives. In many of them, the curriculum includes such technical and industrial subjects as drawing, painting, modelling, carpentry, sewing, printing, type-writing, telephony, basket-making, rope-making, mat-making, weaving, cane-work, card box making, bamboo-work, bead-work, and, in the case of girls, needle-work, knitting and embroidery. In the St. Raphael's School for the Blind at Moulmein, Burma, the technical side of instruction has been given so much prominence that the school has practically become more an industrial than an educational institution. Instruction in music is also imparted in some of the schools.

Other special schools.

483. In addition to the schools for the blind and deaf-mutes, there are three more special schools which deserve notice here. In Bengal, there is a Home at Kurseong for physically and mentally deficient European children. It had 16 inmates in 1927. The work of this institution was described in the last Quinquennial Review. The special school attached to the Leper Asylum at Purulia in Bihar and Orissa has continued its work and had 143 pupils on its rolls in 1926-27, while the Leper School at Bapatia in the Madras Presidency was open throughout the quinquennium although its enrolment was as low as seven in 1926.

CHAPTER XI.

EDUCATION IN THE ARMY.

General.

484. In the last Quinquennial Review for the period 1917-22, the aims and system of education in the Army were outlined at length. The system has remained unchanged in its fundamentals in the period under review, although in many directions great improvements have taken place. Educational training, rather a novelty in 1922, has now become a practical reality. It is indeed an integral part of the normal training of the soldier, both British and Indian. Great progress has been made in raising the general standard of education of the British soldier. This has largely been achieved by the gradual standardization of the syllabuses for the 3rd and 2nd Class Education Certificates. Neither of these syllabuses aims too high, and both clearly lay down what is to be taught. The result is that with very little practice, the average regimental officer and non-commissioned officer can now undertake the educational training of the rank and file with confidence and success. The connection between the practical military training of the soldier and his educational training is kept by the rule that the papers in two subjects of the examination will be conducted entirely regimentally. In consequence, Regimental History and Map Reading papers are now set and corrected by a Board of Regimental Officers, whilst the remaining papers are dealt with by Army Educational Corps officers. As regards the higher standards, progress has been maintained. Many more non-commissioned officers and men obtain 1st Class and Special Certificates of Education. Arrangements have also been made for holding the external examinations of the London University in India for Army personnel, also for holding the various examinations of the Royal Society of Arts.

School of Education, Belgaum.

485. The School of Education, where regimental instructors are trained, has been moved from Wellington to Belgaum, and has for the purpose of administration been amalgamated with the Indian School. The new school is now divided into a British Wing and an Indian Wing. At the British Wing, short refresher courses are also held for Army Educational Corps officers, and warrant and non-commissioned officers to bring them up to date and, in the case of new arrivals, to instruct them in Indian conditions. It is no longer necessary, however, for all British Service officers to attend a course at the school before promotion to Captain's rank.

Vocational Training.

486. Considerable progress in vocational training has been made on the lines indicated in the last review. There are at present about 1,000 British soldiers, who are due to leave India shortly, who are learning Engineering, Building and miscellaneous trades. In addition, a number of men are sent

home from India in sufficient time to undergo vocational training at the Home Centres, before their dates for discharge. This number has just been increased from 100 to 500 per annum.

British soldiers' children.

487. The Army has steadily endeavoured to improve the facilities for the education of British soldiers' children. The difficulties attendant on this branch of education are very great; the frequent moves to and from the hills, the shortage of trained instructors and the unsatisfactory conditions of living for schoolmistresses are the chief of these. In 1926, however, a scheme was instituted whereby instead of employing Army schoolmistresses arrangements were made to obtain the services of London County Council schoolmistresses on three year contracts. Children's education is a branch distinct in itself, and few of the Army Educational Corps personal are experienced or trained in it. Steps are being taken to remedy this and, in order to assist the Army Educational Corps personnel and schoolmistresses, non-commissioned officers attending Physical Training Courses are now instructed in the exercises suitable for children. Special grants have been made to General Officers Commanding Districts and Independent Brigades for the improvement of British Army Children's schools, and for the provision of up to date apparatus, books, furniture and general equipment. Eight scholarships are awarded annually (four for boys and four for girls), each of a value of Rs. 480 per annum and tenable for three years. The examination for these scholarships takes place in December each year, and the children gaining them are enabled to continue their education at approved secondary schools in India.

The Lawrence Royal Military Schools.

488. The Lawrence Royal Military Schools are situated at the following four places.

Sanawar—Simla Hills.

Ghora Gali—Murree Hills.

Mount Abu—Rajputana.

Lovedale—Ootacamund.

These schools were founded originally with the object of getting the children of British soldiers out of the plains in the hot weather. Their scope has been expanded to a varying degree in each school, but they are primarily intended for the children of British soldiers. Each school has a priority list of categories according to which children are admitted.

The Sanawar school admits the children of British soldiers only and accommodates 500 boys and girls. No difficulty is experienced in keeping this school up to its full complement. The school is now directly under the Army Department and is administered and controlled by a Board of Governors, of which the President is His Excellency the Commander-in-Chief in India. During the last few years the school has been reorganized so as to give a higher type of education than

it could previously undertake. The Ghora-Gali school admits children of both civilians and soldiers, and is controlled by the Punjab Government. It receives an annual grant from Army funds. The Mount Abu and Lovedale schools both take in the children of British soldiers and others, and are controlled by local Boards of Management. Both schools receive large annual grants from Army funds.

The Indian Soldier.

489. It is in the educational training of the Indian soldier that the greatest strides have been made. There was at one time a tendency for Indian Army educational training to be confined to school teaching and to develop on narrow lines. The Indian Army Educational Corps was in consequence in danger of becoming a band of teaching specialists, and has been abolished. After its abolition, educational officer and non-commissioned officer appointments were created in all Units. Thus, as in the British Army, the responsibility of the educational training of the rank and file falls on the regimental officer and non-commissioned officer. Educational instructors in Indian units are now sound, practical Indian officers and non-commissioned officers who have been through a course of nearly a year at the Army School of Education. The school curriculum aims at teaching students how to improve the general standard of intelligence and education of their men, with a view to making them better soldiers and better citizens. This is achieved by a syllabus which is a judicious mixture of definite instruction in the various educational subjects, in semi-military subjects, such as report writing and map reading, of games which are educative as well as athletic, and of lectures by students on general subjects. Roman Urdu is now definitely established as the *lingua franca* of the Indian Army, and no students leave the school until they are proficient in it. All Military Training Manuals are now written in Roman Urdu, and Text Books and Readers are in process of being issued. English is taught to as many Indian officers and non-commissioned officers as are likely to profit by such instruction. A Training Manual has been published for the Indian Army which states clearly the aims of the training.

Certificates.

490. Certificates of Education for Indian personnel have been instituted and the syllabus for each promulgated. The Certificates in question are as follows:—

(*a*) Indian Army Special Certificate of Education.
(*b*) Indian Army 1st Class Certificate of Education.
(*c*) Indian Army 2nd Class Certificate of Education.
(*d*) Indian Army 3rd Class Certificate of Education.
(*e*) Indian Army Recruits Test.

The syllabus of the Indian Army Special Certificate examination covers a wide field, including Geography, Indian History, English, Roman Urdu, Mathematics, Map Reading.

Citizenship and General Knowledge, and arrangements for the conduct of this examination are made by Army Headquarters. Arrangements for the conduct of the Indian Army 1st Class Certificate are made by General Officers Commanding Districts, and the papers are set and marked by a Board of Officers under district arrangements. The Indian Army 2nd and 3rd Class Certificates and the Recruits Test are conducted under unit arrangements.

King George's Royal Indian Military Schools.

491. The King George's Royal Indian Military Schools were referred to in the 1917-22 review. Two King George's schools, one at Jhelum (Aurangabad Serai) and the other at Jullundur, have been built and equipped, and were opened in September, 1925. The money for these buildings was supplied from the King Emperor's Patriotic Fund. At the start it was found that boys came forward hesitatingly. They are now full to the 3/5th complement, and little difficulty is contemplated in getting the annual quotas of 1/5th each in September 1928 and 1929 which will bring them up to full strength. These two schools cater for the children of Indian soldiers enlisted from the North-West Frontier Province and from the Western Punjab, and their progress up to date has been most satisfactory. The building of a third school in the United Provinces for Jats, Rajputs and other classes enlisted from the Eastern Punjab, Rajputana and the United Provinces has been sanctioned by the Secretary of State for India. Ultimately, as funds become available, it is intended to establish four more schools in order to accommodate the children of all other classes enlisted in the Indian Army.

The Kitchener College.

492. The proposal to open the Kitchener College at New Delhi was referred to in the last Quinquennial Review. Its opening was postponed for financial reasons. In order to avoid heavy initial expenditure, a start will be made without any elaborate building programme by utilizing, as a temporary measure, the existing vacant British Infantry barracks at Nowgong as the first home of the Kitchener College. The primary object of the Kitchener College will be the improvement of the standard of Troop and Platoon Commanders in the Indian Army. The college will, in fact, be an institution for the higher training of junior Indian officers and non-commissioned officers.

The Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College, Dehra Dun.

493. The Prince of Wales' Royal Indian Military College, Dehra Dun, was started in 1922, and is open to the sons of Indian gentlemen, both Civil and Military, who intend to adopt the Army, Royal Air Force or the Indian Marine as their permanent career. The college is at present in process of expansion from its original 70 boys to 120 by increments of seven a year. The expansion will be completed in 1932. The object of the college is to produce candidates for the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich; the Royal Military College, Sandhurst; the Royal Air Force Cadet College, Cranwell; and the Royal Indian Marine, by providing an education on the lines of an English Public School up to

the standard required for passing the Army or Air Force entrance examinations. Whilst at the college, the cadets are trained in such a way that they may, with confidence, be expected to graduate from the Cadet Colleges in England and be fit in all respects to receive King's Commissions. An examination known as "Royal Indian Military College Diploma Examination" was instituted at the college in 1927, in order to safeguard the interests of those students who do not succeed in obtaining entrance to the Army, Air Force or Marine. This diploma examination, which is identical with that prescribed for the Chiefs' Colleges Diploma, is recognised by the Indian Universities, and enables students on leaving the College to continue their education at a stage suitable to their age and attainments.

CHAPTER XII.

LIBRARIES.

General. 494. The importance of libraries in the educational uplift of the country has not yet received as much attention in India as it deserves. The library as an instrument of education has too often been neglected and, speaking generally, it has so far failed to render adequate assistance in the retention of literacy among the people of India. There are several good libraries which contain rare collections of old documents, manuscripts and other records. Such libraries, however, are principally for research workers, and the scope of their utility is limited to the select few who are sufficiently educated to be able to make use of them. They are not for the great bulk of the literate public. What India needs to-day, besides the ordinary school and college libraries, are small public libraries of which there are very few, containing useful and simply written books on general knowledge, on history, on biography, on fiction, on mythology and on science, together with a supply of simple periodicals including newspapers. These libraries, one of which should be found in each important village and at least one in each town, will cater for the needs of both the English knowing and the vernacular reading public, but the vernacular side will preponderate in village libraries. The lack of such libraries in villages is to some extent responsible for the relapse into illiteracy of pupils who after completing the primary school course return to their homes to take up their hereditary occupation of agriculture. If schemes of compulsory primary education are needed to educate the masses of India, the establishment of suitable village libraries is of equal importance to keep them literate and to extend the bounds of their knowledge, after their formal schooling ceases.

495. Libraries, especially village libraries, are needed from both a cultural and an educational point of view. Their spread depends principally, however, upon the availability of funds and unless sufficient money is forthcoming to finance such libraries it is scarcely possible to make much headway with the movement. It is doubtful whether adequate funds can be set apart from public revenues for the purpose of founding and maintaining public libraries, so that we must look to private munificence and effort to assist in this direction. It will take time before the people of India realise the advantages of such libraries and recognise that they cannot rest content with the introduction of compulsory primary education but that they will also have to make an effort to see established in each town and large village a library with reading room.

But while the financial aspect of the question is of prime importance it is not everything and, however well-equipped a library may be, it has little chance of yielding all the public benefit of which it is capable unless it is placed in the hands of a capable librarian. Library management is a profession in itself and only those trained therein can render libraries real centres of study, culture and dissemination of knowledge. It is therefore important that librarians should have had some training especially if they are to be employed in one of the larger libraries. It is too much to expect that small libraries will be able to afford the expense of employing a trained librarian. The Punjab University has arranged periodically classes for the training of librarians and similar classes are also held elsewhere, for example in Baroda State.

496. The remarks in this chapter have reference, however, not so much to public libraries as to libraries attached to educational institutions. Such libraries may be divided into University libraries, College libraries, and School libraries. They all serve a two-fold purpose; they supply books for the use of the teacher and researcher and they cater for the needs of the scholar. It has often been stated that libraries are not used by students to the extent to which they should be used. This is partly due to the vicious habit of cramming prevalent in the country—a habit which is not conducive to general reading. But apart from this a fault also lies to some extent with the teachers as they do not always assist their students, as they might assist them, with helpful hints on the choice of books for general reading which may be suitable to their studies. Again the absence of a literary or cultural atmosphere in the majority of the homes of the pupils is reflected in the paucity of general interests which an Indian boy has compared with his equals in other countries. Whatever be the ruling factors the result is obvious, namely, lack of general knowledge and of interest in subject, outside their studies among Indian students. A man with a brilliant school career or an Honours degree at the University has frequently so meagre a stock of general information that his general conversation is confined to subjects of purely personal or domestic interest. It is, however, observed in some places that the apathy of students towards general reading is slowly but surely being overcome and that libraries are now being used to a greater extent than formerly.

University libraries.

497. The libraries attached to Universities naturally cater largely for the needs of advanced students and research workers. Most of these libraries are well-equipped and well-managed. In many cases, special departmental libraries are also maintained in addition to the general University Library to meet the special needs of individual departments of studies.

The size of the various University Libraries is indicated below:—

University Library.	No. of Volumes.
1. Calcutta	Over 100,000
2. Bombay	25,160
3. Madras	44,460
4. Punjab	53,644
5. Allahabad	62,268
6. Benares Hindu	50,000
7. Mysore	14,640
8. Patna	6,886
9. Osmania	19,807
10. Aligarh Muslim	25,000
11. Rangoon	25,500
12. Lucknow	31,000
13. Dacca	54,000*
14. Delhi	6,000
15. Nagpur	(No information).
16. Andhra	6,000

NOTE.—The figures for Madras, Allahabad and Dacca are for 1926-27, while the rest are for 1925-26. In most cases, only approximate figures are given. The figures for Rangoon are for the libraries belonging to its two constituent colleges at Rangoon.

The extent to which these libraries are being used is indicated by the following figures for three of the Universities:—

University.	Year.	No. of Books issued.
Madras	1922-23	21,491
	1923-24	21,566
	1924-25	23,694
	1925-26	29,655
	1926-27	46,126
Allahabad	1922-23	3,144
	1923-24	3,855
	1924-25	7,344
	1925-26	10,344
	1926-27	13,176
Dacca	1922-23	28,000
	1923-24	32,263
	1924-25	38,444
	1925-26	44,455
	1926-27	40,384

The fall in the number of issues during 1926-27 in the Dacca University as compared with the previous year was due to the desertion of the library by the students on account of the district riots for six weeks and a much earlier closing of the University for the Puja Vacation on account of an influenza epidemic in one of the University Halls. The figures given above however may be regarded as typical and show a gradual increase in the number of books taken by students. The

* Including Sanskrit and Bengali manuscripts which are not kept in the main library.

number of readers has likewise increased in all Universities; for example, the number of readers in the Madras University Library was 14,467 in 1922-23; it rose to 32,521 in 1926-27. A few remarks on the individual libraries may be of interest.

498. The Madras University Library Committee was reconstituted in 1924. The Librarian was deputed in 1924-25 to undergo a course of training in the School of Librarianship of the University of London and to study the organisation of some important University and other libraries of Europe. The Library finances have been reorganised and the annual provision for the purchase of books and periodicals has been increased from Rs. 6,000 to Rs. 36,000, inclusive of the recurring grant sanctioned by the Government of Madras. During the period under review, the Madras Government also paid an additional non-recurring grant of Rs. 65,000 to the library for the purchase of rare books and back volumes of periodicals. The question of constructing new buildings for the accommodation of the library on some suitable site is still under consideration.

499. Since the re-organisation of the Allahabad University the library has developed considerably and the number of books has appreciably increased. The Muir Central College Library was amalgamated with the General Library and 5,443 publications, excluding Scientific books, were transferred to the latter. The working rules were revised to render it more easily accessible to the reading public. It now possesses up-to-date literature in all subjects and is possibly one of the best consulting libraries in Upper India. During the quinquennium, a sum of Rs. 60,000 was spent in India and £5,211 abroad on the purchase of books and periodicals and the allotment for the library has been increased from Rs. 8,000 a year to Rs. 10,000 a year. There were many changes in its location during the period under review. In 1922, it was removed from its old building to the newly acquired buildings of the Indian Press; it was again transferred to the old buildings in 1924, and the whole of this building is now at the disposal of the library. The Departments of History and Economics, which formerly occupied a portion of the library buildings, have been transferred to another place, and there is now plenty of accommodation available in the library building for expansion.

500. The growth of the Lucknow University Library has been remarkable. In 1922, the Canning College handed over about 13,000 volumes to the library; the University added 18,925 volumes in 1925-26 at a cost of Rs. 1,64,485, and a sum of Rs. 5,000 is being spent annually towards the subscription of 237 periodicals.

501. The growth of the Dacca University Library necessitated further extension and alterations to the library accommodation. More furniture and additional shelving were provided in the General Science sections, which are well-equipped with periodicals, the collection of which is reported

to be unique in its large number and representative character. The collection of Sanskrit and Bengali manuscripts to the number of about 10,000 is now kept as a separate section of the library. It contains some very rare and ancient manuscripts. During the quinquennium, a sum of Rs. 1,86,992 was contributed to the library; of this sum, Rs. 1,13,492 was paid for capital charges. The recurring grant stood at Rs. 20,000 per annum in 1926-27.

502. The Nagpur University Library is located in a special building which has been erected at a total cost of about Rs. 90,000. A sum of Rs. 18,000 was spent during the quinquennium on the purchase of books, etc. The Central Provinces Government gave a grant of Rs. 65,000 for the building and Rs. 12,500 for the purchase of books and publications, while the ruling chief of the Korea Durbar donated Rs. 5,000 to the library, which also received a gift of 542 volumes (mostly non-scientific books) from the Second Class Scientific Library.

503. The Andhra University Library, which was established in 1926 at Bezwada, received the following gifts:—

(*a*) Rao Bahadur D. Lakshminarayan, M.L.C., Kamptee (Central Provinces), presented his library to the University and the collection was named after him.

(*b*) Mr. T. Rajagopala Rao, B.A., of the South Indian Research Institute, Madras, gave a collection of books to the University.

(*c*) Mr. Pindyala Subrahmanya Sastri, R.C.H. School, Pithapuram, presented 201 literary works in Telugu written on palm leaves.

504. Detailed accounts of the working and development of other University libraries are not available, but the accounts given above are fairly representative and serve to show that, on the whole, University libraries have been doing good work and that their expansion has been very satisfactory. They are managed by competent librarians and the arrangement of books is in most libraries on the Dewey-Decimal system or on a modification of that system.

College libraries.

505. Libraries are attached to all Colleges, the largest being usually located in Government Colleges. Some of them are exceptionally well-equipped, the Presidency College Library in Calcutta, for instance, possessing about 45,000 volumes. But, speaking generally, college libraries vary enormously in size according to the size and the importance of the colleges themselves. Not many, however, are possessed of large or up-to-date collections. It is also doubtful whether all college libraries are under the control of trained librarians. While their condition is in general not unsatisfactory, there is still room for improvement, both in the number and quality of their books and in their classification and control.

School libraries.

506. On the other hand, things are far different in the case of school libraries; their condition is generally not so satisfactory as one would wish. The following remarks in the Bengal Quinquennial Report on Education are pertiment:— "The reports of Inspectors draw attention to the inadequacy of school libraries; and yet perhaps they should not be called inadequate, for the few books have fewer readers. This is again part of the 'wheel', the chain of cause and effect, for the general system of cram makes extra reading superfluous for examination and indisposes the boy to read for the pleasure of it." These remarks are applicable to a greater or less degree to most provinces in India. It is reported that in the United Provinces the annual allotment for expenditure on books for the library is too small in most aided and in many Government schools. The Director observes that "while it is true that there are several schools in which boys are taught how to make proper use of the library and where they are encouraged to read books, there seems to be little doubt that both boys and teachers read fewer books than formerly, and that the deterioration in this respect is associated with the change from English to the vernacular language as the medium of instruction in the middle section". The high school libraries, however, are in a much better condition than those of the middle schools or the middle sections of high schools. The dearth of suitable literature in the vernacular is probably mainly responsible for the poor equipment of the vernacular section of such libraries. But at the same time it is often not possible to equip these libraries with whatever literature is available, owing to lack of funds.

507. It is gratifying to be able to note however, that improvements have been effected in many provinces. In 1921, the Government of the United Provinces decided to embark, with the assistance of local boards, on an extensive programme for the establishment of vernacular school libraries. Three types of libraries were suggested—(*i*) for primary schools, (*ii*) for middle schools, and (*iii*) for training classes. Government proposed to pay one-half of the cost, both recurring and non-recurring. In 1925-26, middle vernacular school libraries were started as an experimental measure in a few districts. The scheme was extended to other districts in the following year and it has now been introduced into all the districts of the province and is ensured a fair trial with good hope of success.

508. Another important scheme, namely, the establishment of circulating and travelling libraries in districts was launched by the United Provinces Government during the period under review. In 1924, that Government decided to establish, as an experimental measure in 1925-26, circulating libraries in a few selected districts in accordance with the recommendations of a Committee appointed to advise Government on this and allied matters. Three districts were accordingly selected for this purpose in 1925-26 and the district